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Global Trends, Dynamics, and Imperatives for Strategic Development in Business Education in an Age of Disruption

Anatoly Zhuplev and Robert Winslow Koepp

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Preface

Innovation drives economic progress. Most noticeably manifest in the invention and adoption of new technologies, innovation in recent years has been remarkedly pronounced in digital technology and the transformations to business and society that wide-scale digitization brings. The disruptions underway are unprecedented, especially regarding the degrees to which what were once considered purely human—indeed, proof of humanity's superlative abilities—capacities for cognition and creativity are now being handled digitally in the realms of machine learning, automation, and artificial intelligence. Educators can take some solace knowing that (so far) the "rise of the robots" has yet to spur a movement to replace flesh-and-blood instructors with those run by algorithm. Yet even without that direct challenge to the profession, educators—business educators in particular—should recognize the growing need to strategize around and respond to what this current Age of Disruption signifies, whether as subject matter in their curricula or as an integral component of their pedagogical technique and means of delivering instruction.

What has come to be known as the Fourth Industrial Revolution (abbreviatedly styled 4IR or Industry 4.0) encompasses concepts stretching beyond the growing prevalence of digitized information and information processing to include the rise of hybrid technology platforms that combine a broad range of scientific fields including communications and life sciences and the highly exotic realms of nanotechnology and quantum physics. To date, organizations have harnessed what can be considered merely the embryonic stage of Industry 4.0's transformative powers. Far more disruption can be expected to follow. As this latest wave of successive Industrial Revolutions plays out, the dynamics of the nature, magnitude, and speed of change unleashed calls for proactive study and analysis. Here too, business educators will need to explore ways to adapt and to reconfigure their discipline to stay not only relevant, but ideally perceptive enough to enable scholars and practitioners to better anticipate and prepare for whatever lies ahead.

The sweep of innovation throughout history and the wave of change unleashed by the Fourth Industrial Revolution represent long-term, secular forces whose antecedents are reasonably identifiable and current developments relatively observable. For all their mystery, they are in general knowable. Coronavirus disease 2019 (Covid-19), which leapt on to the global stage in early 2020 from what was for most of the outside world the unfamiliar Chinese city of Wuhan, represents a sudden, unexpected, and—owing to its fundamental characteristic of rapid mutation—in key respects unknowable disruptive force. Compared to the long running, thematic, economically oriented disruptors of technological innovation and 4IR, the biologically spread Covid-19 global pandemic stands as an outlier and, if vaccination worldwide efforts eventually succeed, hopefully a temporary one. Despite these inherent dissimilarities, more than any other factor, Covid has hastened a mass worldwide migration towards digitization and supercharged the rollout of the Fourth Industrial Revolution. For educators, the Covid-induced necessity to adopt remote

learning instruction through online platforms has impacted all disciplines. For business education, the implications are myriad and sure to last far beyond periods of mandated social distancing due to Covid.

Along with addressing the subjects of innovation, Industry 4.0, and the need to grapple with Covid around the world, this book's contributors provide a wide spectrum of geographically and topically based perspectives. Certain chapters further examine such concepts as educational finance, development economics, cross-cultural learning, transnational and global norms, sustainability, and corporate training. The combination of focus and diversity in subject matter offers readers with the dual benefits of depth and breadth.

Clayton Christensen (1997) in *The Innovator's Dilemma: When New Technologies Cause Great Firms to Fail*, concludes his monumental work noting key implications of the predicament confronting established organizations:

Despite their endowments in technology, brand names, manufacturing prowess, management experience, distribution muscle, and just plain cash, successful companies populated by good managers have a genuinely hard time doing what does not fit their model for how to make money. Because disruptive technologies rarely make sense during the years when investing in them is most important, conventional managerial wisdom at established firms constitutes an entry and mobility barrier…

Replacing terms like "manufacturing" with "education", "companies" and "firms" with "business schools" and "universities", "managers" with "professors", "make money" with "generate knowledge", and "managerial wisdom" with "pedagogical thinking", and the core message of Christensen's words provide an obvious warning as well as a resounding call-to-action for business studies educators and administrators. A time of disruption means a time that sustainably successful organizations will learn, re-envision their structures, and adapt. This is not a time for raising barriers to change, but for strategizing the best means to embrace change and enhance organizational performance going forward. The imperative applies as much to firms as it does universities or any form of organizational unit.

Disruption signals a time to invest for the future and reconfigure existing operational models to fit altered realities. Rising to the task is far from easy, but nevertheless necessary in order to thrive. For the global business education community, hopefully the contents of this book will help advance an understanding of the types of challenges and opportunities that can be seized upon while providing a basis for effective strategies to move ahead.

ORGANIZATION OF THE BOOK

True to its intentions, *Global Trends, Dynamics, and Imperatives for Strategic Development in Business Education in an Age of Disruption* draws upon contributors hailing from a variety of geographies and business disciplines who offer differing approaches to and conclusions about the book's themes. Chapter authors have institutional affiliations with or individual backgrounds in North America, South America, Europe, the Middle East, Russia, South Asia, and East Asia. All 22 authors are attached to centers of higher learning, but many engage in business science not only as academics but as practitioners.

Further supporting the book's aim to interweave dimensions of theory and practice, the editors are pleased to include essays from three students who at the time of writing were pursuing business degrees. Their chapters, the final three of this book, share useful viewpoints from the receivers' side of business

education. Whereas those who most directly benefit from advances in business science are the people who staff and manage business organizations, the immediate consumers of the science of business education are of course students undertaking business studies. In this regard, the book hopes to provide more than just practical insight but genuine "consumer insight" to better understand the importance and impact of trends, dynamics, and imperatives in business education.

The book is organized into 13 chapters. A sequential overview of their contents follows:

Chapter 1, "Business Education in the USA," investigates the drivers, dynamics, and developments of business education in American colleges and universities. Historically rooted in medieval Europe, American business education has evolved through multiple phases and four industrial revolutions. In the current COVID-influenced environment, business schools in the United States face difficulties ranging from stagnant domestic and falling international student enrollments to skyrocketing college tuition fees combined with ballooning student loan burdens. Illuminating the implications of the 4th Industrial Revolution and emerging socio-economic trends for B-schools, the chapter discusses developmental trends, outlooks, and emerging instructional innovations.

Chapter 2, "The Transnationalization of Business Education," retraces how recent decades have witnessed the emergence and growth of transnational higher education, within which business studies are especially prominent owing to their wide appeal for students. The chapter begins by situating transnational higher education within the context of internationalized higher education more broadly. It then characterizes transnational higher education, enumerating various definitions and transnationalization modes, and finally rationalizes transnational higher education from a geo-political/economic perspective.

Chapter 3, "University Business Education for the 'New Global Normal,'" studies the effect of Covid-19 on university business education within the framework of a post-pandemic era that has created a 'new global normal.' The author argues that the speed at which a nation's society and economy recovers in this new normal relates to the degree that businesses and university business educational institutions manage to reinvent themselves. The chapter suggests university business education focus on entrepreneurial leadership while navigating a delicate balance between practice and theory to meet the vicissitudes of post-pandemic uncertainty.

Chapter 4, "Business Education in Japan," offers insights into the Japanese business education landscape, where corporations dominate the role of educational providers because of an emphasis on on-the-job-training for managers. Yet low economic growth rates persisting after the collapse of Japan's bubble economy from 1990 and dramatic changes in the global environment have spurred a rethink for many Japanese companies, which now incorporate off-the-job education through business schools in their management education mix. Considering the changing dynamics of Japanese business education norms, the chapter discusses issues and opportunities for business schools, recent developments, and future prospects.

Chapter 5, "Teaching Cross-cultural Competence in a Smart Machine Age," investigates how the dawn of a Smart Machine Age and the accompanying further reduction in barriers to interpersonal interactions across borders creates increased demand for skills in cross-cultural competence (CC). With an emerging consensus that non-traditional pedagogies centered on experiential learning are a preferred means to teach CC, the chapter illustrates the efficacy of international service learning, showcasing an innovative social entrepreneurship project undertaken at Florida International University and involving a partnership between a student organization, an NGO, and a women's self-help group in India.

Chapter 6, "Sustainable Study Abroad," explores the growing popularity of study abroad programs for business students. Apart from myriad benefit to the students who undertake foreign studies, host countries gain economically and through enhanced global connectivity. Yet issues with over-visitation for highly popular destinations (Venice, Barcelona) occur alongside problems with pronounced lack of interest to study in countries in Africa and the Middle East despite the growing importance of these regions to the global economy. Exploring such challenges, the chapter recommends more sustainable study abroad destination choices.

Chapter 7, "Reflecting and Adapting to an Academic Workplace Before and After the Lockdown in Greek-Speaking Cyprus," analyzes findings from study of 36 academics around the time of the global pandemic lockdown at a private English-speaking higher education institution in Cyprus where the traditional form of a university as an academic center has been pushed to include more practical learning, especially in response to demand for business education. The chapter demonstrates how academics reflect and adapt to enhance their workplace literacy and work-related practices inside and outside a foreign language classroom.

Chapter 8, "From Face-to-Face Education to Online Education," reviews how in the wake of Covid-19, traditional business education has adopted new modalities, prioritizing virtual education and distance learning (e-learning). Taking the example of Lima, Peru-based ESAN University (Latin America's first graduate business school) and its complete transition to online education delivery, the chapter illustrates that, despite numerous obstacles, student learning experiences can be enhanced by the move to e-learning. The chapter concludes with recommendations on how other institution can implement similar transformations.

Chapter 9, "The Digitization of Pakistan's Universities," examines the need for higher educational institutes to focus on helping students develop the skills that enable them to work with intelligent machines in the era of the digitally driven 4th Industrial Revolution. The author notes that while industry and universities in the developed world are relatively quick to embrace digitization trends, developing economies such as Pakistan often lag behind. The chapter offers suggestions and recommendations for university administrators and policy makers in Pakistan to prepare future generations to thrive in the digital era.

Chapter 10, "Why Do Students Prefer a Business Administration Education?" considers factors that influence the decisions of students to major in business studies. The authors factor in a broad range of parameters, from personality types and work-life balance preferences to earnings potential and career advancement through a survey of senior-year undergraduates across different universities. The chapter identifies job prestige, social status, income potential, career opportunities, family considerations, and personal disposition as key factors in the decision-making process.

Chapters 11-13 feature contributions from three students of diverse cultural backgrounds who are currently pursuing business degrees. Perspectives include those on how students view the benefits and limitations of business education in America, particularly in light of radically changed circumstances brought on by Covid. Another compares perceptions of business degrees in the US, Brazil, and Europe and their reputational powers within their respective home countries and abroad. A third explains differences in business education between Japan and America, paying particular attention to differing views of entrepreneurism. These essays offer insider perspectives from the receiving side of global trends and dynamics in business education.

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Chapter 1
Business Education in the USA: Evolution, Strategic Disruptors, and Implications

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ABSTRACT

The chapter explores drivers, dynamics, and developments of business education in American colleges and universities. A contemporary business education in the U.S. is historically rooted in medieval Europe. It has progressed through several developmental stages and four industrial revolutions. Critical drivers affect American universities and colleges, bringing about strategic disruptions, technological and pedagogical innovations, and exerting competitive pressures for change on higher education. They also create opportunities for the development and growth in the post-COVID prospective, which is likely to be different from previous patterns and trends. These factors of impact range from stagnant domestic and falling international student enrollments, high student loan debt burden, and skyrocketing college tuition to the devastating impacts of the COVID pandemic. In examination of implications of the 4IR and emerging socio-economic trends for B-schools, the chapter discusses developmental trends, outlook, and emerging instructional innovations.

INTRODUCTION

Business Education in the USA commences by tracing the origins and genesis of American business education as a historical and cultural foundation of its contemporary strategic landscape and dynamics. Based on this retrospective, the discussion examines main emerging technological and socio-economic trends stemming from several developmental stages, including the impending Fourth Industrial Revolution and its impacts on business schools. The chapter looks at the driving forces, trends, and pedagogi-

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cal concepts in business education, as well as critical factors, strategic imperatives, and instructional innovations in support of the advancement of business education.

The chapter is divided into two main sections. The first of them, *Business Education in the USA: Evolution and Revolutions*, traces the origins and genesis of American universities and colleges of higher education, explores the industry's contemporary strategic landscape and dynamics, and examines the impacts of the Fourth Industrial Revolution on B-schools. The second section, *Disruptors in Business Education: Strategic Implications*, looks at the drivers, dynamics, and instructional approaches in business education. The chapter deliberates some impactful concepts and pedagogies.

American higher education as a socio-economic institution is versed in the nation's history. The contemporary Western university model stems from medieval Europe where academic curriculum and scholarship at the time have been centered on natural philosophy, logic, medicine, theology, mathematics, astronomy, astrology, law, grammar, rhetoric, to humanism, liberal arts, and other disciplines. The advent of the First Industrial Revolution (1IR) has been marked for universities by shift in beginning to publish their own research journals with the view of expanding scholarly horizons and funding associated with the 1IR. By the 19th century, the German and the French university models had gained prominence, proliferated across Europe, and arrived to the U.S. The Humboldtian university model, based on liberal ideas grounded in academic freedom, scholarly seminars, and laboratories, has gained wide appeal and acceptance across America. Over the past two centuries, the world's socio-economic landscape has experienced profound changes under the four industrial revolutions amplified by globalization.

Technological and socio-economic changes manifesting themselves in major industrial revolutions, particularly the latest Third Industrial Revolution and Fourth Industrial Revolution, exert strong impacts at the current developmental stage in the U.S. and other leading nations worldwide. These forces accelerate the dynamics of business environment and generate development opportunities. On the other hand, they also bring about the churn of "creative distraction." On a massive scale, this causes some organizations, whole industries, and economic sectors to vanish from the socio-economic and business landscape or experience shocks under impacts of competitive forces, innovations, and emerging new industries, alternative business models, and formats. In the wake of these unfolding developments, universities and colleges and the whole industry of higher education face new trends, shifting paradigms, and pressures for change and innovation.

Exploration of these trends in the chapter is followed by a discussion of critical impact factors affecting higher education in the America. First, government continues to play a major role as source of funding for public universities and colleges; this funding depends on student enrollment with most students attending larger colleges and universities. Le (2021) reports that the state and federal government provide an estimated 40% of total funding for postsecondary education each, while almost all of their contributions come from budget appropriations for the funding of their respective public schools. In contrast, private universities and colleges at large financially depend on their tuition, auxiliary enterprises, donations and endowments. Second, the already high and continuing to skyrocket tuition exerts a downward pressure on demand for higher education. This trend is worsened by a massive and ever-growing student loan debt burden nationwide. Third, stagnant national demographics, an "independent variable" in the higher education business model, results in near flat student enrollment trends, thus imposing constraints on revenue generation and government funding. Fourth, for both educational and - particularly - financial reasons American universities and colleges are increasingly relying on attracting international students who, unlike many domestic students, typically pay full tuition. However, international student enrollment levels and respective revenue streams for U.S. degree-granting postsecondary institutions have

been lately negatively affected by the COVID-related travel restrictions and tighter U.S. federal immigration regulations. Fifth, continuing tuition increases, amplified by financial hardships imposed on colleges and universities by COVID-19 create additional difficulties for some students to pursue higher education. Simplistically, when compelled to make a choice between paying for textbooks or rent and grocery bills, many students prioritize the latter. Indicatively, between 2006 and 2016, the Consumer Price Index (CPI) for college tuition and fees in the U.S. increased 6.3% per year on average over the 10-year span. This contrasts with a general CPI increase for all items of just 2.1% per year. Over the same period, average consumer prices for college textbooks increased a whopping 8.8% per year and housing at school (excluding board) increased 5.1% per year. High costs and steep price inflation call into question affordability and ultimately sustainability of higher education for student population at large and place additional downward economic pressure on student enrollments. High national unemployment rates during economic downturns typically imply limited job prospects. Therefore, during periods of high unemployment like during the current COVID-19 pandemic, individuals are more likely to pursue higher education instead of entering the workforce, thus boosting a cyclical demand for higher education. The national unemployment rate is expected to decrease in 2021 (Le, 2021) creating potential grounds for lower post-COVID college enrollments. Lastly, numerous entrepreneurial start-ups and technological innovators that provide online courses, certificates, and other educational and re/upskilling programs will likely continue to gain a robust traction. These innovative, dynamic, and user-friendly platforms strategically challenge curriculum and pedagogies offered by traditional universities and colleges in the increasingly competitive marketplace of educational services.

These forces, emerging trends, paradigms, and scenarios of "creative destruction" caused by the socio-economic changes and impending Fourth Industrial Revolution are critically affecting universities and colleges. With such developments and the looming post-pandemic business environment, there is a likelihood for strategic partnerships to emerge between the world's few largest tech companies and top-tier universities. Under this scenario, the formation of strategic partnerships between corporate market leaders and champions in the world of higher education may foster the development of a mega-oligopolistic structure, a "college-industrial complex" of sorts (Hess & Addison, 2021). This structure emerging on top of the two-tier system in the U.S. can become dominant by strategic alliances of corporate and educational giants such as MIT/Google, Stanford/Apple, or Harvard/ Facebook. At the same time, this wave of "creative destruction" is going to deal a blow to the second echelon of higher educational institutions where numerous "brick-and-mortar" colleges and universities will sustain substantial losses or even go out of business.

The future of work is likely to be a landscape in constant flux characterized by increasingly flexible business formats, job descriptions, and changing career paths. This signals a profound paradigm change for such traditionally "protected" industry like higher education, its business models, academic fields, careers, and educational curriculums. The emerging disruptions may force shifts in academic course offering from a fixed menu of rigid academic disciplines and predefined degrees sequenced in a linear formation oriented toward delivering knowledge to skill development under VUCA (volatility, uncertainty, complexity, ambiguity) imperative. Ultimately, learning the 21st-century skills may require a transition from acquiring technical knowledge of "how-to-do" gained through rote learning to learning to how to learn. This is particularly important for business education, which is interdisciplinary, holistic, and grounded in systemic interdependency rather than separate domains of academic disciplines traditionally claiming to represent the real business world through the lenses of the narrowly specialized marketing, strategy, or organizational behavior.

In examining disruptions, strategic imperatives, and instructional innovations in business education, the chapter looks at several trends developing in a real business world at large beyond instructional boundaries of higher education. First, the advent of new nimble forms of small and medium size enterprises (SMEs), which play increasingly vital socio-economic roles. SMEs are the backbone of the U.S. economy and are key contributors to jobs and economic growth. The 28 million officially registered American SMEs have accounted for nearly 99% of all business entities and about 2/3 of net new private sector jobs in recent decades. SMEs that export tend to grow even faster, create more jobs, and pay higher wages than similar businesses that do not trade internationally (U.S. Small Business Administration, 2020). Business education, its curriculum and pedagogies at colleges and universities should become more relevant to SMEs in contrast to the current business course offerings and textbooks often oriented toward large corporate sector. In part, this can be achieved through the development and application of experiential learning pedagogies grounded in real-life and the integration of open educational resources that are economically affordable – and accessible post-graduation. Second, a shift from a wide-spread top-down classroom lecturing style under the teacher-centered knowledge dissemination model to developing vital skills under a learner-centered pedagogy is another transformational imperative for business education. This shift from merely disbursing knowledge toward skill development should be enhanced by transitioning from traditional expensive stationary textbooks to instructional materials, learning, and analytical tools available in the real time format that is complimentary or inexpensively available via public access on the web. Third, traditional business education in colleges and universities is facing an array of emerging alternative educational platforms such as YouTube, LinkedIn Learning, Khan Academy, and others. These effective, cost-efficient (or complimentary) and user-friendly platforms pose an attractive alternative and strategic challenge to traditional universities and colleges grounded in their heavy reliance on expensive and logistically taxing classroom instruction in "brick and mortar" features. This challenge has been dramatically exacerbated by the advent of COVID-19 that delivered a tectonic jolt to the higher education industry. Fourth, with the proliferation of virtual platforms, "gig" economy, and flexible business format in the real business world, academic institutions must stay relevant and cannot afford to remain heavily dependent on costly and inflexible "brick and mortar" business models and pedagogies of the past. Fifth, in the wake of the impending Fourth Industrial Revolution, higher education is facing higher societal requirements, expectations and new pedagogical imperatives from its own key stakeholders (students and their parents footing the bill, American taxpayers and government agencies having a vital stake in budgetary decisions, employers, local communities, etc.). Ultimately, these factors altogether culminate in the sixth factor: relevance and customer value proposition that colleges and universities offer to its stakeholders in the increasingly competitive market landscape of higher education facing disruption. Under these trends, if academia is to sustain and advance its role in business education it must ensure its relevance and leadership by being ahead of changes taking place in the real business world at best or at least keeping up with these changes and not insulating itself in centuries-long traditions, however attractive in the retrospect.

The chapter culminates in discussing instructional approaches for business education. With the view of an expanding scope and role of online instruction and hybrid format in the current and emerging post-COVID environment, the chapter discusses several instructional innovations and approaches, including flipped classroom, project-based learning, and others.

BUSINESS EDUCATION IN THE USA: EVOLUTION AND REVOLUTIONS

Genesis of the American Business Education

American higher education has grown to become a mature industry (Le, 2020, 2021). Contemporary colleges and universities are deeply rooted in history and tradition where the earliest higher-learning centers in ancient societies have served as institutional foundations and frameworks for scholarly activities. The origins of contemporary Western university as an autonomous organization of scholars can be traced to medieval Europe to the founding of the University of Bologna in 1088 with scholars educating students clustered in their immediate presence (Pipes, 2021). With a passage of time, academic model patterned after the University of Paris has proliferated across Europe. Student members under the Paris system were controlled by faculty "masters" to exist in three prevalent formats: (1) Universities comprised of faculties whose course offering was oriented toward curriculum specialized in subject areas. Under this model, universities leaned toward training specialists. (2) A collegiate or tutorial model patterned after the University of Oxford and University of Cambridge was grounded in decentralized teaching and organization resulting in a knowledge, which was more of a generalist nature. (3) There were also universities that combined these models in variations, using the collegiate model but having a centralized organization (Frijhoff, 1996; Geiger, 2014).

Early European universities initially pursued the subject curriculum and research of the Middle Ages prioritizing the study of natural philosophy, logic, medicine, theology, mathematics, astronomy, astrology, law, grammar, rhetoric, and other disciplines. With the paradigm eventually shifting toward humanism, universities began to transform the study of grammar and rhetoric under the *studia humanitatis*.[1] Humanist professors shifted the thrust of their curriculum, pedagogy, and scholarship from abstract academic disciplines toward the applied ability of students to write and speak with distinction, to translate and interpret classical texts, and to live honorable lives (Grendler, 2002).

The epistemological discourse by university professors, scholars, schools of thought, and universities has been intensified by economic constraints affecting academia during that time: individual scientists, universities, scholarly associations and groups have been competing for limited resources. There was also competition on the part of newly emerging colleges underwritten by private sponsors with a vision of offering free education to the public, or those sponsored by governments in order to provide an affordable educational alternative to traditional universities for the masses. Even when traditional universities supported new scientific endeavors, and the university provided foundational training and authority for the research, they could not compete with the resources available through private benefactors or government.

By the 18th century, with the First Industrial Revolution underway, universities started publishing their own research journals and by the 19th century, the German and the French university models had flourished across Europe. The German or Humboldtian[2] model, based on liberal ideas centered on freedom, scholarly seminars, and laboratories in universities, has gained particular popularity and wide acceptance. The German university model seemed particularly fitting with America's decentralized political-economic system: in contrast to France with its historically strong centralized political governance model, Germany has relied on decentralized governance with the 16 current federal states (länder) playing major role in the nation's political system. Under the German constitution, these federal states (an equivalent of the states in the U.S. system) exert residual or exclusive legislative authority over "culture," which in Germany includes not only topics such as the financial support of arts and sciences, but also most forms of education and job training (German Education System, 2021).

Prior to the 19th century, religion historically played a substantial role in academic curriculum. In the 19th century, the role of religion in research universities modeled after Humboldt University has diminished, and by the end of the century, the German university model had gained a wide appeal around the world. Unlike other major European powers like Britain, Spain, or France, Germany has not been a colonial power and that is perhaps why Humboldtian model had special appeal for America. In the U.S., the Johns Hopkins University was the first to adopt the Humboldtian research university model, which has later proliferated across many other American universities (Turner & Bernard, 1993; Geiger, 2014).

Over the past two centuries, the world has experienced profound transformations compounded under the four industrial revolutions and accelerated by globalization. Higher education has evolved along the way as an important part of this growth.

The First Industrial Revolution (from approximately 1760 to about 1820-1840) unleashed a transition to new manufacturing processes. This transition signified a shift from manual production and use of animal power in cottage industries to machines, new chemical manufacturing and iron production processes, the increasing use of steam power, the development of machine tools, and eventually the rise of the factory system deeply grounded in engineering and scientific management. Colleges and universities have responded by developing an array of higher education programs for engineers. In business area, Management was established as a recognized academic discipline and profession.

The Second Industrial Revolution a.k.a. Technological Revolution took place from approximately 1870 up to the beginning of WWI (Mokyr, 1999). At its core, the Second Industrial Revolution stemmed from earlier innovations in manufacturing, such as the emergence of a machine tool industry, methods for manufacturing interchangeable parts, the invention of the Bessemer steel production process, and others, based on widespread adoption of pre-existing technological systems such as telegraph and railroad networks, or gas and water supply. In the early 20th century, Henry Ford propagated the moving assembly line and ushered in the age of mass production. Higher educational programs with business and career applications in Engineering, Business and Management have gained further ground. At the time, Henri Fayol, a French engineer, has developed his Theory of Industrial and General Administration that grew popular and made a strong contribution to positioning management as respectable profession worldwide (Wren, 2011). First MBA programs in the U.S. (Wharton, Tuck, and Harvard) emerged in the early 20th century as academia's response to a national quest for industrialization with companies increasing demand for scientific management. Notably, the first-year curriculum at the Harvard MBA program in 1908 was grounded in Taylor's scientific management approach (Leach, 1993).

The Third Industrial Revolution currently continues to unfold. Under its forces and dynamics, manufacturing and the whole economy are going digital. A number of remarkable technologies are converging: smart software, novel materials, biologically grounded technologies and products, more dexterous robots, and new manufacturing processes. A wide range of web-based services, technological advances, and cultural shifts have led to the emergence of the so-called sharing economy. The latter, also commonly known as the "gig" economy, drastically transforms the general workforce environment in which short-term engagements, temporary contracts, remote jobs, and independent contracting become commonplace, in contrast to a traditional steady long-term employment pattern (Rifkin, 2011, 2015).

The impending Fourth Industrial Revolution encompasses and integrates a wide range of new technologies that are fusing the physical, digital, and biological worlds and affecting all disciplines, economies, and industries (Schwab, 2016). It involves fast developing technological advances in interactive voice recognition ("personal assistants" named Alexa by Amazon and Siri by Apple), face and image recognition and imitation capabilities, artificial intelligence and machine learning, nanotechnologies,

robotics, the Internet of Things, autonomous vehicles, quantum computing and nanotechnology, among others (Schwab, 2016; Zhuplev, 2018; Huchting et. al, 2020). A critical part of these processes is a fusion, synergetic integration of technological, socio-economic, and business developments and innovations based on increasingly effective and time/cost-efficient information platforms, and advances in transportation and logistics transforming themselves into efficient and flexible global supply chains. These processes foster a dynamic environment and generate exponential development opportunities. On the other hand, they also bring about the churn of "creative distraction" (Schumpeter, 1994) that, on a massive scale, causes numerous organizations, whole industries, and economic sectors to transform or vanish from the face of socio-economic and business landscape under the onslaught of competitive forces, innovations, and emerging new industries. Perpetual disruptive innovations in their technological and socio-economical entirety have exerted profound, wide-ranging impacts on various aspects of life, human activities, natural and social environments. To mention a few examples, the proliferation of smartphones, with their amazing computing capability, imaging power, and universal Internet connectivity, disrupted the watch industry, micro-calculator industry, physical area maps, and GPS-based navigation systems in cars. Digital photography obliterated Polaroid technology, film-based photography and many related industries in the supply chain. Computer word processing exterminated the typewriter. The web-based video streaming technologies, the rise of Amazon, Netflix, and Hulu are eroding the power of Hollywood studios, movie theaters, and cable companies. The list goes on (Zhuplev, 2018).

In the wake of these unfolding forces, drivers, dynamics, and the emerging socio-economic landscape, universities and colleges and the whole industry of higher education face new trends, shifting developmental paradigms, and pressures for change.

Colleges and Universities: Strategic Landscape and Critical Impact Factors

According to the latest annual IBISWorld report "Colleges & Universities in the U.S.", the higher education of today is a mature industry characterized by high entry barriers, significant assistance, low concentration/high fragmentation, limited exposure to globalization and heavy regulations (Le, 2020, 2021). Table 1 summarizes essential drivers and dynamics of colleges and universities.

As of fall 2018, there were approximately 4,000 degree-granting institutions in the U.S. that enrolled both undergraduate and graduate students. Their enrollment size varied from fewer than 200 students to more than 30,000 students.[3] Despite the significant number of small sized degree-granting colleges and universities, most students are enrolled in larger colleges and universities (Hussar et al., 2020). Public colleges and universities depend on government funding as they may not have the endowment and donation network of their private universities' counterparts (Le, 2020, 2021). State and local government funding for public institutions are largely contingent on college enrollment. In 2017–18, total revenue was $409 billion at public institutions, $248 billion at private non-profit institutions, and $13 billion at private for-profit institutions totaling $670 billion (de Brey et al, 2021) and constituting 3.2% of the U.S. GDP in 2020 (United States - Economic Indicators, 2021). This includes $408.9 billion in revenues for public institutions, $248.5 billion for private non-profit institutions, and $13.2 billion for private for-profit institutions. Table 2 compares sources of revenues across the three categories of degree granting postsecondary universities and colleges and shows high financial dependence of public institutions on government support (a 43% share of total revenues). In contrast, private non-profit institutions demonstrate high dependency on tuition and fees (30.5% of total) that, depending on the institution, is partially mitigated by stream of revenues from educational activities, private gifts, grants and contracts,

as well as their endowments. Table 3 depicts historical performance data and outlook for U.S. colleges and universities from 2012 through 2025. During this time span the largest average annual increases have occurred in the industry's added value, revenues, and wages. College enrollment levels have remained stagnant over the years.

Table 1. Colleges and universities: industry structure, strategic drivers, and dynamics; SWOT

Positive impact	
Industry assistance: High	Concentration: Low
Barriers to entry: High	Globalization: Low
Mixed impact	
Life cycle: Mature	Revenue volatility: Medium
Capital intensity: Medium	Technology change: Medium
Competition: Medium	
Negative impact	
Regulation: Heavy	
Key trends	
• Falling demand for undergraduate courses has outweighed an increase in demand for graduate certificates • Driven by growth in tax revenue, government funding for universities has increased • Due to increased government funding, the number of industry operators has increased • The number of international students will likely recover, bolstering industry revenue • Competition from community colleges will likely remain moderate as traditional colleges dominate higher education • Industry institutions are expected to further implement online education programs to lower costs • Operators have been able to maintain steady profit since they often rely on state funding and donations	
Segmentation of products and services	
65.4% Bachelor's degrees; 28.0 Master's degrees; 6.6% Doctor's degrees	
Strengths • High & Steady Barriers to Entry • High & Steady Level of Assistance • Low Imports • High Profit vs. Sector Average • High Revenue per Employee	Weaknesses • High Customer Class Concentration • High Product/Service Concentration • High Capital Requirements
Opportunities • High Revenue Growth (2016-2021) • High Revenue Growth (2021-2026) • High Performance Drivers • Government funding for universities	Threats • Low Revenue Growth (2005-2021) • Low Outlier Growth • Demand from donations, grants and endowment

Table 2. Total revenues of degree-granting postsecondary institutions of higher education, by source of funds: 2017-18, percentage distribution

Sources of funds	Public institutions Total revenues =100%	Private institutions	
		Non-profit Total revenues =100%	For-profit Total revenues = 100%
Educational activities and other	-	8.1	3.5
Investment return, gifts, and other	16.9	-	
Investment return	-	18.3	
Hospitals	13.1	11.8	
Auxiliary enterprises	7.1	7.4	1.1
Private gifts, grants, and contracts	-	12.3	-
Local governments	6.8	0.9*	-
State governments	22.9	-	0.2***
Federal government	13.3	10.6	1.7
Tuition and fees	19.9	30.5	93.5
Total revenues, $ billion	$408.9 b	$248.5 b	$13.2 b

*State and local government combined.
**Educational activities, investment return, gifts, and other activities combined.
***State and local government combined.

The skyrocketing costs have been a critical factor restraining demand for higher education. The combination of increasing tuition costs, stagnant wages, and lower-cost options for learning have exerted pressure on all colleges and universities to innovate and become more efficient (Belkin, 2020; Ip, 2020, Paquette, 2021). Further, a critical component of the high cost of higher education in the U.S. is the exorbitant student loan debt burden (Mitchell, 2020; Pipes, 2021). Over the past three decades between 1990 and 2018, the level of outstanding federal student loan debt grew from zero to $1.3 trillion (Federal Reserve Bank, 2019), comprising now approximately 6% of the GDP, purchasing power parity, and growing. Friedman (2020) reports that student loan debt in 2020 reached about $1.56 trillion, showing how serious the student loan debt crisis has become for borrowers across all demographics and age groups.

Dua et al. point out to two issues that threaten the traditional tuition-reliant financial model for colleges and universities. First, is affordability: to offer financial aid, colleges and universities manage a complicated pricing system in which higher-income and international students effectively subsidize needier ones. Lack of price transparency here feeds into the perception of the increasing costs - and unaffordability - of college. In fact, from 2007–17, net costs rose only 4%, reversing the trend of previous decades. Yet the perception of unaffordability means that some young people might be discouraged from trying to attend: they see the high sticker prices and assume that they are priced out. Second, there are also questions around the cost-benefit value of higher education when debt levels, repayment rates, and other factors are considered. In 2016, median student debt levels have climbed by 45% since 2006,

Table 3. U.S. colleges and universities: historical performance data and outlook

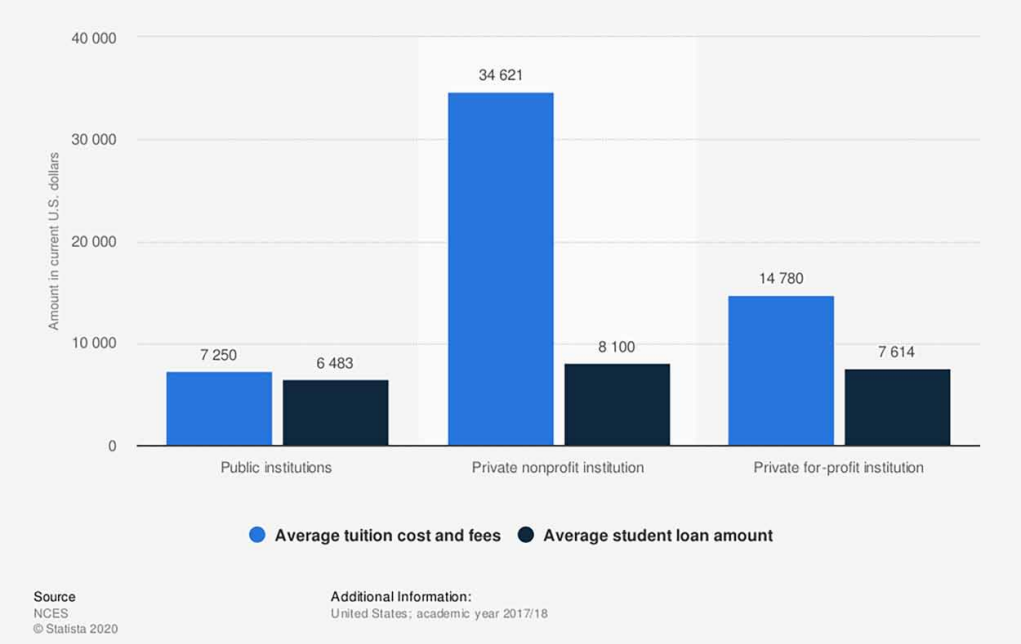
Year	Revenue, $m	IVA, $m	Establishments, units	Enterprises, units	Employment, mm people	Wages, $m	Number of College Students, mm people
2012	427,892	207,846	2,235	1,865	2,777	176,892	20.6
2013	476,961	268,489	2,244	1,872	2,801	180,187	20.4
2014	521,001	321,834	2,278	1,901	2,850	185,934	20.2
2015	468,725	243,915	2,285	1,907	2,865	191,947	20.0
2016	459,710	220,416	2,304	1,923	2,905	196,712	19.8
2017	536,934	290,049	2,318	1,934	2,938	202,192	19.8
2018	542,655	292,772	2,340	1,953	2,983	206,641	19.8
2019	552,612	299,436	2,345	1,958	3,024	209,683	19.9
2020	578,902	314,144	2,399	2,000	3,132	217,655	19.9
2021	580,741	316,642	2,416	2,015	3,152	218,931	20.0
2022	585,187	320,467	2,436	2,031	3,181	220,865	20.0
2023	592,068	325,447	2,461	2,052	3,219	223,525	20.0
2024	600,156	331,438	2,488	2,075	3,263	226,531	20.1
2025	608,308	337,601	2,517	2,098	3,307	229,590	20.2
Avg. annual growth, 2012-25, % points	3.2	4.8	1.0	1.0	1.5	2.3	0

IVA: Industry added value. It is the market value of goods and services produced by the industry minus the cost of goods and services used in production.
Enterprise: A division that is separately managed and keeps management accounts. Each enterprise consists of one or more establishments that are under common ownership or control.
Establishment: The smallest type of accounting unit within an enterprise, an establishment is a single physical location where business is conducted or where services or industrial operations are performed.

while repayment rates have dropped by 24% since 2009. The situation appears to be worsening; in 2016, only 6% of students were at colleges where students left with moderate debt and managed high repayment rates, compared with 54% in 2009. The situation is even worse for students who incur debt but do not graduate and, therefore, do not benefit from the income-raising advantage of a college degree (Dua et al., 2020). Figure 1 depicts tuition and fees as well as an average student loan amount by types of educational institutions.

Enrollment rates, an "independent" demographic variable of the business model for institutions of higher education, have been stagnant over the past several years. Latest estimates suggest that in 2029, U.S. institutions of postsecondary education are expected to enroll approximately 20 million students comprising 5.7% of the total projected population of the U.S. in 2030. That includes 14.2 million students in 4-year institutions and 5.9 million students in 2-year institutions. Among 14.2 million students in 4-year institutions, 9.2 million will be enrolled in public and 5.0 million – in private degree granting institutions (de Brey et al, 2021). While some industry growth is projected, the trend is sluggish at 1.3% - lower than the 2.6% growth in the past five years (Le, 2020, 2021). Meanwhile, the latest data (Hussar et al., 2020; Hussar & Bailey, 2019; de Brey et al, 2021; Korn, 2020; Dua et al., 2020; Boggs et al., 2021) imply flat enrollment patterns rather than more optimistic projections for upward enrollment rates as reported by Le (2021).

Figure 1. Average tuition and fees compared to average student loan amount

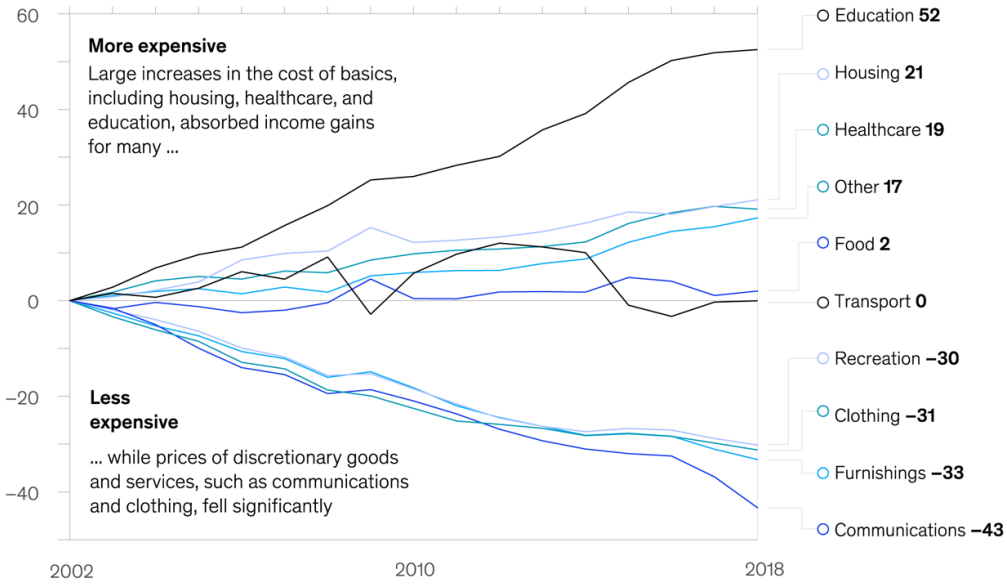


Over the past few decades in a pre-COVID era, one important trend in student enrollment has been a growing role of international students categorized in the U.S. educational statistics as "non-resident aliens." The shares of non-resident aliens in undergraduate student fall enrollment grew three-fold from 0.5% in 1976 to 1.6% in 2018. In post-baccalaureate student enrollment, this trend is also evident: the share of non-resident alien students increased two-fold from 3.7% in 1976 to 7.9% in 2018. To maintain financial feasibility under the long-standing strategic priorities as well as to just withstand a heavy blow of the COVID-inflicted financial blows, universities and colleges across the U.S. have intensified their international student outreach. However, international student enrollment levels and respective revenue streams for U.S. degree-granting postsecondary institutions have been lately crippled by imposition of COVID-related travel restrictions and other complications in the U.S. federal immigration regulations. This negative impact for American higher education is particularly serious financially because most international students pay full tuition compared to the in-state U.S. residents receiving various forms of financial aid. To make matters worse, government financial support for higher education across the nation is experienced sharp decline in 2020 due to the COVID-induced economic deterioration and budgetary losses across the board; many colleges and universities are struggling to stay financially solvent (de Brey et al, 2021; Friga, 2021).

Continuing steep tuition increases constitute another systemic trend making higher education less affordable for some students. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, between January 2006 and July 2016, the Consumer Price Index (CPI) for college tuition and fees increased 63% or 6.3% per year on average over the 10-year span. This contrasts with a CPI increase for all items of just 21% or 2.1% per year. Over the same period, consumer prices for college textbooks increased a whopping 88% (8.8% per year) and housing at school (excluding board) increased 51% or 5.1% per year (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016; McKinsey, 2020). Figure 2 and Figure 3 contrast these trends in the U.S. with

consolidated numbers for 22 OECD countries and reveal U.S.' disadvantage in this comparison. According to the data, inflation in education in the U.S. exceeds this indicator for OECD countries at large by a sizeable 20%-point margin and constitutes a larger 3% share in the overall consumer spending compared to just 2% for OECD. Additionally, in relative terms, inflation in the U.S. education also by wide margin outstrips all other consumer spending items, including housing, healthcare, and food. Moreover, there are reports that lately spending on student services in higher education has been growing four times as fast as spending on instruction. They observe: "While students surely appreciate things like luxury gyms and other services, there is a need to distinguish between what students like and what is necessary to serve the core education mission" (Dua et al., 2020). High costs and steep price inflation in higher education make it ultimately unsustainable for student population at large, placing a downward economic pressure on student enrollments, and burdening government budgets on federal and state levels in offering funding for public educational institutions.

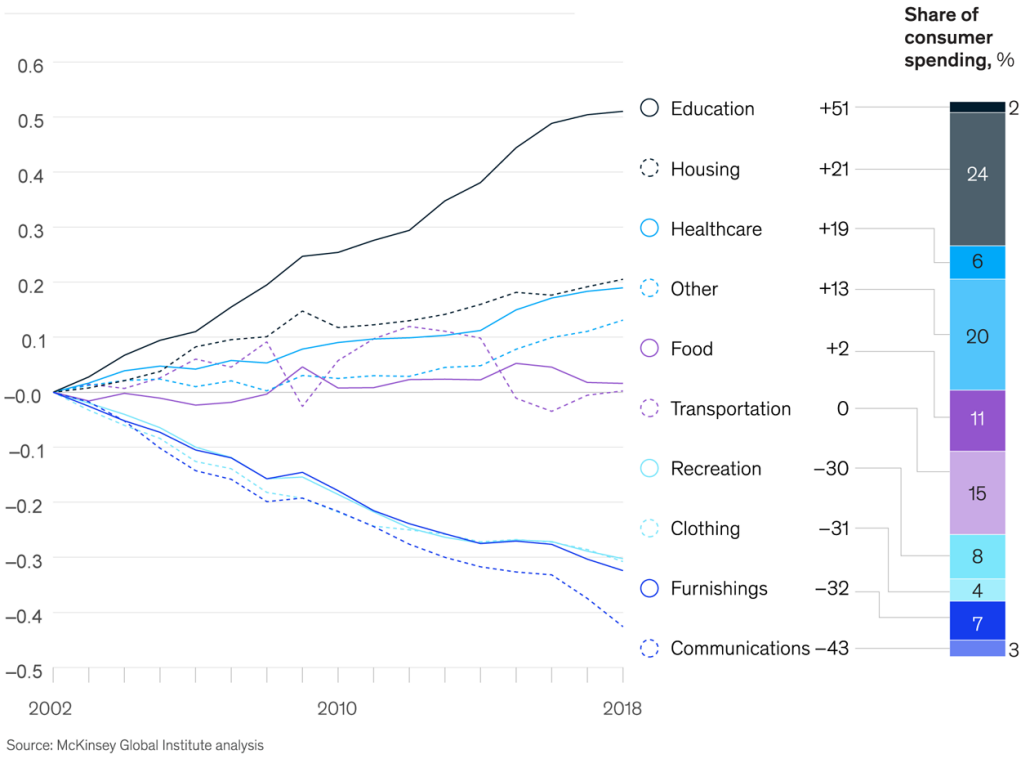
Figure 2. Change in category consumer prices in the U.S.



Note: Value of 0 can be interpreted as "consumer prices in this category match all-item consumer price index." Other category includes alcohol and tobacco, restaurants and hotels, and miscellaneous goods and services. Housing includes actual rentals, maintenance, and utilities but excludes housing purchases or imputed rents. Healthcare includes medical products, outpatient services, and hospital services, but excludes health insurance (which is part of miscellaneous goods and services). Education includes preprimary and primary, secondary, postsecondary nontertiary, and tertiary education, and education not definable by level.
Source: Eurostat; Harmonised Index of Consumer Prices; Japan Statistics Bureau; McKinsey Global Institute analysis

Another critical driving force disrupting and reshaping the landscape of higher education are the fast emerging innovative start-ups that provide online courses (CHLOE 3, 2019). Some latest reports assert that this trend will likely continue to get traction (Le, 2021). Technological and business advances and innovations in IT, social media, and imaging generated by forces of the Third and Fourth Industrial Revolutions have brought to life an array of popular alternative educational platforms such as YouTube, LinkedIn Learning, Khan Academy, and others. These effective and user-friendly platforms strategically challenge traditional pedagogies offered by traditional universities and colleges in the increasingly com-

Figure 3. Change in category consumer prices in 22 OECD countries.



petitive market of educational services. The abrupt advent of COVID-19 has forced an online transition on unprecedented massive scale. In 2018, only about 35% of undergraduates took a distance education course. This year, that figure is close to 100%, as the pandemic forced the adoption of remote learning (Dua et al. 2020). As traditional enrollment in postsecondary institutions continues to decline, distance learning has increased by around 40% in five years. As of late August 2020, just one-fifth of colleges in the United States were planning to return to campus fully or primarily in-person, with the balance either undecided or planning for hybrid, online, or other remote teaching models. Already, several colleges have had to rapidly shift to 100% remote instruction following local COVID-19 outbreaks (Boggs et al., 2021).

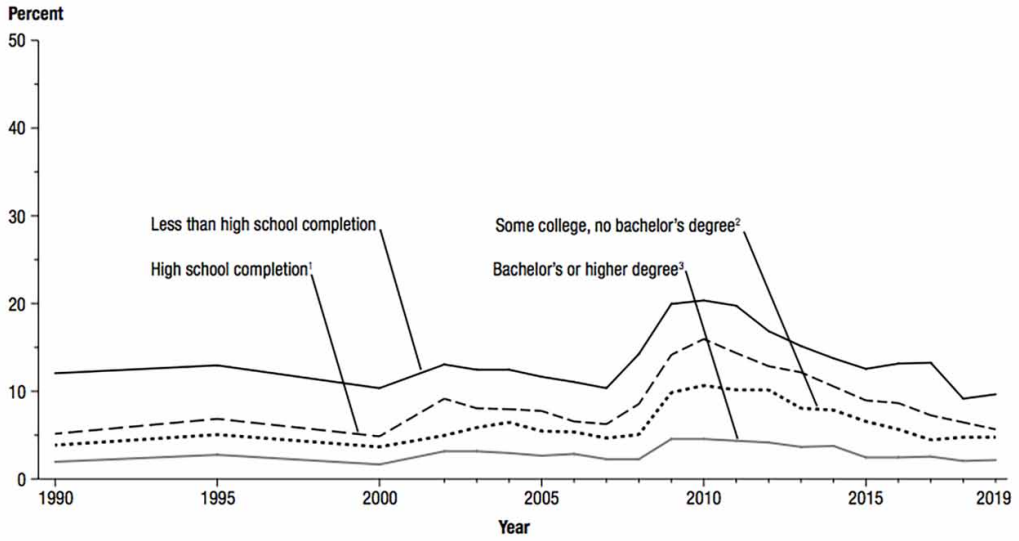
The Fourth Industrial Revolution and B-Schools

There are numerous signs, predictions, and current examples of disruption in multiple economic sectors and industries. Forces of the Fourth Industrial Revolution accelerate technological disruptions and changes in socio-economic, environmental, and business conditions. These forces and conditions are critically affecting universities and colleges.

According to some radical scenarios, the industry of higher education is bracing for an extreme transformation. In a strategic review of higher education, Gabriel Paquette, a vice provost at the University of Oregon, poses eternal questions: “Can Higher Ed Save Itself? Business as usual won’t solve the existential challenges we face. Will anything?” He notes that for decades, predictions of traditional higher education’s imminent demise have gone unfulfilled. The disruption of MOOCs, for example,

proved more whimper than bang. Contrary to the dire forecasts, these upheavals have not triggered the abrupt collapse of a whole higher education sector long alleged to teeter on the brink of disaster. While few institutions have closed permanently, many are contracting and most face retrenchment. Paquette attributes this resilience to the enduring attraction of a college education and to the absence of viable alternatives but emphasizes that the survival of universities ultimately depends on their capacity to reform themselves. Only an obtuse observer could deny the ailing state of America's universities with their maladies ranging from exploding student debt, decreased state investment, the decline of the college graduate income premium, and disruptive demographic shifts, and others (Paquette, 2021). Figure 4 and Figure 5 illustrate comparative economic and career impacts of education and provide evidence in support of higher education. Meantime, median annual earnings in constant 2018 dollars over the past eight years have been stagnant or even declined for most categories of bachelor degree holders in different fields of study (Figure 6).

Figure 4. Unemployment rates of persons 25 to 34 years old

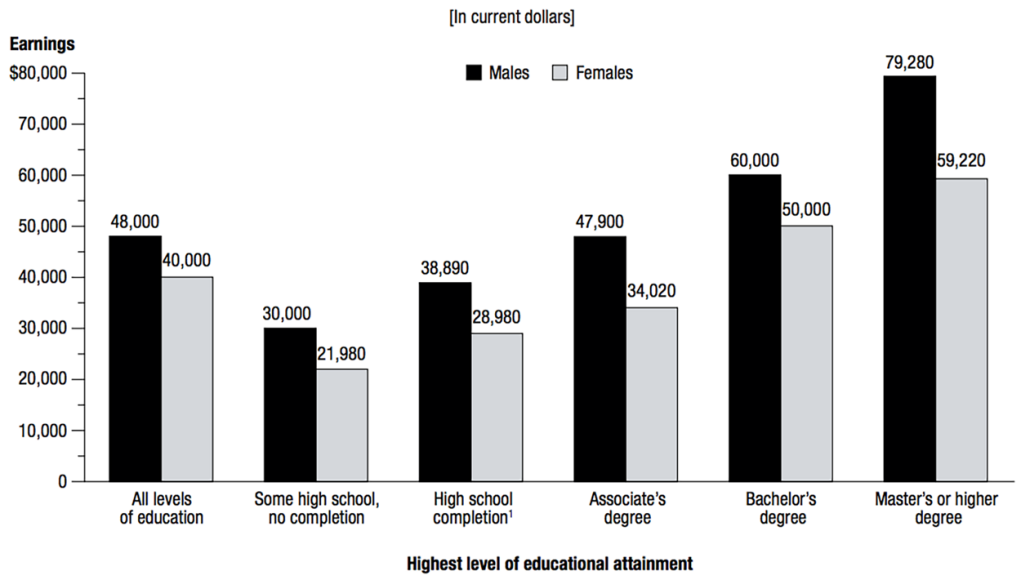


[1]Includes equivalency credentials, such as the GED credential. For 1990, includes all persons with 4 or more years of high school.
[2]Includes persons with no college degree as well as those with an associate's degree.
[3]For 1990, includes all persons with 4 or more years of college.
NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons living in institutions (e.g., prisons or nursing facilities); this table includes only data on the civilian population (excludes all military personnel). The unemployment rate is the percentage of persons in the civilian labor force who are not working and who made specific efforts to find employment sometime during the prior 4 weeks. The civilian labor force consists of all civilians who are employed or seeking employment.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, selected years, 1990 through 2019.

The latest international comparisons of higher education reveal that the share of population who attained a postsecondary degree in the U.S. outstrips that in other developed nations and OECD at large in the bachelor's category (with an exception of Japan) and doctoral category, while being on par with other comparator countries in the master's category. Higher education expenditures in the U.S. in both absolute terms and as a percentage of GDP far exceed that in the comparator countries. With this, the U.S. bears a disproportional financial burden on both individual level (paying students and parents) and government funding and subsidizing colleges and universities. In absolute terms, American expenses on higher education per one full-time equivalent student (FTE) are twice (!) higher than that of OECD

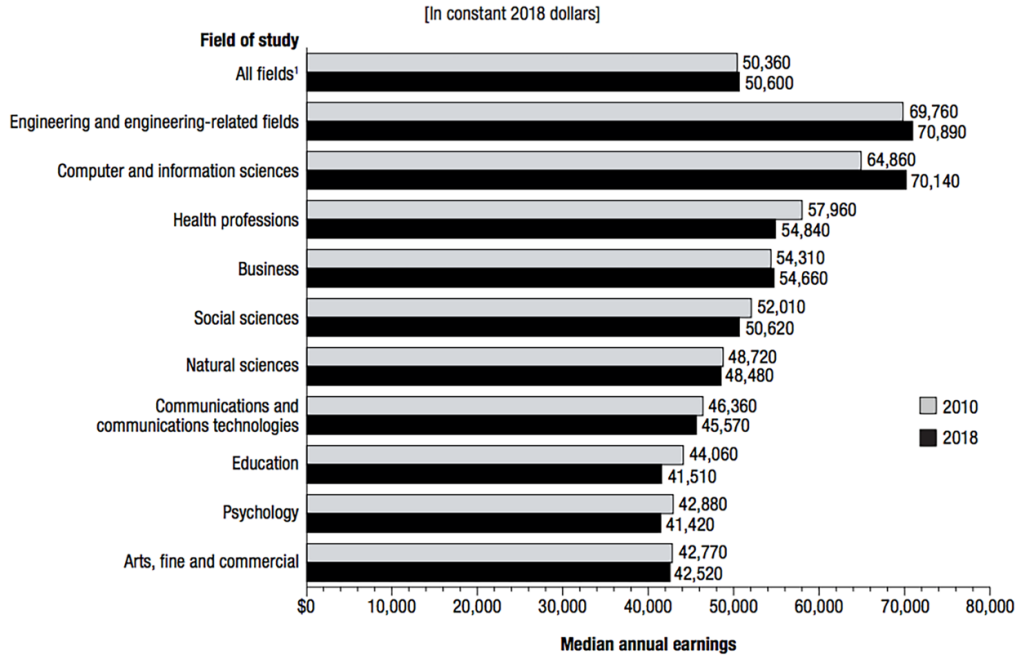
average and still significantly higher in contrast to major comparator countries. U.S. suffers similar comparative global disadvantage in cost-efficiency of higher education as a percentage of GDP (Table 4).

Figure 5. Median annual earnings of full-time year-round workers 25 to 34 years old



[1]Includes equivalency credentials, such as the GED credential.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2019.

Figure 6. Median annual earnings of 25 to 29 bachelor's degree holders



[1]Includes graduates in other fields not separately shown.
NOTE: Constant dollars based on the Consumer Price Index, prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, adjusted to a school-year basis.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, 2010 and 2018 American Community Survey (ACS) Public Use Microdata Sample (PUMS) data.

Table 4.

Country	National share of the population 25 to 64 years who attained a postsecondary degree, by highest degree attained, %, 2018			National expenditures for higher education			
	Bachelor's or equivalent	Master's or equivalent	Doctoral or equivalent	Per FTE student, 2016, in constant 2018 dollars	As a percentage of GDP, 2016		
					Gov.	Private	Total
OECD	17.5	12.7	1.1	$16,209	0.9	0.5	1.5
U.S.A.	23.6	11.2	2.0	$31,560	0.9	1.6	2.5
UK	22.9	11.7	1.4	$24,948	0.5	1.2	1.7
France	10.2	11.4	0.9	$16,643	1.1	0.3	1.4
Germany	15.4	11.7	1.4	$17,998	1.0	0.2	1.2
Japan	30.7	NA	NA	$19,469	0.4	1.0	1.4

International Comparisons of Higher Education: USA vs. Selected Developed Comparator Nations and OECD

There is no shortage of reasoning, opinions, professional and public debates about the mission, effectiveness and efficiency of American colleges and universities. Some politicians and activists advocate for "college for all" on wide basis. Other experts call this concept into question by challenging a widespread belief that higher education is the best universal answer to social and economic problems (Gilbert, 2020; Belkin, 2020). For one, a recent report by the Urban Institute, a U.S. think tank that carries out economic and social policy research, among other downsides, reconfirms an existing mismatch between educational attainment and jobs. Urban Institute researchers examined 387 metro areas across the country to find how closely the knowledge jobs require aligned with the skills people have. On a national scale, the report found that nearly two-thirds of jobs require a high school degree or less at entry level. But, for those 25 and older, 60% have more than a high school education. "This creates a potential imbalance between jobs and people for each level of postsecondary educational attainment. For example, the share of people with 'some college' exceeds the share of jobs that typically require that level of education by 18 percentage points. The difference for four-year degrees is more modest, at only 5 percentage points," according to this study (Scott & Nightingale, 2018).

In this context, it is worthwhile to take a stock of Germany, a highly developed and biggest European economy with the largest population (approximately 84 million people) in the region. In 2019, the overall share of tertiary education attainment for people age 25-64 in Germany was only 27% compared to 44% in the U.S. Instead of pursuing the "college for all" idea wide-scale, Germany prioritizes secondary vocational education enabling many individuals to learn high skills and develop qualifications for a specific profession instead of going to college. The so-called "dual system" of vocational education and training (V.E.T) prepares most of highly skilled workforce in Germany, the nation commanding a global reputation for quality workmanship, technological ingenuity and innovation in engineering.[4] German V.E.T. programs are partnered with about 430,000 companies across the nation, and about 80% of those companies hire individuals from their apprenticeship programs to get a full-time job. About 50% of all school graduates in Germany undergo vocational training provided by companies which consider the

dual system the best way to acquire skilled staff (The German Vocational Training System, 2021). V.E.T. is appealing to individuals because they know that most likely a job will be waiting for them when they are done with school. Meanwhile the skills that are gained through these V.E.T. programs are not easily transferable and once a company commits to an employee that came out of these vocational schools, they have a commitment to each other. Germany's V.E.T. programs illustrate that a college degree is not necessary for a good job and that training individuals for specific jobs could be successful as well.

It is also worthwhile to note that higher education in Germany, a country where the contemporary Humboldt university model emerged in the early 19th century and spread worldwide, is largely controlled and financially supported by government (Federal Ministry of Education and Research, 2021). Most German universities are public institutions, charging fees of only around €60–500 per semester per student, usually to cover expenses associated with student meals and (often mandatory) local public transportation tickets. Thus, higher education is open and individually affordable to most citizens and make studying very common in Germany. Meanwhile, the dual education system combines both practical and theoretical education but does not lead to academic degrees. While some designated German universities have a strong focus on research, a large part of it is also done outside of universities in independent institutes that are embedded in academic clusters, such as within the Max Planck, Fraunhofer, Leibniz and Helmholtz institutes. This German feature of "outsourcing" research leads to a competition for funds between universities and research institutes.

The German tertiary education system includes two major types of institutions. Universität (university) is an institution which has the right to confer doctorates. Other degree-awarding higher education institutions may use the more generic term Hochschule. Additionally, non-university educational institutions exist in the German system. Only Universitäten (universities) have the right to confer doctorates and habilitations.[5] Some universities can be categorized as research universities in international terms to indicate their capacity/priority in research activity in addition to teaching, particularly to differentiate themselves from Fachhochschulen (Universities of Applied Sciences). A university offering the full range of scientific disciplines in contrast to more specialized universities might refer to itself as Volluniversität. Specialized universities which have the formal status of Universität include Technische Universitäten (Technological Universities), Pädagogische Hochschulen (Universities of Education), Kunsthochschulen (Universities of Arts) and Musikhochschulen (Universities of Music).

The Fachhochschulen offer mostly the same degrees as Universitäten, but tend to concentrate on applied science and usually have no power to award doctoral degrees. Fachhochschulen have a more practical educational thrust with a focus on employability. In scholarship, they are largely geared to applied research as opposed to fundamental or "pure" research. At a traditional university (Universität), it is a priority to study "why" the method and methodology scientifically right; this is less important at Fachhochschulen. These Universities of Applied Sciences focus on existing systems and methods, their roots, strengths, weaknesses, and practical applications. For professors at a Fachhochschule, at least three years of work experience are required for appointment, but habilitation is expected. This contrasts with traditional universities, where an academic career with research experience is necessary (Federal Ministry of Education and Research, 2021).

While Germany does not have a model reputation for organizational flexibility, its higher education system serves as an example of accessibility and affordability for the masses from a student standpoint, effectiveness in serving educational goals, cost efficiency, differentiation and multifaceted approach to education and academic research.

Forces of the Third and Fourth Industrial revolutions impel "creative destruction" amplified by the current pandemic-induced strategic and strategic and financial shocks across higher education. Some experts even proclaim the end of a golden age for colleges and universities (Parker, 2020). This exposes strategic vulnerabilities and propagates disruption and change for colleges and universities. Under some scenarios, the post-pandemic future will expedite strategic partnerships between the world's few largest tech companies, such as Google, Apple, or Amazon, and elite universities such as Harvard, Stanford, MIT, and McGill University in North America or Oxford and Cambridge in the UK. In their quest for expansion and growth through strategic partnerships, the world's largest tech companies and likeminded elite educational institutions driven and supported by their vast financial resources, brand power, and long-term investment vision will be looking for strategic synergies. Such strategic partnerships may lead to the development of a mega-oligopolistic structure in the industry of higher education dominated by the likes of MIT/Google, Stanford/Apple, and Harvard/Facebook in the U.S.[6]

Such partnerships will enable universities to dramatically expand their enrollments by offering hybrid online-offline degrees. This would allow to capture a sizeable share of a (stagnant) student enrollment market nationwide supported by the elite universities' quality education, track record in high paying career placement and advancement opportunities, and sheer brand power combined with customer appeal, affordability, cost-efficiency/low tuition grounded on the economies of scale, and high enrollment mobility. These benefits will make it highly attractive for students and yet allow them to avoid an expensive and for many logistically inconvenient necessities of physical relocation to Boston or the Silicon Valley in a pursuit of their educational dream of Harvard, MIT, or Stanford. This, along with the stagnant student enrollments trending into the future, spells trouble for second and third-tier colleges and universities and puts further downward pressure on them. The affordability and value of college education under this business model involving strategic oligopolistic partnerships between high-tech giants and top Ivy League schools may profoundly alter the landscape of higher education. Some "brick-and-mortar" universities will go out of business. Those that survive and remain in business will have their student bodies composed primarily of the children coming from the affluent families who want and can afford differentiation at high price. At the same time, more students than ever will have access to a solid education, albeit one that is delivered mostly over the internet. These dynamics may transform the existing system of universities and colleges into a two-tier system. In the post-pandemic era, only few top-tier universities will be able to reinvent themselves technologically, organizationally/strategically, and financially (effectiveness and efficiency) in order to retain and dramatically expand their enrollments, emerge and sustain their strategic positions as stronger contenders. The rest of existing universities will go out of business or become a shadow of themselves in the lower end market segments (Walsh, 2020).

These profound changes come on top of recent pre-COVID transformations in business processes enabled by digital platforms and networks. The future of work will be a landscape in constant flux, with no place for stationary and rigid *table d'hôte* (a set/fixed menu) job descriptions or guaranteed lifetime careers. This is likely to drastically affect traditionally "stable" industries like higher education where careers often include protections, privileges, and perks associated with tenure and lifetime employment. A traditional pattern of structuring a course offering as a rigid menu of academic disciplines and pre-defined degrees sequenced in a linear formation may no longer prove viable and competitive in the level playing field. Propagated by the online pedagogy, this field becomes increasingly national and global in the world without geographic boundaries and blurring political lines. The learner's survival and success in a VUCA (volatility, uncertainty, complexity, ambiguity) environment will more and more depend on

learning the 21st-century skills – flexibility, adaptability, observation, empathy, creativity, innovation, and – ultimately - learning how to learn (Reaves, 2019).

This is particularly important for business education, which is very interdisciplinary in its core. In the real world, organizational life and dynamics, human pursuits in life, profession, or entrepreneurial endeavors are closely intertwined in holistic and interdependent systems rather than specialized academic disciplines such as Organizational Behavior, Strategic Management, Operations, or International Business traditionally existing separately as customary viewed through the their own scholarly lenses.

One implication and emerging trend in business education is its shifting emphasis from teaching/learning knowledge to skill development around 21st-century skills (Table 5). Acquiring, maintaining, and improving these skills are vital for career success in a 21st-century VUCA economy of constant change and disruption (Reaves, 2019), while stationary knowledge that is subject to constant obsolescence, change, and update can be logistically easily and cost-efficiently accessed and retrieved from electronic database storage in the "cloud."

Table 5. Skills demand across sectors: 2018 vs. 2022

Today: 2018	Trending: 2022	Declining: 2022
• Analytical thinking and innovation • Complex problem solving • Critical thinking and analysis • Active learning and learning strategies • Creativity, originality, and initiative • Attention to detail, trustworthiness • Emotional intelligence • Reasoning, problem solving and ideation • Leadership and social justice • Coordination and time management	• Analytical thinking and innovation • Active learning and learning strategies • Creativity, originality, and initiative • Technology design and programming • Critical thinking and analysis • Complex problem solving • Leadership and social influence • Emotional intelligence • Reasoning, problem solving and ideation • Systems analysis and evaluation	• Manual dexterity, endurance, and precision • Memory, verbal, auditory, and spatial abilities • Management of financial, material resources • Technology installation and maintenance • Reading, writing, math, and active listening • Management of personnel • Quality control and safety awareness • Coordination and time management • Visual, auditory, and speech abilities • Technology use, monitoring, and control

Although the 21st-century label is less common in the corporate training and human resources world, the list is very similar to what top companies and executives say they want in their employees. Often, these are the so-called "soft skills" like creativity, problem solving, empathy, critical thinking, teamwork, and leadership, rather than specific technical knowledge or experience. The "skills" label is frequently stretched to include specific techniques or methodologies, which are nevertheless considered useful in a fundamental and cross-disciplinary way, particularly in relationship to change and innovation. These include core business functions such as project management and time management, as well as approaches borrowed from product innovation, systems thinking, design thinking, and entrepreneurship (Reaves, 2019).

On the eve of pandemic, the industrialized world has been experiencing an unprecedented job boom. There has never been a better time in history to find work - this should no doubt be cause for celebration. However, there is still a significant mismatch between the jobs people want and those that are actually available. For example, the pre-COVID unemployment rate in the U.S. was just 3.6%, yet there were 7.4 million job openings. Why? First, some of those jobs are unappealing to "overqualified" college graduates, which is why Walmart is offering up to $108K to truck drivers, and still has vacancies. Second, some jobs require a different skillset than what job seekers offer, which is why 60% of organizations cannot find qualified cybersecurity analysts, for example. Third, while the number of college graduates keeps rising under the wide "college for all" paradigm, there is a general questioning of how university credits, qualifications, and diplomas translate to work, with a growing number of employers expressing reservations about graduates' job-readiness and potential to add immediate value to the workplace. For example, employers often complain that even when graduates come with stellar academic credentials they will probably not have learned what they need to learn to be able to do their job (Chamorro-Premuzic & Frankiewicz, 2019).

A recent report by McKinsey points out to drastic changes in what the future of work will mean for jobs, skills, and wages. According to this report, 23% of current work activity hours in the U.S. will be automated by 2030 in the midpoint scenario, and up to 44% in the rapid scenario. Legal and medical professions, academia, and other white-collar occupations and jobs, as well as many other industries and professions, will experience fundamental transformations. Although the net job growth for college level academic jobs in higher education over the 2016-2030 period is projected to be positive, albeit at a minuscule 1.8%, the forthcoming structural changes in American labor force will require serious changes in college curriculum, instructional methodology, and deliverables and outcomes (McKinsey, 2018). In a previous study, McKinsey found that less than 5% of occupations can be automated in their entirety, but within 60% of jobs, at least 30% of activities could be automated by adapting currently demonstrated technologies. What lies ahead is not a sudden robot takeover but a period of ongoing, and perhaps accelerated, change in how work is organized and the mix of jobs in the economy (McKinsey, 2019).

Further, a large-scale 2016 survey of managers by PayScale, a Human Resource Management consultancy, found that college students are not ready for the challenges of the modern workplace. The PayScale survey revealed that only about 50% of the respondents felt that recent graduates were prepared for full-time work. In contrast, 87% of college graduates felt they were ready to enter the workforce. These diverging patterns point to an existing gulf between the expectations of employers and recent graduates.

A 2018 survey of more than 650 employers and over 1,500 college students by Cengage/Morning Consult identified the following human skills in demand: communication, listening, critical thinking, and interpersonal. The same survey pointed out to the following easily automated skills that are not in demand: memory skills, computer skills, quantitative skills, and ability to repeat tasks (SHRM, 2021).

Glassdoor, another Human Resource Management consultancy, identified eight top skills that managers seek among prospective college graduates. Universities should keep in mind these skills when developing and improving their curriculum and pedagogy: (1) *Strong writing skills*. Referring to the aforementioned 2016 survey, Glassdoor notes that nearly 44% of the surveyed managers said recent college graduates lacked proficiency in writing: no other hard skill was mentioned more often. (2) *Public speaking abilities*. Just as writing manifests itself in many different fields, public speaking is fundamentally essential for presentations, meetings with clients and customers, and other professional tasks. (3) *Team mentality*. Managers hiring recent graduates are looking for the interpersonal skills and good attitude indicative of a team player. While every company's culture is different, most are rooted in team values. (4) A *high*

GPA. For recent graduates who, obviously, lack significant work experience, the GPA may be a point of interest during the hiring process. (5) *Relevant work experience*. Businesses committed to hiring recent college graduates are not expecting to see candidates with ten years of experience. Nevertheless, work experience is not to be ignored altogether. (6) *Critical thinking and problem-solving skills*. Critical thinking and problem solving were the problem areas among soft skills: 60% of managers surveyed said their younger hires lacked these skills. (7) *Attention to detail*. According to the PayScale survey, 56% of managers said recent graduates were lacking attention to detail, probably largely attributed to typos, misspellings, missing attachments, or poor grammar. (8) *Leadership experience*. While recent college graduates may not have had opportunities for formal experience in managerial or executive roles, they can demonstrate this in other ways, including leadership roles in clubs, sports, or activities (Klazema, 2018). Taken together, these characteristics outline employers' desired criteria for college graduates and provide a roadmap for universities to consider in preparing students for life after graduation.

INSTRUCTIONAL INNOVATIONS IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

The powerful forces (3IR and 4IR) transforming higher education have prompted an examination of teaching and learning in B-schools. These forces include a rapidly changing landscape impacted by technological and socio-economic factors. With the abundance of digital information in myriad formats and the evolving understanding of how students learn – as well as the evolving skills needed by employers – it has been imperative for universities and colleges to innovate their curriculum and pedagogical approaches to prepare business students and leaders. The latest *Guiding Principles and Standards for Business Accreditation* from the AACSB (Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business) require business schools' curriculum to "deliver content that is current, relevant, forward-looking, globally oriented," and "cultivates agility with current and emerging technologies," and "promotes and fosters innovation, experiential learning, and a lifelong learning mindset" (AACSB, 2020). The goal is for B-schools to exhibit an innovative curriculum by incorporating emerging technologies and creative content as well as implementing varied pedagogical approaches. Further, B-schools must adapt a view of an expanding scope and role of online instruction and hybrid format in the current and post-COVID environment. The traditional face-to-face instructional modality is not likely to disappear under the pressures of creative destruction stemming from the Fourth Industrial Revolution. Rather, a significant part of the brick-and-mortar format will be transitioned to new and transformative instructional delivery models.

Instructional Approaches in Business Education

The instructional approaches that will be examined below are chosen because they represent key characteristics of an innovative curriculum. These approaches build upon traditional instructional models and delivery methods while meeting the needs of a forward-looking curriculum. Each instructional approach allows for the incorporation of emerging technologies and creative content and the integration of varied instructional methods. Further, these approaches differentiate themselves from alternative educational platforms, or relatively recent technologically grounded alternatives to traditional higher education, that are defined as dynamic and user-friendly platforms, such as YouTube, LinkedIn Learning, Khan Academy. These platforms are viewed as challenging traditional universities and colleges that are heavily reliant on

classroom instruction in "brick and mortar" environment. It is important to note that other instructional approaches may be examined in this light and encourage these to be viewed as a starting point.

Business Incubator: An organization engaged in the business of supporting and fostering early-stage companies (start-ups) at different developmental phases until the companies have sufficient capabilities, financial, human, organizational, and physical resources to function on their own. The purpose and goal of business incubators is to promote the growth of entrepreneurial activities (new business) while also educating the stakeholders, investors, business owners, and students. Business incubators in a university or college are often situated within a department or entrepreneurship centers as they require resources (financial and human) to successfully operate. Yet, they can be implemented on a micro-scale – students (in teams or individually) present their business proposition to local business owners (recruited by the course instructor) to learn from practitioners in the field. Reaves (2019) even reimagines business courses being redesigned as "virtual incubators" where students and the business stakeholders can collaborate fully in an online environment.

Business Simulation: The use of computer assisted simulations to develop and enhance decision-making skills has been widely used in many professional fields. Further, the use of simulations in education has shown to increase student engagement and learning (Estelami, 2017). Simulations in business can be broadly used across sub-disciplines, including management, accounting, marketing, and others. As Estelami mentions, simulations create a dynamic environment and provide real-time feedback that "constantly challenge the student, inspire thinking, and require action." Application of a business simulation typically involves four stages: (1) theoretical grounding specific to the subject of the simulation: instructor-led session with students having an opportunity to ask questions and reflect on theories/concepts, (2) introduction to the simulation: instructor explains the architecture of the game, operational procedures, rules of engagement, and expectations, (3) play: participants play the game by applying their subject-related theoretical knowledge and business skills under the changing parameters and stages of the game with the view of the possible impacts of these changes and decision on the outcomes, and (4) group presentations discussions and debriefing: participating groups present and compare their results from the game with other groups; instructor facilitates the exchange and debriefs the results, crystallizes the learning takeaways, and facilitates the connections the game and the real world (Zhuplev & Blas, 2021). While simulations can be high-tech (i.e., purchased via third-party vendor) they also may be more cost-effective by being built in-house (i.e., survey form using survey logic).

Coaching: A method of educating through connecting coach and learner in structured interactions via one-on-one sessions over a period of time with a set agenda adapted to the goals of the learner. Coaching, in the workplace setting, grew out of the management and organizational behavior field, and has a strong record of effectiveness when implemented strategically. Coaching has been adapted to higher education, following the core concept, "coaches partner with students in a transformative process that empowers and inspires them to reach their maximum potential" (SHRM, 2021). The nature of coaching is highly individualized and thus would align well with high-engagement or high-research business courses where students would benefit the most from direct guidance and feedback. This instructional approach is effective when well-planned and structured – strategies for success include: developing a shared vision and goals, shared understanding of roles and responsibilities, frequent and transparent communication, and the setting of realistic expectations. Coaching can be adapted to a hybrid or online format with the integration of various communication technologies (e.g., Zoom, Google Talk, Slack, etc.).

Experiential Learning: A method of educating through first-hand experience, learning by doing, transformation of experience. Skills, knowledge, and experience are acquired outside of the traditional

academic classroom setting, and may include internships, studies abroad, field trips, field research, project-based learning projects, and service learning activities. In experiential learning, the emphasis is on the process as opposed to the outcomes, considering the cyclical nature of learning – problem finding, question asking, answer seeking, and portrayal of knowledge (Kolb, 1984). As people learn from their direct experience, this instructional approach offers a critical link developed between the classroom and the competencies needed for describing job demands.

Flipped Classroom: An instructional methodology involving a blended learning focused on student engagement and active learning, giving the instructor a better opportunity to deal with mixed levels, student difficulties, and differentiated learning preferences during in-class time. In a flipped classroom, class lectures and homework can be replaced by preparation and actual work together in the classroom, where the teacher-as-coach is available to mentor and facilitate the learning process. Out-of-class time is spent accessing and understanding curriculum material such as media modules, lecture videos, readings, or other online sources. In a flipped classroom, even if it is set up online, the major part of the learning content, which the student is expected to access at the initial stage of instructional design, does not have to reside within the explicit formal structure of the course. When students come to the "flipped virtual classroom," they will expect to do real work rather than engage in rote learning and mere memorization (Zhuplev & Blas, 2021).

Minimum Viable Instruction (MVI): An integrative instructional approach on innovating the business curriculum. MVI strategy is inspired by the minimum viable product (MVP) strategy used in product development and business models based on lean startup methodologies. MVP is the simplest, smallest product that provides enough value for consumers to adopt and actually pay for it. This lean startup approach is not only a tool for innovation in business, it is also a creative pedagogical tool to apply in higher education. It enables instructors to pivot at the point of the students' needs, and ultimately, encourage design thinking in its course. The MVI approach asks, what is the smallest learning outcome that provides enough value for students to learn and acquire the necessary skills?

Project-Based Learning (PBL): An instructional methodology that encourages students to learn and apply knowledge and skills through an engaging experience in project development or problem solving. PBL presents opportunities for deeper learning in-context and for the development of important skills tied to college and career readiness. Effective PBL is inter-disciplinary, rigorous, and student-centered. Hutching et al. (2020) mark five key differences in project-based learning vs. traditional pedagogy:

- PBL projects are central, not peripheral to the curriculum; projects are the curriculum
- PBL projects are focused on questions of problems that "drive" students to encounter (and struggle with) the central concepts and principles of a discipline
- PBL projects are student-driven, involve more student autonomy and responsibility
- PBL projects are realistic, incorporate real-life challenges

Service Learning: An instructional approach in which students apply their knowledge learned in the course curriculum to solve an issue in their community. It heightens the experiential learning approach by adding a social justice component. Service learning projects, a high-impact educational practice, have been widely tested and have proven to be beneficial to building thinking and reasoning skills as well as increasing community awareness and engagement (Behara & Davis, 2015). Service learning projects can be tailored to the course, university, and community and vary greatly on the issues they focus on. With the rise of "business for good" and the desire for disruptive innovation to be of benefit to society, service

learning projects can promote both skill-building and social responsibility and academia's contribution to a socio-economic development of a community. While service learning has traditionally been face-to-face, online service learning projects can be developed and implemented (Zhuplev & Blas, 2021).

CONCLUSION

Exploring the genesis and transformation of business education in the U.S. through its historical stages develops a deeper understanding of the current dynamics and landscape. Progression through the industrial revolutions and socio-economic trends have led to opportunities and competitive pressures to change. The current higher education landscape is no different, with critical factors such as nearly flat enrollment patterns, rising costs, and technological advancements in pedagogy (often at a lower cost than traditional learning structures), leading to new opportunities as well as creating pressures to innovate. It is imperative for stakeholders in higher education to understand past and emerging driving forces, trends, and dynamics to thrive under the "creative destruction" paradigm. The Fourth Industrial Revolution will accelerate the rate of disruption in jobs and careers, which we are already witnessing and experiencing. The result will be a profound shift in the character of what we need to teach and learn at every level, from K-12 to corporate training. Ensuring the relevance of academic curricula to real-world jobs becomes a growing priority and mandate by all the key stakeholders involved. This signifies the evolution from siloed "stocks of knowledge" as we know that in today's education to "flows of knowledge," a systems thinking perspective that emphasizes "transdisciplinary" skills, which are instrumental across multiple practical fields and domains of knowledge (Reaves, 2019).

Although the Fourth Industrial Revolution will bring significant disruption, it was an expected and well-studied force. On the other hand, the unexpected and immediate onslaught of the coronavirus disease (COVID-19), has disrupted nearly every aspect of everyday life. Industries and businesses of all sizes and sorts are being significantly impacted in all aspects of their "normal" operations. Higher education institutions faced the need to pivot quickly and make decisions in a landscape with ever-changing local and federal regulations, and ultimately, where the future was uncertain. In higher education, COVID-19 has placed further strain on current issues and has brought new challenges. Ensuring the safety of students, faculty, and staff is a growing priority along with maintaining enrollment numbers – How do we offer our high-quality education and retain our students in order to stay financially solvent? This signifies the evolution of how and where students learn and emphasizes new pedagogical approaches, instructional technologies, and online interactions.

Studies on the impact of COVID-19 on business education are beginning to emerge, stating both concerns and future implications. Some concerns, both short-term and long-term, include: mental and physical health of faculty, staff, and students, unbudgeted financial costs and overall financial stability, student enrollment and attrition, and alumni/donor relations. The rudimentary model by Krishnamurthy, "Transformation of the business school", considers the transformation of the university, the business world, the student, financial constraints, and IT infrastructure and how each may impact the future of B-schools. More specifically, implications and factors that impact the future of B-schools are the ability to remain agile, the use of technology to maximize learning with seamless transition between in-person and online learning, effective collaboration among all university stakeholders to provide a holistic learning experience, and a shift of culture in the workplace allowing for innovation and agility in teaching and

learning (Krishnamurthy, 2020; Beech & Anseel, 2020; Novellis, 2020). In all, business schools must continue to demonstrate innovation and agility in adapting to the challenges.

In the current higher education landscape, universities and colleges are affected by several mega drivers leading to opportunities and competitive pressures for change. In the wake of these unfolding forces, drivers, dynamics, and the emerging socio-economic landscape, universities and colleges face disruption and new realities. Taken together, these factors and characteristics provide a roadmap for universities to consider in preparing students for life after graduation and the evolving business world. Innovative and strategic approaches in traditional learning and teaching structures, such as pedagogical approaches and instructional technologies become paramount for the relevance and customer value proposition that colleges and universities offer in the increasingly competitive market landscape of higher education facing disruption.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Alternative Educational Platforms: Relatively recent technologically grounded alternatives to traditional higher education. These dynamic and user-friendly platforms, such as YouTube, LinkedIn Learning, Khan Academy, and others challenge traditional universities and colleges that are heavily reliant on classroom instruction in "brick and mortar" environment.

Creative Distraction: The dismantling or demise of long-standing established practices in order to make way for innovative products, services, technologies, or business models in a competitive business environment. The term coined by Austrian economist Joseph Schumpeter in 1942.

Dual System of Vocational Education and Training: The dual system is firmly established in the German education system. Its main characteristic is cooperation between mainly small and medium sized companies, on the one hand, and publicly funded vocational schools, on the other. This cooperation is regulated by law. Trainees in the dual system typically spend part of each week at a vocational school and the other part at a company, or they may spend longer periods at each place before alternating. Dual training usually lasts two to three-and-a-half years.

Educational Coaching: Rather than focusing on just the content, educational coaching emphasizing working with students, taking into consideration a student's academic, cognitive, and emotional strengths and challenges. Educational coaching supports students in becoming better learners, performers, team players, and leaders.

Experiential Learning: A method of educating through first-hand experience, learning by doing, transformation of experience. Skills, knowledge, and experience are acquired outside of the traditional academic classroom setting, and may include internships, studies abroad, field trips, field research, and service-learning projects.

Flipped Classroom: An instructional methodology involving a blended learning focused on student engagement and active learning, giving the instructor a better opportunity to deal with mixed levels, student difficulties, and differentiated learning preferences during in-class time.

Project-Based Learning (PBL): An instructional methodology that encourages students to learn and apply knowledge and skills through an engaging experience in project development or problem solving.

PBL presents opportunities for deeper learning in-context and for the development of important skills tied to college and career readiness. Effective PBL is inter-disciplinary, rigorous, and student-centered.

VUCA (Volatility, Uncertainty, Complexity, and Ambiguity): A concept originating in the military in the 1980-1990s. It emphases situational conditions associated with volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous multilateral world perceived as resulting from the end of the Cold War. It has subsequently become popular in strategic leadership in a wide range of contemporary organizations, including educational institutions.

ENDNOTES

1 "Studies of humanity." Denotes secular literary and scholarly activities that include grammar, rhetoric, poetry, history, moral philosophy, and ancient Greek and Latin studies.

2 Friedrich Wilhelm Christian Karl Ferdinand von Humboldt (1767-1835) was a Prussian philosopher, linguist, government servant, diplomat, and founder of the Humboldt University of Berlin. Currently, Humboldt University is one of Germany's premier universities.

3 This count includes public and private colleges and universities as well as for-profit institutions and community colleges. In fall 2017, the largest enrollment of 103,975 students nationwide was at the University of Phoenix, Arizona (Snyder and de Brey, 2019).

4 Apart from Germany, other European countries actively using the dual system are Austria, Denmark, Luxembourg, and Switzerland (The German Vocational Training System, 2021).

5 Habilitation involves completion of a post-doctoral dissertation, a qualification required in order to conduct self-contained university teaching and to obtain a professorship in many European countries. In some countries, a habilitation degree is a required formal qualification to independently teach and examine a designated subject at university level.

6 Corporations are increasingly creating their own management training, rather than relying on business schools, consulting firms and the like. Companies are not only spending more of their training budgets in-house but also are setting up their own "corporate universities." (Stoll, 2020).

Chapter 2
The Transnationalization of Business Education

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ABSTRACT

Recent decades have witnessed the emergence and growth of transnational higher education, a specific form of internationalization which considers education as a product which can be packaged and sold abroad. This transnationalization of higher education is especially prominent in the discipline of business, which has wide student appeal. The purpose of this chapter is to review the transnationalization of business education. The chapter begins by situating transnational higher education within the internationalization of higher education more broadly. It then characterises transnational higher education, enumerating various definitions and transnationalization modes. Finally, it rationalizes transnational higher education from a geo-political/economic perspective.

INTRODUCTION

Adam Smith (1976), often considered the father of modern economics, claimed that humans have an intrinsic propensity to "truck, barter, and exchange one thing for another" (p. 17)—that is to say, to trade. This propensity to trade is so basic, he continued, that it probably developed in concert with the ability to speak. As summarized by Bernstein (2008), "[w]hile other animals, particularly primates, groom and share food with each other, systematic exchanges of goods and services, particularly over great distances, have not been observed in any species besides *Home Sapiens*" (p. 8).

Trade among humans has occurred for thousands of years. Indeed, documents from present-day Turkey allude to a 19th century BCE Assyrian merchant colony near Capadoccia (Stearns & Langer, 2001). International trade—defined here as the voluntary exchange of products (goods or services) which occurs between two countries—has likewise existed for millennia. Evidence "of the exchange of shells,

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arrowheads, and other goods over long distances…goes back well before any written record" (Pomeranz & Topik, 2013, p. 3). Perhaps the most famous manifestation of this international trade is the Silk Road, which was established during the Han Dynasty (206 BCE to 220 CE) to facilitate the exchange of spices and other exotic goods from the Far East in Europe.

Today, international trade accounts for more than 25% of the gross world product, according to the World Trade Organization, whose members imported and exported US$17.3 trillion in merchandise in 2012 (WTO, 2014). More than 50,000 merchant ships ply the oceans with bulk cargo (Hellenic Shipping News, 2013). And many small countries lacking resources of their own—Singapore, for example—punch well above their weight because of international trade (Ministry of Trade and Industry Singapore, 2014). Channeling both Bernstein (2008) and Pomeranz and Topik (2013), international trade and the history of the world economy go hand in hand.

It ought not to be surprising, therefore, that higher education has also come to be traded internationally. Full fee-paying foreign students, for example, play an important role in higher education, triggered to a large degree by countries such as the USA, the United Kingdom, and Australia, all of which deregulated and restructured their economies in the 1980s (Chadee and Naidoo, 2009). Between 2006 and 2009, the number of foreign branch campuses increased by 43% to 162 (Altbach, 2010; Morgan, 2010). And the COVID-19 pandemic accelerated the virtualisation of higher education, for degree-seekers, and likewise in the context of both non-degree executive education and employee training.

TNHE is especially common in business schools. Indeed, according to Altbach (2010), the most popular transnationalized programs are in business, due to the low start-up costs and to the significant worldwide demand for these programs, some of which are especially profitable (Wood *et al.*, 2005). English has doubtless become the language of business schools, especially as more and more students choose to study abroad. It is also said that business schools live and die by the league tables which, in recent years, have become more and more global in nature. And this global competition also extends to the recruitment of students, which now includes fairs, road shows, and other courting rituals which occur from Singapore to São Paulo.

The purpose of this chapter, therefore, is to review the transnationalization of business education. The chapter begins by situating transnational higher education within the internationalization of higher education more broadly. It then characterizes transnational higher education, enumerating various definitions and transnationalization modes. Finally, it rationalizes transnational higher education from a geo-political/economic perspective.

SITUATING TRANSNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION

According to the Institute of International Education (2019), the 2018/2019 academic year set a record for both international students studying in the United States, and Americans studying abroad—1,095,299 and 347,0997 students, respectively. But the internationalization of students is nothing new. Indeed, international student mobility dates back to the 4th century BCE (Chadee & Naidoo, 2009). The University of Oxford welcomed its first international student, the scholar and abbot Emo of Friesland, in 1190 (University of Oxford, 2014). And Sultan Ulug Beg, the 14th century ruler of a vast area of Central Asia from Kyrghyzstan to Afghanistan, built one of the world's first observatories in Samarkand along the Silk Road, thereby attracting scholars from far and wide to study astronomy and geometry (Golden, 2011).

Viewed more broadly, the internationalization of higher education might be considered as old as the university itself. In medieval Europe, scholars often spent their sabbaticals abroad, enjoying time in "Oxford, Tübingen or the Sorbonne to pursue their scholarly activities and access the vast resources of the university libraries" (Harris, 2008, p. 352). Latin, which was the *lingua franca* of higher education until the Renaissance, facilitated the itinerant scholar's rambling from *studium* to *studium* (de Ridder-Symeons, 1992). It is no surprise, therefore, that the European Union chose the name ERASMUS (European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students) for its student exchange program, a nod to one of the most famous academic wanders.

By the close of the Middle Ages, however, the university lost its academic universalism, becoming an instrument of the state. Indeed, its newfound purpose was to serve the ideological and occupational needs of the emerging nation-states of Europe (Scott, 2000). Kerr (1994) characterized this period as the convergence model, in which "education, and higher education, not only came to serve the administrative and economic interests of the nation-state but became an essential aspect of the development of national identity" (p. 27). It was during this period that the university also gained its new identification with science and technology.

As these emerging nation-states gained power, national systems of higher education also began to emerge, which were subsequently exported. Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, for example, adopted the German discovery-oriented approach to higher education, and became the model for the modern American research university (Johns Hopkins University, 2014). The export of national systems of higher education, however, was more often another facet of the European colonization of Africa, Asia, and Latin America (Knight & de Wit, 1995). Although primarily in service of national interests, it also led to the sharing of scientific ideas, and reignited academic exchanges.

The years immediately following World War II triggered an explosion in higher education (Seidel, 1991). Indeed, half of the world's universities have been established since 1945. In the United States in particular, higher education was linked to a broader social equity agenda which aimed to expand educational opportunity and access. Spurred by the GI Bill and the civil rights movement (Newfield, 2011), this agenda led to the massification of higher education, and, correspondingly, to an almost Fordist assembly-line approach to teaching and research (Scott, 1995). But as highlighted by Scott (2000), the golden age of universities also coincided with the height of the Cold War, and consequently a kind of nationalism which, he argued, resulted in (using Kerr's language) a re-convergence.

The 1960s and 1970s, however, saw a rekindling of the internationalization of higher education, despite—or perhaps because of—the Cold War. Both the United States and the Soviet Union began to support international exchange for economic and political goals, resulting in a new form of educational imperialism. The Chicago School of Economics, for example, had a profound impact on the macroeconomic policies which were adopted by successive governments in Chile, the effects of which remain today. And consider the legions of African engineers, doctors, and scientists who were educated in universities and institutes across the Soviet Union. The People's Friendship University (now of Russia), for example, was founded in 1960, with the express purpose of educating citizens of allied nations.

The internationalization of higher education in the 1960s and 1970s was also spurred by the decolonization of the developing world, the rapid expansion of higher education globally, and the changing role of the university from a center of intellectual pursuit, to a training facility for human resources (Knight & de Wit, 1995). This internationalization took on a decidedly north-south geographical axis, with students moving (usually one-way) from south to north, and staff and technical assistance moving

in the opposite direction. The consequences were both positive (the spread of scientific developments to the south, for example) and negative (brain drain from the south, for example).

The forces of globalization which gained momentum in the 1980s prompted a new twist on the internationalization of higher education. Indeed, the sense of urgency which accompanied these forces resulted in more internally-oriented international activities at higher education institutions—cross-cultural training and new area studies programs, for example—which were intended to nurture the 'international-ness' of staff and students (See Gacel-Ávila, 2005, for example.). This urgency was captured concisely in *A Nation at Risk*, the landmark federal evaluation of American public elementary and secondary education which was commissioned by then-President Ronald Reagan: "Our unchallenged preeminence in commerce, industry, science, and technological innovation is being overtaken by competitors throughout the world" (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983, p. 1). In higher education more specifically, the concern over America's global competitiveness led directly to the Centers for International Business Education (CIBE) program, "created under the Omnibus Trade and Competitiveness Act of 1988 to increase and promote the nation's capacity for international understanding and economic enterprise" (U.S. Department of Education, 2016).

The 1990s ushered in the latest twist in the internationalization of higher education, in which higher education itself has become a product which can be packaged and sold abroad (Cudmore, 2005). Transnational higher education (TNHE) as it is called—although sometimes it is also called cross-border higher education or borderless higher education (Lourtie, 2001)—includes "all types of higher education study programmes, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based" (Council of Europe, 2002). It is "education provision from one country offered in another" (ACA, 2008, p. 57). For some experts, it also includes foreign student mobility (Naidoo, 2009a). But in short, TNHE is about the international trade of higher education, and it is now a widely-recognized concept and a fast growing global phenomenon (Chen, 2015).

TNHE is also a multi-billion dollar industry (Alderman, 2001). By the turn of the century, for example, trade in higher education already accounted for 3% of global services exports (Vincent-Lancrin, 2005). Transnational higher eduction provides jobs for more than 400,000 Americans. And higher education ranks as Australia's fourth largest export behind coal, iron ore, and gold (Group of Eight, 2014).

Consequently, the number of universities 'going abroad' has exploded. Weill Medical College, for example, was opened in Qatar by Cornell University in 2001. Between 2006 and 2009, the number of foreign branch campuses increased by 43% to 162 (Altbach, 2010; Morgan, 2010). And the Open University of the United Kingdom now has more than 100,000 alumni from more than 120 countries, who studied at the university from a distance (Open University, 2020).

The emergence of TNHE signalled a dramatic change in the internationalization of higher education. Indeed, it moved from *making* higher education international to *taking* higher education international. Knight and de Wit (1995), for example, noted that the internationalization of higher education has historically followed four different approaches:

1. activity—the addition of curricular and extra-curricular offerings such as international exchanges and joint research,
2. ethos—the creation of an international culture in an institution,
3. competency—the development of international skills and attitudes among students and staff, and

4. process—the integration of an international dimension in all university programs, policies, and procedures.

Similarly, Hamrick (1999) suggested that the internationalization of higher education has historically focused on:

1. international studies—the establishment of internationalization as an academic subject (area studies or cultural studies, for example),
2. facilitation of interaction—the furnishing of opportunities for shared experiences (study abroad and foreign student recruitment, for example),
3. international assistance—the provision of foreign aid (instructor exchanges, for example), and
4. preparation of students—the promotion of the 'global citizen' (internationally-themed dormitories, for example).

TNHE, on the contrary, views the internationalization of higher education through a product lens. In contrast to the historical view of the internationalization of higher education in which an international dimension is injected into university teaching/training, research, or service functions (Knight, 1997), TNHE considers higher education as something which "can be manufactured, bought, and sold" (Muller, 1995)—that which Galway (2000) called the commodification of higher education. It acknowledges that commercial forces have a legitimate, if not dominant, role in higher education (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

This new product lens is mirrored in the significant, if subtle, semantic shift of terminology. The historical view of the internationalization of higher education resulted in various descriptors of higher education, including international, comparative, cross-cultural, global, and multi-cultural, all of which allude to the potential 'international-ness' of higher education. TNHE instead takes the nation as its defining unit, which, when combined with the Latin prefix *trans,* which signifies across or beyond, intimates the very tangible movement of higher education across national boundaries.

TNHE was triggered in the United Kingdom by Tony Blair, who launched a worldwide campaign in the 1990s to increase the number of foreign students studying at British universities (Ayoubi & Massoud, 2007). Around the same time, government changes in higher education funding encouraged Australian universities to begin offering their degrees internationally (Currie & Newson, 1998; Smart & Ang, 1993), especially in the markets of Southeast Asia. The inclusion of education as a tradable product in the World Trade Organization's (WTO) 1995 General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)—the culmination of the Uruguay Round of negotiations which began in 1986—gave "additional momentum to the process" (Anandakrishnan, 2008, p. 199).

CHARACTERIZING TRANSNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION

The word 'university' is derived from the Latin word *universitas*, which referred to a medieval guild or corporation of masters and scholars (Encyclopædia Brittanica, 2016). The *universitas magistrorum et scholarium* at first had no physical campus, unlike modern universities (Giesysztor, 1992), but instead was simply a collection of teachers and students whose *raison d'être* was the study—in Latin, of course—of the seven liberal arts of classical antiquity: the foundational subjects of grammar, logic, and

rhetoric (the *trivium*); and the more advanced subjects of arithmetic, geometry, music, and astronomy (the *quadrivium*) (Rait, 1912).

According to Campbell *et al.* (2000), however, "at the university of today, a new force has supplanted Latin texts, classical scholarship and nobility of thought and deed. It is, quite simply, the philosophy that universities offer a product which can be exported to a global marketplace" (p. 1). In practical terms, this philosophy has translated into various international and often commercial manifestations of the university, including franchise agreements, online degrees, and, more recently, foreign branch campuses. As suggested by Wilson and Vlăsceanu (2000),

[t]hese new developments in higher education share certain common characteristics and similarities, mainly in terms of the ways they cross the borders of national higher education systems. It is for this reason that they are usually identified by the generic phrase of transnational education (p. 75).

The origins of the modifier transnational are uncertain. Australia has been employing it since the early 1990s, and consequently as a nation it is often considered to be both a terminological and operational pioneer (ACA, 2008). Knight (2005) suggested that the term transnational was used initially in Australia to distinguish off-shoring (higher education which was exported from Australia) from on-shoring (full fee-paying foreign students who had moved to Australia for their higher education). Whatever its origins, the term has "entered the literature to describe various aspects of 'international education' and the internationalisation of education" (Sanderson, 2005).

According to de Wit (2011), however, "in the literature and in practice, it is still quite common to use terms that only apply to a small part of internationalisation and/or emphasize a specific rationale for internationalisation" (de Wit, 2011, pp. 242-243). And using "these terms without explaining what they mean…is sloppy practice" (Sanderson, 2005, par. 8). The terms cross-border and borderless, for example, have often been used synonymously in the literature to describe the transnational phenomenon (ACA, 2008). Bennett *et al.* (2010) provided the following definitions:

[c]ross-border education literally means that education provision crosses borders. Both cross-border education and transnational education geographically denote provision based in one country but delivered in another country. Instead of classical student mobility, we have mobility of provision, although one does not exclude the other. A third term, borderless education, emphasises that national borders are irrelevant to this kind of education, which is not necessarily based in any specific country (p. 8).

But by no means is there agreement on the meanings of transnational, cross-border, or borderless.

The distinction between globalisation, internationalisation, and transnationalisation has likewise been fuzzy in the literature (de Wit, 2000). Mitchell and Nielsen (2012) brought some clarification, arguing that "internationalization is seen as something which higher education institutions **do** while globalization is something that is **happening to them"** (par. 2). Indeed, internationalization can be viewed as a process of innovation (van der Wende, 2002) in which a higher education institution engages; globalization is a set of environmental forces within which the internationalization occurs. Transnationalization, therefore, is not equal to but instead a "component of the wider phenomenon of the internationalization of higher education" (British Council, 2013, p. 6).

This hierarchical relationship between internationalization and transnationalization is most conspicuous in the evolution of work by education researcher Jane Knight. Callan (2000) noted that the changing nature of higher education since WWII led her to her first formulation of internationalization— "the process of integrating an international dimension into the teaching, research, and service functions of the institution" (Knight, 1997, p. 8). Recognizing the importance of culture in internationalization, and

homing in on higher education, she then offered a slightly revised version. The "internationalization of higher education is the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching, research, and service functions of the institution" (Knight, 1999, p. 16).

It was Knight's (2003b) definition, however, which, with the addition of delivery, recognised TNHE as a component of the internationalization of higher education. Accordingly, the internationalization of higher education "at the national, sector, and institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or *delivery* of postsecondary education" (p. 2, our emphasis). Also noteworthy in this new definition are the possibility of internationalization at different educational levels, and the concept of global.

In 2007, Knight called out 'delivery' explicitly, defining cross-border tertiary education as the movement of people, knowledge, programs, providers, ideas, curricula, projects, research and services across national or regional jurisdictional borders. Cross-border education is a subset of internationalisation and can be part of development cooperation projects, academic exchange programs and commercial initiatives. Cross-border is a term that is often used interchangeably with other terms such as transnational, offshore, and borderless education. There are some conceptual differences among these terms, they usually refer to similar types of activities (p. 24).

The evolution of work by Knight also parallels the evolution of TNHE itself. Indeed, that which began earnestly in the 1970s as the passive receipt of foreign students who were on exchange or part of aid programs, moved systematically to a direct export model in the 1980s in which universities pushed aggressively to recruit full fee-paying students, then through a period of strategic growth into the new millennium as big countries set out to become global leaders in TNHE with more sophisticated forms of transnationalization, and finally to the present situation in which liberalization and deregulation of higher education allow any and all institutions to play the game (Chadee & Naidoo, 2009). In essence, this evolution represents a transition from aid to trade (Naidoo, 2006).

In a similar way, Chen (2015) identified three distinct historical phases of TNHE: 1. student recruitment, 2. twinning agreements, and 3. overseas campuses. Distance education could possibly be considered the newest phase, and as suggested by Wilson and Vlăsceanu (2000), "there seems to be no limit to the proliferation of such modalities or arrangements, as long as the demand for higher education is still growing, and the possibilities for a global market continue to emerge" (p. 78).

For de Wit (2011), however, the year 2000 was a kind of watershed moment for higher education. He contended that the Bologna Process of 1999, whose central features underscore the cooperation of European nations, was overshadowed by the Lisbon Strategy of 2000, thereby shifting the focus almost entirely to competition. The "increasing competition in higher education and the commercialization and cross-border delivery of higher education have challenged the value traditionally attached to cooperation" (de Wit, 2011, p. 242).

Paralleling the linguistic messiness of TNHE are numerous definitions which likewise lack uniformity. Beginning at the national level (See Table 1.), China, as one of the most significant targets of TNHE (and now a player in its own right), established a definition for TNHE early on. Unsurprisingly, three of the major national players in TNHE (Australia, the United Kingdom, and New Zealand) have their own official definitions. And Germany, a relative newcomer to TNHE, has its own (rather loose) definition. Absent is a definition from the United States, which is understandable, considering that both American higher education policy and TNHE have historically rested with individual institutions rather than the government.

Table 1. National definitions of transnational higher education

Nation	Definition
China Ministry of Education (1995)	Those foreign corporate, individuals, and related international organizations in cooperating with educational institutions or other social organization with corporate status in China, jointly establish education institutions in China, recruit Chinese citizens as major educational objectives, and undertake education and teaching activities.
Australian Department of Education and Science (2005)	Australian transnational education and training, also known as offshore or cross-border education and training, refers to the delivery and/or assessment of programmes/courses by an accredited Australian provider in a country other than Australia, where delivery includes a face-to-face component…as distinct from education and training provided in a purely distance mode, transitional education and training includes a physical presence of instructors offshore either directly by the Australian provider, or indirectly through a formal agreement with a local institution/organisation.
British Council (2006)	Transnational education refers to education provision from one country offered in another. It does not include the traditional international student recruitment market where students travel to another country for their studies. Transnational education includes a wide variety of delivery modes including distance and e-learning; validation and franchising agreements; twinning and other collaborative provision.
Education New Zealand Trust (2007)	The delivery of New Zealand formal education qualifications by New Zealand providers outside New Zealand shores.
German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) (2012)	In German transnational higher education projects, the German university acts as education provider and sets the standards for curricula and academic quality benchmarks, within an otherwise mutually cooperative framework.

Source: Adapted from British Council (2013)

Multi-lateral institutions, trade associations, and other entities have also weighed in on TNHE (See Table 2.). One of the first organizations to do so was GATE, which, incidentally, was transferred to the United States Distance Learning Association in 2003, but whose emphasis on TNHE has since then disappeared under its new parent. The AVCC offered up its own definition, which is also understandable, considering the pioneering role of Australia in TNHE. One of the most oft-cited definitions in the literature arose out of meetings which were held by the Council of Europe in service of the development of codes of good practice for the provision of TNHE. The OECD and INQAAHE definitions followed suit, spurred by the "more and more people taking university degrees from foreign providers" (OECD, 2005).

Complementing these numerous definitions of TNHE are various TNHE types—usually referred to as transnationalization modes—which characterize the organizational and legal vehicle by which an institution transnationalizes. According to Alam *et al.* (2013), there are six widely-used modes: 1. foreign branch campus, 2. franchising, 3. articulation, 4. distance/virtual education, 5. study abroad, and 6. double/dual degree. We add two others—validation and twinning. See Table 3 for definitions of these transnationalization modes. The TNHE literature, however, reveals a profusion of other terminology:

- access/feeder program,
- credit transfer/study abroad program,
- short-term or partial credit program,
- distance learning program,
- virtual university,
- tuition provider,
- teaching center,
- bi-national campus,

- independent campus,
- off-shore institution,
- international institution,
- joint award,
- dual award,
- joint degree,
- dual degree,
- partial credit,
- in-country flying faculty,
- blended delivery, and
- on-campus provision overseas.

Table 2. Organizational definitions of transnational higher education

Organization	Definition
Global Alliance for Transnational Education (GATE) (1997)	Transnational Education denotes any teaching or learning activity in which the students are in a different country (the host country) to that in which the institution providing the education is based (the home country). This situation requires that national boundaries be crossed by information about the education, and by staff and/or educational material.
Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC) (2001)	The program is conducted in accordance with a formal agreement between the Australian university and an overseas institution or organization; the program offered is taught partly or wholly offshore…; the completed program results in a recognized higher education qualification; the Australian university has developed the program and has a responsibility for overseeing the academic standards. (p. iv)
Council of Europe (2002)	All types of higher education study programmes, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based.
Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2005)	Cross-border education includes higher education that takes place in situations where the teacher, student, programme, institution/provider or course materials cross national jurisdictional borders. Cross-border higher education may include higher education by public/private and not-for-profit/for-profit providers. It encompasses a wide range of modalities, in a continuum from face-to-face (taking various forms such as students traveling abroad and campuses abroad) to distance learning (using a range of technologies and including e-learning).
International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE) (2010)	Transnational higher education includes distance education courses offered by higher education providers located in another country, joint programs offered between a local provider and a foreign institution, franchised courses offered with or without involvement or staff members from the parent institution, and foreign campuses of institutions developed with or without local partnerships.

Source: Adapted from British Council (2013)

Considering this profusion of terminology, it is no surprise that categorisation schemes have also surfaced in the TNHE literature, as a means for distinguishing the different transnationalization modes. Drew *et al.* (2008), for example, argued that the various transnationalization modes can be reduced to two dimensions: 1. the nature of the contractual agreements, and 2. the nature of the learning, teaching, and assessment provision. Healey and Bordogna (2014) regarded the differences among the transnationalization modes as simply a trade-off between the risk and the control of the transnational activity. For Choudaha *et al.* (2014), the transnationalization modes can be arrayed on a continuum, from low to high with respect to resource requirements, control, and complexity. And according to Wilson and Vlăsceanu (2000), the various transnationalization modes can be grasped according to: 1. the delivery mechanisms,

2. the institutional and organizational arrangements, or 3. the nature and quality of qualifications. Consequently, they held, some of the transnationalization modes actually refer to the vehicle for "delivering an educational programme (i.e. distance education), others to ways of establishing a programme/institution (i.e. franchising or twinning, branch campus), and others again to ways of offering primarily continuing education to certain new groups of students" (Wilson & Vlăsceanu, 2000, p. 78).

Table 3. Definitions of transnationalization modes

Mode	Definition
Foreign Branch Campus	An entity which is owned in whole or in part by a foreign education provider; which is operated in the name of the foreign education provider; which engages in some face-to-face teaching; and which provides access to an entire course of study which subsequently leads to a credential by the foreign education provider.
Franchising	An agreement in which a foreign higher education provider sells the legal right to a course of study to a local education provider, and which typically leads to a credential by the foreign education provider.
Articulation	An agreement in which a foreign education provider recognizes academic work which is completed at a local education provider. It is a kind of academic 'feeder'. It is similar to twinning, but does not require the partnering education providers to collaborate on content.
Distance/Virtual Education	A course of study which is offered locally by a foreign education provider, facilitated by the post, or increasingly, the internet.
Study Abroad	A course of study which is offered locally to foreign students.
Double/Dual Degree	An agreement which awards credentials from two different education providers—one local and one foreign—for the completed course of study.
Validation	An agreement in which the foreign education provider validates or certifies the course of study which is delivered by the local education provider. It is common in situations in which the local education provider lacks power to award credentials itself.
Twinning	An agreement which allows a student to follow a defined course of study which is comprised of both local and foreign delivery. The local education provider delivers content which is specified and developed by the foreign education provider. For example, a student might spend two years studying at a Malaysian institute before completing the degree in an Australian university.

Source: Adapted from ACA (2008), Clark (2012), and McBurnie & Pollock (1998)

If viewed strictly from an international trade perspective, then categorization turns squarely to the 'across or beyond' meaning of the Latin prefix *trans*. Indeed, ESIB (2011) maintained that TNHE can take three forms: international people mobility, program mobility, or institutional mobility. Likewise for Chen (2015), TNHE comes down to international students (students moving abroad), institutional partnerships (programs moving abroad), or offshore delivery (institutions moving abroad). And Knight (2003a) proposed a similar framework which is based on the thing which moves (but not limiting TNHE to only commercial ventures): people, providers, programs, and projects.

The Quality Assurance Agency of the United Kingdom, an independent body whose mandate is to monitor, and advise on, standards of higher education in the United Kingdom, recognises four distinct transnationalisation modes: 1. distance learning, 2. international branch campus, 3. franchising, and 4. validation. Healey (2015) took issue with this categorization, proposing a risk-based typology which draws on partnership theory and transaction cost analysis. His typology attempts to measure the degree of risk of market failure along six dimensions:

1. composition— the nature of the TNHE partnership,
2. structure— the nature of the TNHE partnership agreement,
3. scope— the range of activities in the TNHE partnership,
4. function— the goals of the TNHE partnership,
5. process— the means by which the goals of the TNHE partnership are to be achieved, and
6. outcome— the nature of the outcome of the TNHE partnership.

It appears to be the GATS framework for international trade, however, which is emerging as the categorization winner in the TNHE literature. GATS defines four different possibilities for international trade of services: cross-border supply, consumption abroad, commercial presence abroad, and presence of natural persons abroad. Applying the GATS framework to TNHE results in four distinct categories of transnationalization modes (OECD, 2004), each of which represents a different entity moving across or beyond (See Table 4.).

Table 4. The GATS framework for international trade

GATS	Mobility	Modes
Cross-Border Supply	Program Mobility	Distance Learning Licensing Franchising
Consumption Abroad	Student Mobility	Students Studying Abroad
Commercial Presence Abroad	Institution Mobility	Foreign Branch Campus Joint Venture
Presence of Natural Persons Abroad	Academic Mobility	Instructors Teaching Abroad

Source: Adapted from Czinkota (2006)

Note that consumption abroad here means the delivery of products locally to foreigners. This jibes with the definition of export by the U.S. Department of Commerce, which regulates the export of dual-use items such as nuclear materials, avionics, and computer software. An export is:

- any oral, written, electronic, or visual disclosure, shipment, transfer, or transmission of any commodity, technology (information, technical data, assistance) or software code;
- outside the U.S. to anyone, including U.S. citizens; or
- to a non-U.S. entity or individual, wherever located.

Accordingly, services which are delivered to foreign nationals in-country, including tourism services and, more apropos, higher education, are indeed considered exports by the American government. It is this logic which also justifies the inclusion of students studying abroad as a transnationalization mode.

RATIONALIZING TRANSNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION

It ought to be obvious that TNHE is premised on a different logic of internationalization than international studies, for example, or international assistance. Indeed, Knight and de Wit (1995) argued that the internationalization of higher education has historically been driven by economic and political rationales, and by cultural and educational rationales. Economic and political rationales include:

1. economic growth and investment in the future economy—the internationalization of higher education has a positive effect on international trade, bilateral economic relations, national competitiveness, and technological development;
2. human resources globalization—the internationalization of higher education is necessary, to equip students for a global labor market;
3. foreign policy—the internationalization of higher education is a form of soft diplomacy, improving a nation's brand image;
4. revenue generation—the internationalization of higher education earns additional income, especially with full fee-paying foreign students; and
5. educational demand—the internationalization of higher education serves students from nations which have limited capacity.

Cultural and educational rationales include:

1. cultural function—the internationalization of education spreads social values;
2. development of the individual—the internationalization of higher education is necessary, in order for students to learn about themselves by confronting alternative world-views;
3. research and teaching—the internationalization of higher education reflects the universal human enterprise of advancing knowledge and understanding;
4. institution-building—the internationalization of higher education strengthens the structures and systems of an institution; and
5. quality improvement—the internationalization of higher education can enhance the content and delivery of teaching and can increase the rigor of research.

TNHE, on the contrary, subscribes to a different set of rationales. Indeed, TNHE is most often associated with marketization, neo-liberalism, and globalization (Moutsios, 2008). As summarized by Sidhu and Christie (2014), higher education has now embraced "neo-liberal funding regimes, marketisation, cross-border movements of students as well as institutions, the centrality of information and communications technology and the challenges of a knowledge economy more generally" (p. 182).

Beginning with marketization, it is evident that TNHE has embraced—perhaps even accelerated—the paradigmatic shift from government-controlled systems of higher education in which higher education is for the public good, to a market-based system in which higher education is a good for the public (Jongbloed, 2003; Kehm, 2003; Altbach & Knight, 2007). It exploits the commodification of higher education (ESIB, 2011), spurring universities to market their wares (Alexander & Rizvi, 1993). It is certainly not isolated to the Western World; there is evidence of the marketization of higher education in Russia (Hare & Lugachev, 1999), Eastern and Central Europe (Czarniawska & Genell, 2002), Israel

(Oplatka, 2002), Asia (Gray *et al.*, 2003), and Africa (Ivy, 2001; Maringe, 2004; Maringe & Foskett, 2002). In summary, it re-defines the economic narrative of higher education. "Instrumental reasoning, new regimes of accountability, and strict adherence to the economic imperative are the defining features of the contemporary university. Competitiveness, excellence and performance are central to its survival" (Harris, 2008, p. 347).

Stromquist (2002) argued that this marketization of higher education can be explained partly from a social equity perspective. State-funded higher education, he contested, typically benefits the upper and middle classes of society, and consequently, it is intrinsically unfair. Similarly, Altbach and Davis (1999) observed that governments have increasingly viewed higher education as an individual not social benefit, and held, therefore, that individuals ought to bear the cost of higher education. Healey (2008) interpreted the rising commercial activity among universities in developed countries as a consequence of supply-side and demand-side factors in emerging markets. Drawing on institutional theory, Kerlin and Pollak (2011) proposed that broader exogenous environmental forces influence all not-for-profit organizations. And Carroll and Stater (2009) suggested that revenue diversification in not-for-profits can lead to greater financial stability.

Viewed through a policy lens, the marketization of higher education (and the TNHE which it encourages) appears to be more the result of pro-active decisions made by governments in recent decades. Consider the Australian case, for example. As mentioned previously, the conservative government in Australia deregulated and de-funded education in the late 1980s and early 1990s, opening the way for full fee-paying foreign students (Alexander & Rizvi, 1993; Smart & Ang, 1993). The total number of foreign students increased from 17,248 in 1987 to 39,490 in 1992, with full fee-paying foreign students rising from 1,109 to 30,296, most coming from Hong Kong, Malaysia, and Singapore (Department of Employment, Education and Training Higher Education Division, 1993). By 2013, however, almost 300,000 foreign students were enrolling annually at Australian universities, contributing $15 billion to the Australian economy (Group of Eight, 2014).

Cudmore (2005) reported on the marketization of the Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology (CAATs) in Canada, which were created in the 1960s to support economic development of the province of Ontario. He noted that in 2002 the government rewrote the mandate for the CAATs in order "to meet local, regional, and global *marketplace* demand" (Cudmore, 2005, p. 38, our emphasis). Subsequently, the CAATs have attempted to internationalize, with the recruitment of foreign students, the internationalization of the curriculum through foreign languages, overseas academic programs, faculty exchanges, and technical assistance to other countries.

Several nations have initiated policies (often accompanied by government-led incentives) with the explicit intention of becoming educational hubs within a global educational market (Chen, 2015). Malaysia (Gill, 2009) and Singapore (Mok, 2008), for example, have both been highlighted because of their national higher education strategies which aim not only to attract foreign students but also to lure foreign universities to set up branch campuses (St. George, 2006). The United Arab Emirates and Qatar, which now boast forty and nine foreign branch campuses respectively, are also much discussed, particularly due to the generous financial and infrastructure support from their governments (Becker, 2010). Twenty-two of the forty foreign branch campuses in the United Arab Emirates are located in Dubai, specifically within the so-called Dubai International Academic City, which offers 100 percent foreign ownership, tax exemption, and repatriation of profits. In Qatar, the government bears all infrastructure development costs for foreign branch campuses.

Perhaps the most obvious examples of a government's pro-active decisions to marketize higher education can be found within the European Union. In 1987, the ERASMUS program was developed by the European Union to support student exchanges with the European Union (Enders, 1998). In the 20 years since its inception, more than two million students have participated. In 1999, however, the European Union undertook an even bolder initiative. Named the Bologna Process after the Italian city in which the founding declaration was signed into effect, it aimed to create a single transparent and competitive higher education market out of the diverse higher education systems of 46 nations by adopting a standardized 3-cycle bachelor-master-doctoral progression and a common credit transfer system (Bennett *et al.*, 2010). The result has been the emergence of the European Area of Higher Education, the educational equivalent of Europe's currency-based Eurozone (EHEA, 1998). The marketization of higher education indeed!

Continuing with neo-liberalism, the marketization of higher education which TNHE encourages appears to have grown in tandem with a broader neo-liberal economic agenda, which has likewise left an imprint on TNHE. Neo-liberalism is an economic philosophy which advocates consumer agency, free markets, and private property. It eschews government participation and market interference. And it underpins modern views of economic growth and globalization (WHO, 2014). As summarized by Dudley (1998),

[t]he claim of globalization is that national economies are being increasingly subsumed into a global economy and that the discipline of international markets and money markets, rather than national, social, and/or political priorities, should determine public policy. These policies, almost without exception, require states to reduce public spending, deregulate capital and labour markets, minimize welfare provision, and either eliminate or privatize as much as possible of the welfare state (p. 25).

Neo-liberalism is evidenced in higher education at the general level in a number of ways. Chen (2015), for example, suggested that entrepreneurship has become an important activity of the modern university—a method for generating funding for research and teaching support, student services, and infrastructure maintenance and growth. Van Vught *et al.* (2002) contended that neo-liberalism has caused a shift in higher education from cooperation to competition. Harris (2008) noted that neo-liberalism is also reflected in the mission statements of today's universities, and in the aggressive promotion which they perform. And Kauppinen (2012) proposed that higher education has become part of a much larger global academic capitalism which is an outcome of the increasingly global circuits of economic activity. Slaughter and Rhoades (1997) even proposed that this academic capitalism can explicate the global dominance of the American university.

With respect to TNHE specifically, neo-liberalism is manifest in the policy of the World Trade Organization which promotes trade liberalization, including in educational services (Naidoo, 2010). Rikowski (2002) characterized this "as the facilitation of the business takeover of education through its commercialization, privatization, and capitalization" (p. 3) and which has led to a kind of invisible hand of education (Chen, 2015), and to a "single global marketplace of ideas, data, and communication" (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 8).

Neo-liberalism has also ushered in a new level of competition in higher education. As summarized by Lowrie and Hemsley-Brown (2011), "competition will define higher education and its being in the world" (p. 1081). This competition, however, consists not only of other universities but also of non-university education providers (Lourtie, 2001) and corporate universities (Husain, 2007). According to Lorange (2002), higher education has always had competition—universities competed for resources including money, faculty, facilities, and students. But they now also compete globally for students, with foreign institutions, and with commercial education providers. In its 2008 report, for example, the U.S.

Council of Graduate Schools underlined the efforts which Europe was making to retain its students, and to recruit more international students.

Chen (2015) maintained that TNHE is also a response to the growing global demand for higher education (and education in general), especially from emerging economies. According to UNESCO (2009), student numbers rose 125% from 1990 to 2007. This growth is due, Chen hinted, to rising incomes, changing demographics both domestically and internationally, and labor shortages. Bloom (2002) added that higher education has simply become a necessity—higher education is to today's knowledge economy as secondary education was to the industrial economy.

Many national higher education systems, however, are simply unable to meet this new demand. The leading providers of technical, medical, and commercial training in India, for example, can only serve about 1% of the market (Anastasios, 2011). To exacerbate the issue, according to Colucci *et al.* (2009), demand for higher education is outpacing (traditional) supply. They quoted Sir John Daniel who, in 1996, claimed that a sizable new university would need to be created every week merely to sustain the participation rates in higher education at the time. This excess demand—in India and elsewhere—argued Alam *et al.* (2013), can only be met by TNHE.

Consequently, many higher education institutions have shifted their financial support for emerging economies, and begun to serve full fee-paying foreign students. As mentioned previously, they have shifted from aid to trade. And for many of these institutions, these students have become an important source of income, especially as public budgets have withered (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

In the neo-liberal competitive global market for higher education, reputation has also become increasingly salient, a reflection of neo-liberalism's emphasis on consumer agency. Consider the importance which is now ascribed to university league tables, such as the Shanghai Academic Ranking of World Universities (See www.shanghairanking.com.). From a TNHE perspective, the level of a university's internationalization has also become a measure of its excellence (Harris, 2008). Indeed, both students and sponsors alike consider it to be a contributing factor in a university's brand image (Naidoo, 2010).

Hand-in-hand with marketization and neo-liberalism is the notion of globalization. Indeed, the emergence of TNHE has also mirrored the acceleration of globalization which was triggered in the 1980s with the opening of the global economy (Eggins, 2003). To be fair, different higher education institutions respond differently to the forces of globalization (Luitjen-Lub, 2007; Maringe & Foskett, 2002). But from a macro perspective, one of the most important effects of globalization "has been to crack open existing territorialities to enable different local actors to participate in international arenas that were once open only to nation-states" (Sidhu & Christie, 2014, p. 182). As articulated by Kwiek (2001), globalization has caused a major redefinition of the general responsibilities of the nation state, and a rethinking of the role of the nation-state in politics and economics. Simultaneously, higher education has de-monopolized, de-institutionalized, and de-nationalized (Kampf, 2002). It is impossible to understand TNHE, therefore, without understanding it in the context of the forces of globalization (Singh *et al.*, 2007).

According to the International Monetary Fund (2008), globalization is primarily an economic phenomenon, involving the increasing integration of national economies through the growth of international trade, investment, and capital flows. It implies the reduction or elimination of national barriers, temporal limits, and spatial boundaries. In the words of Thomas Friedman, author of bestsellers *The Lexus and the Olive Tree: Understanding Globalization* (1999) and *The World is Flat: A Brief History of the 21st Century* (2005), globalization is the "inexorable integration of markets, nation-states, and technologies to a degree never witnessed before—in a way that is enabling individuals, corporations, and nation-states to reach round the world farther, faster, deeper, and cheaper than ever before" (1999, p. 14).

In the context of TNHE, Haug (2000) emphasized that "what is genuinely new and explains the growth of transnational education is that students are less and less restricted to what their national system is prepared to offer" (par. 3). This reduction of restrictions is due, in part, to the new opportunities for TNHE which are afforded to students by information technologies (Husain, 2007). Indeed, the internet has completely transformed the notion (and reputation) of distance learning from the days during which it meant correspondence school. The University of London International Programmes, for example, which was chartered by Queen Victoria in 1858, now has more than 54,000 students in 180 nations who follow courses on their own time and in their own locations (University of London, 2014). The reduction in temporal limits and spatial boundaries has been accelerated further by the "emergence of 'global English' as an alternative to the national language for the acquisition of higher education qualifications" (Haug, 2000, par. 5).

The impact of globalization on higher education is most pronounced in emerging economies, which often have unmet demand (Naidoo, 2010) or which face other distinctive challenges (Husain, 2007), including:

- the inability to offer degrees in certain scientific disciplines,
- a lack of curricula and teaching materials in local languages,
- limited domestic expertise, and
- restrictive social customs (access to higher education for women, for example).

As summarized by Lourtie (2001), the growth of TNHE to emerging economies is "a sign that the national systems are not responding to the needs of potential students" (p. 6).

CONCLUSION

There is really nothing new about the internationalization of higher education. Indeed, as summarized by Dirlik (2012), "students have been attending 'foreign' universities, and universities have been recruiting 'foreign' students, since the origins of the university" (p. 49). Consider the University of Karueein, for example, which, as the world's oldest higher education institution, has welcomed Muslim scholars from across the Islamic world since its founding in 859.

Recently, however, there has been growth in transnational higher education, a specific form of internationalization which treats education as a product which can be packaged and sold abroad. TNHE emerged in the 1990s, precipitated by the marketization of higher education, a neo-liberal economic agenda, and the forces of globalization. Consider the rise of education, hubs, for example, which reflect a kind of global arms race to attract foreign universities to 'set up shop'.

The transnationalization of higher education cannot be ignored. On the contrary, it reflects a massive disruption to the traditional view of higher education. The University Grants Commission, India's higher education regulator, amended its rules in early 2021, allowing Indian institutions to establish foreign branch campuses. And doubtless the COVID-19 pandemic (itself a very tangible manifestation of globalization) has prompted many higher education administrators to realize that, despite the limits on student travel, higher education is very mobile indeed, when viewed as a product…rather than in its original form of the *universitas magistrorum et scholarium.*

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Chapter 3
University Business Education for the "New Global Normal"

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ABSTRACT

This chapter examines the effect of the COVID-19 pandemic on university business education within the context of a post-pandemic era which has created the "new global normal." The speed at which a nation's society and economy will recover in the "new global normal" shall largely determine the degree to which business organizations and university business education in different nations reinvent themselves to meet the new global transitions brought on by the pandemic. This will entail being more innovative with products, services, organizational structure, and business modeling than in the past. The chapter suggests university business education focuses on entrepreneurial leadership to combat post-pandemic uncertainty which is a complex situation requiring a delicate "balancing act" between practice and theory that considers its effect on global income inequality to be successful for all societies.

"Innovation distinguishes between a leader and a follower" ~Steve Jobs

INTRODUCTION

Globalization is the word used to describe the growing interdependence of the world's economies created mainly by cross-border trade in good, services, technology, and flows of investment, information, and people who represent highly diverse cultures and languages (Kolb, 2018). Consequently, the numerous effects of globalization are highly complex and affect nations, organizations, and their constituents in a myriad of ways; in addition, the COVID-19 pandemic has accelerated these effects so that no government, organization, or individual can yet effectively address the challenges ahead on a global basis (WEF, 2021). Therefore, due to the pandemic the term "New Global Normal" supersedes Andersen and Wong's (2013) "New Normal" that primarily covered competitive advantage in the digital economy of the 21st century.

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Their work focused on intangible factors related to the firm such as intangible resources and competencies, transaction cost efficiency, organizational ambidexterity, and relational optimality. While these firm-level factors certainly remain critical in today's business climate, the post-pandemic era (i.e., "new global normal") will provide a new set of business/social trends and—yes—opportunities that are different from the past; therefore, a paradigm shift in thinking will be required for all to succeed in the long-term.

However, the speed at which a nation's society recovers in the post-pandemic era will largely determine the degree to which business organizations in different nations shall reinvent themselves for the "new global normal". Basically, the pandemic has created an imperative for companies to reconfigure their operations, and greater productivity will follow based on the extent to which they do so (Sneader & Singhal, 2021). This will entail being more innovative with products, services, organizational structure, and business modeling than in the past.

The global management consulting firm McKinsey & Company, based in Washington, DC, USA, suggests individuals, organizations, and society seek to shape their futures now instead of dwelling on the past or even the present. As such, university business education must also adapt to the enormous transitions that are already occurring worldwide in the post-pandemic era. Some of these major transitions include the following (Sneader & Singhal, 2021):

- Consumer confidence and shopping behaviors
- Digitally-based productivity gains accelerate the Fourth Industrial Revolution
- Supply chains rebalance and shift
- The future of work arrives ahead of schedule
- Environmental sustainability become increasingly recognized
- Healthcare systems reform to accommodate the "new global normal"
- National governments required to tackle rising debt
- Dramatic restructuring of the global economic and social order

Before delving into the university business education arena, it is also important to examine the perspectives of other pertinent business sources regarding the changes that must occur in the "new global normal". For example, the US Small Business Administration (SBA, 2020) believes leveraging the following four business trends will be important for its constituents that comprise approximately 50 percent of the US Gross Domestic Product (GDP):

- Business will continue to prioritize e-commerce
- Alternative payment options will proliferate (e.g., mobile pay)
- Remote work will persist
- Businesses offering virtual services will continue to be in high demand

In addition, *Forbes* magazine published a report on December 7, 2020 that covered a total of10 biggest business trends for 2021 and beyond:

- Remote workforces will require additional corporate support
- Employee/managerial data literacy will need to be increased
- Business model innovation must become a priority
- Automation will increase within the white-collar sector

- Decentralized finance such as blockchain technology will increase
- Virtual interfaces will transform how businesses offer their services
- Changing viewpoints from global to local efforts will be required
- Jobs will need to be more meaningful and purposeful [worldwide]
- (Business) sustainability will become increasingly important
- More authentic social media will drive customer engagement

Examining these and other related sources establishes the foundation for the remainder of this chapter regarding university business education. This is important because the "new global normal" has—and will continue to—disrupt various aspects of life and business in most parts of the post-pandemic world (Brammer, Branicki, & Linnenluecke, 2020; Sanbu, 2020).

Before the pandemic that began in early 2020, the so-called Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) was beginning to have an impact on economies, societies, and personal lives alike (WEF, 2021b). In fact, the value creation potential of this revolution was expected to exceed US$3.7 ***trillion*** by 2025 (MIT Technology Review Insights, 2020). How this figure could eventually change by then is probably, at this point, anybody's guess. However, the power of artificial intelligence (AI) and entrepreneurship, among other concerns such as firm competitiveness or trade agreements, should help the global economy recover over time from the pandemic crisis (Christiansen & Škrinjarić, 2021; Dencker, et al., 2021; Raisch & Krakowski, 2021).

Within this context it is and will remain necessary for university business education to re-examine its current offerings to accommodate the realities of the post-pandemic environment (Bagley, et al., 2020; Bunch, 2020). This effort will entail providing courses and training that consider the aforementioned global transitions and trends to make business students and their future business organizations more effective in the post-pandemic 4IR. We should also acknowledge several underlying issues that are crucial in obtaining smooth 21st century business operations in many, if not most, parts of the world.

The first issue is job satisfaction and voluntary employee turnover which has long been known to negatively impact effectiveness and morale (Liu et al., 2012). Executives today more than ever must ensure that key talent is retained, an effort which requires these executives to hone their management and leadership skills—particularly given the increasingly multicultural and multigenerational composition of many corporate teams today in the workforce that are linked to organizational effectiveness (Christiansen, 2020; Hajro, Gibson, & Pudelko, 2017; Holtom et al., 2008).

The second issue concerns a growing global skills gap and resulting talent shortage that threatens many nations and organizations (Gartner, 2020; SHRM, 2019; Whittaker & Williams, 2016). In fact, this shortage has nearly doubled over the past decade according to ManpowerGroup Research (2020). There are steps being taken to address the situation, such as reskilling employees via corporate training and tuition reimbursement programs, but research maintains that nearly 44 percent of firms will continue to face the problem over the next five years (McKinsey & Company, 2020).

The third and potentially the most critical issue is the rapidly aging population worldwide which was already having a huge negative effect on global business even before the pandemic (Chand & Tung, 2014; United Nations, 2020). The Global Burden of Disease, which was a study conducted by the World Health Organization and the World Bank, predicted a huge increase in disability due to age-related chronic disease in all regions of the world (US Department of State, 2007). The current pandemic has obviously only exacerbated the situation among the aged (and younger) population worldwide which will affect business operations over time.

How well business organizations (and business education) effectively address these three global issues in the future will largely determine their productivity as previously mentioned, which remains the primary determinant of long-term national economic growth and living standards, especially in a post-pandemic, ageing world (Bloom, 2019; Dieppe, 2020; Drucker, 2002; McKinsey Global Institute, 2015). However, it is important to mention here that global productivity has been declining for some years now, so paying attention how to resolve this reality will be one of the critical issues for business education and its graduates to address (Bailey, Bosworth, & Doshi, 2020; McKinsey Global Institute, 2017).

OVERVIEW OF BUSINESS EDUCATION IN UNIVERSITIES

The Graduate Management Admission Council (GMAC) located in Reston, Virginia, USA administers the examinations for global admission to graduate business schools that confer the MBA degree and related awards. In 2013, the Council published a book titled, *Disrupt or Be Disrupted: A Blueprint for Change in Management Education*, which analyzes the challenges business schools will confront in the face of dramatic marketplace transformation, social and environmental changes, and technological advances that have necessarily led to entirely new ways of learning, interacting, and information sharing.

One of the major aspects of the book concerns the need for a more holistic graduate management education focusing on a key question: "How can [business] schools ensure that their curriculum program (content, structure, and activities) aligns with the [current] needs and demands of managers and organizations?" (Rynes & Bartunek, 2013, p. 180). This very question resonates with the very purpose for this work.

Although there is a growing crisis of confidence in management studies that is apparently based on a lack of value in management research output, the post-pandemic era will demand that university business education produce high-quality graduates who can effectively tackle the challenges of the "new global normal", especially in the fields of entrepreneurship involving STEM subjects (Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics), big data, and artificial intelligence (AI) (Badawi et al., 2019; Harley, 2019; Pacheco, 2020). Entrepreneurship programs in higher education have recently grown rapidly and globally because such programs promise a wide range of potential outcomes over time (Nabi, et al., 2017). Professional accreditation provided by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) and the European Quality Improvement System (EQUIS) are the most internationally recognized business school accrediting services for bachelor-, master-, and doctoral-level programs around the world (Hodgson & Clausen, 2012). These organizations are important to raise the quality standards of business education even further.

John A. Byrne of the University of Delaware and the former Editor of US-based *BusinessWeek* recently posted an article regarding the eight trends in business education over the past decade that remain true today:

- Online business education: Some of the more recent entrants include the University of Michigan, the University of California-Davis Graduate School of Management, and the University of Illinois' Gies College of Business which is the fastest growing MBA program in the world.
- Declining interest in the traditional 2-year residential MBA program.
- STEM-oriented business programs are increasingly popular.
- More women are entering top business programs than ever before.

- Canadian and European MBA and other business programs are becoming more popular than US programs due largely to the easier visa process for international students.
- Increasing interest in business analytics, entrepreneurship, and leadership skill development.
- Growing acceptance of the Graduate Record Examination (GRE) over the Graduate Management Admission Test (GMAT).
- Huge growth of a specialized master's degree in business that include areas such as supply chain management, accounting & finance, cybersecurity, and data analytics.

It should be highlighted that undergraduate business education is just as important as graduate-level programs which tend to garner more attention due to the higher salaries and other income that usually accompany the latter. In addition, life-long learning should also be stressed because the post-pandemic world will demand it (Stainstreet, 2020).

Mentioning the plethora of different university business programs presently in existence around the world today would go beyond the scope of this chapter; in addition, listing any particular program could be considered as biased. Therefore, it is suggested that the reader consult one of several university ranking organizations such as the QS World University Ranking system or the Times Higher Education (THE) World University Ranking system to gauge which business program would be the most suitable for the individual. Issues to consider include those listed above as well as location, general reputation, accreditation, and cost based on carefully selected life goals and the realities of the "new global normal".

THE GLOBAL CLASSROOM TODAY

Contemporary globalization has produced a "global classroom" with which many university business and management programs must contend today (Campbell, 2009; Safipour, Wenneberg, & Hadziabdic, 2017; Vas Taras et al., 2013). While such classrooms have existed for decades due to international exchange programs in which students from around the world could participate from high school through university, it is only relatively recently that the effective management of such diversity has warranted more serious examination (Moyer, 2010). This is especially true when considering foreign students whose native language is not English—the "lingua franca" of most global classrooms in increasingly "internationalized" universities that were previously fragmented and ad hoc in their research, teaching, and service to society (de Wit, 2020; Jenkins, 2017).

The pandemic has obviously accelerated the existence of the "global classroom" because of the need for universities (and K-12 institutions) to deploy the use of online or e-learning to minimize coronavirus infection (Dhawan, 2020). Therefore, university business instructors must be prepared more than ever before to successfully navigate the "global classroom" that is often comprised of students with diverse cultural and language backgrounds. This situation requires not only getting used to different teaching platforms and styles than in-person instruction; it also requires cultural intelligence and sensitivity to the needs of non-native English speaking business students, many who must eventually work in multinational firms to support cross-border operations (Koris, Örtenblad, & Ojala, 2017). The author's experience as an online and in-person university business instructor at fully accredited institutions in the USA and abroad with native and non-native English-speaking students supports this last statement as well as some extant literature and doctoral research (see, for example, Crosby, 2016; Tajeddin, Atai, & Shayeghi, 2019; Tananuraksakul, 2012).

Due to the continued development of the "global classroom", particularly newer business education instructors should eventually include Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language (TEFL/TESL) experience and training in their backgrounds. While this topic requires an entirely different chapter because of its extensive and complex composition, suffice it to say for now that obtaining training via the CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) program administered by University of Cambridge in the United Kingdom would be an excellent place to start seeking such training. There are many other similar programs too extensive to list here, but the CELTA program is considered the best in the world.

DISCUSSION

University business education should be grounded in questions of meaning as well as knowledge so as not to corrode students' critical thinking abilities in the "new global normal" (Holt, 2020). The post-pandemic era could very well include a deep yet relatively short-lived global recession that rivals the Great Recession of 2008 due to the pandemic over the past year. In fact, the World Economic Forum's main theme for its annual meeting in Davos, Switzerland in January, 2021 was titled, "The Great Reset Initiative", in which it stated there is an urgent need for global stakeholders to cooperate in simultaneously managing the direct consequences of the COVID-19 crisis that is preceding any future global recession. This includes sustainable business model innovation which shows promise of improving to include both social and business value, although additional effort is needed (Young & Reeves, 2020).

Therefore, business graduates must be capable of developing effective solutions to minimize the effects of a global financial fallout that could begin with a major stock market correction in 2021 as numerous financial entities such as JP Morgan, Marketwatch, and Nasdaq have been warning recently. Such an event would further increase the value—and necessity—of business graduates in entrepreneurship as mentioned earlier. In any case, regardless of the business environment, one simply needs to examine daily media on television and the Internet to see that traditional businesses are being made obsolete by industries based on technological advancement and sustainable business modeling innovation such as Amazon, Coursera, Spotify, and Uber. This will continue through this century due mainly to the Law of Exponential Progress in technological development that was first noticed by Gordon Moore who was a co-Founder and Chairman of Intel Corporation in the 1960s (Lima, et al., 2019). Essentially, business scalability is one necessary component of the "new global normal".

It should not go unnoticed that this reality will continue to increase the chasm between rich and poor because of disruptive technology such as artificial intelligence (AI) and edge computing that are reinventing business on a global scale within multiple sectors such as manufacturing, power, sanitation, and transportation (IFC, 2019). This "technochasm" is creating a widening wealth gap or economic inequality that connects deeply to policymaking on national and corporate levels for sustainable development (Kanbur, 2021, p. 6; UNCTAD, 2018). Therefore, business education must also incorporate into its programs some course material that examines economic inequality and any measures needed to narrow the gap via entrepreneurship, human resource management, and other business-related areas.

The reader should readily notice this chapter has mentioned entrepreneurship multiple times with regards to university business education. The primary purpose for this repetition is that continued technological development based on the Law of Exponential Progress will continue to displace workers in both blue- *and* white-collar professions who will require ongoing education and training to remain

competitive in the global job marketplace. This displacement or unemployment of workers will derive from multiple industries that may currently seem highly stable such as finance, insurance, law, or even public administration. This reality will require the need for entrepreneurial leaders who can create new jobs for their constituent nations and industries while developing expertise in the traditional business areas will also be important.

As incremental innovation eventually leads to radical innovation (Lee, 2011), thus creating sudden changes in job and industry composition, organizations and individuals versed in entrepreneurial concepts and practice can take advantage of quickly moving global realities. Continuous learning should focus on entrepreneurship at least as much as more traditional business areas such as accounting, finance, marketing, and management to meet post-pandemic realities. In fact, the author highly suggests all university business programs should encourage synthesizing the dimensions of entrepreneurial leadership into these core business subjects. Some examples of these dimensions include calculated risk taking, creativity, vision, and experiments.

McGrath and Macmillan (2000) introduced the concept of entrepreneurial leadership by suggesting that in dynamic markets, where there is increased uncertainty and competitive pressures like today, a new type of leader is required to exploit opportunities for competitive advantage. Entrepreneurial leadership can be a catalyst for strategic business innovation that will be required in the post-pandemic world since innovation is the driver of change (Rios, 2016). In a post-pandemic business environment in which uncertainty and competition will be dominant features, entrepreneurial leadership shall be a critical source of competitive advantage; therefore, business executives, managers, and human resource departments alike should become experts at identifying employees with this quality and promote them quickly within the organization.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has examined the present status of university business education within the context of the COVID-19 pandemic which has created widespread disruption in the global economy that university business education must address. It should be noted here that the incredible rise in computing power, automation, and robotics has significantly decreased the time it takes for the typical Fortune 500 firm today to reach a market capitalization of at least US$1 billion. In the 1980s, it required approximately two decades for a business organization to reach this goal; however, just before the pandemic it was being achieved in a fraction of that time.

For example, the global transportation technology company Uber reached this goal in only three years. What this example demonstrates is that the "speed of business" has dramatically increased since the last century which should continue in the post-pandemic world. Therefore, university business education must continue to prepare its graduates not only for lightning speed change in the business environment, but also for uncertainty in the post-pandemic world – a complex situation that will require a delicate "balancing act" to be successful.

Many business organizations have proven during the pandemic that they can adapt quickly to the various transitions mentioned in the Introduction. This ability has manifested itself in examples such as establishing remote work within their respective organizations or developing a vaccine in months instead of years that used to be the norm. This evidence should allow the reader to surmise that many business organizations can and will continue to develop other effective solutions for many of the challenges they

will continue to face with the global transitions mentioned above. However, special attention should be afforded to the three critical issues outlined above: 1) job satisfaction and employee turnover; 2) the growing global skills gap and talent shortage; and 3) the rapidly ageing global population.

It should be highlighted here that more disruptive change could appear from anywhere which can pose unprecedented scenarios in the post-pandemic world; therefore, it is important for global leaders, business executives – and university business departments – not to become complacent once the current coronavirus crisis has abated. These changes can derive from economic, environmental, political, and social factors beyond the disruptive technological challenges mentioned earlier. Recent examples include the storming of the US Capitol by political extremists on January 6, 2021 in Washington, DC, the ongoing global warming crisis of which (most of) the entire planet is aware (but not yet being too effective internationally in its solutions to the problem), and even the China-Taiwan conflict that could erupt into a full-scale war possibly involving two economic superpowers.

It is critical to acknowledge that technology develops in gaps and growth patterns which promote both economic and geopolitical power over time. China and the USA are the two leading technological giants of the world today, and both nations are presently in a growing competition for global supremacy in economic, military, and political spheres that mirror the Cold War rivalry between the Former Soviet Union and the USA. Although eight of the Top 10 technology firms in the world today are found in the USA today, the Chinese are gaining ground with their firms such as Alibaba and Tencent. University business education must continue to monitor these advancements and take any necessary actions to keep their business program offerings current, relevant, and competitive.

The global marketization of higher education that has been developing over the past decade or so has increased the need for business instructors to develop competence in, or at least exposure to, Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language due to the increasing numbers of non-native English-speaking students who constitute a growing population in university business (and other) departments worldwide. The purpose for such training and exposure is to enhance the learning process for such populations. The author's experience shows that much work remains in this aspect of university business education, especially in non-English speaking nations that employ both native- and non-native English speaking instructors.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

There are numerous research activities among others the reader could consider in the context of this chapter. Probably most important and effective ones include the following:

- A longitudinal randomized experiment that investigates the motivation and intellect formation of business education students in entrepreneurship, innovation, and leadership
- A grounded theory study on the effectiveness of native- vs. non-native English speaking business instructors in English and non-English speaking nations

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Disruptive Technology: An innovation that significantly alters the way that consumers, industries, or businesses operate. A disruptive technology sweeps away the systems or habits it replaces because it has attributes that are recognizably superior.

Entrepreneurial Leadership: The act of organizing a group of people to achieve a common goal using proactive entrepreneurial behavior by optimizing risk, innovating to take advantage of opportunities, taking personal responsibility, and managing change within a dynamic environment for the benefit of an organization.

Globalization: The growing interdependence of the world's economies created mainly by cross-border trade in goods, services, technology, and flows of investment, information, and people who represent highly diverse cultures and languages.

Innovation: A new or changed entity creating or redistributing value.

TEFL/TESL: Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language.

Chapter 4
Business Education in Japan: Adapting to Changes in Japanese Management

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ABSTRACT

In Japan, the most prominent players in business education are corporations because they provide on-the-job training to their employees, particularly new graduates. However, with the low growth of the Japanese economy after the collapse of the bubble economy around 1990 and the recent drastic changes in the international environment, it is necessary to reexamine business education. To cope with the drastically changing environment, many Japanese companies are evolving their education model to emphasize off-the-job training in addition to on-the-job training. The main target of such training now includes senior executives, in addition to junior- to mid-level executives. Business schools play a role in educating senior executives. Although major Japanese companies utilize top business schools overseas, Japanese business schools are still the major education providers. This chapter discusses the recent changes, prospects, and issues concerning Japanese business schools.

INTRODUCTION

One of the reasons for the phenomenal growth of post-war Japan was the spread and development of education while realizing the principle of equal opportunity. The low growth of the Japanese economy after the collapse of the bubble economy around 1990 and the dramatic changes in the international environment in recent years, call for a reexamination of business education in Japan. Specialized educational institutions and intracompany education both play a major role in Japanese business education, which contributes to the uniqueness of Japanese management. This book presents information on the trends and future of business education worldwide. This chapter aims to explain the relationship between Japanese management and business education and discuss the state of Japan's business education in the

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past, present and future. It provides suggestions for reforming business education in Japan and encourages innovations in business education in other countries.

This chapter also introduces the history and structure of business education in Japan and its relationship to the corporate world. Since human resource education strongly influences corporate behavior, this chapter is also intended to help people outside Japan to better understand the management of Japanese companies.

Japan has three major players in business education: 1) companies that provide on-the-job training (OJT), 2) universities, and 3) private education providers. Local governments and chambers of commerce can also offer business education programs through universities, corporations, and private education providers. Companies are the biggest players in the Japanese business education ecosystem. Japanese companies have traditionally emphasized OJT for business management education without paying enough attention to the education that new graduates receive at university. This approach has been underpinned by the Japanese management system, which is symbolized by lifetime employment, seniority-based wage systems, enterprise labor unions, and the simultaneous recruitment of new graduates.

Therefore, the education provided by most universities and private institutions is limited to basic business knowledge or knowledge related to specific professions like accounting, law, and engineering. Companies generally have low expectations regarding the level of business management education provided by universities. Thus, OJT has proven to be highly effective in transferring internal business/management knowledge and instilling corporate culture and values.

However, Japan's compulsory education system, high schools, and universities provide the foundation for OJT; hence, companies can educate new employees in various fields to suit their needs and build a high level of competence.

OJT as a part of the business education has been one of the key foundations of Japanese management. However, there are suggestions to reconsider this educational model following the Japanese economy's long-term slump. For Japanese businesses to cope with disruptive environments, it is necessary to examine the current status of and changes in higher education institutions (HEI) and corporate business education. This chapter focuses particularly on corporations and business schools, which are HEIs that provide business education.

AN OVERVIEW OF JAPANESE BUSINESS EDUCATION

Background and History of the Japanese Education System

Japan's population increased by about 2.7 million from 123,611,167 in 1990 to 126,309,690 in 2019 (as of February 1, 2019). Its population has been declining since its peak in 2007, and it may be difficult to expect further economic growth based on the increase in population. The youth population began to decline before the rest. The population of 18-year-olds, which is the general age for enrolling in higher education, declined from 2.01 million in 1990 to 1.18 million in 2019. The number of universities increased from 507 in 1990 to 786 in 2019. From 1990 to 2019, the percentage of students enrolled in higher education increased from 24.6% to 53.7% for universities, decreased from 11.7% to 4.4% for junior colleges, and increased from 16.0% to 23.6% for special training colleges.

The Japanese education system starts with preschool and is followed by six years of primary education, six years of secondary education (three years each of lower secondary education and upper secondary

education) and three years of higher education. Compulsory education in Japan lasts for nine years—six years of primary education followed by three years of secondary education. The academic year in primary and secondary schools and technical schools is from April 1–March 31 and is set by law. In universities and technical colleges, the president or rector determines the beginning and end of the academic year.

The school education system in modern Japan originated from the promulgation of the "National Plan for Education" in 1872. It was changed to reflect the democratization policy of education immediately after World War II. It introduced six years of elementary education, three years of secondary education, three years of higher education, and four years of university; the higher education system was consolidated into "universities." In 1961, in response to the growing need for diverse human resources due to rapid industrial and economic development, the "College of Technology" system was established to unify the five-year educational period for secondary school graduates. Subsequently, the number of HEIs in Japan rapidly increased primarily due to the rise of private universities from 122 in 1955 to 600 in 2016; conversely, the percentage of national universities decreased from 31.6% in 1955 to 11.1% in 2016(Statistical Handbook of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2017).

Amid the popularization of higher education in the 1970s, the percentage of students attending universities and colleges doubled from 16.1% in 1966 to 38.6% in 1976. Maintaining and improving the quality of higher education is a major political issue. The Central Council for Education, established by the Ministry of Education, declared the reform of the school education system in 1971.

The 1998 report by Ministry of Education indicated the need for practical education focused on developing highly specialized human resources; in 2003, professional graduate schools were established to meet this need. These schools include those for law, teacher education, business, accounting, public policy, public health, and clinical psychology. The Certified Evaluation and Accreditation (CEA) system was established as a third-party evaluation scheme. The Special Zones for Structural Reform Act was amended to allow corporations to enter university management. In 2004, national universities and a public university corporation system were established..

In July 2014, the fifth recommendation of the Council for the Implementation of Education Rebuilding proposed the institutionalization of new types of HEIs for practical professional education. After a specific system was designed by the Central Council for Education and the School Education Act was partially revised in 2017, professional and vocational universities and vocational junior colleges were established within the university system. As a result of the partial revision of the Standards for the Establishment of Universities and the Standards for the Establishment of Junior Colleges, professional and vocational faculties and departments were established in existing universities and junior colleges in April 2019.

Compared to other countries, Japan does not invest extensively in education. The total public expenditure on education as a percentage of total government expenditure (2015) is 8.0% for all education levels (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development:OECD average: 11.1%) and 1.7% higher education (OECD average: 3.0%). The total expenditure on educational institutions as a percentage of the GDP(Gross domestic product) is 4.1% for all education levels (OECD average: 5.0%) and 1.4% for higher education (OECD average: 1.5%).

Japanese Business Education

History of Japanese Business Education

The first educational institution for commerce in Japan—the Commercial Law Training Institute (now known as Hitotsubashi University)—was established in 1875 by Eiichi Shibusawa in Tokyo. Since then, schools of commercial law and commerce have been established throughout the country and throughout the country, and some universities and high schools followed this trend, incorporating these fields in their education system.. In 1884, the Meiji government stipulated general rules for commercial schools and established commercial education as an institution (Shimada, 2009).

Before World War II, commercial schools trained leaders of the local economy and many of their graduates were active in the Japanese economy. Traditionally, higher commercial schools focused on developing clerical and numerical skills, like bookkeeping and accounting, and the acquisition of computer skills computer skills in accordance with industry demands and students' career paths.. The specialization required in bookkeeping, accounting, and computer skills traditionally covered by commercial education is becoming increasingly sophisticated as economic and social systems become more complex. For this reason, an increasing number of students are entering universities and vocational schools after high school to gain more advanced specialized knowledge.

As the world's systems become complex, liberal arts education is becoming more important as a background for specialized knowledge in business education and as a guideline to cope with change. Hence, in recent years, there has been a trend to introduce liberal arts into executive education within companies. However, the number of universities offering liberal arts courses has been decreasing.

History of Japanese Business Schools

In the 1970s, the need to learn Western business methods prompted Japanese companies to send their executive candidates to Western business schools. For instance, Mitsubishi Corporation, one of Japan's leading international companies, began a program for this in 1973 (Mitsubishi Corporation, 1985). The need to establish business schools in Japan has increased with the growth and internationalization of Japanese companies.

The history of business schools in Japan can be divided into two major periods. The first period began in 1978 when Keio University opened Japan's first business school which offered a master's degree. This was followed by the opening of the IUJ Graduate School of International Management in Niigata in 1988 at the request of the business community, the University of Tsukuba Graduate School of Business Sciences as an evening business school for working adults in 1989, and the Kobe University Graduate School of Business Administration MBA program for working adults in 1989. During this period, all business schools in Japan offered only a master's degree in business. The main focus of such schools was "to teach and research academic theories and applications, study in-depth, or cultivate in-depth knowledge and outstanding abilities to engage in occupations requiring a high degree of specialization and contribute to the improvement of culture" (School Education Law, 1947, Article 99, para. 1).

The second phase began in 2000 when the first generation "professional graduate school" system opened the doors of graduate schools to working people. It further advanced after 2003, when the current "professional graduate school" system was enacted. According to the School Education Law (1947, Article 99, para. 2), a professional graduate school is "a graduate school that teaches and researches

academic theories and applications and aims to cultivate profound knowledge and outstanding abilities to play a role in professions that require a high level of expertise." To offer specialized management courses, Hitotsubashi University's Graduate School of International Corporate Strategy was established in 2000. This was followed by the Nagoya University of Commerce and Aoyama Gakuin University's Graduate School of International Management. Six Graduate School departments were established in 2003; further, seven departments were established in 2004, 2005, and 2006, respectively, amounting to 21 departments in total.

Table 1. Comparison of master's course and business schools of professional graduate schools

	Business Schools	
	Master's course	Professional Graduate School
Completion Requirements	30 credits	30 credits
	Master's thesis	
Practitioner Faculty		More than 30%
Teaching Method		Case method, fieldwork, interactive discussion
Standard Period of Study	2 years	2 years

Source: Current Situation and Issues Surrounding Graduate Schools of Business Administration (2019), Ministry of Education.

Professional graduate schools emphasized the case method and fieldwork. Some major business schools that offered a master's degree, like Keio Business School, used the case method extensively.

Issues of Japanese Business Schools

In response to the rapid increase in the number of business schools since 2003, several organizations have conducted surveys to evaluate them and have found several issues. One of these organizations is ABEST21, an accredited organization, which surveyed 200 Japanese companies in 2009. The survey collected responses from 53 companies; the average number of employees was 9,900 (50% in the manufacturing industry and 40% in companies with international activities). It found that most Japanese companies did not value domestic or international MBAs in their personnel evaluations. This was because employees with MBAs could not achieve the desired results their respective organizations by using their MBA experience. In addition, many companies were unsure of the actual condition of business schools in Japan and the content being taught in them. In many cases, practitioner faculty members, who are supposed to bridge the gap between theory and practice, rely on their past achievements without updating their knowledge (Ito, 2010). The percentage of MBA holders in management positions in the United States in 2003 was 37%, compared to 0.7% in Japan (Koike & Inoki, 2003).

In addition, the Japan Association for University Accreditation (JUAA) surveyed business schools in Japan in 2011 and highlighted the following four challenges faced by business schools, which include issues regarding the society:

1. Business schools are not well known in society and the industry, and business school degrees are not linked to employment and promotion in Japanese companies.

2. Business schools are not always in tune with the needs of society. The mission and objectives of business schools, their educational goals, and the perception of the people they train are unclear, so a common understanding of what kind of faculties are needed by society has not been formed. At a minimum, each business school needs to clarify its mission and objectives, educational goals, and the people to be trained. It must also consider what knowledge and skills will be acquired by the students as learning outcomes. Furthermore, it is necessary to establish a system to measure learning outcomes based on the objectives and educational content of each technical college.
3. In Japan, many students attend business schools while continuing to work. Sometimes, it is difficult for them to devote sufficient study time and they are forced to adopt irregular class schedules, like attending evening classes. Measures such as e-learning are needed to compensate for the reduced study hours and opportunities.
4. The basic requirements for a professional graduate school of business administration are often not stipulated by law, and each graduate school has a different stance. For example, the role and status of a clinical professor are not stipulated in the standards for establishing professional graduate schools. According to Notification No. 53 of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT, 2003), a clinical professor is defined as "a person who has approximately five years or more of practical experience in his/her major field and possesses a high level of practical ability." Notification of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology No. 53 of 2003 state, "professional graduate schools should hold more than 30% of clinical professors."

Therefore, the interpretation of the role and position of professional faculty members differs among professional graduate schools. In some cases, the number of professional and research faculty members is not balanced (University Evaluation Handbook (2019) Japan University Accreditation Association).

To address these issues, some Japanese business schools improved their system through the international accreditation process. Currently, thirty-two universities, including national, public, and private universities, have business schools. The following business schools are AACSB accredited (AACSB-Accredited Universities and Business Schools):

- Graduate School of Keio University (KBS), accredited in 2000
- Nagoya University of Commerce and Business (NUCB), accredited in 2006
- Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU), accredited in 2016
- Graduate School of International University of Japan (IUJ), accredited in 2018
- Waseda University Graduate School (WBS), accredited in 2020

The Waseda University Graduate School was also accredited by the EQUIS in 2019 The Nagoya University of Commerce and Business (NUCB) was accredited by AMBA in 2009, and the Meiji University Graduate School of Business (MBS) was accredited by EPAS in 2018.

Business Ecosystem and Education by Companies

Operational effectiveness has been a key competitive resource for major Japanese companies (Porter and Takeuchi, 1999); it has been achieved through smooth coordination based on information and knowledge sharing among players. Japanese organizations and human resource (HR) systems support information and knowledge sharing. The key elements of Japanese management are lifetime employment (employ-

ment extends over the entire working life of the employee), seniority-based wages (compensation is determined by the number of years of employment in the company), periodic hiring (employing young people fresh out of school), in-company training (employing workers based on personal qualities rather than job suitability and providing OTJ after hiring), and enterprise unions (one labor union for each enterprise: managers negotiate with only the union of their own company) (Whitehill, 1991; Firkola, 2006).

This Japanese management model enhances information sharing among employees and promotes operational effectiveness. For example, on the one hand, if a person plans to leave a company shortly, they may not want to learn or accumulate company-specific information or knowledge; on the other hand, if a person plans to stay in the company in the future, they may have a strong incentive to learn about and accumulate company-specific information and knowledge (Miyajima, 2004).

This management model is only applicable to large companies. As only 12,000 (0.3%) of the 4 million companies in Japan are large companies, it can only be applied to a small number of companies. However, large companies employ approximately 13 million people, which is 31% of Japan's total working population. Large companies generate approximately 50 trillion yen in terms of value-added manufacturing, amounting to 47% of the total added value in Japan. Further, although the aforementioned model does not apply to small and medium companies, the strategy and management of large companies significantly influence their behavior.

Japanese companies consider employees to be their most important resource; t they aim to prolong the utilization of their employees' capabilities rather than just utilizing their present capabilities. This explains why large companies recruit new graduates and show a strong commitment to their employees by providing housing, rental allowances, recreational facilities, and company retreats and educate them in the corporate culture. In return, companies expect a strong commitment from their employees.

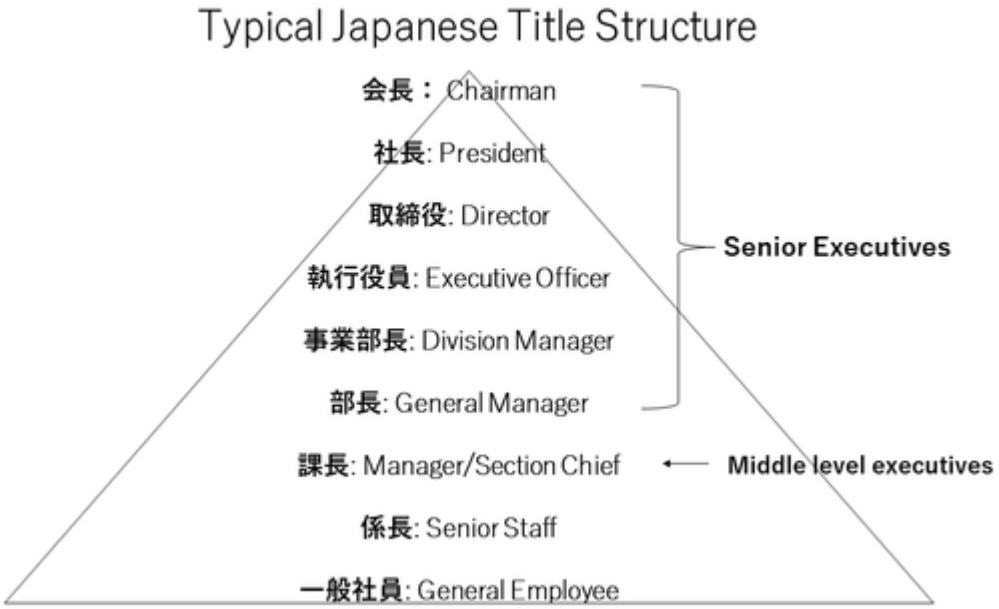
THE CHANGING FACES OF JAPANESE BUSINESS EDUCATION

While the outbreak of COVID-19 in 2020, had a major impact on Japanese society, business, and education, they were changing even before the pandemic. Japanese management is gradually changing its ecosystem, which influences business education, especially in executive education, in Japan.

The education industry in Japan is worth approximately 2.5 trillion yen. About 300 billion yen is for language education, and the corporate training market is said to be worth approximately 500 billion yen. The number of lifelong learners in Japan has grown from 22 million in 1989 to over 30 million in 2001 and is expected to continue growing. According to the analysis of the labor economy (Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare, 2018), while U.S. companies invest approximately 2% (about 32.4 trillion yen) of their GDP in employee skill development, Japanese companies invest only 0.1% (about 500 billion yen). The ratio of training costs to GDP for Japanese companies is very low compared to that of France, Germany, Italy, and other countries because most business education in Japan is conducted in-house. In addition, most training costs have been invested in training recruits and entry-level executives.

There are many private education providers in Japan. The larger providers with sales of more than 10 billion yen have a wide range of training targets and often train new graduates (general employees) and entry-level executives (up to the post of section chief). In terms of sales size, Human Holdings leads with 85 Billion yen, followed by Link and Motivation with 35 billion yen, Recruit Management Solutions with 17 billion yen and Japan Management Association (JMA). Among these HR training companies, private companies that target mid-level executives and above include CELM, GLOBIS,, and CICOM.

Figure 1. Structure of a typical Japanese company
Source: Author



Their sales are below 10 billion yen because the training and education market for mid-level executives and above is not that large. This trend has not changed significantly in recent years.

Japanese Companies' Education Trends

Japanese companies have always been the largest business education providers; however, there were changes in 2010, especially in executive education. While companies train newcomers and entry-level executives, many have realized that it is more important to train senior executives.

The author formed a team and researched Japanese blue-chip firms in various industries through interviews with senior executives in charge of executive education. From August 2020 to March 2021, the Waseda University research team conducted interviews with executive development managers in about 40 major companies like Mitsui Fudosan, NSK, Teijin, Nippon Life Insurance, Suntory Holdings, Marubeni, Hitachi, Fujifilm Holdings, Shiseido, Softbank, and others. Researchers asked the interviewees about their company's HR development strategies and HR training/education. Almost all the interviewed companies shared the following perceptions: "As the environment changes are discontinuous and disruptive, it is difficult to expect companies' sustainable development in the future with conventional corporate management practices and strategies. In addition, to cope with such changes in the environment, on-the-job training (OJT), that is, transferring past experiences within the company, is not sufficient enough."

In many large traditional Japanese companies, junior- and mid-level executives are given various learning and training opportunities and are expected to learn continuously, but senior executives do not receive much training. Once they became general managers, executive officers, or directors, many

senior executives did not want to educate themselves and felt that it was better for younger people to do so. However, with the rapid change in the business environment, companies that are concerned about being left behind if they wait for corporate reforms to occur through the growth of younger employees have recognized that senior executives must be proactive in their learning.

Most Japanese companies believe that people are educated through business, and OJT is still the most important education method. Therefore, evaluation and assignment have always been the most important part of HR development; however, evaluation and assignment methods have changed dramatically. In the past, in large traditional Japanese companies, evaluations were conducted by a relatively limited number of evaluators and the results were rarely communicated directly to the employees. Employees rarely knew whether they were executive-position candidates until just before they became senior executives. Few Japanese companies have selected and trained executive candidates.

In addition, the HR evaluation in Japan did not always coincide with that in overseas subsidiaries. However, in recent years, as Japanese companies strive to expand their businesses internationally and globalize their organizations, an increasing number of companies have introduced a global evaluation system, built a global HR database, evaluated their employees (including superiors, subordinates, and colleagues) from multiple perspectives, and communicated these evaluations to their employees. For example, Hitachi—which has an overseas sales ratio of 48% (2019) with 46% of its 300,000 employees overseas—has built a global database of almost all its employees and uses a common evaluation axis for HR management.

Through the interviews, the researchers found that there are seven key changing trends in representative Japanese companies' business education:

1. Implementing off-the-job training in addition to OJT for senior executives
2. In-house business training to leverage external institutes
3. Providing education to both Japanese and non-Japanese people
4. Increasing global content
5. Leveraging top schools and institutes abroad
6. Hiring mid-career managers from companies with foreign capital to globalize the education system, including executive programs
7. Utilizing online tools for business education, including senior executive training

Off-the-Job Training and the Use of External Institutes

Implementing off-the-job training in addition to OJT for senior executives: Most Japanese companies leave the training of senior management to the initiative of the individual; while there are training programs for newly appointed managers and general managers by rank, they usually last only two to three days and the content is often simple. However, in the past few years, some of the interviewed companies have strengthened their off-the-job training programs for general managers and executive officers. Since they had little experience with such education programs for senior executives, they underwent various trial and error processes.

The content of the program was broadly divided into (1) reviewing the company's philosophy and principles, (2) understanding the essence of the latest management methods, (3) learning the latest facts including megatrends and geopolitics, and (4) broadening the company's view through overseas visits.

Senior executives have seniority over the staff of the HR department and hence it is often difficult to involve them in training. Thus, without strong initiatives from the top leadership, it is difficult to realize the training for senior executives. Several companies held executive training camps several times a year to discuss important management issues.

In-house business training to leverage external institutes: Japanese companies have begun to systematically use external organizations for executive education. Many companies have been using both custom programs (educational programs that are custom-made for their company) and open programs (programs wherein educational institutions openly invite participants) according to their budget and other factors. Large scale companies with a relatively large budget for education tend to use custom programs in a multilayered manner and combine them with open programs as needed. Smaller companies with a limited budget for education tend to use custom programs to a limited extent and send selected personnel for open programs. In general, when a company's sales scale exceeds 1 trillion yen, it tends to offer custom programs in a multilayered manner.

The Globalization of Corporate Education

Provide education to both Japanese and non-Japanese people; *Increase in global content; and Leverage top schools and institutes abroad*: Although Japanese companies have expanded their business abroad, they are not yet globalized. They have accelerated the globalization of their organizations through education in the past five years. It is observed that the globalization of participants in executive education programs, educational content, and education providers has been implemented.

As the percentage of overseas sales increased and their international business expanded, major Japanese companies found that the percentage of Japanese employees in their workforce was decreasing significantly Thus, since 2010, these companies have included non-Japanese employees in their custom executive development programs. The question of how to handle language has always been an issue for programs with non-Japanese participants. Even in large companies with comprehensive international operations, not many executives can conduct management knowledge programs and discuss issues in English. In particular, as many of the company's most promising employees were promoted domestically, the lack of a global mindset and English language skills acted as barriers. Therefore, initially, some companies had two types of programs: a custom program conducted in Japanese with Japanese members and a custom program conducted in English with non-Japanese members. In such cases, the two programs were held on roughly the same schedule, with a portion of it being a joint program. The percentage of joint programs gradually increased as the year progressed. Japanese companies are good at step-by-step *kaizen* and make gradual changes in terms of HR training. Some companies have invited managers from outside the company to make drastic changes and implement rapid top-down developmental changes in HR for senior executives

As a practical application of the program, some companies have invited their cross-border mergers and acquisitions (M&A) partners to participate in the executive development program as part of the post-merger integration (PMI) process—the process of integrating an acquired company after an M&A. Both Japanese and international M&As have increased drastically over the past 30 years, with the number of international M&As increasing from less than 100 in 1985 to 1,088 in 2019.

Only a few of the companies interviewed in this study adopted this method because of the difficulty of implementing such a program; it combines management strategies and selective executive education.

The increase in the number of international PMIs and Japanese companies struggling with it could result in more frequent integration of international PMIs and executive programs

More than half of the companies interviewed were using top overseas school programs, and most of them said that they had expanded their use of overseas schools over the past few years. While some Japanese companies have sent selected employees to open programs at top overseas schools, some have systematically and deliberately positioned these programs in their HR development strategies. This is primarily because the Japanese personnel in charge of HR development who are responsible for arranging these programs lack experience and know-how on how to request and coordinate with top overseas schools. It is usually necessary for the requesting company to provide specifications and information regarding the purpose and of the content they expect from the program. For tangible products, it is relatively easy to communication this information, even if this must be done in a foreign language (mostly English); however, it is not as easy to communicate regarding intangible services like educational programs in English.

In addition, top schools overseas are often more expensive than Japanese educational institutions. Thus, there is a risk of paying high fees and not fully grasping the content until the actual delivery. In such cases, top Japanese schools, such as Hitotsubashi ICS and Waseda, often act as intermediaries to collaborate with top overseas schools to provide global custom programs to Japanese companies.

Leveraging Mid-career HR Managers from Foreign Capital Companies

Hiring mid-career managers from foreign capital companies to globalize the education system, including executive programs: In the past five years, Japanese companies have increasingly requested custom programs from top foreign schools for two reasons. First, the people in charge of executive development in Japanese companies have gained international experience through trial and error. Second, they have been headhunting people who have experience working with overseas educational institutions from outside the company. In about 30% of the companies interviewed, personnel who had been in charge of HR at Japanese corporations, such as General Electrics (GE) and Johnson & Johnson (J&J), had transferred to the company and were in charge of executive development.

As a result, some companies have begun to build and operate more organic global executive development programs. For example, a major global manufacturer was operating a global executive development program with modules in four regions (Japan, the U.S., Europe, and India)for dozens of executive candidates. The manufacturer asked top schools in each country to conduct each module. The program involved action learning throughout the entire process. While the top Japanese school was in charge of supporting action learning to maintain consistency, it also received input from schools in each region to incorporate diverse perspectives.

Major Japanese companies that request custom programs from top schools in Japan and abroad are not necessarily active in sending their employees for MBA courses. About 70% of the companies surveyed had MBA dispatch programs. While all these companies planned to either maintain or reduce the number of MBA dispatches, none of them planned to increase them. However, all companies that did not dispatch MBAs considered doing so in the future. One of the main reasons cited was that in the past, a considerable portion of young employees with MBAs did not stay with the company and often changed jobs. However, one of the reasons behind this was that Japanese companies, which have always been based on the seniority system, were not familiar with selecting young people for executive positions and differentiating their salaries. This limited opportunities for young employees with MBAs. As the

management style of Japanese companies changes, it is more likely that the number of MBA graduates will increase. Currently, many Japanese companies are still unable to use MBA graduates effectively.

On the one hand, most HR managers in charge of executive education perceived that non-degree open, in-house, and custom programs, posed a lesser risk of influencing employees to change jobs. On the other hand, some of them mentioned the need to change the company organization and culture to provide opportunities for young employees with MBAs and other degrees within the company to prevent them from looking for them elsewhere.

This situation is slightly different among individuals. Some employees expressed the need to obtain an MBA at personal expense to increase their value in the career market and improve their position. Some employees reject non-degree open programs because they do not see the significance of an external program without a degree.

Utilization of Digital Tools

Utilizing online tools for business education, including senior executive training: As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, the use of online services was promoted in business education. Many programs that were scheduled to be conducted in person in 2020 were suddenly postponed, canceled, or conducted via the online mode. This sudden shift created a great deal of confusion. Many schools and teachers were not well prepared, had little experience, and could not adapt mentally; consequently, not all online lectures were of satisfactory quality.

However, even before the COVID-19 outbreak became prevalent, some education providers used online services for business education. For example, GLOBIS Corporation, which has both private training company and Professional Graduate School MBA, launched GLOHODAI (GLOBIS Unlimited) for corporations in 2016 and individuals in 2017. GLOHODAI is a service that allows users to study management education content and business trends cultivated by GLOBIS through its business school, corporate training, and publishing businesses, anytime, anywhere, and as much as they want, using any electronic device. It offered more than 2,700 online courses for a fixed price in 2020, and the number of students has doubled from 70,000 to 140,000 in just one year.

Another institution that provides education is Street Academy (STOACA), a peer-to-peer service that connects learners with content providers in various genres, including business. Founded in 2012, STOACA had 100,000 registered users by the end of 2019. By 2020, the number of registered users had increased to 500,000. In addition, Udemy Japan, a subsidiary of the U.S. Edtech venture Udemy, introduced various online courses for programming, data analysis, and web design and received a favorable reputation.

Some large companies also utilize digital tools effectively in their customized programs for senior executives. For example, a large, traditional Japanese company with trillions of yen in sales, which was established more than 100 years ago, conducted a program that was completely unaffected by COVID-19. It did this by preparing a plan to conduct 100% of its top-level executive training online from 2019 and implementing it in 2020. The program involved 30 senior executives—candidates for the positions of business units heads—from each business unit. They attended online sessions for more than 20 days across six months. The program was designed to allow participants to engage in frequent individual and group action learning online when they did not have lecture sessions. The online format made it easy for participants from Asia and Latin America to participate. The program included lectures from top schools outside Japan and virtual visits to overseas companies. It also incorporated the liberal arts with effective online sessions that included performances by top musicians. Further, it utilized several online

communication tools (ZOOM, TEAMS, etc.) depending on the purpose. The satisfaction levels of the participants were very high, proving that with proper preparation and program design even complex executive programs can be conducted online.

These seven changes in trends could transform the management, strategy, and leadership of Japanese companies.

Education for Top Leaders and Board of Directors

Although not covered in the survey, the study found the most significant issue in developing the top leadership. According to Saito and Sawa (2021), who surveyed the presidents of companies included in the Nikkei 225 index over the past 30 years, the average age of managers in Japanese companies has consistently been around 60 and the number of managers who have been promoted internally has been increasing in the recent years. The percentage of presidents who joined the company after the age of 30 decreased from 19% in 1990 to 9% in 2020. The number of presidents who joined the company after the age of 41 dropped from 13% in 1990 to 7% in 2020 (Economic Classroom, Nikkei News, 2021). With regard to internal promotions, the number of years between joining the company and becoming an executive increased from 26 years in 1990 to 28.8 years in 2020, while the number of years between becoming an executive and the president decreased from 10.5 years in 1990 to 7.4 years in 2020.

Thus, when considering the company management from a company-wide perspective, the top leadership is becoming less experienced. Over the past 30 years, the environment surrounding Japanese companies has become more complex. While company-wide management difficulties have increased, the preparation period for becoming a top leader appears to be decreasing. The author surveyed approximately 90 Japanese top leaders. In many cases, the presidents or chairmen who were interviewed had voluntarily undertaken courses to become top leaders at a relatively young age. However, when the author interviewed them in person, many of them stated the following: "Company-wide management and company-wide strategy as a top leader are completely different from individual business management and individual business strategies. It is also different from the experience of looking at company-wide issues from the perspective of a functional department. Company-wide management and strategy are the most difficult and important, but there have been few opportunities to receive education on them."

In this survey, the author found that Japanese companies are shifting to a system that selects and trains management candidates at an early stage. In the future, there will be opportunities to learn about company-wide management and strategies as a manager, before becoming an executive.

Education for senior executives includes education for both internally promoted and externally hired board of directors. Currently, this type of education is unorganized and the number of organizations that can provide such education is limited.

Strengthening education for outside directors seems to be an urgent issue. Following the introduction of the Corporate Governance Code in 2015, Japanese companies have been accelerating the implementation of various changes in corporate governance. It was introduced to restore Japan's earning power, but the most significant change was the appointment of outside directors. Initially, the code called for two or more independent outside directors; thus, the number of listed companies with two or more independent outside directors increased from 21.5% in 2014 to 91.3% in 2018. Foreign institutional investors require the ratio of independent outside directors to total number of directors to be at least one-third. Thus, companies fulfilling this requirement increased from 6.4% in 2014 to 33.6% in 2018..

With the restructuring of the Tokyo Stock Exchange scheduled for the spring of 2022, it is likely that companies listed on the top market will be required to have at least one-third of their board of directors as outside directors. For Japanese companies to achieve proper corporate governance and performance improvement, it is essential to educate and strengthen outside directors.

Education for Senior Non-executive Employees Who Will Not Become Executives

In this survey, the author identified an issue concerning the reeducation of senior non-executive employees who are not executives. Japanese companies have followed a lifetime employment system due to which a majority of their workforce is composed of employees in their 50s or older. With the partial revision of the Law for Stabilization of Employment of Older Persons in 2013 and increasing the retirement age, educating middle-aged and older employees who will not become executives has become a major issue for Japanese companies. Most of the companies interviewed in this survey said that there was no clear solution to make senior non-executives more efficient and no guidelines on how to treat them. It is challenging to train employees who have been working under the same circumstances for 30 years to acquire new skills and mindsets in a changing business environment. These challenges first became apparent in Japan, where a majority of the population is aging. More countries outside Japan may face similar challenges as their populations continue to age.

Executive Training at Middle Size Companies

The state of business education in small- and medium-sized companies must be considered as well. The author surveyed 300 medium-sized companies (in the fields of manufacturing, information technology, telecommunications, finance, etc.) with less than 30 billion yen in sales to study the status of their executive education program. The author had a response ratio of approximately 10%.

Although the following sections present a simplified version of the survey, some major directions were obtained. The major issue faced by these companies today is the lack of expertise to respond to changes in work styles, digital transformation, and diversity, which were cited by 60%, 55%, and 50% of the companies, respectively. The issues of an aging domestic workforce and dealing with globalization were cited by 53% of the companies, while reform management and dealing with the COVID-19 pandemic were cited by 46% of the companies. In addition, dealing with the shift in the management style of Japanese companies from membership-based employment to job-based employment[1] was also recognized as a major issue. The most common issue in promoting HR development was the lack of information and ideas on training methods and approaches, which was cited by 65% of the companies; the second most common issue was gaining managerial understanding of HR development, which was cited by 34% of the companies.

Among the medium-sized companies, 84% had some kind of training program for managers and those in higher positions, while 53% had selective training programs for managers. Of these, 75% of the programs were conducted with 20 or fewer selected employees. However, only 27% of the companies provided selective training for general managers and those in higher positions, which is a sconsiderably less than for managers and section Chief level.

THE STATUS QUO AND FUTURE OF JAPANESE BUSINESS EDUCATION PROVIDERS

Although major Japanese companies have begun to use top schools overseas, Japanese universities and business schools are the main providers of business education in Japan. However, the pace of reform in undergraduate management education has not always kept pace with the changing environment due to regulations and ties to the past. Therefore, this section examines the status quo and future of business schools in Japan. Business schools are expected to play the role of mediators of change for Japanese companies.

The Environment Surrounding Japanese Business Schools

The percentage of young Japanese people who graduated from high school and enrolled in university increased dramatically from 10% in 1950 to 35% in 1990 to 54% in 2020. Conversely, the percentage of students with a bachelor's degree aged 25 or older was 1.8% (2015), which is lower than the OECD average of 17.6%; the percentage of students with a master's degree aged 30 or older was 14% (2015), which is lower than the OECD average of 30%. In other words, few Japanese people study at a university in some form once they start working.

The four problems with business schools in Japan identified by the Japan Association for University Accreditation (JUAA) as of 2011 (low recognition, gap from social needs, problems with class hours, and wide variation among schools) have already been introduced in the previous section. However, the Japanese government has expressed various expectations for graduate schools of business administration and has sought measures to promote business schools. The business schools have responded in various ways to meet these expectations.

For example, in the 9th proposal of the Council for Educational Revitalization, the cabinet decided on May 20, 2016, to "strengthen efforts to develop leaders in corporate management and human resources who can create innovation, especially at professional graduate schools." In addition, in the Basic Policies for Economic and Fiscal Management and Reform 2017, the cabinet decided on June 9, 2017, to "promote the development of practical specialized education programs in the fields of food and tourism at universities and other institutions in order to develop management personnel who will be responsible for improving the productivity of the service industry." In 2017, the Liberal Democratic Party (LDP)'s Higher Education Subcommittee of the Headquarters for the Revitalization of Education made several recommendations based on the recognition that higher education institutions (especially professional graduate schools) must become centers of growth strategies and work harder to develop the innovative and managerial human resources that society, regions, and companies need. To achieve growth strategies through increased productivity, Japanese business schools need to foster the following:

1. Top global business schools (strengthening management capabilities of global companies, promoting exchanges with top overseas business schools, and having five schools in the world's top 100 list)
2. Community-based companies (strengthening the management capabilities of small- and medium-sized companies in rural areas and local companies)
3. Industry-specific advancement (tourism, agriculture/food, fashion, content, sports, beauty, intellectual property, etc.)

According to a 2016 survey on the actual situation of domestic and foreign graduate schools of business administration and their graduates, and the needs of industry for graduate schools of business administration (2016), about 90% of students who graduated from management graduate schools in Japan were satisfied with the overall educational content and other aspects of their education. Most students recommend studying at these types of schools. The percentage of companies that positively evaluate and expect graduate schools of business administration is about five times higher in companies with graduates of domestic graduate schools of business administration (23.1%) than in companies without graduates of domestic graduate schools of business administration (4.6%). As shown above, although graduates and the companies where graduates are employed have a high opinion of graduate schools of business administration, awareness and understanding of MBA by Japanese companies is not enough.

Nonetheless, among professional graduate schools in Japan, only business and public health graduate schools saw an increase in enrollment between 2010 and 2017. Others, such as accounting, public policy, intellectual property, clinical psychology, and law schools saw declines in enrollment. Enrollment in professional business schools increased from 1929 in 2010 to 2300 in 2017. However, polarization among business schools has also increased. While there are some business schools that consistently do not meet their enrollment capacity, some grow at a high rate (Kim, 2014, 2015); as a result, the business schools of Nihon University in 2013 and Nanzan University and Chukyo University in 2017 stopped accepting applications.

As of 2021, 18 universities in Japan operate business schools that offer a master's program, such as the Graduate School of Business Administration of Keio University and the Graduate School of Business Administration of Tsukuba University. Many of their faculty members are academics with doctoral degrees. There are 32 professional graduate business schools in Japan, like the Graduate School of Management, Kyoto University, and Waseda Business School (Graduate School of Business and Finance) where more than 30% of their faculty members are business practitioners.

The Present Status and Future of Japanese Business Schools

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, most business schools in Japan switched to the online mode in 2020 and have been trying to find ways to use the pandemic's impact positively.

Waseda Business School is one of the top business schools in Japan, with a good balance between quality and scale. When all university lectures were online, in addition to the support of the Administration Office, Slack was established to facilitate the shift to an online mode of education. This allowed knowledge sharing among faculty members. Faculty volunteers held a series of 10 online seminars for alumni to disseminate information and strengthen the network. Online seminars were held in Japanese and English to make it easier for overseas alumni to participate. These was a great success, with 10,000 registrations, and it was decided that a similar online seminar for alumni will be held in FY2021.

One of the key challenges for Japanese business schools is meeting the globalization needs of Japanese companies. This globalization requires increasing the following: the number of international students global contacts of Japanese students, overseas ratio of faculty members, global educational content, linkages with overseas companies, and collaboration with overseas schools. Waseda Business School was one of the most internationalized business schools in Japan, with courses that allowed students to study entirely in English; the increased use of online courses due to the COVID-19 pandemic facilitated overseas access and promoted collaboration with overseas schools and companies in classes and tutorials. For example, after reading a book written by a faculty member from Oxford (the U.K.), it became

possible to have a Q&A session with the faculty member online. It has also become easier for faculty members from the Waseda Business School to give online lectures overseas. Since Japanese universities have longer term durations than those in Europe and the U.S., it was not easy for them to travel overseas to teach. This problem has been solved by the online system.

Online services allow more frequent collaborations with companies. For example, a faculty member and a student from a business school who are researching a certain topic can meet with a company interested in that topic every week to discuss the research. While these activities may have been commonplace at top schools in Europe and the United States, they were not prevalent in Japanese business schools the pandemic accelerated the process.

Japanese business schools are tackling new aspects while considering the needs of both global and Japanese companies. The following themes are expected to become important in the future:

1. Family business management: Waseda University has a Global Family Business Research Institute and is actively researching this area.
2. Hospitality and tourism management: The Hitotsubashi University Graduate School of Business Administration and Kyoto University Graduate School of Business Administration established courses specializing in tourism in 2018; Waseda Business School also strengthened the field of tourism, mainly through the Inbound Business Study Group.
3. Governance and sustainability management: Many business schools are expected to strengthen this area in the future.
4. Regional management: This is not necessarily focused on at present but may attract attention in the future.
5. Data science: The Graduate School of Business at Tsukuba University has established the Innovation-Creating Data Scientist Training Education Program for fostering innovative data scientists. Many business schools will focus on this area in the future.

Business Education in Regional Areas

There are 47 prefectures in Japan, 32 of which do not have university-run business schools. Moreover, 68% of the prefectures do not have business schools, and there is no easy way to increase their numbers. Thus, the local government and chambers of commerce and industry will have to provide business education. In doing so, it will be easier to contribute to the local economy by developing programs that reflect the unique characteristics of each region. For example, Hokkaido's main industry is the food industry, and one of the most successful business education programs in the region is the "Food Juku" organized by the Hokkaido Government. Hokkaido has formed a "food cluster" through the cooperation and collaboration of the industry, government, and academia. It is developing initiatives to establish a comprehensive food industry (primary, secondary, and tertiary industries) unique to the area.

Hokkaido's Regional Food School aims to promote "food cluster" activities by equipping key players involved in food in all regions of Hokkaido with marketing strategies, skills to develop attractive products, and networks built through training to develop regional projects. The Food Cluster Group of the Food Related Industry Office of the Hokkaido Economic Affairs Department is responsible for the school's food project. The curriculum covers a wide range of topics, from basic theories like how to formulate marketing and sales strategies to food and tourism, creating places that sell, and distribution

systems. The students apply these theories and strategies to their products and prepare their three-year plan for creating excellent products by incorporating the unique resources of the region.

Other regions also have such initiatives but many of them are short-lived. In Hokkaido, this initiative has been ongoing for eight years and has maintained its quality, which has resulted in the revitalization of collaborative activities in the food industry. One of the reasons behind the continuation of the food school is that government officials have been in charge of the project for a long time. Local governments usually move on after a few years, but Mr. Tanioka has been in charge of the Food School since its inception. He started this initiative because he was in charge of marketing when he worked at the Tokyo office, and through his experience of expanding sales channels and supporting manufacturing in a fiercely competitive area, he realized that Hokkaido needed to refine its material-based business.

CONCLUSION

This chapter provides an overview of business education in Japan, including corporate and business school education and education by other players, and its historical context; it discusses recent changes and future developments in this field, including the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. Perhaps the biggest implication of this chapter is that it is challenging to change an ecosystem once it has been built extensively and successfully. Business education at universities, high schools, and other professional institutions in Japan comprises very basic content, while corporate education has played a central role in business education in practical terms. This ecosystem and division of roles provided the best results during the period of rapid growth. Since a huge business education ecosystem involving educational institutions, companies, families, and the government was well established, it took several decades for Japanese companies, which are a key player of the ecosystem, to respond to the changes in the environment. While some companies and business schools are changing the content and methodology of business education to adapt to the new environment, changes in business education at universities and high schools are still slow. This is primarily because of the lack of communication between high schools, universities, and businesses, and the confusing reforms of the Ministry of Education.

This chapter discusses the significant changes in Japanese business education due to the drastically changing global and domestic environments. Especially since the introduction of the Corporate Governance Code in 2015, the pace of change has accelerated and an increasing number of companies are responding to these changes. While the Japanese economy had been stagnant since the collapse of the bubble economy, profit margins in both manufacturing and non-manufacturing industries have been continuously improving since 2010. It is necessary to continue strengthening management education and enhancing the education of managers and top leaders, which is still a largely untapped resource.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

There are two challenges to business education in Japan that this paper did not address. The first is that in the development of Japanese business education, high schools, universities, the Ministry of Education, and families should establish communication with businesses. This may help close the gap between business education in schools and actual businesses. The second is the integration of other fields with business education. For example, if education in art, technology, philosophy, etc. are incorporated in

business education, new developments can be expected. Such a movement has already begun to emerge, though only partially.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

On-the-Job Training (OJT): Vocational education of employees by having them perform practical work in the workplace.

Professional Graduate Schools: Graduate schools, the purpose of which is to teach and research academic theories and applications and to cultivate profound knowledge and outstanding abilities for occupations that require a high level of expertise.

ENDNOTE

[1] Job-based employment: At the time of the job offer, the job description clearly defines the job duties, location, salary, etc. Workers apply for the job if their desires and skills match the description. Unless the job description is updated, there will be no reassignment, salary increase, or career advancement. Membership-based employment: Employees are hired based on their potential and personality, without limiting the job description or location. For this reason, membership-based employment is sometimes said to be more like "getting a company" than "getting a job." There is a

possibility that the work environment will change drastically due to salary increase, skill improvement, reassignment, change of work location, etc. It is said that most Japanese companies have continued to adopt membership-based employment along with lifetime employment and seniority-based employment.

Chapter 5
Teaching Cross-Cultural Competence in a Smart Machine Age:
The Role of International Service Learning in the Business School Curriculum

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ABSTRACT

The business world is in a state of flux due in part to the advent of disruptive technologies such as artificial intelligence, smart robots, and nanotechnology. The dawn of this 'Smart Machine Age' has significant implications for business education, which will need to be transformed with a new focus on imparting knowledge, skills, and abilities suitable for the new workplace environment. Among the skill sets that are in highest demand according to employers is cross-cultural competence (CC). Scholarly interest in CC has grown exponentially in recent years and there is an emerging consensus that it is best taught through non-traditional pedagogies centered on experiential learning. This chapter explores the efficacy of international service learning as a tool for teaching CC, with a focus on an innovative social entrepreneurship project undertaken at Florida International University. The project involves a partnership between a student organization, an NGO, and a women's self-help group in India.

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INTRODUCTION

The business world is in a state of flux, due, in part, to the advent of disruptive technologies such as artificial intelligence, robotics, and nanotechnology. According to Hess (2018), this new 'Smart Machine Age' will redefine work and transform how companies are staffed, operated, and managed, with many more jobs being performed with less (and in some cases no) labor. The world first glimpsed this emerging reality in 2018 when Chinese online retailer, JD.com, opened a fully automated, 40,000-square-meter warehouse in Shanghai, staffed by four human employees who exist merely to service the industrial robots that fulfill the orders (Hornyak, 2018). The COVID-19 pandemic, meanwhile, accelerated the speed at which companies across a variety of sectors adopted labor-saving technologies and virtual communications platforms, leading to what some have termed a "low-touch economy" (Kang, 2021).

These technological advances, coupled with the continuing march of globalization, have significant implications for business education, which will need to be transformed with a new focus on imparting the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) required to thrive in this new workplace environment – in much the same way that leading American business schools transformed themselves in the 1940s to meet the challenges posed by World War II (Tufano, 2020). Chief among the KSAs essential for workplace success over the next decade, according to the Institute for the Future (2020), are 'sense-making' and 'novel and adaptive thinking,' broadly understood as critical thinking and analytical reasoning. Such 'soft skills,' the Institute notes, are important because, unlike the routine, algorithmic functions performed by smart machines, higher-level thinking skills cannot be codified – at least for now. Unfortunately, American business schools fall short when it comes to teaching students how to think critically (Belkin, 2017; Wilkie, 2019), with arguably little progress made over the past several decades (Haber, 2020).

The Institute identifies several other KSAs essential for future workplace success, including social and emotional intelligence (i.e., the ability to connect to others in a deep and direct way), computational thinking (i.e., the ability to process and make sense of vast amounts of data), and 'trans-disciplinarity' (i.e., the ability to understand concepts across multiple disciplines). For business schools aiming to train future cadres of global executives, there is an additional skillset of paramount importance: cross-cultural competence (CC).

Defined as "the ability to think and act in inter-culturally appropriate ways" (Hammer, Bennet, & Wiseman., 2003, p. 422), CC, also known as cross-cultural intelligence and intercultural competence, has long been considered a key attribute of successful global managers (Gersten, 1990). Such individuals require the mental ability to decode complex cross-cultural situations and think beyond narrow cultural boundaries when making global decisions (Andresen & Bergdolt, 2017). Although scholars disagree on CC's constituent elements, there is general agreement that three dimensions are fundamental: knowledge (understanding of cultural differences, for example), skills (foreign language competence, for example), and personal attributes (values, beliefs, and personality traits, for example) (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006). According to Johnson and colleagues (2006, p. 530), CC may be defined as "an individual's effectiveness in drawing upon a set of knowledge, skills, and personal attributes in order to work successfully with people from different national cultural backgrounds at home or abroad."

Research suggests that managers with high levels of CC are better equipped than those with lower levels to handle various international tasks. This includes choosing foreign business partners; managing cross-border mergers, acquisitions, and joint ventures; and conducting negotiations with overseas suppliers (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006). Managers who have a high a level of CC might also have an edge when it comes to carrying out expatriate assignments (Tung, 1988), and managing culturally

diverse, geographically dispersed work teams (Zander, Mockaitis, & Butler, 2012). Meanwhile, companies possessing an abundant supply of managers with high levels of CC might have a valuable, rare, and inimitable resource, which, consequently, confers a competitive advantage (Ng, Van Dyke, & Ang, 2009).

Scholarly interest in CC and the related concepts of cultural intelligence, global mind-set, and global leadership have grown substantially in recent years, with contributions from diverse fields such as international business (e.g., Javidan & Teagarden, 2011; Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006), international management (Bucker & Poutsma, 2010; Early & Ang, 2003), international human resource management (Andresen & Bergdolt, 2016), and leadership studies (Bird et al., 2010, Inceoglu & Bartram, 2012; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). There has also been growing practitioner interest in CC, as evidenced by articles in the *Harvard Business Review* (Javidan & Bowen, 2015; Kelly, 2019), a special issue of the *Academy of Management Learning and Education* (Eisenberg, Hartel & Stahl, 2013), and even books on CC geared to multinational managers (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 2000; Javidan & Walker, 2013; Dolan & Kawamura, 2015).

Although scholarly and practitioner interest in CC is well established, understanding of how to best teach it remains something of a mystery. Indeed, as Pless, Maak, and Stahl (2011, p. 239) observed, there is general agreement that global leadership development is a non-linear process which involves cognitive, affective, and behavioral elements, but "few studies have investigated the specific processes by which global leadership competencies can be developed." Little has changed in the decade since those words were written.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

There is growing agreement that experiential learning (EL) can be an effective pedagogy for teaching the soft skills required by today's global managers (Aggarwal & Goodell, 2014; Okolio, Arroteia, & Barish, 2019; Lane, Bird, & Athanassiou, 2017; Eisenberg et al., 2013). EL has an academic pedigree that dates back to the work of Dewey (1938), Piaget (1953), and Lewin (1957). More recently, Kolb (1984) offered a 4-stage Experiential Learning Theory which has become influential.[1] Although EL has long had its proponents, it was largely relegated to the margins of the American business curriculum during the second half of the 20th century as business schools focused on transmitting functional knowledge through traditional lecture-based approaches (Godfrey, Illes, & Berry, 2005; Mintzberg & Gosling, 2002).[2] Recently, however, as business schools have sought to adapt their curricula to meet student demands for more engaging and relevant courses, and employer demands for more job-ready recruits, EL has entered the teaching mainstream (Awaysheh & Bonfiglio, 2017; Okolio, Arroteia, & Barish, 2019).

At its core, EL involves putting students in real-life, challenging situations which seek to "build learning mindsets and enhance cognitive and emotional skills" (Hess, 2018). In contrast to traditional, lecture-based instruction, EL aims to take students out of familiar, passive surroundings and put them in dynamic situations designed for them to "learn from failure and build resilience" (Hess, 2018). Students who participate in EL programs learn valuable workplace skills, including how to manage their fears and emotional defensiveness; how to overcome reflexive ways of thinking; how to listen, communicate, and connect with others; how to learn from failure; and how to work effectively in diverse teams, and in environments characterized by volatility, complexity, and uncertainty (Hess, 2018). Although a wide variety of EL models and methodologies exist -- from computer simulations to role-play exercises

-- service-learning pedagogy has experienced growing popularity among business educators in recent years (Wang & Calvano, 2018).

SERVICE LEARNING

Service learning, broadly speaking, refers to any program that combines academic study with service work. This includes semester-long courses with a service component, as well as shorter, non-course-based programs. A key element of any service-learning offering is that it includes structured service and learning objectives, and opportunities for personal reflection. While internships and co-ops focus on helping students gain professional experience, and study abroad programs on teaching academic subjects through exposure to foreign cultures and business environments, service learning seeks chiefly to promote civic and community engagement, and stimulate personal growth (Wang & Calvano, 2018). Dumas (2002, p. 249) defines service learning as a "form of experiential education in which students engage in activities that address human and community needs, together with structured opportunities designed to promote student learning and development."

Godfrey and colleagues (2005) identify four elements of successful business-related, service learning, which they refer to as the 'Four Rs': Reality, Reflection, Reciprocity, and Responsibility. Reality involves having students undertake real work which seeks to address complex social problems such as poverty, homelessness, hunger, and illiteracy, while incorporating rigorous academic content. Reflection is achieved by having students think deeply and critically about how the service activity has affected them (and not only about how their efforts affected their community partners) both during and after the experience. Reciprocity ensures that communication and learning is bi-directional, and that both students and community partners gain something of value from the exchange. And Responsibility springs from students being forced to look beyond the shareholder wealth considerations and transactional relationships to the obligations of citizenship.

Research on service learning attests to its efficacy. Eyler & Giles (1999) found that students who were enrolled in a service-learning course reported higher levels of motivation than those enrolled in regular courses. They also acquired a deeper understanding of the subject matter, were better able to apply course materials to real-world problems and retained the information they had learned. Service-learning pedagogy has also been shown to increase student empathy, perspective-taking, and moral reasoning, while stimulating critical thinking and problem-solving, fostering civic responsibility, and reducing stereotypes and implicit bias (Pless, Maak, & Stahl, 2011; Wang & Calvano, 2018; Schneider, 2018; Yorio & Ye, 2012).

INTERNATIONAL SERVICE LEARNING

International service learning (ISL) adds an international dimension to the 'standard' service-learning pedagogy. In most cases, such activities are performed in a developing country in partnership with a local organization. Bringle, Hatcher, and Jones (2011, p. 19) define ISL as a "structured academic experience in another country in which students (a) participate in an organized service activity that addresses identified community needs; (b) learn from direct interaction and cross-cultural dialogue with others; and (c) reflect on the experience in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a

deeper understanding of global and intercultural issues, a broader appreciation of the host country and the discipline, and an enhanced sense of their own responsibilities as citizens locally and globally."

A unique aspect of ISL programs, as Mosakowski, Calic, and Early (2013, p. 513) observe, is that they challenge students to "uncover and question taken-for-granted assumptions that form the bedrock of their and others' cultural beliefs." Consequently, these immersive experiences, at least initially, can be highly disorienting for students. Over time, however, as students begin to make sense of their experiences and encounters, their perspectives tend to shift. The result is often transformational personal growth, or what Santulli (2018) referred to as 'full-body learning.'

Most ISL programs follow a 'direct service' model, wherein students provide training, technical assistance, tutoring, and workshops to community partners. Students might also build houses, paint walls, dig wells, plant trees, and engage in environmental clean-up initiatives. Such purposeful experiences can be enriching for students and can generate tangible benefits for community partners and other stakeholders, including universities and business schools (Nikolova & Andersen, 2017). But ISL initiatives do have their critics. Schneider (2018), for example, claims that direct service ISL programs often serve to reinforce power asymmetries in the global economy, while evoking feelings of 'arrogance' and 'pity' in student participants rather than 'humility' or 'empathy'. Furthermore, such programs can perpetuate a 'white savior mentality' which is endemic to many foreign aid and charity initiatives and can inhibit the type of mutual understanding and solidarity required for meaningful structural change. To avoid these pitfalls, Schneider exhorts instructors and administrators to design ISL programs that focus on 'listening' and 'learning' rather than 'telling' or 'doing'.

Although Schneider is undoubtedly correct in emphasizing the importance of bi-directional communication and relationship building to effective ISL programs, her criticism minimizes the benefits that direct service ISL models can contribute to under-resourced communities and understates the significant cultural understanding and goodwill these initiatives can generate. Moreover, ISL programs of various stripes can have a powerful impact on the personal growth and moral development of the participants and can increase their desire to undertake greater acts of service in the future. The Bandhwari Women's Empowerment Project (BWP) is a case in point.

THE BANDHWARI WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT PROJECT

FIorida International University (FIU) Professor David Wernick founded the BWP in 2016 with the dual aim of providing undergraduate business students with a purposeful inter-cultural experience that would allow them to apply classroom knowledge in a challenging, real-world setting, while offering economic opportunity and empowerment for a community of under-resourced women in the developing world. Professor Wernick was familiar with Bandhwari village from a previous faculty development trip to India and had been struck by its poverty and promise. Unlike some ISL programs, the BWP is not anchored within an academic course; it grew out of an alternative spring break project undertaken by a student organization: FIU's International Business Honor Society (IBHS). It remains a voluntary, non-credit educational initiative. In recent years, participation in the BWP has grown to include graduate students in FIU's Master of Arts in Global Affairs program.

Under the BWP, a group of 10 to 25 FIU students travel with Professor Wernick to India each spring for a week of service learning and entrepreneurial activity. The service work involves volunteering at a local government-funded primary school. The college students engage the children, ages 5 to 10, by

teaching English and math, doing arts and crafts, reciting poetry, singing songs, and playing games. The entrepreneurial activity entails working with a women's collective to develop hand-sewn items for export. The students prepare for the trip months in advance by attending organizational meetings at which discussions of new product ideas and marketing strategies are coupled with team-building and cultural readiness exercises. The students also hear from a variety of guest speakers, including entrepreneurs, experts on small business development, and international business consultants. Presentations on India's history, culture, and current social and economic challenges are also organized. Additionally, the students meet with FIU faculty, administrators, and other experts to obtain strategic advice on matters such as business plan development, branding, storytelling, and social media strategy. By the time they leave for India, the students are an informed, cohesive group ready to execute their educational and entrepreneurial plans.

Upon arrival in India, the students visit a local textile market where they shop for fabrics, buttons, zippers, and other materials. The negotiations with Indian textile merchants that ensue are a cross-cultural education unto themselves. These materials are then delivered to the head seamstress in the village, along with prototypes, designs, and initial instructions. The remainder of the week is spent in the village working side-by-side with the women, observing the production process, and volunteering at the primary school. At week's end, the new products, which include purses, wallets, passport holders, tote bags, yoga sacks, and other accessories, are collected, checked for quality, packaged, and shipped to the United States to be sold on campus and in local crafts fairs. The proceeds from the sales are returned to the village in the form of donations.

BANDHWARI VILLAGE

Bandhwari Village is an urban village located in the northern Indian state of Haryana, some eight miles from the city of Gurgaon. A bustling financial and technology hub within proximity to India's capital of New Delhi, Gurgaon has experienced rapid growth in recent years with its population rising to more than 1.5 million in 2021. Today Gurgaon is home to dozens of foreign multinational companies including Google, HSBC, Coca-Cola, BMW, and Intel, along with many large and medium-sized domestic enterprises and scores of start-ups. Gurgaon also has a thriving medical tourism industry. Within a short distance of its gleaming skyscrapers and modern office complexes, however, are numerous urban villages populated by mostly poor families that have missed out on Gurgaon's economic boom. Bandhwari is one such village.

Bandhwari is found down a dusty road some two miles from the main highway connecting Gurgaon and Faridabad. In the past, the village's roughly 4,000 residents earned their income by growing wheat, mustard plants, and other crops. But with urbanization and the sale of land to developers in recent years, many of these agricultural jobs have disappeared, forcing the men to take up service jobs as drivers and security guards. The lack of regular and stable employment has led to greater vulnerability for Bandhwari's families and growing indebtedness. The village is comprised of multiple castes, although the *Gujjars* and *Dalits* account for the vast majority. The *Gujjars* were landowners and consider it demeaning to work, which, when compounded by a lack of education, leaves many of them in dire circumstances. The *Dalits*, earlier known as *Harijans*, are the lowest of India's castes. Although the caste system was officially abolished in 1950, *Dalits* continue to face discrimination, particularly in rural areas.

Bandhwari village has a patriarchal social structure, with men controlling most family resources and family decisions. The women of the village perform domestic chores, tend to children and in some cases

animals, and typically have little say in familial financial matters. There are few avenues for vocational training or any local employment opportunities for either gender. Women are usually married off at an early age. Unemployment, alcoholism, and in some cases domestic abuse are often present among the village's 650 households.

LOCAL NGO PARTNER

The BWP involves a partnership between the IBHS and Incentive Foundation, an Indian NGO which is the philanthropic arm of the travel company Inspiration India. Incentive Foundation has been providing healthcare and supporting education in Bandhwari village since 2005. The Foundation began working in the village when Inspiration India was looking for a way to 'give back' to the community in which it was doing business. As part of its efforts, Incentive Foundation established a center to provide the women of Bandhwari with an outlet for developing their sewing and crafting skills and as a venue for socializing with other women.

The BWP's 18 participants range in age from 22 to 45. They receive instruction from the head seamstress who is in her 50s. The women are paid based on the number of products they produce, with most earning at least 300 rupees ($4 US) per month. The head seamstress receives a salary of 9,000 rupees ($120 US) per month from the Incentive Foundation. Incentive Foundation has helped all the women open their own bank accounts with the objective of providing a path to self-reliance and greater control of their expenses. All salaries and payments are made into these accounts.

THE BWP: A MODEL OF EFFECTIVE SERVICE-LEARNING

The BWP clearly satisfies the four elements identified by Godfrey and colleagues (2005) as essential to the success of business-related, service-learning initiatives: Reality, Reflection, Reciprocity, and Responsibility.

Reality

For many of the students in the BWP, the annual trip to India is not only their first international experience, it is their first travel experience outside of the State of Florida. Upon arrival in New Delhi, following a 20-plus-hour international flight, the students are immersed in a vibrant, dynamic environment very different from any they have ever encountered. The new sights, smells, and sounds speak to the students with compelling immediacy. Familiar conceptions of personal space are constantly challenged. Cows, oxen, chickens, goats, camels, and monkeys roam freely on city streets as vehicles of every shape, size, and configuration motor past. Great wealth and extreme poverty coexist side-by-side.

But 'reality' truly sets in for the students when they visit Bandhwari village. Among the first things they notice as their bus makes its way down the road leading to the village are the houses fashioned from mud, stone, and corrugated metal. These structures are a far cry from even the sturdy working class homes they see in Miami. They may also witness women of all ages in flowing saris hauling baskets of wood on their heads, stray dogs chasing down boys on mopeds, and small children dueling with sticks. As they arrive, they are greeted with curious stares by villagers eager to meet the foreign visitors. Upon

entering the women's center (a converted garage), they meet young women of the BWP. Most are seated on the cement floor, leaning over antique crank sewing machines, deep in conversation. All are attired in colorful saris. Some are the same age as the college students. Most are married with children; some became child brides at the age of 13. All make do on a few dollars a month – less than the amount that these students might spend on a single trip to Starbucks.

The students employ their mornings sitting on the floor of the women's center going over production details such as the color of a fabric lining, the length of a shoulder strap, and the size of a decorative button. Later, they teach English and math in the primary school to wide-eyed and energetic children who participate wholeheartedly in lessons and free play.

Following their day of activities, the students decamp to their hotel in nearby Gurgaon -- a budget property operated by the Lemon Tree Hotel chain. The choice of accommodations is intentional. Lemon Tree is a hotelier with a mission to hire 'opportunity deprived' Indians, including those with speech and hearing impairments, intellectual disabilities such as autism, and even survivors of acid attacks. Many of these differently abled employees work in frontline positions where they interact extensively with hotel guests. Guests may be greeted at the reception desk by a deaf employee proffering a hand-written welcome message on a notepad or served a meal in the hotel restaurant by a waiter with Down Syndrome. While the program began as a charitable gesture, Lemon Tree's inclusive staffing initiative is now a core part of the company's business model and a source of competitive advantage (Wernick & Upadhyay, 2021). The students' stay at Lemon Tree Hotels provides them with a reimagined vision of socially responsible hospitality.

To help the students contextualize their experiences in India, they participate in an annual one-day conference at Amity University titled "Women's Empowerment through Social Enterprise – An Inter-disciplinary and Multicultural Perspective." The conference includes presentations by Amity instructors from various disciplines (business, international affairs, and history) on topics ranging from the status of women in Indian society to microfinance. After the conference, the students have an opportunity to meet and connect with their Amity counterparts, forging new international friendships.

Reflection

Students in the BWP have numerous opportunities for reflection during the program. They are encouraged to keep a travel journal to record their thoughts and feelings about their daily experiences, and most do.[3] Additionally, there is a 'farewell lunch' on the students' final day in the village which serves as a moment for reflection. Seated around a table at the home of one of the village women, students share their most impactful moments from the trip, while enjoying fresh-baked *naan* and bowls of *dal*. Invariably students touch upon the themes of generosity, humility, and selflessness. Many are particularly struck by how contented the Bandhwari women appear to be, notwithstanding their lack of material possessions. It is not uncommon for students to cry as they express how moved they were by their experiences in the village and how their interactions with the Bandhwari women and the school children have caused them to reevaluate their own priorities and values.

Upon their return to the U.S. from India, students participate in a 'debrief session' during which they discuss key insights from the trip and how their experiences in India matched their expectations. They also give presentations to their classmates, instructors, administrators, and donors, in which they recount their experiences, encounters, and chief learnings.

Reciprocity

Although at first glance, the BWP may seem to be a one-sided affair, with students volunteering their time, knowledge, and creativity for the benefit of the community, a closer look shows that it is a shared experience with shared benefits. While it is true that key business decisions (such as which items to produce and in which sizes, colors, and quantities) are made by the students without input from the Bandhwari women, the development of prototypes involve collaborative conversations with the head seamstress, whose expertise is critical on product design. These conversations often result in product innovations or entirely new products, such as a laptop case made from repurposed silk sari fabric. Moreover, thanks to a new partnership with Amity University, the Bandhwari women are receiving training to improve their sewing skills, and to learn new techniques. There are also plans in place for instructors and students from Amity's School of Fashion Design and Technology to assist the students, the Incentive Foundation, and the Bandhwari women in creating a new line of upcycled products made from discarded denim.

Responsibility

Perhaps the most important lessons that the students learn during the service-learning program relate to civic-mindedness and social responsibility. Students volunteer for the project because they believe in the mission of supporting women's empowerment through entrepreneurship. Many are also drawn to the project because they want to be involved in a student-led initiative with a social impact. Throughout the year, they devote countless hours to planning and preparation. Among the decisions that must be made is how to reinvest the proceeds from the sales of the Bandhwari products. This decision is made in consultation with Incentive Foundation to ensure that donations are aligned with community needs. In 2020, following a large wholesale order of tote bags, the students were able to donate a new water pump to the Bandhwari primary school, thereby enabling the children and their teachers to have drinking water and flush toilets.

Lessons on social responsibility are also taught through side trips in India to organizations like the Salaam Baalak Trust, which provides healthcare, education, and other essential services children living on New Delhi's streets; the Nawaaz Foundation, which provides shelter and medicines to children with HIV; and Wildlife SOS, an NGO which offers a sanctuary for elephants that have been rescued from commercial circuses and other exploitative situations. As one student commented: "Where you are born is often a determining factor in so many people's lives, and it shouldn't be. Traveling to India gave me a new appreciation for the things in life that we often take for granted, as well as a desire to help others improve their situation."

THE BWP AS A VEHICLE FOR INSTILLING CROSS-CULTURAL AND GLOBAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES

In addition to satisfying the 4 Rs of effective service learning (Godfrey et al, 2005), the BWP helps to instill in participants a variety of valuable skills that are in high demand in today's workplace. These skills mirror the cross-cultural and global leadership competencies identified in the international business and management literatures and include: 1. cross-cultural relationship skills (e.g., cultural sensitivity); 2. traits and values (e.g., emotional intelligence and resilience); 3. cognitive orientation (e.g., open

mindedness and critical thinking abilities); 4. global business expertise (e.g., international business and technological savvy); 5. global organizing expertise (e.g., ability to build teams and forge partnerships); and 6. visioning (e.g., ability to devise a vision for constructive change) (Mendenhall and Osland, 2002).

1. Cross-Cultural Relationship Skills

Among the most valuable skills that students learn from their participation in the BWP is how to communicate and work effectively with people from vastly different cultural, educational, and socioeconomic backgrounds. Because India, unlike the United States, is both a 'high-context' culture (Hall, 1959) and a 'high power distance' society (Hofstede, 1980), discussions and negotiations with local partners can be fraught with challenges. Additionally, since English is not widely spoken in Bandhwari village, there is a language barrier that must be overcome. Students quickly learn that to be understood by their community partners, they must listen attentively and empathically, speak clearly, and choose their words carefully. Furthermore, they learn the importance of using effective body language to get their message across. As one alumni of the project recounts: "I had previous experience in volunteering with kids from different social and economic backgrounds, yet all of these experiences were in my home country of Brazil and in my native language of Portuguese. To engage with kids from a completely different culture where very few words were understood from one to another was an extremely interesting challenge. It was hard not having verbal communication available, but it also just made our interactions even more meaningful and powerful. It was as if we could talk through our eyes and communicate with our smiles."

The cross-cultural communications skills and leadership abilities that students develop through the BWP prove valuable beyond graduation. As one alumna of the program relates: "In my work, I travel to various Latin American countries and execute corporate events. I have learned that I must spend a good amount of time understanding the cultural context before communicating and leading local teams and vendors. Although I am still learning more every day and refining my own style, I am very thankful that the Bandhwari project exposed me to this cultural realm and taught me skills that I was able to take with me on my professional journey."

Another program alumni, who currently works in investment banking, offers a similar view on the value of the cross-cultural communications skills developed through the BWP: "In my current position, I speak with dozens of individuals from different regions regarding a consolidated process affecting 10Q disclosures. The Bandhwari experience has helped me to build cross-regional relationships that have improved current workflows. Moreover, the experience made me appreciate the importance of clear and effective communication, and as a result, I am more mindful of possible language and cultural barriers when speaking to colleagues and clients."

2. Traits and Values

Students participating in the BWP learn the value of various traits and values which are conducive to business success, such as resourcefulness and resilience. An errant shipment from India in 2019 offered an excellent opportunity to develop these traits and values. The students had ordered a shipment of scrunchies (fabric-covered elastic hair ties) to be sold on campus. Unfortunately, due to a miscommunication, the items that arrived in Miami were significantly larger than expected. Rather than shipping the scrunchies back to India, which would have been costly and time-consuming, the students decided to cut them into quarters and stitch them back together. The new smaller-sized scrunchies turned out to

be a best-seller. As one student commented, "the scrunchie situation was a great example of the many challenges we face as a student-run business and organization. It offered us the opportunity to learn, work as a group, and tackle the challenges thrown our way."

Emotional intelligence is another valuable trait that students participating in the BWP learn to cultivate. As one program alumna, an entrepreneur and business owner, relates: "My participation in the Bandhwari service-learning project showed me how strong the human spirit is, and reminded me that at any given moment, people are dealing with challenges we may not perceive. I always keep this in mind in my dealings with my team members. Being sensitive to their needs, which are not always verbalized has enabled me to connect with them, gain their trust, and lead them well."

3. Cognitive Orientation

Another benefit of the BWP for students is the opportunity to develop their critical thinking and problem-solving skills. The onset of the COVID-19 pandemic in early 2020 provided a great opportunity. The sudden exodus of students from campus and new social distancing protocols made the sale of products on campus difficult, if not impossible. New revenue-generating ideas were needed. Brainstorming sessions were organized. During one of these sessions a student proposed the idea for a sales competition for the fall semester to capitalize on the return of students to campus and new facemask requirements. A special order of cotton facemasks in colorful designs was placed. The shipment arrived just in time for the start of the Fall 2020 semester. An electronic ordering platform with personal ID codes was developed to keep track of sales. Armed with samples and iPads displaying additional merchandise, students fanned out across campus. The competition turned out to be a great success, generating thousands of dollars in revenue by the end of the semester, while helping to raise awareness about the project.

The problem-solving skills that students learn from working on the BWP provide an excellent foundation for future success in business and professional fields. As one alumna of the program recounts: "In my work as an optician I deal with many international patients seeking affordable and effective eye-care solutions. One patient traveled to Miami all the way from Turks and Caicos to be seen by her ophthalmologist and then get fitted by me for glasses. This patient had cataracts, glaucoma, and macular degeneration and needed her glasses in 24 hours. I knew it would be a challenge to find her the correct prescription and lens coating in that amount of time. But I was well prepared to meet this challenge as I had learned the habit of working quickly and effectively as a student leader of the Bandhwari project. After a few attempts, we found her the perfect lens and delivered it just in time for her to make her return flight home. Now, not only do I care for this patient by placing additional orders overseas, but for many of her friends and family members too."

4. Global Business Expertise

Most of the students who participate in the BWP are business majors and the project gives them an opportunity to apply classroom concepts in a real-world setting. Additionally, the BWP offers students a chance to gain entrepreneurial experience. The first item produced in the village during the inaugural 2016 trip was a Moroccan-style pouf. This product was chosen because it was relatively easy to stitch, compact and inexpensive to ship, and had a high resale value. Unfortunately, sales were disappointing. However, customers did like some of the other prototypes developed during the first year, including

purses, tote bags, and headbands. During year two, the poufs were repurposed into linings for handbags, and new products were developed that had greater appeal.

For many student participants, the BWP represents their first experience with entrepreneurship, and it inspires some students to launch their own startups after graduation. As one alumni of the program relates: "My involvement in the BWP not only gave me the confidence to start my own entrepreneurial venture after graduation, it provided me with concrete skills that have proven invaluable in my current role, including how to price a product competitively, how to understand your target market, how to analyze data, and how to generate publicity through social media platforms. I still seek to create value for society through business, but now with a whole lot more experience and clarity in how to do so."

5. Global Organizing Expertise

Participation in the BWP offers students an opportunity to hone their organizational and leadership skills. The IBHS has an executive board that meets weekly throughout the year to devise strategies for all aspects of the project. Additionally, there are multiple standing committees, each with different roles and responsibilities. The marketing committee, for example, develops flyers, story cards to accompany products, and regularly updates the IBHS Bandhwari website with fresh content. It also develops content for social media accounts, including Instagram, Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter, and Tik Tok. Additionally, the marketing committee oversees the development of blogs, which feature testimonials about the BWP, and reaches out to 'influencers' through a newly designed Bandhwari Ambassadors program. The fundraising committee, meanwhile, develops ideas for raising money for the annual India trip, whereas the new product development committee focuses on creating innovative new products, particularly those made from sustainable materials. Finally, the sponsorship committee supervises outreach to corporations for donations.

The organizational and team building skills that students learn in the BWP pay dividends in the corporate world after graduation. As one former program alumni, an employee of a multinational technology company, recounts: "I recently worked on a project with the main goal of optimizing a search performance report for our global team. My team did not know where to start, so based on my experience in the BWP, I decided to interview all teams across all regions and get insight from them. The project taught me that it is very important to collaborate as a team, and to listen to everyone, and this is exactly what I did during this project. The outcome was very successful, and all team members were grateful that their insights and concerns were taken into account in the final report."

6. Visioning

Students participating in the BWP embrace the opportunity to be catalysts for change. A new opportunity presented itself in the spring of 2021 as India suddenly became the epicenter of the global COVID-19 pandemic. A group of current and former IBHS students quickly mobilized over social media to establish a relief effort. Their efforts included a crowdsourced GoFundMe campaign and a benefit dinner at an Indian restaurant in Miami. The dinner, which took place in early June, brought together 50 current students and alumni of the program. The campaign raised thousands of dollars for the women of Bandhwari and the Salaam Baalak Trust, the organization that assists New Delhi's street children.

The Bandhwari experience is catalytic for some students in helping them identify their future path. As one alumna of the program relates: "Building a microbusiness from thousands of miles away for

the benefit of women in a developing country proved to be a complex and challenging undertaking, but also a deeply satisfying one. Upon returning from the service trip to India, I knew I wanted to dedicate my time advocating for gender equality and women's empowerment. I now do so through my work with UN Women."

Another program alumna was inspired by her work on the BWP to start her own NGO. In 2020, she launched the Uganda Female Empowerment Project with the aim of supporting female health, education, and empowerment in that country. Since that time, she has expanded her work into Kenya, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and Tanzania. "The roots of this passion came from my time with IBHS working on the BWP," she says, while adding that the program "enhanced my emotional intelligence, critical thinking skills, and frankly, made me a better businesswoman."

CONCLUSION

In recent years, business schools have been criticized for offering an overly narrow curriculum consisting of compartmentalized knowledge divorced from practice and disconnected from the issues that matter most to students and the wider community. They have also been accused of failing to equip students with the competencies required to succeed in an increasingly global workplace marked by complexity, ambiguity, and disruptive change. Leavitt's (1989) assertion that business education produces "critters with lopsided brains, icy hearts, and shrunken souls" arguably remains valid. Experiential learning, in general, and service-learning in particular, go a long way toward addressing these shortcomings. Innovative, student-driven initiatives like the BWP offer students the opportunity to learn and grow while developing a portfolio of competencies that are highly valued in today's workplace, among them, cross-cultural communication and leadership skills, critical thinking and problem-solving abilities, emotional intelligence, empathy, resourcefulness, and resilience. These programs also offer students an opportunity to participate in a purposeful activity that creates shared value for many stakeholders, including overseas community partners and home institutions. For business schools looking to train future cadres of global leaders capable of tackling the immense social, economic, and environmental challenges facing the planet, ISL programs like the BWP represent a promising new direction.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Cross-Cultural Competence: An ability to understand people from different cultures and engage with them effectively by drawing upon a repertoire of knowledge, skills, and personal attributes.

Experiential Learning: The process of learning through experience whereby students participate in hands-on experiences, as opposed to passive, lecture-based instruction.

Global Citizenship: The idea that all people share a common humanity, and, as such, have civic responsibilities that transcend their immediate communities or nation-states.

Global Mindset: The ability to perceive and decode behaviors in multiple cultural contexts. Individuals possessing a global mindset can connect with people from other cultures on an intellectual and emotional level.

International Service Learning (ISL): A structured academic experience in another country that addresses community needs and provides shared benefits for students and community partners as well as opportunities for student reflection and personal growth.

Service Learning: A form of experiential education in which students engage in service activities that address human and community needs. Service-learning programs offer structured service and learning objectives and opportunities for personal reflection.

Soft Skills: Non-technical skills that are widely seen as valuable in the workplace. Soft skills include interpersonal skills, listening and communication abilities, time management skills, and empathy.

ENDNOTES

1 The four stages of Kolb's model are as follows: (1) individuals learn from concrete experience; (2) this learning leads to reflective observation on that experience; (3) reflection leads to theory development through abstract conceptualization; and (4) theories are tested through experimentation, and the cycle begins again.

2 As Lane and colleagues (2017) observe, the typical business school education tends to focus on the "What," but is less robust in conveying the "How" and "When." The latter are best taught through experiential learning techniques.

3 Keeping a travel journal conforms to best practice identified in the service-learning and leadership development literature (e.g., Oddou et al., 2000).

Chapter 6
Sustainable Study Abroad

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ABSTRACT

The number of business students in higher education pursuing an international experience continues to increase due to a range of opportunities offered by universities. International experiences lead to positive outcomes for students, but there is a misalignment between the countries sending students to the U.S. and the destinations chosen by U.S. students. Host countries selected by students for their international experience are the recipients of economic benefits, but they also are facing environmental and social consequences of over-tourism. As such, a more sustainable approach to the planning and selection of study abroad programs must be taken. This chapter reviews the data and trends for U.S. students studying abroad and international students studying in the U.S. and also looks more closely at the data for one large public university. Stakeholders are identified and the pros and cons of non-traditional study abroad destinations discussed. The chapter concludes by offering suggestions for designing programs in non-traditional study abroad destinations.

INTRODUCTION

In the past couple of decades international travel and study abroad experiences in higher education have been consistently growing in popularity. Different formats - from long-term exchange to short-term field trips to interning or volunteering abroad - are pursued by both undergraduate and graduate business students. Prior studies suggest that international experiences lead to positive student outcomes, such as development of cross-cultural competencies, global mindset, enhanced knowledge of international business, as well as professional and individual growth (e.g., Luo and Jamieson-Drake, 2015; Panina and Lane, 2018; Walsh and Walsh, 2018). Many universities offer study abroad programs in a variety of countries. Although American students historically prefer Western Europe as the destination for study

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and travel (Nyaupane, Paris, and Teye, 2011), the number of non-traditional study abroad destinations is growing (Zachrisson, 2004).

The choice of the destination for study abroad is important, because it determines not only student outcomes, but also the economic, social, and environmental impact education abroad has on the host countries. From the economic standpoint, international education has emerged as a multibillion dollar business and source of revenue for host countries. Economic contributions of international students in the form of tuition payments, travel, and living expenses annually contribute around $155 billion to the U.S. economy, $15 billion to Australia, $14.1 billion to the U.K., $6 billion to Canada, and $1.5 billion to New Zealand to name just a few countries (Lee and King, 2016).

At the same time, from the sustainability perspective, some travel destinations such as Venice, Italy or Barcelona, Spain suffer from over-tourism and are already trying to limit the number of visitors (e.g., Seraphin, Sheeran, and Pilato, 2018). While some popular tourist destinations around the world are struggling to accommodate incoming visitors, many countries remain unexplored by business students despite their growing importance in the global economy.

This chapter argues that a more sustainable approach to study abroad programs is needed. To this end, the chapter investigates destinations of study abroad programs of American students, and the geography of the foreign students coming to the U.S. to study. It focuses on the reasons for the choice of study abroad programs' destinations and the impact these choices have on various stakeholders - from students who participate in study abroad to local communities that host them. Due to the COVID pandemic that severely disrupted international travel, we will include study abroad and international student data for the two proceeding years: 2017-18 and 2018-19. The chapter concludes with suggesting more sustainable study abroad destination choices in line with the UN Sustainable Development Goals.

STUDENT INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCES - DATA AND TRENDS

According to the Institute of International Education's annual Open Doors report, 71,850 business students pursued a credit-bearing experience abroad in 2018-19. Business students represented 20.7% of all U.S. students abroad. Business students were the second largest field of study to pursue international experiences behind 'STEM' field students which comprised 26.8% of U.S. students abroad. 'STEM' fields include agriculture, computer science, engineering, health professions, math, and physical and life sciences (Institute of International Education, 2020a).

The Institute of International Education (IIE) also identified the top 25 destinations U.S. students selected for a study abroad program in 2018-19. More than half of them (51.3%) chose a European country as the destination for their international experience. This was followed by Asia (8.3%), Latin America (6.6%), and Oceania (4.3%). Africa, the Middle East, and North America each hosted 1.8% or less of all U.S. students abroad and the list of top 25 destinations lacked a Caribbean destination (Institute of International Education, 2021).

The further analysis of the trends in study abroad destinations for U.S. students will show that the number of American students choosing to study in Western Europe is gradually decreasing. With globalization, the interest in other countries continues to grow.

Table 1. Top Destinations of U.S Study Abroad Students in 2018-19

Rank	Destination	Students	% Total
1	United Kingdom	39,358	11.3
2	Italy	39,043	11.2
3	Spain	33,849	9.8
4	France	18,465	5.3
5	Germany	12,029	3.5
6	Ireland	11,777	3.4
	China	11,639	3.4
8	Australia	10,665	3.1
9	Japan	8,928	2.6
10	Costa Rica	8,333	2.4
11	Mexico	6,340	1.8
12	Greece	5,834	1.7
13	Czech Republic	5,480	1.6
14	South Africa	5,278	1.5
15	Denmark	4,846	1.4
16	South Korea	4,558	1.3
17	New Zealand	4,233	1.2
	Netherlands	4,182	1.2
	Peru	4,041	1.2
20	Ecuador	3,675	1.1
21	Israel	3,532	1.0
	India	3,366	1.0
	Argentina	3,317	1.0
24	Chile	3,190	0.9
	Austria	3,039	0.9

As an example, we will now look at the study abroad destination choices of business majors at one very large public university in the U.S. Texas A&M University has a current enrollment of more than 70,000 students and has been recognized as the number one public university for students pursuing an academic experience abroad for the past five consecutive years. The top three colleges to send students abroad are the College of Engineering, the College of Liberal Arts, and Mays Business School.

Mays Business School's vision is to advance the world's prosperity. To do this, Mays ensures students can actively engage in vibrant learning to create impactful knowledge and develop into transformational leaders. Graduates will then have the tools and perspective to positively influence future generations through better quality of life, environment, and economic systems.

The more detailed strategic learning framework includes seven mindsets identified as critical to the development of a transformational leader. The college has committed to providing academic and experiential opportunities for students to cultivate and practice each of the mindsets, one of which is global. Pursuing a global experience is a key for students to fully engage the global mindset. By spending time studying, interning, researching, or volunteering abroad, Mays Business School students better understand how much business practices and culture can vary across borders and the effect this has on the global marketplace (Mays Business School, 2019).

Research shows that students who pursue an international experience benefit from personal growth and a desire for lifelong learning, gain international/world knowledge and understanding, develop cultural awareness, and a number of other skills, e.g., language, confidence, and adaptability (Lane & Murphrey, 2020). As such, completing an academic experience abroad is recognized by employers as an opportunity for students to gain desirable workplace skills and valuable perspective and growth that translates to greater success on the job.

Table 2 shows the top 25 study abroad locations for Mays Business School students for the same period. Mays Business School had 724 students pursue an international experience in 2018-19 which included 589 undergraduate and 135 graduate students. Only 11 European countries are included in the top 25 destinations but they comprise a greater number of students (59%) than the previous year. Students pursuing experiences in Latin America increased to 15.2% and Asia to 12.9% of students. Africa as a destination significantly decreased and only comprised 5% of students and no Caribbean country made the top 25 destination list. This is due to the U.S.'s embargo of Cuba and the civil unrest in Haiti that also prevented travel. The majority of students (586, 80.9%) participated in a university-sponsored group program led by a faculty member or student organization. Non-European countries in the top 10 included South Africa (36), Panama (29), and China (27) (TAMU Accountability Report, 2021).

The 2020 International Organization for Migration's World Migration Report shows India followed by Mexico as the originating country for the largest number of migrants in 2020 with 17.5 million people and 13 million people respectively. China and Russia each have approximately 11 million migrants. The United States far exceeds any other country as the destination of the greatest number of immigrants which totaled over 50 million in 2020. Germany and Saudi Arabia follow far behind with approximately 14 million immigrants each.

As the largest reasons for e-migration are due to education and jobs, it should come as no surprise that additional evidence from U.S. universities that host international students suggests the globalization of higher education. Table 3 shows, in order from greatest to least, the top 25 places of origin for international students coming to the U.S. to study business in 2018-19 (Institute of International Education, 2020b).

Students from China comprise more than 45% of international students studying business in the U.S. in 2018-19. The number of students from India, the second largest student population, was 13.5% in 2018-19. The remaining 23 countries listed represent less than 6% each of the remaining student population (Institute of International Education, 2020b).

Texas A&M University hosted 5,124 international students in fall 2016. This included 748 undergraduate students and 4,376 graduate students. The most represented countries at the undergraduate level included China (186), South Korea (47), Mexico (36), Vietnam (33), and India (31). The most represented countries at the graduate level included China (1,520), India (1,165), South Korea (337), Iran (176), and Taiwan (152) (TAMU Accountability report, 2021).

Table 4 shows the top countries of origin for international students studying at Mays Business School. At Mays Business School only 41 (0.8%) of 5,059 undergraduate students were international students. This included 2 freshmen, 5 sophomores, 14 juniors, and 20 seniors. International students are much more represented at the graduate levels with an enrollment of 288 (25.6%) of 1,127 at the Masters level and 35 (52.2%) of 67 at the Doctoral level.

Table 2. Top 25 Destinations of Mays Business School Study Abroad Students in 2018-19

Rank	Destination	Students	% Total
1	Italy	89	12.4
2	Europe*	70	9.7
3	France	64	8.9
4	Spain	56	7.8
5	South Africa	36	5.0
6	Czech Republic	31	4.3
7	Panama	29	4.0
8	China	27	3.8
9	Greece	26	3.6
10	Belgium	24	3.3
	Indonesia	24	3.3
	Singapore	24	3.3
	United Kingdom	24	3.3
14	Chile	22	3.1
15	Finland	20	2.8
16	Brazil	19	2.6
17	India	18	2.5
18	Ireland	15	2.1
19	Guatemala	14	1.9
20	Canada	12	1.7
21	Dominican Republic	11	1.5
22	Costa Rica	9	1.3
23	Australia	7	1.0
24	Ecuador	6	0.8
	Germany	6	0.8

**Europe means the study abroad program includes overnight stays in four (4) or more European countries.*

In comparing Table 1 that shows the top destinations of U.S. study abroad students to Table 3 for international students coming to the U.S. to study business, it is evident that the top 10 countries show very little overlap. The only countries in common are China (7th country for outgoing students, 1st country for incoming) and Japan (10th country for outgoing, 9th country for incoming). The top 6 countries for outgoing students were all in Western Europe whereas for incoming students fell much later at 14, 15, and 17. In looking at all countries, only nine (9) appear in both the incoming and outgoing list for top 25.

It is also helpful to look at historical data for U.S. business students studying abroad. Table 5 provides a comparison of the top 20 study abroad destinations for all U.S. business students for 2009-10 and 2018-19 (Institute of International Education, 2021) while Table 6 shows the data for the same period of time for Mays Business School students specifically. Despite a nearly 10-year difference, Table 5 shows the top four (4) study abroad destinations (United Kingdom, Italy, Spain, and France) for U.S. business students remain unchanged. The remaining six countries in the top 10 include China, Costa Rica, Germany, and Ireland for both years.

Table 3. International Students Studying Business in the U.S in 2018-19

	Pace of Origin	Business students	% of students
1	China	69,845	45.3
2	India	20,807	13.5
3	South Korea	7,315	4.7
4	Saudi Arabia	6,971	4.5
5	Vietnam	6,952	4.5
6	Taiwan	4,463	2.9
7	Canada	4,258	2.8
8	Brazil	3,742	2.4
9	Japan	3,241	2.1
10	Mexico	2,833	1.8
11	Germany	2,399	1.6
12	Indonesia	2,290	1.5
13	United Kingdom	2,017	1.3
14	France	1,970	1.3
15	Venezuela	1,963	1.3
16	Nigeria	1,799	1.2
17	Spain	1,772	1.1
18	Colombia	1,556	1.0
19	Nepal	1,495	1.0
20	Turkey	1,432	0.9
21	Malaysia	1,334	0.9
22	Kuwait	1,131	0.7
23	Bangladesh	643	0.4
24	Iran	559	0.4
	Total	154,186	

The top country destinations for these same time periods at Mays Business School have much less overlap but are still primarily located in Europe, as shown in Table 6. France, Italy, Spain, and 'Europe' (programs that travel to four or more European countries) appear in the top 10 both years as well as China and Panama but there is no overlap in the other four countries. The top 20 program destinations in 2009-10 include five (5) Latin American countries (Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, and Panama), two (2) Asian countries (China and Singapore), South Africa, and Australia. Top destinations in 2018-19 includes four (4) Latin American countries (Brazil, Chile, Guatemala, and Panama), four (4) Asian countries (China, India, Indonesia and Singapore), Canada, and South Africa.

Table 7 shows the most popular destinations for programs led by Texas A&M University faculty in 2009-10 and 2018-19. In a ten-year span, you can see both consistencies and changes. For example, Italy and Germany remain in the top four (4) and Costa Rica, Europe, France, Mexico, South Africa, and Spain in the top ten. Quite a few countries decrease in popularity including Brazil, Dominica, El Salvador, Fiji, New Zealand, Qatar, and Tunisia, some of which disappear altogether from the top 25. It should be noted that program locations are a balance of faculty willingness and student interest for a particular destination. These varying factors account for some of the changes.

Table 4. International Students' Studying at Mays Business School in 2018-19

Rank	Pace of Origin	Business Students	% of Mays students
1	India	201	3.18
2	China	46	0.73
3	Mexico	29	0.46
4	South Korea	26	0.41
5	Vietnam	5	0.08
6	Canada	4	0.06
	Taiwan	4	0.06
8	Honduras	3	0.05
	Indonesia	3	0.05
10	Brazil	2	0.03
	Egypt	2	0.03
	France	2	0.03
	Guatemala	2	0.03
	Iran	2	0.03
	United Kingdom	2	0.03
16	Other countries	25^	
	Total	**358**	

^One (1) student each from 25 different countries.

Table 5. Comparison of Top Destinations of U.S Study Abroad Students

	2009-2010				2018-2019		
Rank	Destination	Students	% Total	Rank	Destination	Students	% Total
1	United Kingdom	32,683	12.1	1	United Kingdom	39,358	11.3
2	Italy	27,940	10.3	2	Italy	39,043	11.2
3	Spain	25,411	9.4	3	Spain	33,849	9.8
4	France	17,161	6.3	4	France	18,465	5.3
5	China	13,910	5.1	5	Germany	12,029	3.5
6	Australia	9,962	3.7	6	Ireland	11,777	3.4
7	Germany	8,551	3.2	7	China	11,639	3.4
8	Mexico	7,157	2.6	8	Australia	10,665	3.1
9	Ireland	6,798	2.5	9	Japan	8,928	2.6
10	Costa Rica	6,262	2.3	10	Costa Rica	8,333	2.4
11	Japan	6,166	2.3	11	Mexico	6,340	1.8
12	Argentina	4,835	1.8	12	Greece	5,834	1.7
13	South Africa	4,313	1.6	13	Czech Republic	5,480	1.6
14	India	3,884	1.4	14	South Africa	5,278	1.5
15	Greece	3,700	1.4	15	Denmark	4,846	1.4
16	Czech Republic	3,409	1.3	16	South Korea	4,558	1.3
17	Israel	3,146	1.2	17	New Zealand	4,233	1.2
18	Chile	3,115	1.2	18	Netherlands	4,182	1.2
19	New Zealand	3,113	1.2	19	Peru	4,041	1.2
20	Brazil	3,099	1.1	20	Ecuador	3,675	1.1

Table 6. Comparison of Top Destinations of Mays Business School Study Abroad Students

2009-10				2018-19			
Rank	Destination	Students	% Total	Rank	Destination	Students	% Total
1	Spain	65	15.0	1	Italy	89	12.4
2	Europe	61	14.1	2	Europe	70	9.7
3	Netherlands	47	10.9	3	France	64	8.9
4	China	39	9.0	4	Spain	56	7.8
5	United Kingdom	38	8.8	5	South Africa	36	5.0
6	France	34	7.9	6	Czech Republic	31	4.3
7	Italy	27	6.2	7	Panama	29	4.0
8	Costa Rica	23	5.3	8	China	27	3.8
9	Panama	20	4.6	9	Greece	26	3.6
10	Germany	11	2.5	10	Belgium	24	3.3
11	Singapore	7	1.6		Indonesia	24	3.3
12	Australia	6	1.4		Singapore	24	3.3
	Austria	6	1.4		United Kingdom	24	3.3
	Greece	6	1.4	14	Chile	22	3.1
	Honduras	6	1.4	15	Finland	20	2.8
16	Mexico	5	1.2	16	Brazil	19	2.6
	South Africa	5	1.2	17	India	18	2.5
18	Ireland	4	0.9	18	Ireland	15	2.1
19	Guatemala	3	0.7	19	Guatemala	14	1.9
20	Belgium	2	0.5	20	Canada	12	1.7

Table 8 compares the programs led by Mays Business School faculty in 2009-10 and 2018-19. The first significant difference is the number of programs offered. In 2009-10 there were only five (5) programs offered whereas 2018-19 included 17 programs. This contributed to a large increase in student participants from 178 in 2009-10 to 497 in 2018-19. An interesting similarity is the number of programs offered in Europe. In 2009-10, 60% of the programs were in Europe compared to 59% of programs in 2018-19.

Our analysis of longitudinal data shows that the number of students pursuing international studies abroad is consistently growing, and the destination countries for educational programs abroad are becoming more diverse. Due to economic, ecological and social constraints associated with studying in Europe, and the growing economic importance of Asia, South America, and other emerging marketplaces, we predict the continuation of this trend. From the sustainability point of view, diversifying into less traditional destinations for study abroad is an opportunity and challenge for the faculty and administrators. In the following section of the chapter we discuss the reasons why Western European countries are preferred by many study abroad programs and the reasons that limit the possibilities of visiting other international locations. We then suggest approaches Business schools might use to overcome these limitations and diversify study abroad experiences beyond the traditional destinations.

Table 7.Comparison of Faculty Study Abroad Program Offerings at Texas A&M University

2009-2010				2018-2019			
Rank	Destination	Students	% Total	Rank	Destination	Students	% Total
1	Italy	194	17.1	1	Germany	365	12.3
2	Spain	129	11.4	2	Italy	289	9.8
3	Europe*	100	8.8	3	Costa Rica	184	6.2
4	Germany	94	8.3	4	Mexico	181	6.1
5	South Africa	73	6.4	5	United Kingdom	176	5.9
6	Costa Rica	70	6.2	6	Spain	162	5.5
7	France	65	5.7	7	Greece	144	4.9
8	Brazil	49	4.3	8	Europe*	123	4.2
9	China	45	4.0	9	France	111	3.7
10	Mexico	41	3.6	10	South Africa	91	3.1
	United Kingdom	41	3.6	11	China	81	2.7
12	Australia	33	2.9	12	Ireland	69	2.3
13	Qatar	25	2.2	13	Australia	63	2.1
14	Belgium	20	1.8	14	Finland	55	1.9
15	Dominica	18	1.6	15	Chile	53	1.8
16	Czech Republic	17	1.5	16	Belgium	52	1.8
	El Salvador	17	1.5	17	Argentina	50	1.7
	New Zealand	17	1.5	18	Egypt	48	1.6
19	Tunisia	14	1.2		Scotland	48	1.6
20	Fiji	13	1.1	20	India	43	1.5
	Japan	13	1.1		Singapore	43	1.5
22	Denmark	12	1.1	22	Czech Republic	40	1.4
	Netherlands	12	1.1	23	Brazil	39	1.3
24	Peru	11	1.0	24	Japan	33	1.1
25	Morocco	5	0.4		Poland	33	1.1

**Europe means the study abroad program includes overnight stays in four (4) or more European countries.*

PROS AND CONS OF NON-TRADITIONAL STUDY ABROAD LOCATIONS

Outgoing international program destinations for U.S. students are heavily focused on Europe, which can be partially explained by tradition. Historically, American students were encouraged to spend their junior year studying and traveling around Europe (Nyaupane, Paris, and Teye, 2011). Research shows that decisions to study abroad are influenced by the image of a destination country. This image is formed by the combination of factors such as weather, quality of accommodation, tourist attractions and physical safety from the tourism perspective, and level of country's development and technology from business and commerce perspective (Lee and King, 2016; Nghiem-Phu and Nguyen, 2020; Trower and Lehmann, 2017). Country attractions of the host location were found to be highest ranked decision criteria, followed by considerations of the education institution (Ahmad, Buchanan, and Ahmad, 2016). Selection of host country for the attributes of safe and pleasant living conditions remains overwhelmingly common among students and explains their preferences of European destinations.

Table 8. Comparison of Business Faculty Study Abroad Programs at Texas A&M University

2009-2010				2018-2019			
Rank	Destination	Students	% Total	Rank	Destination	Students	% Total
1	Europe*	78	43.8	1	Europe*	80	16.1
2	Spain	34	19.1	2	Indonesia & Singapore	47	9.5
3	France	31	17.4	3	Greece & Italy	41	8.2
4	China	21	11.8	4	Spain	34	6.8
5	Costa Rica	14	7.9	5	France	33	6.6
				6	Italy	32	6.4
				7	South Africa	30	6.0
				8	Czech Republic	29	5.8
				9	Belgium	26	5.2
				10	Chile	25	5.0
				11	United Kingdom	22	4.4
				12	Finland	20	4.0
					India	20	4.0
				14	Brazil	19	3.8
					China	19	3.8
				16	Ecuador & Peru	10	2.0
				17	Ireland	10	2.0

**Europe means the study abroad program includes overnight stays in four (4) or more European countries.*

Yet, it is essential that business students, in particular, are provided with more diverse international experience opportunities to understand business in a variety of cultural environments. As the number of U.S. students studying abroad grows, diversity of study abroad participants is linked to increased interest in non-traditional destination choices. Recent studies discuss student focus on 'pushing the boundaries', allure of the challenge, experience of cultural immersion, and increased self-confidence as primary motivations and self-reported benefits of studying abroad (Bretag and Van Der Veen, 2017).

Two program characteristics that have a positive impact on student learning and global awareness are a country's language and how common the destination is (deLoach, Kurt, and Olitsky, 2021). Less common destinations that are dissimilar to a student's country of origin and have a different language were found to provide an environment where the travelling students have more opportunities to develop global awareness than more common destinations. Research suggests that motivation to study abroad differs based on the country of origin: students from economically developed, usually Western countries are attracted to study abroad programs in culturally different locations, while students from developing countries are more influenced by financial incentives and quality of education (Jiani, 2017). For example, many U.S. students are interested in visiting countries to explore their family roots. For example, China currently attracts descendants of Chinese migrants in search of their cultural identity (Jiani, 2017).

As we commence study abroad programming post-COVID, there is an opportunity to shift our international program offerings. There are many reasons for doing this. First, the value of studying and engaging with emerging market economies will benefit students that become future leaders of companies

and organizations. For example, the rise of China as an economic power has led to increased interest of students in its culture and business practices (Ding, 2016; Jiani, 2017). Additionally, the much less saturated non-European destinations provide greater access to top business executives and university partnerships. Next, the overall program cost can be much lower in some non-European destinations given a lower cost of living, favorable exchange rate with the U.S. dollar, and overall lower demand for both study abroad participants and tourists. From the career perspective, study abroad experiences in less traditional locations are considered very favorably by potential employers and are a good addition to a resume.

However, as COVID continues to linger, it will impact accessibility around the globe and in particular, to less developed countries. Universities will not approve study abroad to countries with insufficient health care systems and infrastructure to respond to COVID outbreaks. There is still a possibility for faculty and students to engage with locations inaccessible to travel through virtual experiences. This past spring, Mays Business School offered virtual study abroad engagements to 256 undergraduate and graduate students for a combined 624 credit hours. Students visited Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Croatia, India, Morocco, Panama, Philippines, South Africa, Spain, and/or Vietnam. They participated in cultural activities, local excursions, company visits, and service-learning.

There are also some concerns pertaining to study abroad in less common destinations that should be addressed. Research has identified several reasons for caution in choosing non-traditional destinations. Quality of the academic programs and student services in host institutions of some countries still are not comparable to the universities of traditional recipient countries (Ding, 2016; Wen and Hao, 2018). For example, Ding (2016) established that international students in China face multiple difficulties. A survey of international students from 121 countries who study in Shanghai has found that 75% of courses were taught in Chinese, and only 17.4% were taught in English. International students in China were dissatisfied with class sizes, teaching methods, teaching materials, and lack of opportunities to interact with teachers. International students studying in China have complained about lack of support services, such as help with airport pick-up, opening of bank accounts, and finding places to live. Additionally, Chinese programs were criticized for lack of opportunities to interact with local students, because visiting students are often housed separately from their Chinese counterparts, due to differences in living standards. Dormitories of international students in China are equipped with amenities such as air conditioning, private bathrooms and are limited to 1 or 2-student occupancy per room, while living arrangements of Chinese students are more modest. Therefore, low levels of satisfaction with academic programs, support services, and integration with local students were mentioned in relation to Chinese study abroad programs (Jiani, 2017). Although China is gradually becoming a study abroad destination that attracts international students from Asia and beyond, major challenges for international students include limited English resources, limited student-faculty interaction, and difficulties in socio-cultural adjustment (Chen and Chen, 2017; Wen and Hao, 2018). Surveys of international students in Vietnam also touch upon these themes. Among the weak or negative attributes of stay in the country, international students have mentioned facilities, studying methods and entry requirements (Nghiem-Phu and Nguyen, 2020).

For some non-European regions there is less access to quality health care and/or a lack of infrastructure that can make it difficult to navigate the interior of the country. For example, study abroad programs in Cuba had to navigate the environment where U.S. - issued credit and debit cards are not accepted, U.S. -based mobile phones could not be used on Cuban networks, and if they were, their usage was problematic, coverage is limited, and calls were expensive due to rigorously controlled, scarce Internet connectivity. This in turn prevented students from using Google Maps, Map Quest and similar applications (Henthorne

and Panko, 2017). Additionally, increased or underreported crime, and lack of English speakers can create concern for travel. There are also varying degrees of collaboration (or lack thereof) with the United States that could create difficulty with acquiring additional support should there be a significant natural or political event that represents a risk for visiting students. Political risk is another factor to consider. Satisfactory levels of order, perceived personal danger and positive assessments of the country's political environment by the U.S. government are important. Concerns for personal safety were listed as one of the top barriers to study abroad (e.g., Kakkad and Nair, 2015;Vernon, Moos, and Loncarich, 2017). Finally, many elements of the country's environment (e.g., food, clothing, traffic) can become sources of culture shock for students on a study abroad program (Mardiningrum and Larasati, 2020).

DESIGNING SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS IN NON-TRADITIONAL LOCATIONS

Based on the extensive involvement of Mays Business School faculty with the educational activities in non-traditional destinations, below are a few considerations to be taken into account.

Consider the Program Duration

Short faculty-led trips are considered a safe initial exposure to a foreign culture and country and do not require language proficiency (Yuksel and Nascimento, 2018). Shorter experiences abroad were found to have similar outcomes on global awareness as longer ones, provided there was sufficient programmatic depth (DeLoach, Kurt, and Olitsky, 2021). Students consistently report lower perceived barriers to attending short-term programs (Fitzsimmons, Flanagan, and Wang, 2013). Such programs might work better in non-traditional locations due to shorter exposure to host culture, more structured activities, and less opportunities for students to explore the host country on their own.

Focus on Programmatic Depth and Academic Content

Students are entering college with a range of credit hours, degree plans have less flexible electives, and many students are now pursuing 3+2 or 4+1 programs to earn their Bachelor and Master degrees in five years. As a result, the course(s) offered on study abroad programs are increasingly important as students seek programs that will fit in their degree plan. Additionally, students desire engagement with the local culture which can come from adding a service-learning component or meeting with and/or completing a project for local business owners. However, confusion of travel with experiential learning should be avoided. It's not enough to just get students out of the country (Barkin, 2018). Travel does not equate to education, and pedagogy outside of classroom does not equate to experiential learning. It is the responsibility of the program director not to rely solely on outside contractors, who conveniently provide student groups with "an exoticism, novelty, and performatively educational veneer that meets their antecedent expectations" (Barkin, 2018, p. 312). International experiences should challenge and stretch the students, they should not always be comfortable or fun. In other words, study abroad should not turn into tourism (Chakravarty, Good and Gasser, 2020).

Rethink Students' Engagement in International Education

It is important to think of students as co-producers, rather than consumers of knowledge and faculty's partners in global learning (Green, 2019). For students embarking on study abroad experiences, the preparation is crucial. It should be acknowledged that students differ in their level of preparedness to the experience: They differ in their knowledge about host country, they have very different prior experiences (or lack thereof) abroad, and their exposure and knowledge of foreign languages varies as well (Bikos, Manning, and Frieders, 2019). Thus, the program leader has to assess student preparedness and tailor pre-departure and on-site activities to make sure all study abroad participants can contribute to and benefit from global learning and make the most out of their international experience (Chakravarty, Good and Gasser, 2020).

Be Mindful of the Risks

Study abroad risks include a range of traumatic experiences, and unfortunately they are comparatively more common in study abroad, particularly in countries where students are unfamiliar with local language and culture (Wright, Smith, and Freyd, 2017). Perpetrators are most frequently host country residents, due to differences in cultural expectations around gender roles and appropriate behaviors. Race, privilege and entitlement were also identified as risk factors for trauma exposure abroad. Training about cultural norms is a must for students. Institutions must have a plan for how they will support students who experience traumatic events abroad. Since the growth of student participation in study abroad, participation of non-traditional students, such as students with disabilities (Heirweg, Carette, Ascari and Van Hove, 2020; Niehaus, Bryan, Nelson, and Briscoe, 2020), underrepresented minorities and first generation students with lack of international experiences (Yuksel and Nascimento, 2018) necessitate serious consideration of structured support systems for students and in-country support for instructors to ensure positive experience for all.

Be Mindful of Host Communities

Try to meet community expectations regarding the norms of their culture, community customs and protocols; develop sensitivity towards their way of life (O'Sullivan, Smaller, Heidebrecht, and Balzer, 2019). Hosts of service-learning abroad programs often complain about pressure to accept a program developed without consultation with the host community leaders and a lack of communication. Visitors often arrive with a package of expectations as to the type of accommodation, food and the activities they expect. Maltby, De Vries-Erich, and Lund (2016) suggest that often desire to travel to lower income countries is associated with "poverty tourism" and enthusiasm for regions that are seen as exotic by Western students. Thinking about study abroad as a learning experience first and foremost necessitates the need to be respectful of the people in the host countries.

CONCLUSION

Prior research suggests that attitudes towards destinations are based on multiple factors, such as social ties to the destination, past travel experiences, and motivation (Nyaupane et al., 2011). Research identified

two broad segments of students based on their study abroad motivations. The larger segment (about 62% of students) can be characterized as "externally-motivated familiarity seekers", while smaller segment (about 40% of students) is described as "internally-motivated adventure seekers" (Jada, 2016). In their decision to study abroad, "externally-motivated familiarity seekers" are influenced by others, prefer U.S. - administered programs in English language, and living and studying with other U.S. students. "Internally-motivated adventure seekers" want to broaden their horizons and are looking for adventure. Studies report that in their decision to study abroad, the narrative of strategic escape from the ordinary is a predominant motivation for both groups (e.g., Rita, Brochado, and Dimova, 2019; Trower and Lehmann, 2017). Yet it can be assumed that the latter group of students will be more likely to prefer study abroad programs in off the beaten track, non-traditional destinations.

Apart from student interest, destination choices are influenced by the available institutional opportunities (Jiani, 2017). Universities are increasingly providing a variety of options to students to travel and explore the world. With careful planning and care, study abroad programs in non-traditional destinations can be particularly effective in increasing global awareness and cross-cultural skills of business students.

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Chapter 7
Reflecting and Adapting to an Academic Workplace Before and After the Lockdown in Greek-Speaking Cyprus: Opportunities and Challenges

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ABSTRACT

Higher education institutions (HEIs) are required to constantly adapt and respond to the needs of society, both economic and social, including the current pandemic situation. The traditional representation of university as an educational side is being challenged leading to the inclusion of the practitioner side, emphasising on the need for business education. In this context, the present study examines how academics reflect and adapt to an HEI and enhance their workplace literacy and work-related practices inside and outside the foreign language classroom. The participants were 36 academics of all ranks involving part- and full-timers working in a private English-speaking HEI. The findings indicate that participants could need more support with the subject area that is English, and an extended access to the shared repertoire of their communities, which may strengthen their connections with other academics and reduce high job demands, resulting in better adaptation to new workplaces.

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INTRODUCTION

The recognition that learning occurs within the workplace and is associated with organisational and individual development is not new (Bond & Garrick, 1999). According to Stevens et al. (2001), workplaces are structured to maximise learning processes and provide opportunities for development. Indeed, workplace learning may contribute to the development of enterprises and individuals through enhancing capabilities to identify and act upon new opportunities.

However, it is argued that learning opportunities are not evenly distributed among employees due to several reasons including the status of work, personal relations between employees, and employment status (Billett, 2001). The reasons for restricted access to learning at work can be applied to academic workplaces (Valsan & Sproule, 2008). As competition between higher education institutions (HEIs) is intensified due to reduced governmental funding and increased marketisation of institutions, academics experience more challenges, which are associated with limited job security and equality of opportunities (Santos & van Phu, 2019).

An increased number of temporary contracts (Valsan & Sproule, 2008) make academics move between institutions (James & Lokhtina, 2018) within and beyond higher education (HE). However, academics who experience these transitions may face unfamiliar working environments (Boyd, 2010) due to new job roles and work tasks that are likely to be closely aligned with formal groupings such as departments and/or schools (Harland & Staniforth, 2003). Responding to these challenges, workplace learning practices should focus on higher level of literacies in order to develop academics' ability to learn, adapt, and change quickly and efficiently to meet the current demands of the workplace whether the academics are native or non-native speakers of English. Moreover, with internationalisation, many academics and students can move across Europe, which implies that the English language is the medium for communication. The Cypriot-Greek (CG) context could be an example reflecting this situation, which suggests that HEIs compete to attract academics and students. However, given that English is not the L1 (first language), this creates new challenges.

The application of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) to the existing trends in academic workplaces opens up an interesting line of investigation in this respect. Currently, the JD-R model is perceived as one of the leading models, proposing that high job demands may cause job strain, and that job resources may serve as motivating factors reducing the pressure of high job demands (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). The JD-R model can help to shed light on job resources that academics should have in order to enhance their performance inside and outside the second language (L2) classroom, which refers to the classroom context in which English is used as an L2. This is because English language skills, which have been acquired for academic purposes (e.g., teaching, researching), do not necessarily guarantee successful use of L2 English when teaching for business education (e.g., for a specific discipline) or communicating with colleagues outside the classroom. The development of new faculty and new teaching methods are among the major challenges that business education faces (Kozminski, 2011) to remain relevant in the current fast-changing and knowledge-driven business landscape (Avolio et al., 2019). As a result, the focus of this study is on the extent to which HEIs support academics regarding the development of their literacy skills and competencies as part of their learning practices resulting in adaptation to new workplaces and how the academics perceive this support.

The chapter will consider the existing and required initiatives, including training and material design, which could be implemented by private HEIs in order to respond to the expectations relating to open communication, mutual learning and knowledge exchange between academics. The rationale for

concentrating on this type of support stems from the limited research studies focusing on this area not only in Greek-speaking Cyprus but also internationally. Examining workplace learning practices in a private HEI context and academics' expectations regarding what kind of support could be of particular interest will enable a close insight into workplace literacy skills and work-related competencies; under normal circumstances this would be a 'bolted-on' element in working environments. As a consequence, the next two sections attempt to examine the challenges of adapting to a new academic workplace and the importance of L2 English in the business education context.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Challenges of Adapting to a New Academic Workplace

The HE landscape in European countries has faced a number of challenges during the last few decades due to increased institutional and governmental demands (Leathwood & Read, 2013; Kolsaker, 2008). Certain changes such as the massification of HE (Kyvik, 2013) and its modernisation have not taken place over night. Even though these changes have led to a rise in student numbers, they have not necessarily led to a similar rising demand for academic staff (Eurydice, 2017).

There is a tendency to increase institutional autonomy of HEIs in different areas, including internal decision-making regarding policies for managing academic staff, financial resources, and academic affairs (Eurydice, 2017). Temporary contracts prevail including untenured staff, teaching-only staff, and research-project personnel (Valsan & Sproule, 2008). As a result, there are numerous academics who face a situation in which they are asked to move between institutions within and beyond HE that makes them question how they perceive themselves (James & Lokhtina, 2018). This is because such transitions might be accompanied by the challenges academics face in new workplaces, which cover a range of different aspects of staffing issues, which may hinder or restrict their engagement with colleagues and practices (James & Lokhtina, 2018).

Every HEI as an organisation is portrayed as a static entity where there is a widely shared set of values, which are communicated to new entrants (Smart & Hamm, 1993). Academics who move between institutions may face unfamiliar environments within broader multidisciplinary contexts (Boyd, 2010) due to new job roles and work tasks that are likely to be closely aligned with formal groupings such as departments (Harland & Staniforth, 2003). In the absence of clarity on how one's performance contributes to the wider vision, academics may experience uncertainties about how to express themselves that may have a direct impact on their well-being both inside and outside the workplace (Freeney & Fellenz, 2013).

Different cultural and linguistic backgrounds may influence the ways in which academics collaborate, write, and teach as well as use documents. The negotiation of the L2 may create some challenges, which are related to literacy conventions, including the use of communication tools to manage and analyse information, construct knowledge, and express oneself (van Joolingen, 2004). Workplace literacy refers to the ability to respond efficiently to the literacy demands of the workplace (Gowen, 1992). The content is determined by the linguistic demands of the specific workplace, which refers to the language functions employees need to perform efficiently in the workplace as well as the communicative skills. It is also more than having the narrow skills for a specific job. When we use the term 'literacy', we include the full array of basic skills that enable an individual to 'use printed and written information to function in

society, to achieve one's goals, and to develop one's knowledge and potential.' (National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1985, cited in Sarmiento & Kay, 1990, p. 3).

It is argued (Gee et al., 1996), thus, that workplace learning should focus on higher level of literacies in order to develop academics' ability to learn, adapt, and change quickly and efficiently to meet the current demands whether they are native or non-native speakers of English. Sometimes, though, academics may not be skilled in the specific subject matter or they may have received their training in a different language than the one they are required to teach. Therefore, using the 'non-language content as a vehicle for promoting L2 proficiency' (Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013, p. 5) can be quite challenging for them while of special interest would be to examine how they manage to balance the two, inside and outside the L2 classroom.

Therefore, promoting and supporting workplace literacy skills seems to be of crucial importance on a personal and organisational level and should enlarge the domain of workplace learning. With reference to the personal level, high workplace literacy skills may lead to improved employment prospects (OECD, 1998) and more income (Altonji, 1992; Levy & Murnane, 1992). With reference to the organisational level, employers think that mastering workplace literacy skills can improve several job performance aspects including the ability to use new technology (Sticht, 1995) and enhance organisational performance by increasing innovation and reducing obstacles to the reconstructing that organisations need to remain competitive (Drouin, 1990). This analysis suggests that the demand for a well-developed competence in L2 English is of particular importance in the HEI context considering its intensive internationalisation. It also suggests that language-related skills should be developed in context rather than in isolation (Mohan, 1986) irrespectively of the environment. However, a question that emerges is whether this exposure to the L2 English as well as to new job roles and workplace practices would be the key to a smoother adaptation to a new workplace or whether there is a mismatch between what the available curricula offer and what needs to be learned.

According to the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), job resources (e.g., high levels of support, feedback) provide employees with the extrinsic motivation to willingly perform their job role. Job resources comprise the aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, stimulating personal growth, learning and development (e.g., management support, supervisors' feedback, and skills development) (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Moreover, job resources may reduce the pressure of high job demands serving as motivating factors that can be reflected in the form of better employees' engagement (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

Job demands consist of those aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort and are associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs (e.g., unfavourable working environment). Given the current state of the world, academic staff are facing diverse workplace issues arising from the spread of COVID-19 and the pandemic lockdown. Many questions have arisen, such as how to support academics and protect their rights, how to facilitate knowledge exchange and protect academic well-being.

Studies on the JD-R model suggest that work engagement and performance can be improved through management interventions that allow participants to optimise the level of job demands and/or resources (Bakker et al., 2014). Over the years, employee engagement has gained increased attention among researchers (Byrne & MacDonagh, 2017; Kular et al., 2008). However, the application of this model to the existing trends in the HE context, which lead academics to adapt to new workplaces, opens up an interesting line of investigation in this respect. Consistent with the current trends in academic workplaces,

the JD-R model can help to shed light on how academics perceive the organisational support regarding their workplace literacy skills and their job roles.

This connection could be more evident in a context in which the HE system is relatively new. Greek-speaking Cyprus presents such example since the HE system is around twenty-five years. However, its turning point in development, which includes the accession of the Republic of Cyprus to the European Union in 2004, coincided with a number of governmental initiatives, including the strategy of making Greek-speaking Cyprus a European hub for HE research. Once Greek-speaking Cyprus has been acknowledged as a signatory country of the Bologna process (Crosier & Parveva, 2013), the HE modernisation agenda has become an overarching policy of the Cyprus Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport and Youth (Education for All, National Review Report: Cyprus, 2015; Higher Education in Cyprus, 2012). HEIs in Greek-speaking Cyprus seem to attract significant numbers of students from overseas while many CG students may pursue their studies in another country (CYSTAT, 2021) aiming at establishing the island as a regional hub for education and research. At present, HE in Greek-speaking Cyprus is provided at the university level by three public and five private universities (www.highereducation.ac.cy/en). The primary language of instruction at the three public universities is Greek, while English is the language of instruction for the private HEIs (Cyprus Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport and Youth, 2010).

L2 English in the Educational Context

Overall, introducing Foreign Language Learning (FLL) seems to be very important for the European Union since in this way, individuals can work or study in any other member state (Commission of the European Communities, 2003). Understanding this situation, Cyprus has invested heavily in the promotion of FLL. Special emphasis has been placed on improving the competence of CG users in the English language. This is attributed to the fact that the language is widely used for worldwide communication (Rogerson-Revell, 2007), it is used as a lingua franca (Crystal, 2003), while in Cyprus it has a special status since the island was a British colony from 1878 to 1960 (Kkese & Lokhtina, 2017; Kkese, 2016). In this context, business education seems to be of particular interest since it aims at bridging theory and practice and, therefore, the academia to the real world. Specifically, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) seems to be gaining prominence (Harding, 2007) especially in secondary education and in HE (Hüttner et al., 2009) in an attempt to equip students, who will later be the workplace employees, with professional skills (Harding, 2007).

Overall, the approach that is widely used for teaching English across the different stages (e.g., primary, secondary, HE) is the Communicative Language Learning, which aims at developing the four language skills. Even though other methods and approaches may also be used, the Communicative Language Learning seems to be the most influential theory for the context under investigation. Based on this approach, language is used for communication through the development of the four skills rather than depending on rule-governed structures that are arranged hierarchically. In a HE context, this may imply integrating language learning with other courses/modules (e.g., Mathematics, Accounting, Psychology). These practices seem to help university students understand the relation between English and other aspects of their learning (Doye & Hurrell, 1997) while these agree with the methodology of Content-Based Instruction (CBI) and of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), which have been gaining ground around Europe as well as the Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE), which is applied in most HEIs. These methodologies support that equal importance on content and language should be given; however, in HEIs this is not feasible since English is merely the

medium of instruction. Therefore, English-medium instruction (EMI) may be more appropriate for the HEI settings (Unterberger & Wilhelmer, 2011).

Content-Based Instruction

CBI refers to language teaching that integrates the learning of some specific subject-matter content with the learning of an L2. This approach emphasises more on the nature of the subject matter than on language forms and sequences, contrasting several traditional language curricula focusing on the teaching of language skills in isolation from the main content. In this approach, the L2 is merely 'the medium to convey informational content of interest and relevance to the learner' (Brown, 2001, p. 234). Instruction takes place in an educational setting aiming at students pursuing an academic programme. The latter implies that the curriculum is pre-specified by the academic needs and the content that needs to be taught, even though teachers may have some flexibility in adapting the curriculum to the proficiency and needs of their students.

CBI classes may be taught by a language teacher who has to teach first the subject-matter and then the language, implying that the language teacher has to become an expert in a new area, namely the subject-matter. In other cases, an 'adjunct' model may be applied (Brinto et al., 1989) in which the language teacher and the subject-matter teacher may work together complementing each other's course and curriculum. The third case scenario involves the subject-matter teachers teaching a specific subject or skill in the L2, which may not necessarily be the language in which they have received their training.

Be as it may, this approach allows the integration of language skills. When planning a content-based lesson, the teacher unavoidably includes the skills of reading, discussing, solving problems, analysing data, and writing opinions and reports. Consequently, CBI involves the transfer of literacy skills from the classroom to the workplace. Students are not merely concerned with grades and tests but with the subject matter that is significant to their lives. This implies that new textbooks and other materials are needed as well as training for the language teachers to be able to teach across disciplines either individually or as part of a team.

CLIL does not seem to be a completely different approach when compared to CBI. Cenoz (2015) supports that the two approaches 'share the same essential properties and are not pedagogically different from each other' (p. 8). CLIL, just like CBI, refers to the integration of content and language using an 'additional' language (Coyle et al., 2010). This is because 'languages are not learned first and then used but […] they are learned by being used' (Cenoz, 2015, p. 17). As a consequence, the main difference between CLIL and CBI lies in the fact that the former does not merely refer to the teaching of English but to any 'additional' language other than the L1 (e.g., foreign, second, minority).

The focus of this study is on the extent to which HEIs support academics in terms of development of their workplace literacy resulting in adaptation to new workplaces and how this is perceived by them. The context under investigation is of special interest since it refers to academic workplaces and academics' quality of work life, given the importance workplace literacy has acquired for HE. Nonetheless, collection of data was severely influenced by the COVID-19 pandemic and the University's decision to go online following the guidelines of the Cyprus Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport and Youth. This implied extra pressure on the academics since they had to adjust to a new situation, not having enough time to fill in the questionnaire developed for the purpose of the present study. The researchers, though, decided not to terminate the collection process sacrificing the small number of questionnaires, which were collected but to use these data as a pilot study enabling an insight into an academic workplace.

METHODOLOGY

Purpose

For this chapter, an interdisciplinary approach is used aiming at answering the following research questions:

1. How do academics in private HEIs maintain a balance between teaching their subject area and language skills in the L2 classroom context?
2. How do academics in private HEIs manage the transition to a new academic workplace?
3. What kind of learning support would academics in private HEIs require inside and outside the L2 classroom context?

Research Design

For this study, quantitative research was used to provide a measure of the social phenomenon under study (Creswell, 2003). A self-completion questionnaire was developed that was written in English while special attention was drawn to question wording and content, response format, and the sequence of questions. The aim of the questionnaire was to gain a close insight into academics' perceptions about workplace literacy and learning practices.

The questionnaire consisted of three sections, which involve closed-ended questions while in some cases certain questions had an open-ended option in order to allow the participants to respond in their own way or to raise any concerns about the topic. This allowed simultaneous collection of numeric information as well as generating the voices of the participants (Creswell, 2003).

Section One elicited personal information about the participants to ensure a homogeneous population sample. This section consisted of nine questions while the emphasis was on education and work experience including years of working as an academic, years of working in other education roles and/or years of working in other jobs. Sections Two and Three involved 19 questions focusing on workplace literacy and learning practices. Section Two consisted of ten questions addressing workplace literacy in the L2 classroom context eliciting information concerning the academics' use of L2 English in class for teaching and assessment purposes. Section Three included nine questions addressing organisational support and challenges that academics experience at the workplace and the way they adapt to new departmental communities. Overall, the questions were designed to be short, simple, and comprehensible, avoiding ambiguous and vague questions (Bryman, 2008).

Overall, 36 out of 110 academic staff members took part in the study, involving part-time and full-time academics from all ranks. This involved special teaching staff, lecturers, assistant, and associate professors. The research period was between September 2019 and February 2020. The questionnaire was approved by the Rector and Heads of the three different Schools of the University who suggested the rephrasing of specific questions to reflect the University ideals. Reliability of the instruments was also obtained through a small pilot testing (five people) aimed at providing information on which items (words, sentences, and instructions) needed rewording or even removal from the questionnaire (Bryman, 2008). Based on the pilot study, Question 15 was revised since in the beginning, the two options provided were presented in the same sentence. Given the fact that no other significant changes were suggested by the participants as part of the pilot study, the researchers initiated the main study using the same questionnaire. The results of the pilot study were not used in the present research.

As part of the main fieldwork, questionnaires were sent in electronic form to the academics via the personal assistants of the Heads of the three different University Schools after taking permission from the Rector and the corresponding Heads. Questionnaires were filled in anonymously on a voluntary basis and participants had the right to withdraw at any time. They had to fill in the questionnaires without the presence of the two researchers to ensure that the latter would not affect the data collection process. The questionnaires were placed in a locker at the reception desk of the University or were left on the researchers' offices to ensure the anonymity of the participants if they did not want to send these back electronically. By following this procedure, the ethical criteria of the research were assured. Soon after the collection of the questionnaires, the data was entered into the statistical analysis software package IBM SPSS, version 23.0 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). For this study, descriptive analyses were applied.

At this point, several limitations need to be acknowledged since the sample chosen for the study includes only academics working at the specific university rather than a representative group working in other universities of the island as well, both private and public. The sample size reflects the intent to develop insights rather than generalisations. Thus, it is limited to the selected random sample, the time of the research due to time constraints and the current situation of the pandemic as well as the research instrument used in the study, which could include more open-ended questions to gain more useful insights into workplace literacy and academics' learning practices in a private HEI.

RESULTS

Demographic Profile of the Participants

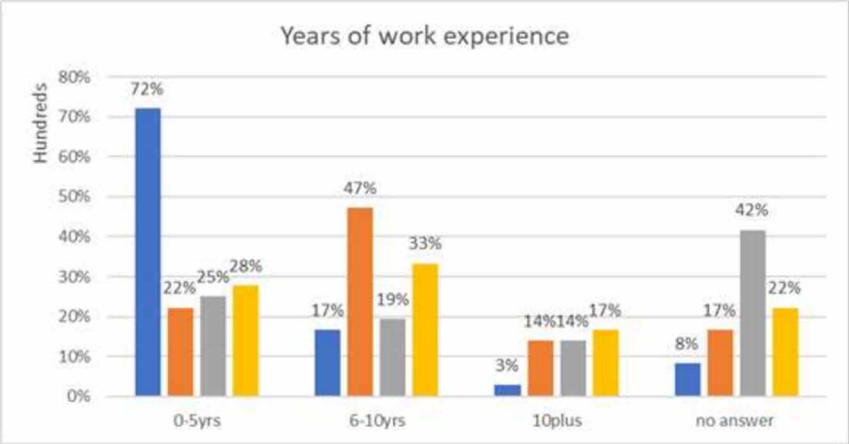
Section One of the questionnaire consisted of nine questions/statements referring to the participants' age, education and working experience. Overall, the questionnaire was answered by 13 men (36.11%) and 23 women (63.89%). Even though the majority of the academics working in private HEIs in Greek-speaking Cyprus are male (male: 1,126, women: 984; CYSTAT, 2021), this is not represented in the sample. With reference to age, most of the participants were between the ages of 31-40 (66.7%). More specifically, 11.11% of the participants were between the ages of 20-30, 19.44% of the participants were between the ages of 41-50, and 2.78% of the participants were between 51-60.

Concerning current employment status, an equal number of full-time (50%) and part-time (50%) academics participated in the study. When the part-time academics were asked why they chose the specific employment status, most of them did not provide an answer (61.11%); 25% said that there was no possibility to work on a full-time basis while only 13.89% reported that working part-time was their own decision. Most of them reported working in a private university (61.11%) while 13.89% answered that they were working in a public university; 8.33% reported working in both a private and a public university and 16.67% provided no answer to this question. These results were obtained since there were academics who were simultaneously working at another university/college except the specific university.

With regard to the academics' educational background, it was revealed that most of the participants (63.89%) had obtained a PhD degree in a related field; less participants had a MA degree (27.78%) or a PGCE (5.56%), while only one participant (2.78%) did not provide an answer to this question. The last question of this section was asking the participants about their working experience in the academia and/or in other sectors (see Figure 1). Participants had to answer to four sub-questions, if these were ap-

plicable to them. With reference to the years of working at the specific university, the majority (72.22%) reported that these were between 0-5. Concerning the total years of working as an academic, the majority (47.22%) answered that these were between 6-10 years. As for working in other educational roles, 25% of the participants answered that this ranged between 0-5 years, 19.44% between 6-10 years, 13.89% more than ten years, and 41.67% provided no answer. Finally, working in other jobs obtained 27.78% for between 0-5 years, 33.33% between 6-10 years, 16.67% more than ten years, and 22.22% gave no answer.

Figure 1. Years of working experience



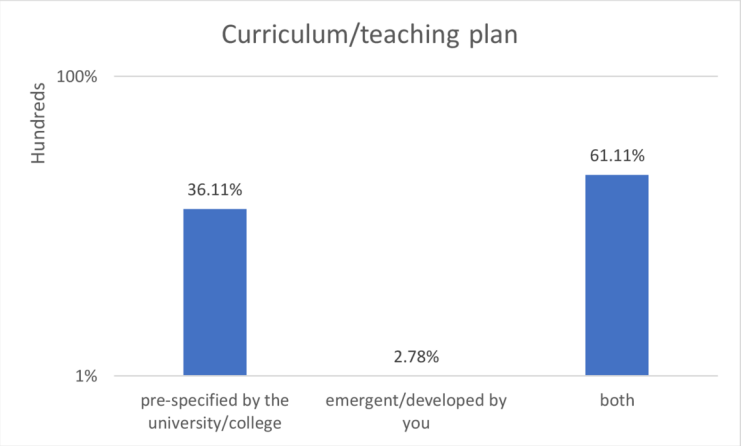
Workplace Literacy in the L2 Classroom Context

Section Two of the questionnaire aimed to gain a close insight regarding the use of the L2 in the classroom context focusing on questions about the method of teaching and assessment. Participants had to answer to ten questions about the use of the English language skills when it comes to teaching their subject area and whether this could facilitate and/or hinder the module objectives.

The first three questions of this section (Questions 10-12) referred to the academics' linguistic and educational background, as well as working experience. Specifically, the first question of this section was about the L1 of the participants to examine whether their L1 was also the language of instruction. As it was indicated, the L1 of the majority was CG (94.44%) while academics whose L1 was different from CG were considerably less; therefore, Russian followed as the L1 of only few participants (5.56%). No participant provided English as their L1. Concerning the second question of this section, and specifically the subject area they had studied, the participants provided a variety of responses. These included Humanities (16.67%), Sport and Health Sciences (11.11%), Social Sciences and Education (13.89%), Pure and Applied Sciences (8.33%), as well as Economics and Management (47.22%). Only 2.78% of the participants provided no answer. The third question was asking about the participants' working experience referring to the years they have been teaching in English. Most of the participants answered that this was between 6-10 years (38.89%). This was followed by 3-5 years (19.44%), 11-15 years (16.67%), 1-2 years (13.89%), 16-20 years (8.33%), and one year (2.78%). No answers were given for the category involving teaching in the L2 for more than 20 years.

The next four questions (Questions 13-16) focused on the academics' teaching method and/or approach. The first question referred to the curriculum/teaching plan followed by the participants and the extent they could develop their own for their classes. Most of them agreed that the curriculum/teaching plan is both pre-specified by the university/college and emergent/developed by them (61.11%). Less participants responded that the curriculum/teaching plan is completely pre-specified by the university/college (36.11%), while the least common answer was that the curriculum/teaching plan is emergent/developed by them (2.78%) (Figure 2).

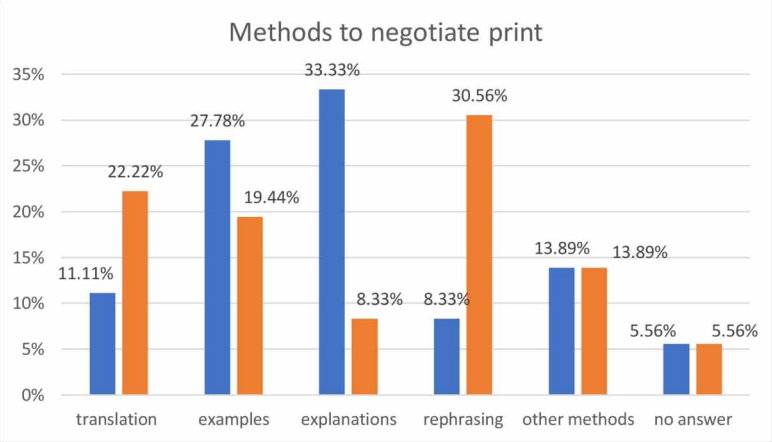
Figure 2. Curriculum/teaching plan



The next question was asking academics to mention two methods they use to help students when they do not understand a term or a concept in L2 English. In their effort to help them/negotiate print, academics provided a variety of methods (Figure 3). The most widespread methods involved the use of examples, explanations, rephrasing, and translation, while some participants provided no answer. Further methods included inquiries, repetition, and pictures as the first method; the second method included reference to the textbook, scaffolding, giving a printout, asking students to check online, and suggesting recommended reading.

For the next question focusing on academics' method/approach, the participants had to answer whether they believed that students could benefit more by using only textbooks or a resource bank of materials that could be developed and shared by teachers and students. The academics answered that a resource bank would be more beneficial for the students (52.78%) while considerably less expressed the opinion that students could benefit more by using textbooks only (27.78%). Few participants (16.67%) responded that both the use of textbooks and the development of the resource bank could assist students, and a small number provided no answer (2.78%). The last question of this section was asking the participants to justify their opinion and specifically why they thought that the use of textbooks and/or a resource bank could help students more. In this question, participants emphasised the importance of the materials for the learning process (61.11%) since students can benefit more if the structure of the materials is easy to understand and these are accessible to all of them; opinions were also related to students (19.44%) drawing on reasons such as the students' learning styles, individual needs, and extent of independence. Less participants provided no answer (11.11%) or provided more than two answers (8.33%).

Figure 3. Methods for helping students/negotiating print



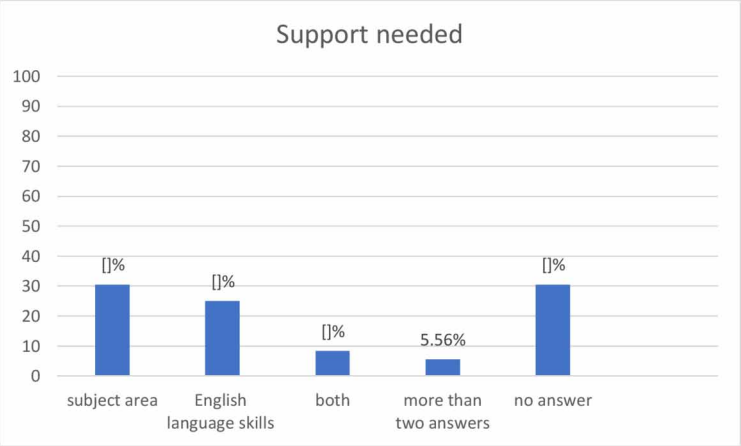
Regarding assessment (Question 17), most of the participants (63.89%) responded that it is clearly designed to assess both the subject area and the English language skills; less participants (36.11%) disagreed with this question. Overall, the participants' responses indicate that they recognise the importance of the English language skills in the L2 classroom context and they tailor the assessment of their module(s) to include this component as well and not just their subject area.

The last two questions (Questions 18-19) were self-reflective. The first question focused on whether the teaching of the participants' subject was indeed part of their academic training. Specifically, most of the participants (72.22%) responded that the teaching of the subject was part of their academic training. Only, a minority responded that this was not the case (19.44%), and a few provided no answer (8.33%). Finally, when asked about the area they could need more support in, academics agreed that this would be their subject area (30.56%) and then the English language skills (25%). However, participants provided more answers for this question; specifically, many did not provide an answer at all (30.56%), some answered that more support could be needed for both the subject area and the English language skills (8.33%), while some selected more than two answers (5.56%) (Figure 4).

Workplace Learning Practices within the Department: Challenges and Opportunities

The third section of the questionnaire (Section C) focused on learning practices and challenges outside the classroom and involved nine questions. Specifically, Question 20 was asking about a typical working day of the academics. The data was collected *using* a five-point Likert scale section with 1=very often (VO), 2=often (O), 3=sometimes (S), 4=rarely (R), and 5=never (N). The data indicated that most of the participants 91.7% (VO=75%, O=16.7%) spend a fair amount of time working alone and only 5.6% work alone at least sometimes. One person did not answer this question. 50% of the participants (VO=19.4%, O=30.6%) work collaboratively, compared to 30.6% who are only sometimes engaged in collaborative work. 19.5% admitted that they never or at least rarely work with their colleagues (R=16.7%, N=2.8%). However, 58.4% preferred to meet with colleagues to discuss areas of common concern (VO=27.8%, O=30.6%), compared to 27.8% who sometimes or 13.9% who rarely met (Question 23).

Figure 4. Need for academics' support



33.3% indicated that they sometimes work with others remotely and combine collaborative and virtual work (38.9%). An equal number of participants (27.8%: VO=11.1%, O=16.7%) agreed that they work remotely and combine collaborative and virtual work, compared to 36.1% (R=27.8%, N=8.3%) who never or rarely do so (30.5%: R=22.2%, N=8.3%). The answers for Questions 21, 22, 25 were collected using a five-point Likert scale section with 1=strongly agree (SA), 2=agree (A), 3= neither disagree nor agree (N), 4=disagree (D), and 5=strongly disagree (SD). More specifically, the participants were asked to indicate issues concerning their workplace practices within the department and their role (Question 21).

Concerning formal and informal communication, 78.3% of the participants agreed (SA=25%, A=52.8%) that formal communication with colleagues was adequately fostered at the department. 16.7% neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement and two participants (5.6%) disagreed. At the same time, 83.3% agreed (SA=33.3%, A=50%) that informal communication with colleagues was adequately fostered at the department. One participant (2.8%) disagreed with this statement and 13.9% neither agreed nor disagreed. Moreover, 47.2% (SA=13.9%, A=33.3%) were happy with their participation in decision-making process at departmental meetings, compared to 19.5% (SD=5.6%, D=13.9%) who disagreed and 33.3% who were uncertain about their answer.

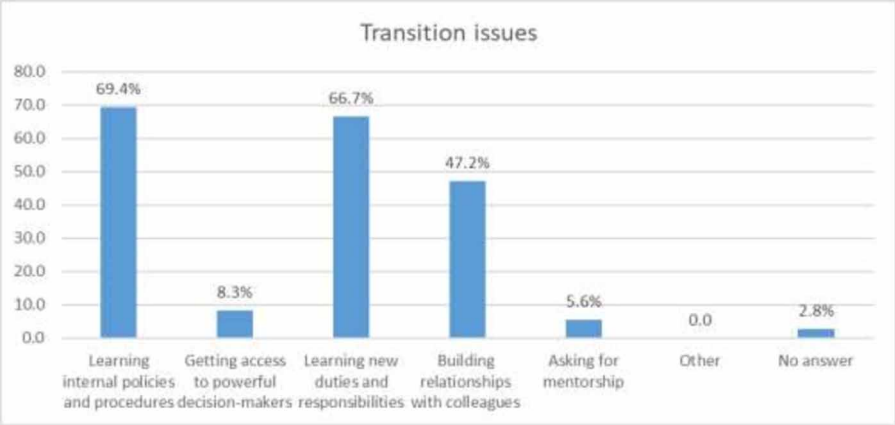
Concerning their role, 91.7% of the participants were aware of their role (SA=41.7%, A=50%), but two participants were not aware and one participant (2.8%) accepted that he/she neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement. 75% of the participants agreed that they were regularly briefed regarding their role (SA = 19.4%, A = 55.6%). One participant (2.8%) disagreed with this statement and 16.7% neither agreed nor disagreed.

Question 22 asked about the challenges the participants faced once they joined the department. Most of the participants (83.3%: SA=33.3%, A=50%) admitted that new duties and responsibilities were the major challenge. 11.1% neither agreed nor disagreed. Only 16.7% (A) agreed that working with less experienced colleagues was a challenge, compared to 47.3% (SD=5.6%, D=41.7%), who disagreed with statement; 33.3% neither agreed nor disagreed. Alternatively, working with more experienced colleagues had almost an equal percentage of participants who agreed (33.3%: SA=13.9%, A=19.4%) and disagreed (33.4%: SD=30.6%, D=2.8%) were uncertain (30.6%) about this challenge. Formal communication with colleagues was not perceived as challenge by 50% of the participants (SD=38.9%, D=11.1%) while only

16.7% considered formal communication a challenge. 36.6% were uncertain about their answer. Almost an equal percentage of participants agreed (33.3%: SA= 13.9%, A =19.4%) and disagreed (36.1%: SD=8.3%, D=27.8%) that lack of information regarding internal policies and procedures was a challenge for them; 27.8% were uncertain about their answer. Even though 30.6% (SA=13.9%, A=16.7%) agreed that lack of mentoring or induction was a challenge, 44.5% (SD=13.9%, D=30.6%) disagreed with the statement. 22.2% were uncertain about their answer. One academic (2.8%) did not provide any answers.

Question 23 was asking academics to identify the most important transition issues to a new academic workplace (Figure 5). Even though most of the participants (69.4%) viewed their learning of internal policies and procedures as the most challenging aspect of their transition, 66.7% of participants chose learning new duties and responsibilities as challenging as well. The third most common challenge was building relationships with colleagues.

Figure 5. Transition to a new academic workplace: issues

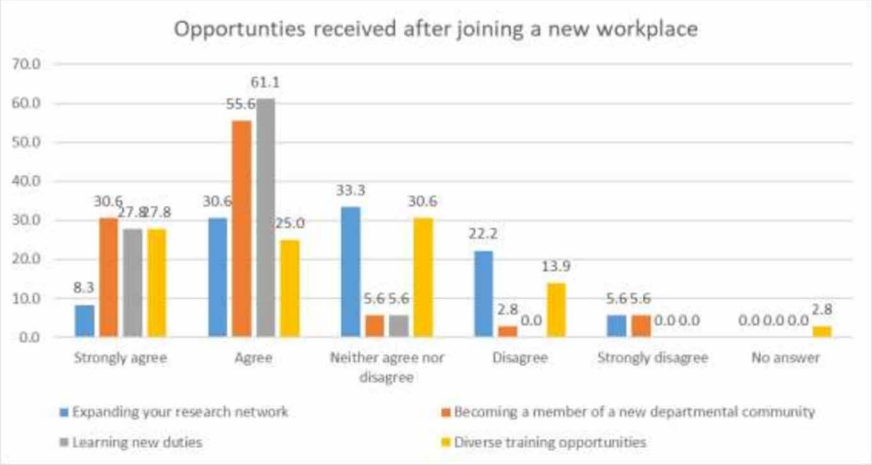


Concerning Question 25 (Figure 6), which was asking about opportunities received after joining their current workplace, the majority (88.9%) (SA=27.8%, A=61.1%) responded that this was learning new duties. No one disagreed with this statement and only 5.6% were uncertain about this opportunity. 86.2% agreed that they felt like becoming a member of a new departmental community (SA=30.6%, A=55.6%) and only 8.4% disagreed with this statement (SD=2.8%, D=5.6%).

Diverse training opportunities were well received by 52.8% of the participants (SA=27.8%, A=25%), but a good number (N=30.6%) were uncertain about this opportunity and 13.9% (D) admitted that they did not receive any training opportunities. Only one participant (2.8%) did not answer to this question. The percentage of participants who agreed (38.9%: SA=8.3%, A=30.6%) was almost equal to the percentage of participants who reported a neutral opinion (33.3%) regarding an opportunity to expand their research network. At the same time, 27.8% (SD=5.6%, D=22.2%) did not manage to expand their research network.

The next question was asking academics to specify the time that was required to feel being part of their departmental community after they joined the department. After one month most of the participants felt being part of their departmental community (30.56%) compared to 11.11% who admitted that they

Figure 6. Opportunities received after joining a new workplace



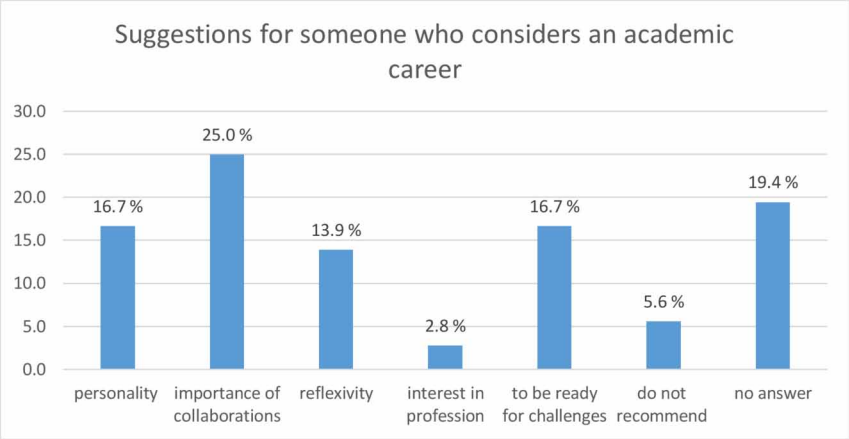
still do not feel it. Other participants accepted that it took them one year (27.78%) or one week (8.33%), compared to 22.22% who admitted that they felt it straight after they joined the department.

Question 27 asked about departmental support that participants expect to make their academic career realistic. Most of the participants 63.9% agreed (SA=27.8%, A=36.1%) that they required more time for individual work. Only 5.6% disagreed with this statement and 30.6% expressed a neutral opinion. However, 55.6% (SA=13.9%, A=41.7%) agreed that they required more time for collaborative work with colleagues. Only 13.9% disagreed with this statement (SD=2.8%, D=11.1%). 30.6% expressed a neutral opinion. 60% (SA=8.3%, A=41.7%) agreed that they required more guidelines on internal policies and procedures. 27.7% disagreed with this statement (SD=8.3%, D=19.4%) and 22.2% expressed a neutral opinion.

Equal percentage of participants admitted that they were uncertain about additional informal events at the department, having a mentor and training in relation to duties and responsibilities (38.9%). 33.4% disagreed (SD=5.6%, D=27.8%), compared to 25% who agreed to have more informal events at the department. Regarding the importance of mentors, equal percentage of participants 22.2% agreed and disagreed with the importance of having this opportunity. One participant did not comment (2.8%). Even though 36.1% (SA=11.1%, A=25%) required more training in relation to their duties and responsibilities, 25% of the participants did not look for this support (SD=11.1%, D=13.9%). 44.5% (SD=16.7%, D=27.8%) disagreed with the opportunity of having more formal departmental meetings. However, 22.3% (SA =5.6%, A = 16.7%) asked for this opportunity. 33.3% expressed a neutral opinion.

Finally, the participants were asked to make suggestions to someone who is planning to make a transition to a new academic workplace (Question 28) (Figure 7). Most of the participants admitted the importance of collaborative partnerships (25%). Equal percentages (16.7%) of participants reported the importance of having a combination of personality traits and skills (e.g., communication skills, patience, time management skills, being confident and diplomatic) as well as being ready for challenges. 13.9% admitted the importance of reflecting on their own actions and personality prior to the final decision to join higher education. 5.6% of participants did not recommend joining academia and only 2.8% admitted the importance of interest in career choice. 19.4% did not give an answer.

Figure 7. Suggestions for someone who considers an academic career



DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The main purpose of this study was to raise awareness about the challenges and opportunities concerning workplace literacy and learning practices that academics face inside and outside the L2 classroom context. To achieve that, the first research question addressed the academics' challenges of maintaining a balance between content and language. Overall, the findings obtained from Section Two of the questionnaire regarding the first research question 'How do academics in private HEIs maintain a balance between teaching their subject area and language skills in the L2 classroom context?' suggest that the academics taking part in this study manage to balance the two areas. With reference to the teaching of their subject area, most academics (72.22%) responded that this was part of their academic training; this suggests that they are adequately prepared to teach the specific subject. Concerning L2 English, the academics are required to teach their subject in the target language since this is the language of instruction of the specific private University and generally of most programmes of study in HEIs in Greek-speaking Cyprus (Cyprus Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport and Youth, 2010). In the classroom context, the academics have to follow the curriculum/teaching plan pre-specified by the University while they are capable to help students when they do not understand a term or a concept in English by using a variety of methods; the most important being explanations, rephrasing, examples, and translation even though L2 English is not their L1. Assessment is clearly designed to assess both the subject area and the English language skills. Based on the academics' responses, therefore, the L2 and non-language subject are the same and cannot be separated in the classroom context (Lyster, 2017). Integrating the non-language subject and the L2 may offer a concrete theoretical background from different disciplines and academic spheres indicating the need for contextualised practices and business education. This integration led to the rise of the approaches of CBI, CLIL, and ICLHE (Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2007).

On the same line of thinking, the third research question asked 'What kind of learning support would academics in private HEIs require inside and outside the L2 classroom context?' Concerning the L2 classroom context, the findings obtained from Section Two of the questionnaire revealed that academics could need more support in their subject area (30.56%). Nonetheless, an equal number of participants did not provide an answer for this question (30.56%), and English language skills followed (25%). The

findings are quite interesting given that through the first research question, the academics responded that the teaching of the subject area was part of their academic training while they seemed to balance content and language skills for both instruction and assessment purposes, not being able to separate between the two (Lyster, 2017). The findings suggest, however, that academics may have received their training in a different language than the one they are required to teach or that they lack the desire or the expertise (Hyland, 2006) to teach English language skills. The latter further supports the notion that L2 proficiency may be challenging (Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013). Based on the results, English language skills differed only slightly when compared to the needs concerning the subject area. In HEIs, the language of instruction is neither a subject nor is among the set of the learning objectives (Unterberger, 2014, pp. 158–211) but has a vehicular function, being EMI representing ICLHE (Järvinen, 2008, p. 78). However, there are no specific policies referring to which academic subjects should be taught in the L2; moreover, in most cases the motives behind the use of the English language as the language of instruction are mainly related to internationalisation attempts (e.g., attracting a diversity of students) and university profiling (e.g., university rankings) (Unterberger, 2014). This indicates the need to include a focus on language-content relationships in each subject area for preparing the academics appropriately. The academics need to understand how the L2 works in their subject area, carefully develop a unit of instruction, and engage students while promoting the learning of both the L2 and content as a central notion in business education.

Concerning workplace environment, the second research question was concerned with 'How academics in private HEI manage the transition to a new academic workplace.' With reference to the years of working at the specific university, most of the academics quite recently joined the current workplace and their transition was considered as a challenging experience. In accordance with their answers, academics recognised a restrictive engagement with colleagues and workplace practices (Boyd, 2010; Lokhtina, 2018) and provided quite interesting and surprising answers.

It is evident that even though academics acknowledged an adequately fostered formal and informal communication with colleagues in the departments, it is noteworthy that most of them were working alone (91.7%) and almost one fourth of the participants had never collaborated with colleagues. Based on the academics' responses, the majority felt part of their departmental community with a shared interest, but they were uncertain about internal policies and procedures. It is somewhat surprising since being a member of the departmental community should involve a clear sense of participation, providing distinctive cultural characteristics (Wenger, 1998).

Moreover, the majority indicated that they were fully aware of their role at the department (91.7%), but it is remarkable that academics felt uncomfortable about their new duties and responsibilities (88.3%) and they required extra time to adapt to a new workplace. Therefore, there seems to be a gap between the perception of their role and the reality around becoming a new active member of the community. This inconsistency might be explained by the following fact that ad hoc meetings with colleagues, which are common for the majority of academics who took part in this study, are not enough to engender collegial relationships and research networks within the departmental context.

The findings suggest that although the majority (88.9%) received opportunities to learn new duties and responsibilities, it was challenging for them to get started and be equally involved in decision-making process at departmental meetings. This might be due the fact that limited participation in mutual practices due to the nature of their individual work, which is accepted by the academics who took part in this study as a normal working pattern, could not fully allow them to be equally involved and contribute to the life and practices of their community (Lokhtina, 2018). These findings also support their expectations and

willingness to develop and maintain strong interpersonal relationships with colleagues at the department. One of the open-ended questions, which was included at the end of the questionnaire (Question 28) indicated that most of the academics did in fact value having truly developed positive relationships with colleagues as well as the role of personality in the workplace and how it complements working practices.

It is important to note that even though academics acknowledged the apparent lack of training opportunities, which were not well received by most of the academics (52.8%), they were not willing to have more formal departmental meetings or additional informal events at the department. In responding to this requirement, artifacts such as documents and links to resources (Wenger, 1998) could allow academics to foster their reflective practices and reduce the pressure of high job demands (Adil & Baig, 2018). Even though artifacts do not carry their own meaning without mutual participation (Wenger, 1998), these resources may allow academics to take the first steps on new projects or take on new tasks. Moreover, artifacts (e.g., manuals regarding internal policies and procedures or a 'welcome book') could provide academics with access to the shared repertoire of their departmental community (Wenger, 1998), which may strengthen their connections with other academics. This is especially important in view of the COVID-19 pandemic when face-to-face interaction with colleagues might be limited, as it could imply extra pressure on academics to adapt to new workplaces.

With reference to the learning support needed outside the L2 classroom context, it could be advantageous to reconsider mentoring programs in order to respond to the needs of academics who are seeking support and opportunities for collaborative work as well as solving immediate problems and demonstrating their capabilities. Moreover, in response to the changes in academic workplaces, mentoring could focus on higher level of literacies in order to develop academics' ability to adapt and change efficiently to meet the current demands of an academic job within departmental contexts (Eurydice, 2017). Mentoring could allow them to build rapport and to determine applicable steps for their professional development (Mathias, 2005). However, with reference to the responses of the academics who took part in this study, it is important to establish mentor-mentees relationships based not only on the objectives of the programme but also on the availability of potential mentors without adding significantly to the mentor's workload (Mathias, 2005).

CONCLUSION

The findings indicate that academics try to integrate the subject-specific studies with L2 teaching following, in most cases, the pre-specified curriculum/teaching plan of the private HEI. This happens both through teaching and assessment. In this way, academics aim at increasing the students' knowledge of the subject area as well as expanding and diversifying their L2 skills needed in multilingual and multicultural groups and communities in academia and the world of work. Putting effort into supportive and reflective interaction between students and academics as well as among students, a reflective learning, teaching, and working culture is encouraged. This reflective culture enables students to acquire diverse and profound subject-specific and language skills necessary for their degree and career. Consequently, providing more support to academics in the L2 English skills, which could be challenging for most academics teaching subject-specific modules, could help to guarantee quality education and to cater for subject-specific and individual needs; it could further support the lifelong learning of students and teachers. As a result, further studies could consider the key role of students' feedback on teaching and learning in the context of business education. By collecting feedback on their courses/modules at different stages

and ways, academics could further develop their teaching, courses/modules as well as adapt their learning material and teaching methods integrating, where possible, subject-specific teaching into L2 teaching.

While the majority of HEIs around the world implement changes within and outside the classroom context in response to the COVID-19 pandemic, organisational support regarding workplace literacy skills and job roles may prove challenging. Given the current state of the world, these conditions amplify the impacts attributable to academics' well-being not only in the Republic of Cyprus but also internationally, for instance due to restricted teaching and research activities that they experience every day. Responding to these job-related challenges, HEIs should support academics to adapt and change quickly in order to efficiently meet the current demands of the workplace and act upon new opportunities.

Access to digital artifacts (e.g., HR manuals, welcoming videos/webinars) could allow academics to foster their reflective practices and provide them with opportunities to share the common repertoire of their departmental communities, which may strengthen their connections with other academics and reduce high job demands. It was important to academics prior to the pandemic lockdown and it is especially important in view of the current conditions, when face-to-face interaction with colleagues is limited, which may imply extra pressure on academics to adapt to new workplaces and to perform their direct duties.

While social distancing is keeping academics physically separated from each other, their students, and workplaces, HEIs might consider an organisation's capacity for enforcement of mutual engagement among academics by communicating frequently to make sense of their shared experience. According to the JD-R model, this initiative may reduce the pressure of high job demands since it may serve as one of the motivating factors that can increase employees' engagement (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). However, HEIs need to be proactive in protecting their employees and thus, swiftly adopt flexible working learning practices with the technology being used to support this purpose. As a result, HEIs could more actively promote virtual mentoring meetings for those who experience transitions to new academic workplaces by using different communication tools (e.g., MS Teams, Skype, Viber, Zoom etc) for achieving work goals and stimulating academics' learning and development (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). McReynolds et al. (2020, p. 1477) claimed that during the pandemic, virtual mentoring can facilitate productive discussions between mentors and mentees that can 'further develop scientific and professional skill sets'. However, since not everyone might be equally connected or trained to use different electronic devices, additional training, which should be supported by training manuals could be provided to ensure that digital competences are well developed, and digital resources are distributed among academics inclusively. In this way, HEIs will support academics regarding the development of their work-related literacy skills and competencies by providing required job resources as part of their workplace learning practices resulting in better adaptation to new workplaces. As a result, further studies could address the challenges and opportunities of digital participation in departmental communities on the development of academics' workplace literacy skills and work-related practices when adapting to new academic workplaces.

To conclude, this chapter has offered new insights into the opportunities and challenges that academics faced inside and outside the L2 classroom before and after the lockdown. The main findings highlight how adaptation to new workplaces can be complex in the HEI contexts in which English is used as an L2. It indicates that academics can require additional support and facilitation at an institutional level, through developing networks and formal/informal mentoring in order to provide diverse opportunities for collaborative work, expanding and diversifying their L2 skills needed in multilingual and multicultural groups. HEIs should pay attention to the dissemination of digital and/or physical copies of institutional

artifacts that may allow academics to focus on solving some immediate problems and provide them with access to the shared repertoire of their communities in order to reduce high job demands.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Academic Workplace: A place where academics are involved in teaching, researching and administrative tasks, that can help them to develop and share knowledge and skills in their discipline.

Business Education: Education that embraces teaching and learning the skills and knowledge that might be applied in the business industry.

Foreign Language Classroom: The classroom context in which education refers to the teaching of a language that is neither an official language nor the mother tongue of an important part of the population.

Higher Education: Education that is beyond the secondary level of education and mostly provided by colleges and universities.

Workplace Learning: Learning, which occurs in the workplace.

Workplace Literacy: The combination of skills employees need in order to be successful at work functions and manage the demands of their work environment in a productive way; this involves both linguistic and communicative skills.

Chapter 8
From Face-to-Face Education to Online Education:
Challenges at a Business School in Peru

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ABSTRACT

Currently, traditional formal education has taken an unexpected turn due to the events caused by the pandemic as a consequence of COVID-19 and social distancing, leading to educational institutions changing the way of imparting knowledge and skills, study modalities, by strengthening and prioritizing virtual education and distance education (e-learning). Under this scenario, new challenges arise and adaptation and/or creation of new processes, which the different higher education institutions are forced to adapt to remain competitive in the market. The case of a higher education institution in Lima is presented, which, from the global crisis presented by COVID-19, had to adapt to a one hundred percent virtual education. The strategy defined by the business school and the monitoring of the implemented measures is favorably influencing the student experience.

BACKGROUND

The way higher education is administered has been evolving in recent years, shifting from face-to-face learning to blended learning to 100% virtual classes, as are offered today. Nowadays, thanks to modernity and technological progress, learning is aided by many tools: intranets, the Internet, virtual classrooms, audiovisual media, documentaries, and more. At first, these tools were used to complement face-to-face learning, but now they form the core of the value proposal.

Even more in the context created by the COVID-19 pandemic, the digital transformation has forced institutions of higher learning to offer their programs online, via remote learning.

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According to the United Nations (2020), the COVID-19 pandemic has affected a great number of students in approximately 190 countries worldwide. This has caused the largest educational destabilization of all time due to the way that it has universally affected students and teachers at every academic level, from preschool to graduate programs. The pandemic has brought total closure to many campuses, disrupting the studies of 94% of the students around the world: approximately 1.58 billion students.

Additionally, the crisis has aggravated preexisting inequality in education: students living in poorer and more vulnerable areas now have drastically fewer opportunities for a good education. Indeed, in the most severe cases, many have had to completely abandon their studies, and this has affected the dropout rate. This loss of learning is currently erasing decades of progress that had been achieved in terms of world educational access (United Nations, 2020).

Also, although there are no hard figures on pandemic-inspired school dropout rates in Latin America, BBC Mundo carried out different interviews with schools and institutions located in poor, rural areas, and these indicated that many students have had to drop out because of the pandemic in order to work longer hours, or, in the case of many families, in order to help support the home and take care of younger siblings (Barría, 2020).

As for Peruvian business schools, student dropout rates have surpassed 60%, although it must be taken into account that there are two types of dropouts: those who drop out temporarily, returning the following year, and those who drop out permanently. For the good of the country, it is hoped that those students who have dropped out have done so only temporarily. Indeed, the rapid and effective progress of vaccination plans should be prioritized to reverse this trend (Neira, 2020).

One challenge related to the pandemic-inspired implementation of virtual education is a lack of training in the usage of digital tools, such as Google Meet, Zoom, and Google Classroom. In countries like Brazil and Mexico, universities have opted to train not only professors but also administrative staff through courses and certificate programs. This type of across-the-board training allows a whole team to be formed, a team that is cohesive and that seeks out a single purpose: to make virtual education work (Coutinho & Buttros, 2021).

A second challenge has been professor performance, as many professors have argued that virtual education makes it difficult to evaluate their students effectively. Some of the specific problems have had to do with how evaluations are corrected and the viability of keeping exams online when not all of them can be unique: despite the fact that the students are working adults, high rates of plagiarism have been identified (Coutinho & Buttros, 2021).

This chapter contains an analysis of the implementation of distance education and the opportunities and challenges facing executive education, programs tailored for students who work and need to deepen their knowledge about specialized academic and professional topics. Several cases from Latin American countries are mentioned, and a long case study from a Peruvian business school is given.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Implementing virtual education means dealing with different concepts that must first be analyzed in order to understand the most relevant characteristics of educational institutions' transition from a face-to-face format to a virtual modality.

Business Education

According to San Martín et al. (2021), business education consists of training that explains certain attitudes, abilities, personal qualities, and techniques related to entrepreneurship; it also helps students understand the process of managing or creating a company. In addition, in certain cases, business education allows students to delve more deeply into specific topics or areas, like Marketing, Entrepreneurship, Information Technology, Administration, and Human Resources, which are strategic areas for any organization.

As for the positive effects of business education, the most impactful are those that help students understand business people's role in society, expand their networks, and improve their business skills. Business education includes postgraduate courses, certificate programs, MBAs, and specialized programs.

The goal of executive education, specifically, is to provide students with a company-centered focus in order to improve business performance and achieve economic development (San Martín et al., 2021).

E-Learning, Distance Education, and Online Learning

Moore et al. (2011) explain the following different contexts or learning environments: face-to-face, virtual, and blended. At the same time, educational technology is in a constant state of evolution and, therefore, so are the concepts and terms used. In that sense, Rababa (2021) affirms that, according to statistical studies, the incorporation of e-learning methodologies improves critical thinking skills due to a positive relationship between technological education and students' research abilities, owing to the development of new skills and the elimination of social and cultural barriers.

When referring to online learning or e-learning, the type of technology needed to facilitate the efficient execution of academic activities must also be considered. In recent decades, technology has slowly been integrated into the educational process thanks to new mobile devices such as laptop computers, tablets, mobile phones, and smartphones. Liu et al. (2016) have determined that information technology not only complements traditional classroom learning but also goes beyond it to promote innovation in cooperative teaching methods through the use of unlimited online information sources.

Higher education related to business has become increasingly common, and, as it has, challenges have arisen: for example, the task of creating virtual learning environments that ensure maximum effectiveness within the framework for interaction, communication, and assessment that a business environment requires. Gamification in online learning has become more important, despite the need for ongoing research into the best techniques for integrating games and learning in new, higher-quality e-learning courses that have been coming onto the market (Zineb et al., 2020).

Virtual learning uses tools and concepts that complement each other to maximize the transmission of knowledge in a virtual context. Online learning tools improve group interactions as well as the actual learning process: e-learning, which includes virtual platforms through which students can have classes from wherever they are physically located, and distance education, which complements the knowledge and information received through the student's own research processes.

Online Learning

Moore et al. (2011) describe online learning as access to experiences through the use of some form of technology. Online learning is an improved, updated version of distance education. Its goal is to provide educational opportunities to non-traditional students, including those who have been deprived of their

rights. In addition, online learning has particular characteristics, such as student-student and student-professor interactions, flexibility, and the ability to promote diverse interactions through the Internet and websites.

The goal of online learning is to provide access to education of the same or higher quality as that which is employed in face-to-face education, only in a more flexible way. Moreover, within the virtual frame of reference, certain indicators can measure how much students are truly learning the subject matter and its concepts. Smith and Keaveney (2017) conclude that student-professor interaction is a determining factor for how much students learn within the virtual education framework and that this type of interaction in a virtual classroom is even more important than the student-student interaction carried out there; indeed, student-professor interaction strengthens students' confidence and stimulates fruitful discussions of the case studies presented, in addition to promoting the professor's active participation to achieve best practices in virtual education.

In order to improve the quality of online business education, assessment methods and ethical challenges are issues that must be met head-on. As has been the trend in recent years, more and more universities worldwide are offering online courses, but adverse situations can also arise: for example, the ease with which students can cheat on their evaluations. In order to combat this, Goff, et al. (2020) suggest, among other measures, that teachers prepare question banks in order to randomize written evaluations; this randomization will make it less desirable for students to share images of questions and answers with one another.

Distance Education

Distance learning offers educational opportunities to people who are geographically distant from one another, through the use of electronic and/or printed material. Moore et al. (2011) indicate that distance education is basically whenever an instructor located in a place far from the students teaches them asynchronously. However, the term has evolved to encompass multiple ways of learning: for example, e-learning, online learning, virtual learning, web-based learning, etc.

Nunes (1993) defines distance education as the set of tools used to help a large number of students, independent of their location, receive high-quality educational content. Costa (2020), complementing this definition, states that distance education is characterized by the fact that its goal is to overcome the restrictions that time and space place on pedagogy. In this sense, it can incorporate new technology and updates to its methodology.

E-Learning

For Moore et al. (2011), e-learning is the set of technological tools that allow for interaction through the development of specific knowledge in a specific field. There are many technological tools, such as the Internet, intranets, instructional methods, videos, audio materials, interactive television, computer programs, applications, etc., that provide people with e-learning opportunities.

For Tavangarian et al. (2004), e-learning refers to the electronic media that support the teaching and learning process and that use a procedure oriented toward guaranteeing individualized knowledge building through the use of an electronic device. They also state that e-learning is all learning that uses software in some capacity.

Curricula can be designed to incorporate different resources and tools, and it is necessary to clarify the use of those resources and tools. At the start of the current decade, all of the countries around the world were forced to implement distance education so they could continue their teaching and learning processes. As such, teachers, students, and program coordinators were instructed on new educational platforms and had to adapt to new technologies that aid the current learning process.

Technology-Enhanced Learning (TEL)

The COVID-19 pandemic has caused adults involved in higher education to adapt to new modalities of education that they were not previously familiar with. These new learning environments incorporate different technological tools to help students learn effectively.

Similarly, both professors and students have been greatly challenged by the use of new technologies offered in virtual education. Universities have had to reinvent their models to ensure their students could achieve their defined learning standards both in virtual class sessions and through evaluations given via the virtual platform. Additionally, professors have had to adapt their work routines, create and modify papers and case studies, prepare PowerPoint or Canvas presentations, and schedule virtual office hours on collaborative platforms.

Ragad et al. (2021) argue that current evaluation methods, through the use of assessment technologies, provide relevant information on how well students are learning. Assessment technologies also demonstrate the quality of the teaching provided. All this contributes to the search for the complementary forms of learning necessary for development and innovation in the use of remote teaching technologies.

As for virtual classrooms, which are the main interface between students and professors and which have been used for many years, there is evidence that demonstrates their importance in the process of helping users adjust to new digital demands, for example, by having high-quality technical support that allows for greater web traffic and that determines strategic times for the maintenance of these platforms. In the long term, educational institutions will also be able to implement a virtual meeting system within the same interface so that education can be 50% online and 50% face-to-face (Guilbauth, 2020).

Opportunities

Currently, pandemic-related social distancing policies and the use of new teaching methodologies have caused different technologies to be developed to offer online meetings, either to teach classes or to train teachers, themselves.

To this end, many web pages have been developed that offer online meeting services for up to 30 or 40 people, and several other services can accept up to 100 people in the same meeting. Among the most well-known of these services are Zoom, Google Meets, Blackboard, Microsoft Teams, and Jitsi, as well as other, lesser-used platforms like Discord. These platforms are selected based on the requirements of the virtual education environment to be created and the number of people that the virtual classroom must host. Thanks to these tools, many people can safely and effectively receive online classes from their homes, offices, or other places, improving the student experience and contributing to a high-quality distance learning process.

A clear example was developed by Vladoiu and Constantinescu (2020) who, in addition to using Discord, implemented a bot on the virtual platform whose objective was to create a virtual teaching community where students can connect with professors at any time of the day, receive personalized classes,

and meet in specialized groups to prepare projects and engage in group activities at home. All of this helps simulate a personalized face-to-face learning environment: because the professor could be asked any question at any time, response effectiveness was increased, and learning was improved.

People involved in higher education do need technology that facilitates virtual meetings, but they also need resources that help them conduct research in order to complement what has been learned in each session. The challenge lies in selecting the most relevant sources from the many that are available. To make this process more efficient, one of the most-used tools within the virtual learning framework is Google Scholar. This is a virtual platform that provides access to countless scholarly journal articles in different fields, which are used to analyze many topics. Haddaway et al. (2015) state that conducting a literature review for educational purposes is now faster than it was in the past thanks to the use of the Google Scholar engine, which provides results in a compiled list of related articles from all over the web in a matter of seconds. All the information is ordered and categorized in order of relevance so as to reduce the time invested in the search; this facilitates remote access to information, studies, and articles from different sources. Likewise, Jesenius et al. (2018) point out that the main advantage that Google Scholar provides to those in higher education is the quick and easy access it provides to articles ordered by category, showing the most cited articles first, which ensures the effectiveness of academic searches of reliable sources.

Finally, the Google for Academics package is another tool that offers the user the opportunity to store a large amount of information in the cloud. This space is used to house a large number of documents that can be edited and reviewed in real time by various participants in a virtual environment offered by products such as Google Drive and Google Documents. Herrick (2009) affirms that these products were designed using a communication sciences approach, prioritizing workgroup collaboration and productivity so that it would not be necessary to meet in a specific place and so that all group members could work on a given document at the same time, thus capitalizing on a virtual workflow in which independent access is promoted.

On the other hand, Chandra and Hartono (2018) argue that the factor that most impacts these products' adaptability and influence is their ease of use. Indeed, the usefulness and large cloud storage capacity of Google applications are some of their most attractive features. However, although these applications do facilitate effective learning environments, their advantages are counterbalanced by certain challenges.

Challenges

The COVID-19 pandemic has forced the education sector at all levels, from preschool to tertiary/higher education, to restructure itself: teachers have needed to adapt their educational methodology to a virtual environment very quickly and efficiently. However, some scholars had seen the writing on the wall even before the pandemic.

Vladoiu and Constantinescu (2020) explain that current traditional education is "broken": they argue that old teaching practices have become obsolete over time and that continuing to use them demotivates students. The rapid implementation of technological tools, they say, can repair inadequate teaching methodology, as well as improve upon it. Of course, due to the pandemic, teachers at every level, especially at the postgraduate level, have accepted the challenge to transition from face-to-face to virtual education. In the process, they have improved their skills and learned to use different virtual platforms prepared for the classroom market.

Another challenge of e-learning is the need to ensure the participation of all students, as this helps them improve their social interaction skills despite being in a virtual environment. In this regard, Dinimaharawati et al. (2018) point out that the implementation of gamification in the virtual environment is significantly beneficial since it is attractive, convenient, innovative, and efficient at teaching new theories, improving students' sense of competence, and encouraging students to constantly improve.

An even more important challenge to mention has to do with access to the virtual environment. This challenge is to a certain extent dependent on geography: in some countries, it is easier to access the virtual environment than in others, such as many Latin American countries. The Latin American context, in which not everyone has easy access to the Internet or digital devices, should be taken into account as new virtual modalities are being implemented.

In Peru, around 50% of the population lacks adequate access to a good Internet connection. These data, which were obtained through the most recent national Instituto de Estudios Peruanos (IEP) survey, a random telephone survey (Pereda, 2020), have grave implications for the successful implementation of virtual education.

Indeed, business schools throughout Latin America have faced challenges when attempting to switch over to a fully virtual modality; in Brazil, the greatest challenges were related to the quality of the teaching staff and its ability to adapt when faced with this abrupt change. The professors' learning curve did not live up to everyone's expectations. One of the main challenges identified was guaranteeing that professor-student interactions helped students meet their academic objectives and learn what they needed to learn; this guarantee is especially critical in executive programs, where professors and students tend to grow closer due to similar professional experience (Coutinho & Buttros, 2021).

Moreover, when students take exams virtually, professors feel they are not able to give feedback that is as nuanced or detailed as when they give to exams taken in person: online exams provide students with only numerical scores, not in-depth explanations of their strengths and weaknesses. In the Brazilian case, both administrative personnel and professors believe exams should be taken face-to-face, not only because of the feedback that can be given in that setting but also because the results are more realistic, because students are relying only on their memory and are not depending on other elements, like notes or their smartphones (Coutinho & Buttros, 2021).

Indeed, a virtual education environment poses real challenges not only for professors but also for students, especially for those who had never before experienced distance learning or online learning and who were suddenly forced to adapt. In many cases, the emotional strain produced by this situation had negative effects on their mental health.

The Psychological Effects on Virtual Education Students

The COVID-19 pandemic and the restrictions brought about because of it have had a negative impact on students' mental health, affecting them psychologically and altering their emotions.

For Gómez (2012), emotions perform an important adaptive role. Students experience an emotion when it is triggered by a stimulus, which can be external or internal, conscious or unconscious. For example, if a student observes the teacher saving and closing the session's PowerPoint presentation (stimulus), that student will believe that the class will soon be over (perception), and this generates the emotion of joy (emotion). The exact relationship between a stimulus and an emotion depends on each individual.

In the previous example, the stimulus mentioned could just as easily have caused sadness or anger, but which emotion is elicited depends on each student's perception of the stimulus and on his or her

individual memories, which give meaning to the perception. In this way, it can be said that feelings are a person's conscious evaluation of a stimulus, leading him or her to name the emotion that is being experienced: for example, fear, disgust, or surprise. In this regard, Palmero (2008, cited by Gómez, 2012) points out that feelings are the mental representation of the organic changes generated by the stimulus.

The emotional response has three different dimensions: physiological, cognitive, and behavioral, which correspond to the following questions: "How do I act?," "How do I think?," and "How do I experience this emotion?" These questions can be answered unconsciously and mechanically through the experience of an emotion. When caused by a stimulus perceived of as negative, emotions range from fear to anxiety or even to depression, especially when the individual is not clear about how to fix the situation.

There is a clear relationship between health and emotions. According to Gómez (2012), "health" is a perfect state of physical, mental, and social well-being and not just the absence of a specific disease. Consequently, if a person is not in a good state of mind, that person's health will also deteriorate. Emotions exist to provide homeostasis. If a person's mind is emotional unstable due to the stimuli that that person is receiving, then that person is more likely to adopt detrimental and unhealthy behaviors that can lead him or her to suffer from chronic psychopathologies.

It is for this reason that mental health plays an important role in distance education. Levels of anxiety, depression, and stress increase due to a lack of external human contact and are compounded by additional external demands that only became intensified in the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic: for example, excessive housework, lack of a routine and failure to comply with schedules, and lack of adequate sleep. All of these external factors have negative effects that harm students' productivity and health.

Case Studies

In some European countries, specifically in Spain and Switzerland, researchers have evaluated how the sudden shift to distance education affected students and professionals and posed new challenges to their academic experience.

In Spain, González-Sanguino et al. (2021) carried out a cross-sectional study to measure the lockdown's effects on mental health. Their representative sample was composed of 3,480 professionals and students. The results of the study showed that there were negative effects on a psychological level; symptoms included depression, anxiety, and post-traumatic stress disorder. The most common symptoms were depressive, due to grief that the respondents were experiencing. Feelings of anxiety were also widespread, due to respondents' fear of contagion and fear for their health and their loved ones' health.

Regression models revealed the importance of spirituality and well-being as the strongest protectors against the appearance of symptoms, while perceived loneliness was the strongest predictor. These findings indicate that it is necessary to pay attention to students' mental health, as variables such as perceived loneliness must be attended to by campus healthcare services.

On the other hand, Elmer et al. (2020) carried out exploratory research in Switzerland regarding multiple dimensions of social networks, such as interaction, friendship, social environment, and support, and how these dimensions interacted with mental health indicators, such as depression, anxiety, stress, and loneliness. They applied online questionnaires to a sample of 212 students during two periods, September 2019 and April 2020.

Social networks were used to measure students' mental health and sociability, and it was concluded that those networks helped alleviate stress regarding concerns related to students' physical health, online education, future opportunities in the labor market, and pandemic-induced financial difficulties; in this

way, students were able to become more resilient and effective at overcoming obstacles. It was possible to identify that depression, stress, and loneliness worsened between September 2019 and April 2020, but anxiety did not.

After analyzing the studies carried out in both countries, Spain and Switzerland, it can be concluded that the transition process to virtual education can strongly affect mental health. Similarly, three main factors play an important role in mental health: anxiety, stress, and depression; these factors are defined below:

"Anxiety" is defined as a cognitive set of worry, self-critical rumination, and the expectation of a negative outcome combined with emotionality (Carver & Scheier, 1984, taken from Schwarzer, 2000). "Stress" is a complex phenomenon that occurs and develops in the person-environment interaction (Lazarus & Launier, 1978, taken from Schwarzer, 2000). Finally, "depression" occurs when predisposing factors generate anxiety (Beck, 1967, Schwarzer, 2000).

How to Counteract Anxiety, Stress, and Depression in 100% Virtual Education

According to Pérez (2020), to counteract fully online education's negative effects on mental health, educational institutes should follow certain recommendations:

- Clear information on how to reduce the risk of acquiring COVID-19 should be provided on the institutional website.
- If the students are going to be exposed to higher levels of risk for acquiring COVID-19, frequent talks should be given on how to reduce the spread of the virus, for example, by using a mask, disinfecting one's hands, employing social distancing, etc.
- Professors should put together structured activities and a routine for students in order to reduce stress.
- Professors should avoid the dissemination of imprecise and dramatic messages and publications through social networks in order to avoid anxiety, which affects academic performance.
- Virtual contact with family, classmates, friends, and teachers should be promoted to reduce distressing feelings of isolation and frustration.
- Physical activity should be engaged in at nearby parks and even at home, in order to promote well-being.
- Students should be encouraged to discuss their problems with their close contacts; this catharsis will aid them in their return to an emotional status quo.

Additionally, if students do not have the technological means to participate in virtual classes, it can negatively affect their mental health. Technological resources, such as Internet access, a working computer, and an appropriate workspace or home office, are essential to receiving quality distance education. However, as mentioned above, not all Latin American students possess these resources, and so it is unsurprising that Latin America is the region with the highest levels of pandemic-induced stress and anxiety recorded: 65.7% (Aristovnik et al., 2020). These difficulties have made learning during the pandemic a great challenge for governments and students.

The Relationship between Resource Availability and Virtual Education

As for the technological requirements necessary to implement effective online education, the following factors must be taken into account: the selected interface, the teaching objectives, the physical space in which the virtual class will be taught, and what prior knowledge is necessary to use the virtual tools selected.

An important factor to consider in this context is the relationship between the availability of a strong Internet connection and easy access to computers. In this regard, Arthur-Nyarko and Kariuki (2019) show that access to financing and control of interest rates generate a synergy between different financial institutions, which facilitates the acquisition of electronic devices, such as computers, mobile phones, and tablets, as well as access to high-quality Internet access and above average data processing speed.

On the other hand, the interface used within the virtual education system is another important factor. This interface consists of the applications that make up the virtual teaching system the institution has invested in to offer quality technological infrastructure to its students and to facilitate a high-quality user experience for professors.

Alharthi et al. (2018) define this technological infrastructure as an educational solution to transmit knowledge, facilitate learning and improve performance through the creation, use, and management of appropriate technological resources and processes. However, Alsabawy et al. (2013) conclude that administrative staff think about these applications' functionality from an organizational perspective as opposed focusing on the quality of student learning and user experience these applications provide; this can be problematic but is all the more reason for educational institutions to provide training on how to use new virtual tools.

As for specific tools, in the context of executive education, more professors are turning to business simulators to provide student entrepreneurs with more relevant experience and practice, which, in turn, helps those students become even more invested in the theoretical framework and inspires them to use what they learn in their professional lives. Indeed, Mohd et al. (2018) conclude that the internal e-learning systems that professors use to facilitate and provide support for this entrepreneurship teaching methodology generate significant added value through the creation of virtual environments in which students can simulate real operations and improve their decision making.

This is only one example in which virtualization can enhance learning in higher education and executive education settings. However, each region of the world faces different situational contexts and different problems, leading educational institutions located there to different methods in order to adequately implement virtual education.

The Contrast between European and South American Virtual Education

The adoption of e-learning has not been an easy task in any region in the world. According to the Digital Economy and Society Index (DESI) (European Commission, 2019), in the European Union, only 57% of students possess the minimum level of digital skills to be competitive in the labor market, and only 31% of students possess more than basic digital skills. Additionally, fully 13% of households in the European Union are not covered by fixed Internet networks. According to Andreea and Elena (2020), the barriers to the implementation of virtual education in the European Union have mainly been related to the adaptation of older teaching methodologies to the new educational system, students' and parents' over-

coming of technical barrier competence, regulations and rules that apply to education, and infrastructure (e.g., bandwidth and access to fixed networks in rural areas). It was found, in Europe, that the areas that were most negatively affected by the transition to digital education were rural areas or areas with low socioeconomic development, given lower levels of infrastructure and digital competence. Geographic location was also identified as a critical factor in e-learning. Indeed, the conclusion was that it was not yet time for a transition to a 100% virtual education model, since there were not enough resources for digital learning nor were there adequate techniques to make up for the absence of hands-on experiments, labs, and other practical learning experiences.

The South American case has been different. According to Aristovnik (2020), South America was the second least satisfied region in terms of the necessary adaptation to distance education, which may be due to inequality in the infrastructure necessary to facilitate virtual education. Indeed, many educational institutions were unable to implement the appropriate measures to adapt to a virtual educational environment. It was recorded that South America as a region had the third-slowest Internet connections, which meant e-learning could be accessed by only 58.5% of students.

Coppead, one of the top business schools in Brazil, faced one of the greatest challenges in its history when its teaching staff simply refused to implement virtual education, indicating that in-person networking was a key aspect of executive education students' academic preparation. Additionally, its professors were not sufficiently prepared to manage the virtual tools that would have allowed them to teach comfortably (Kemmer et al., 2021).

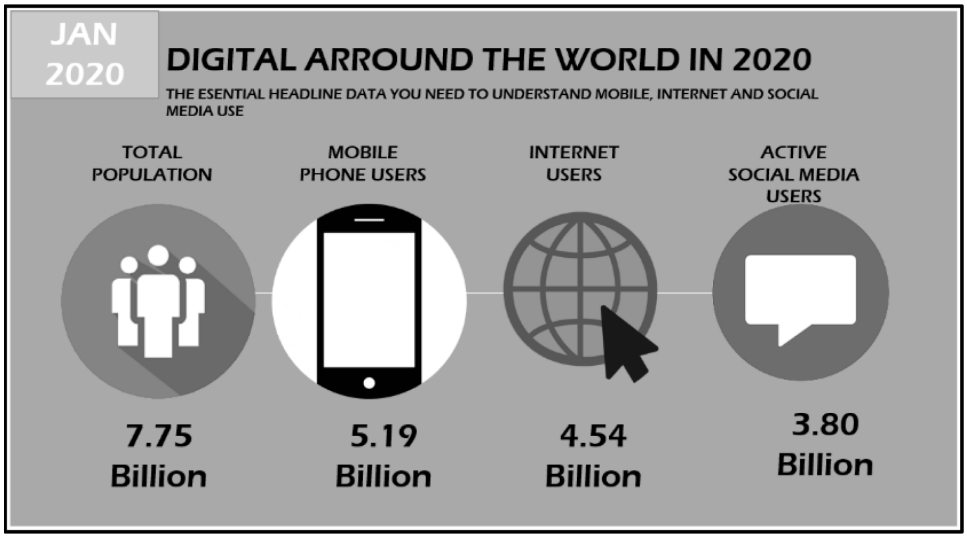
In addition, in some countries in the region, executive education programs had schedules in which more than eight hours per day were spent in classes; however, it would be antipedagogic to have classes for that long in a virtual environment. In the case of Coppead, it was possible to convince professors to begin teaching virtually after holding experimental classes in which the students tried the virtual classes out before continuing with the program. In these experimental classes, both the professors and the program and course coordinators were also present. At the same time, courses were rescheduled so that students would spend no more than three hours per day in class, which helped improve knowledge retention and student concentration in class (Kemmer et al., 2021).

In regional terms, Europe and South America have mainly used the virtual resources recommended by UNESCO: virtual classrooms, collaborative platforms, and MOOCs, including Google Classroom, Moodle, Zoom, Google Hangouts, Google Meet, WhatsApp, and Skype. At the same time, it is necessary to delineate the basic requirements that are needed to implement these virtual environments within the framework of virtual education, so it is useful to review precise data on the number of users who have access to the Internet and mobile devices. Information on worldwide Internet, mobile phone, and social media users is presented in Figure 1.

According to Figure 1, by the beginning of 2020, 59% of people around the world were active Internet users; in addition, 67% actively used mobile phones. The Internet and mobile devices are essential tools for students who wish to access virtual education. These data demonstrate the growing importance of technology and how this growing importance has transformed traditional work systems and led to the shift from face-to-face to virtual education.

Focusing on Latin America specifically, Figure 2 shows Internet penetration in a variety of Latin American countries in terms of active users per country; this, in turn, can be used to understand Internet accessibility in the region.

Figure 1. Digital situation around the world in January 2020.
Adapted from Marketing 4 e-commerce, 2020. https://marketing4ecommerce.net/usuarios-de-internet-mundo/



The Latin American countries in which Internet access is the easiest are Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina. Peru places fifth, ahead of Venezuela. Pasquali (2020) determined that an important factor that determines Latin American Internet penetration is the monthly broadband Internet subscription cost; those figures can be seen below.

Figure 2. Internet penetration in Latin America, 2020.
Adapted from Statista*, 2020. https://es.statista.com/statistics/1073677/usuarios-internet-pais-america-latina/*

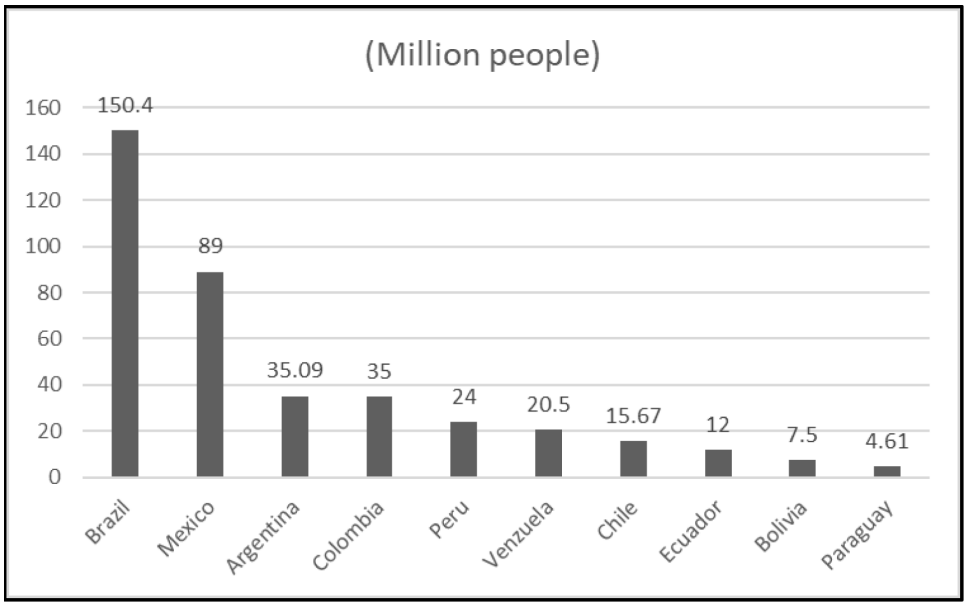


Table 1. Price range for a monthly Internet subscription.

	Minimum ($)	Maximum ($)	Number the countries in the range
Accessible	5	20	1
Affordable	20	30	3
Expensive	30	40	4
Highly price	40	60	2
Extremely expensive	60	over 60	1

Adapted from Statista, *2020.* https://es.statista.com/grafico/23990/precio-de-internet-de-banda-ancha-fija-en-latinoamerica/

Monthly Internet subscriptions in Peru cost between USD 30 and USD 40, a relatively high price. On the other hand, in Colombia and Brazil, Internet service is relatively affordable, averaging at USD 25 per month. Finally, the Latin American country with the most accessible monthly Internet subscriptions is Argentina; there, prices are between USD 18 and USD 20 per month, which has led more than 70% of its population to enjoy quality Internet service.

THE CHALLENGES OF A BUSINESS SCHOOL IN LIMA, PERU

The business school presented as a case study in this chapter was founded in 1963 within the framework of an agreement between the governments of Peru and the United States of America. The Stanford University Graduate School of Business helped set it up to meet the needs of the Peruvian market and contribute to the development of the country (Coleman, 2013; Regalado-Pezúa et al., 2021).

Today, after more than 57 years, the business school offers a variety of educational services: a doctoral program, a Master in Business Administration (MBA) program, specialized masters programs, numerous executive education programs in different formats, corporate programs, and other academic and professional services. Some of the programs provide a broad, general business education, and others focus on specific, functional areas of business management: Marketing, Operations and Logistics, Administration and Human Resources, Information Technology, and Finance. Before the pandemic, this business school provided educational services both in Lima and in other large cities throughout Peru, which helped contribute to the decentralization of the country (Regalado-Pezúa et al., 2021). However, with the pandemic and the ensuing digitalization of education, geographical boundaries seem to have disappeared altogether.

In 2012, the business school, in order to make its programs more competitive, created the Distance Education Department (DED); its purpose was to offer online executive education courses so as to expand its reach. At the end of that same year, the business school launched its first online course and continued increasing its online course offering with every year.

The DED was meant to foment innovation and implement new information and communication technologies within different teaching channels for the preparation of competitive leaders and professionals who possess critical thinking skills and an international perspective by strengthening their competencies, knowledge, and values (Distance Education Department, n.d.). The DED's quality policy indicates that

it provides training and support services in the management of the e-learning platform through the use of innovative technological tools (Distance Education Department, n.d.). Finally, the DED indicates a commitment to:

- Comply with the applicable requirements of the ISO Quality Management 9001 system of its clients to increase their satisfaction.
- Continuously improve the performance of the Quality Management system.
- Constantly increase its staff and faculty's professional skills.
- Constantly innovate its services to provide its students with a unique experience.

The Adoption of the Virtual Education Modality in Executive Education Programs

Obtaining Information

The main objective of this case study is to use primary sources to demonstrate the key issues and problems the business school's various executive education programs faced when switching over from a face-to-face format to a virtual education modality once the campus was closed due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

The study focuses on the executive education programs taught on and after March 16, 2020, which is when the campus was closed and all coursework was transitioned to a fully virtual modality. On the aforementioned date, the business school began holding around 82 courses online every day, at first through the Blackboard Collaborate program, and, then, as of October 2020, through the Zoom platform.

The field analysis is based on the information the DED gathered after each class through an incident report. Any problems that had occurred, as well as the comments that the academic assistants registered during and after the process, were analyzed in order for the DED to reach conclusions and formulate recommendations that could be useful to other academic institutions in the region that also needed to implement virtual education programs.

Quickly Adapting to Change: A Field Analysis

The DED immediately took operational control of all classes offered by the business school; this was a challenge due to the dimensioning of the project. For the effective implementation of the virtual modality, the institution had to take strategic measures to minimize potential negative user experience for both students and the more than 500 professors who teach in the business school's executive education programs.

These were first measures that the business school took, in coordination with the DED:

- It carried out a strategic plan in coordination with the executive education programs themselves and with the Academic Quality Department. Which resources they had were evaluated, processes were organized, and the actions to be taken were parsed into three phases: Phase 1., Identification of the necessary resources; Phase 2., Training; and Phase 3., Supervision and Incident Reporting.
- A student-professor training plan was organized that focused on the use of the virtual tools used in virtual classes.

- The academic coordination, DED, and individual academic areas of the business school organized monitoring committees and technical support for all classes.

The success of the adoption of the new modality was mainly due to the effective execution of the strategic plan, whose main objective for all the stakeholders involved was the constant improvement of the students' academic experience, as well as constant quality control and immediate attention to any incidents reported.

The use of tools aligned with the virtual education adoption process and the academic objectives that the institution intended to achieve have been a main factor in the success of the business school's adoption of online education. Indeed, selecting the right tools was a fundamental part of the planning process. Within the institution, the main platform used for the newly redesigned, 100% virtual executive education programs was Blackboard Collaborate; however, as previously indicated, due to the pandemic and the much greater volume of online courses being offered, it was used for only a few months, as the DED identified that the bandwidth required to use it was greater than that needed to use other platforms. Therefore, the business school migrated its synchronous courses to the Zoom platform.

The strategic plan's three phases are described in detail below.

Phase 1. Identification of the Necessary Resources

The first step in the planning process was to identify the number of class sessions that the institution planned to teach as of April 1, 2020: 2,500 class sessions in the executive education programs. Additionally, the business school's technological, human, and administrative resources were evaluated; the results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Resource identification

Technology resources	Human resources	Administrative resources
Blackboard Collaborate / Zoom Platforms	8 people in the distance education department (DED).	Virtual enrolment processes.
Moodle – Student administration and academic information management.	Coordinator assigned to each academic area: Administration, Accounting and Finance, Marketing, and IT and operations	Procedures established for remote student support.
Digital contact channels: WhatsApp, E-Mail.		
Laptops and devices with good performance for online classes.		

After the available resources were evaluated, significant opportunities for improvement were identified, for example, in the number of human resources the DED had to support the classes projected to be taught throughout the academic year. At that time, the business school restructured and refocused tasks in all of the academic areas in order to make the transition to 100% virtual classes easier.

Phase 2: Training

Work cells were formed to maximize efficiency. First, the DED staff identified that the business school's academic assistants were able to master technological tools, especially platforms, more easily than the professors, who were usually older; indeed, the academic assistants often had preexisting knowledge

and prior experience working in virtual classes. The academic assistants were provided with in-depth tool training; for example, they were provided with instructional videos and technical support channels. Then, each academic assistant was assigned a group of program coordinators, whom they trained, and professors, to whom they provided technical support during the first month of virtual classes.

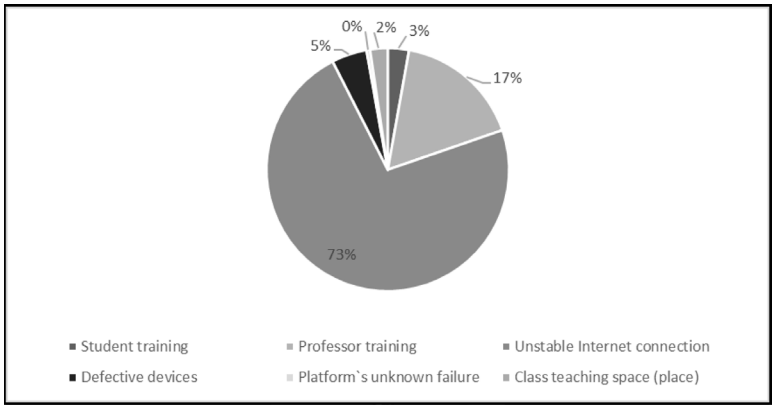
The second work cell was made up of the program coordinators, who had to be trained to meet later with each group of students from the different programs several days before the start of each course. The objective was to explain how the platform to be used worked. This group of coordinators was responsible for ensuring that students had a positive experience.

Phase 3: Supervision and Incident Reporting – A Presentation of the Results

To establish continuous improvement and guarantee positive student experience, the DED created an online survey in which the academic assistants and coordinators entered the incidents that took place in the classes they were providing with technical support. This helped to identify the main problems arising during class sessions, correct those problems, and proactively deal with them through constant training sessions.

For the first few months, the business school used the Blackboard Collaborate platform. With the incident monitoring system and reports made, six different types of incidents were identified that were necessary to correct in order to improve students' classroom experience. These incidents were, in order of importance, unstable Internet connection, professor training (platform management), defective devices (used to deliver or receive the class session), student training (platform management), the physical teaching space that professors used to deliver virtual classes (place), and apparent bugs in the platform that required Blackboard Collaborate technical support. Figure 3 shows the impact of each of these types of incidents.

Figure 3. Incidents in the blackboard collaborate platform
Adapted from Distance Education Department reports (2020).

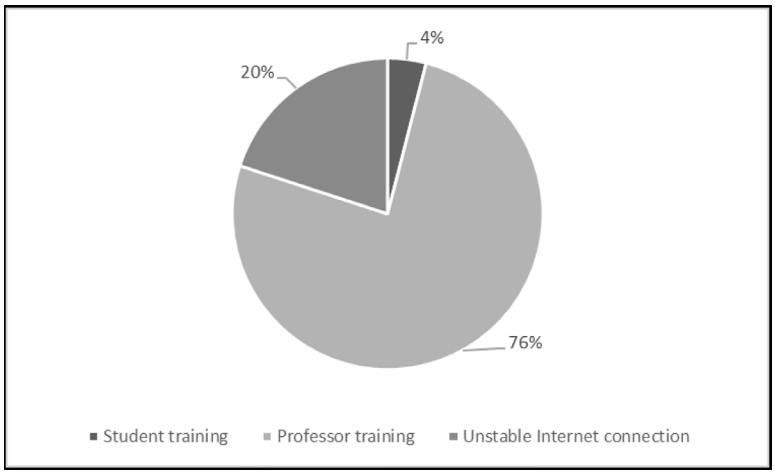


It is easy to identify that the main cause of negative student experience was unstable Internet connections (73%). As this was an exogenous factor outside of the institution's or platform support area's control, the DED proceeded to evaluate the bandwidth required by the platform so as to improve student

experience, and it identified that the platform—Blackboard Collaborate—required more bandwidth than what other platforms needed. For this reason, the business school decided to migrate to the Zoom platform; it used the same planning process to implement this new tool as it had with Blackboard Collaborate before.

Using the new platform to deliver executive education courses, it was possible to reduce the number of reported incidents and, above all, to reduce the number of Internet connection-related problems to 20% of total incidents, as indicated in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Incidents in the Zoom platform
Adapted from Distance Education Department reports (2020).



It can be observed that 76% and 4% of the incidents with the Zoom platform correspond to a lack of knowledge regarding the use of the platform by professors and students, respectively. The learning curve due to the change in the platform shows that user skill is improving, due to the implementation of the phases mentioned above. This improvement can be seen in the lower numbers of technology-related incidents.

The results obtained from the incident reports show that the DED met its objectives; it reduced the connectivity problems experienced by students and professors through changing the platform (tool) used. Additionally, in Zoom, it was possible to improve student-professor interaction and the overall quality of the classes by having everyone keep their webcams on; this also helped meet the academic objectives of the institution, in stark contrast to what happened with Blackboard Collaborate, which limits the number of participants that can turn on their webcams.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The COVID-19 pandemic accelerated the digital transformation of business schools and the implementation of 100% online education. Although in recent years business schools, and, in particular, the school studied, have been progressively adapting to provide distance education services, the challenges

in 2020 were to establish the necessary infrastructure, train professors, and implement different teaching methodology. In the same way, on the demand side, students had to accept this new teaching modality, which was very different from the one they had originally chosen.

Platforms have been a part of the learning process for decades, but before they had been used as a complementary tool. Today, however, they have taken center stage and are part of the business school's value proposition, so much so that the new programs that are being launched are being marketed as 100% online or, in the best of cases, as blended programs. In order to do this successfully, all stakeholders must align themselves with the challenges of this post-pandemic decade.

To effectively implement virtual education, it is essential to have a support area and adequate contact channels that allow direct communication so technical problems can be solved quickly and effectively. This guarantees that student and professor experience is not adversely affected, so that effective teaching and learning methodologies can be maintained. Additionally, the tools and platforms selected have to be aligned with the academic objectives of the educational institution.

Moreover, in order to help students transition to virtual education, governments should work to provide all citizens with better Internet access so that students can perform well in a virtual education environment. In this context, it is necessary to keep in mind that many Latin American households' poor Internet connection is one of the main challenges to providing high-quality virtual education.

For those institutions that wish to implement distance education, the challenge is to identify actions that would allow classes to take place in an agile and efficient manner, both in terms of time and in terms of format. This would allow educational institutions to provide quality education and students to improve their academic performance.

Additionally, it is important to rethink past practices and reinvent the institution in order to fulfill the teaching objectives, which will ensure educational quality and guarantee that the business school's guidelines for effective virtual courses and programs are followed (Hernández et al., 2021).

The case study of the Peruvian business school demonstrates how virtual education can be successfully implemented through an effective analysis of the resources it has available, so as to provide high-quality virtual classes; through effective follow-up of all classes taught through an incident report for each class; and through the support of the teams assigned to train professors and students and to provide technical support during class sessions. To extrapolate the findings mentioned above, the case study presents the lessons learned regarding effective planning and the process of the selection and implementation of digital tools in order to provide effective operational support so that students can have a positive academic experience. It is important to keep academic and strategic objectives, course volume, and implementation costs in mind. In this way, last-minute changes and reprocessing, which can put strain on operations, can be avoided, and students, professors, and administrative staff can successfully move up the learning curve.

The business school studied had to rapidly implement strategic measures to minimize the impact on student experience in its executive education programs nationwide. The DED took three measures: i) it carried out a strategic plan in coordination with the executive education programs and the Academic Quality Department; ii) it formulated a student-professor training plan initially for Blackboard Collaborate and later for Zoom; and iii) it monitored incidents and provided technical assistance during all class sessions.

The success of the adoption of online education was mainly based on the effective execution of the three phases of the strategic plan: i) the identification of the necessary resources, ii) training, and iii) supervision and incident reporting. In the same way, it is important to highlight that all of the stakehold-

ers involved worked together, constantly monitoring and attending to reported incidents and seeking the continuous improvement of the students' academic experience.

During the first months, when the Blackboard Collaborate platform was being used, six types of incidents were identified: unstable Internet connection, deficient professor training (platform management), defective devices (which were used to deliver or receive class sessions), deficient student training (platform management), inadequate classroom teaching space (place), and unknown platform failure. Later, with the use of the Zoom platform, only three types of incidents were reported: deficient student training, deficient professor training, and unstable Internet connection.

Finally, it can be concluded that in this new normality, distance education is taking on a greater role and that there is no going back: it is important to keep on improving infrastructure and technology for online courses, and it is also important to plan out hybrid classes because, in the best-case scenario, universities will only be able to receive 50% of students who wish to receive face-to-face classes on campus, while the other 50% will continue to receive classes remotely.

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Chapter 9
The Digitalization of Pakistan's Universities?
An Opportunity to Re-Focus and Re-Purpose Toward Hybrid Learning

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ABSTRACT

Higher educational institutes today need to focus on identifying the requirements of industry as well as the market, so that they can help students develop the necessary skills and enable them to work with intelligent machines in today's era of the 4th industrial revolution which is also termed digitalization. Digitalization has increased pressure on educational institutions to update their existing curricula and course contents. It is important to note that, while industry as well as educational institutions in the developed world are rather quick on embracing such trends, developing economies often lag behind. Universities in developed countries are mostly on the path towards a hybrid way of teaching, while those in developing countries, such as Pakistan, frequently struggle to make these changes. This chapter seeks to provide suggestions and recommendations for the higher education sector, including universities and policymakers. It identifies the role that the higher education sector must play in preparing and upskilling future employees for Pakistan's digital future.

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INTRODUCTION

The adoption and usage of digital disruptive technologies, such as Artificial Intelligence, robotics, Virtual Reality (VR) and Internet of Things (IoT), are often referred to as the elements of the fourth industrial revolution (Lasi, Fettke, Kemper, Feld, & Hoffmann, 2014). The term 'Industry 4.0' is one that captures the profound causes and consequences of this revolution. The interaction and usage of internet of things (IOT) between the internet, man and machine and object constitute some of these profound changes (Webb, 2020b). Industry 4.0 is a broad, holistic concept, denoting the integration of internet and computers at the workplace, and as well a complete process involving data, processes, practices, and employee upskilling.

The fourth industrial revolution and digitalization have affected various segments of industry and the demands from various related sectors, such as the education sector, to embrace these latest trends and to produce a human resource that is skilled in digitalization have increased significantly.

The chapter uses two terms digitalization and digitization. The term digitalization refers to the process of using information technology (IT) and digital technology in business activities, thus it is not only employing IT tools, but a complete process of using digital tools for performing business (Verhoef et al., 2021). The term digitization refers to the action of converting analogue information into digital form (zero and one); thus, it is a conversion using technology, and it does create a value chain for the business (Verhoef et al., 2021).

The fourth industrial revolution has raised such demands from the higher education sector, while the existing education curriculum, particularly followed by universities in developing economies, is not sufficiently updated to meet the demands of the digital era. Universities in future may hence be encouraged to respond to this revolution and may actively seek to produce students with the required skills to meet the demands of the market now.

With the rise of digitalization, it can be assumed that intelligent machines may replace the majority of the existing workforce. Higher educational institutes need to focus on identifying the requirements of the industry and the market, so that they can help students to develop the required skills and enable them to work with intelligent machines. Thus, for universities to train the future workforce for hybrid working environments (involving human and machines), they need to emphasize digital and technological literacy as well as enhance the critical thinking abilities and digital leadership qualities of the future workforce (Yeung, 2020). The integration of hybrid model of teaching in education is of great significance for the training and development of the future workforce (Georgina & Olson, 2008).

As stated, the demands for new skills in digital revolution require firms and education providers to upgrade the existing workforce's skills; employees' skills may soon be seen as outdated. This has added a pressure on the educational institutions to update their existing curricula and course contents (Kornelakis & Petrakaki, 2020). Policy makers and educationist have also raised the issue of employee upskilling, and hence incorporating this latest advancement in the course content has become imperative for educational institutions (Boden & Nedeva, 2010; Small, Shacklock, & Marchant, 2018). Digitalization not only brings with it greater automation in industry, but also involves changing job requirements (Petrakaki & Kornelakis, 2016). Therefore, there is a need to develop the demanded skills among the future workforce from the bottom-up level.

It is important to note that industry as well as educational institutes in the developed world are rather quick on embracing such trends. Universities in developed countries are, for instance, mostly on the path towards a hybrid way of teaching. British and German universities are working closely with the

3D printing requirements of the market. American universities are already providing vocational training to support government policies on digitalization. The Pakistani government is helping to uplift of digitalization by supporting digital startups and by establishing vocational training centers, but they are not at a country level and not fully spread in all areas especially the rural areas of Pakistan. Additionally, several universities in developed countries offer massive open online courses (MOOCs), such as Coursera by Stanford, edX by Harvard/MIT, and FutureLearn by Open University.

Some universities in developed countries use Gamification for online teaching. For example, one university in Spain adopted a series of games for their students' online learning; some top universities in Spain, such as Universitat Autonoma de Barcelona, offer a blended mode of education successfully, including Cisco WebEx. Similarly, Portugal has adopted an e-learning mode termed as Moodle (González et al., 2020).

Emerging markets within the BRICS bloc (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) have their own limitations in terms of digitalization of higher educational institutions (Lambrechts, Sinha & Marwala, 2020). According to Panarina (2015), Russia faces problems of underdeveloped infrastructure of institutions, a decline in quality education and underdeveloped financial markets. The other emerging markets face similar issues.

Some of Pakistan's neighbouring countries, such as India, have a robust IT background with immense support for IT start-ups, especially in 3D printing and automation. India is working in close collaboration with UK to introduce hybrid education. China has invested heavily in automation, especially in Robotics. China's private sector is also playing a major role in Industry 4.0. China and Germany are working for strong policies in higher education and vocational training for digitalization. (Lambrechts, Sinha & Marwala, 2020).

The developing country, Pakistan is still struggling on digitalization due to its own inherited social, economic and political problems. This is time for Pakistan to take lessons of digitalization (Malik & Raziq, 2021) in higher education and hybrid mode of learning from the developed and neighboring countries. The disruptions of digitalization embody the opportunities for the digital development of universities in Pakistan which is the ultimate the digital development of nation. Therefore, drawing on the authors' academic experiences in Pakistan, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, this chapter focuses on the emerging economy of Pakistan, providing suggestions and recommendations for the digitalization of higher education sector, including universities and policy makers, and has the following research objectives:

1. To identify the role that higher education must play in preparing and upskilling future employees for the digital era in the context of Pakistan.
2. To identify the requirements of the hybrid model of teaching for the digitalization of higher education institutions in Pakistan.

DIGITALIZATION BACKGROUND

Internet disruption has changed peoples' lives in a remarkable way (Ahmad, 2015). The new enthusiasm for digitalization involves a lot of confusion and questions with other already existing well-established systems and terminologies, such as information technology, computerization, and internet computing etc., which appear to be similar and share many similarities with the concept of digitalization. To understand the emerging phenomenon of digitalization, we must look on the history of Information Technology

(IT). Clearly, digitalization falls under the category of information management (Heinzl & Uhrig, 2016). The concepts of digitalization such as "digital value creation, digital transformation, digital disruption or digital business strategy" were already included in information-management frameworks (Heinrich, Riedl, & Stelzer, 2014). Historically, information management has been developing and evolving. It has gone through the following stages:

1. Computerization 1960
2. Data processing 1970
3. Personal Computing 1980
4. Internet computing 1990
5. Digitalization / digital transformation 2010

We may call these stages as innovations and development in IT extensively which are used and applied in support of business operations and processes. Some researchers call digitalization a process leading from an information society of the post-industrial area to the digital society (Sikora, Roithmayr, & Pomberger, 2016). In this phenomenon, the internet is only a process carrier, which means in business and economic world, the transformation from partly digitalized business and society models into innovative and fully digitalized business and society models carried by the internet where "information" remains the focus of value creation and IT (Riedl, Benlian, Hess, Stelzer, & Sikora, 2017).

Digitalization is evolving with the passage of time and brings with it more advanced ways of doing work, influencing processes in the different spectrums of life. Along with this continually evolving nature of digitalization, there is a constant need to upskill and upgrade the abilities of people working across the different spectrums of life. The major role here, in the upskilling and upgrading of people and in preparing the future workforce, is of the educational institutions and faculty members thereof. They are the nation builders and pillars of the society.

Digitalization has several benefits for both developed and developing countries and preparing the nations for this revolution is of paramount importance. Additionally, for the sustainable growth of economies, the adoption and usage of digitalization, in all spectrums of life, has become necessary. The effective and efficient utilization of digital tools and techniques is the key driver for the economic development. The advanced countries are already on the path of digitalization and the emerging economies must also embrace this trend for economic growth and development. Digitalization helps to boost GDP, raise living standards and helps in the sustainable economic development. Apart from this, digitalization helps governments to maintain the transparent and online integrative records. Digitalization has changed the traditional way of doing and conducting businesses and other work processes. One area that is of central importance is the *labor market* and the role of educational institutions in preparing the workforce with the appropriate skills, so that they can meet the demands of the digital era. The next section discusses the impact of digitalization on the labor market, educational institutions and the role of educational institutions in the digitalization era.

Impact of Digitalization on the Labour Market and Role of Educational Institutions

The evolving digital landscape will change the nature of the work and there are likely chances that it will transform job requirements and demands extensively. In this transformation, educational institu-

tions have a huge role to play in imparting the right skills among future digital employees and leaders. Thus, the national education system of each country must respond appropriately towards this digital shift (Webb, 2020a).

The digital transformation will reshape the nature of the working environment, bringing with it the integration of digital tools and technologies at the workplace (Webb, 2020b). The transformation will have an impact on the labour market there will be a change in the job description with the new skills requirements, analytical abilities, and employees' inter-personal or 'soft' skills. The accuracy and competency in the digital tools would be of pivotal importance for the survival in the labour market and for the economic prosperity as well.

Digitalization is responsible for bringing major disruption in any organization or industry. In the education sector, digitalization would definitely cause a massive disruption because the educational institutions prepare the workforce according to the demands of the labour market. As noted above, the nature of jobs and the skill set required to perform the newly developed jobs and tasks will change drastically due to a new era in human-machine interactions. In this stream, the educational institutions would need to develop a new curriculum of studies that would require massive changes to align industry's new job demands and skills requirements with those of the workforce.

Apart from the changes in the curriculum, teaching methods would also change drastically. It cannot be said that the conventional teaching method of face-to-face teaching in physical mode will disappear completely, but the online teaching or e-learning is gaining popularity and being adopted everywhere in developed countries, while developing countries are not on a par of digitalization of higher education institutions but are striving for the success.

The online trend of teaching was already there but was not at the forefront and was not on the agenda of all educational institutions. The COVID-19 pandemic has played a major role in upbringing the digitalization in the educational sector. Especially, it has been proved in the current pandemic situation of COVID-19 where the educational institutions were closed for fact-to-face classes but teaching and examinations were taking without major disruptions due to the shift towards the distant learning mode of education.

Having said this, it is believed and hoped, that in the evolving and emerging trend of digitalization in all spectrums of life, online education system would continue in one way or another. Educational institutions are preparing for a two-tier system of face-to-face teaching and learning plus online subject teaching (hybrid and blended model of education system). This belief and of the desired survival of online education beyond COVID-19 are not just a wishful thinking; they are based on facts and realities because, recently, almost every university and college has experienced the benefits of online education and has, if not fully optimal, basic functional online teaching infrastructure of computers and software.

Noting that employing digital technology alone in educational systems would not be a sole driver. Pedagogical competence is crucially important, meaning that conventional methods of face-to-face teaching would remain a companion of the digitalized learning for some more years. It is considered that currently the digital competency and proficiency of the teachers and students has not reached its zenith and eminence. Hence, there is a need to combine or blend online teaching with conventional teaching. For a successful shift from physical to online mode of teaching and learning, the hybrid mode of teaching represents the best solution.

As noted above, the educational institutions have an important role in the paradigm shift towards digitalization. Higher education institutions play a significant role in preparing teachers and the future workforce as per the needs and demands of the market. The teachers and students should be made aware

of having digital knowledge is not only beneficial to survive in today's world but also it is necessary for the lifelong learning of a person himself and for the next generations as well (Kirkwood & Price, 2005; O'Callaghan, Neumann, Jones, & Creed, 2017; Thompson, 2013).

A bitter reality is that the students (who are the future workforce, who would be the leaders of the digital world) and teachers (the nation builders) are not ready and prepared for this change. Students are not prepared for this digital change, and they need to be trained, guided, and supported (Hildebrandt, 2019; Kuhn, 2017). To prepare teachers for these changes, there is a need to move beyond the passive ways of teaching to more advanced way of teaching and learning (Dabbagh & Kitsantas, 2012).

The examples of first world nations are there. Countries, such as the UK and Germany, are aware of this fact that their workforce need to be shifted from the traditional way of doing businesses to a more advanced ways for the age of machine learning and artificial intelligence. These countries are making the strategies for the higher educational institutions and for their organizations for the digitalization (see for example Webb 2020a, Webb 2020b). The UK's digital strategy aims to build their nation a stronger and the one that provides equal opportunities to grow in digitalization for everyone, not only the affluent (Webb, 2020a). The third world and developing countries should take the lessons from the developed nations and follow and implement the strategies to also make them able to enter in the race of digitalization.

In Pakistan, to mitigate the urban rural gap of education and difference of attitude towards the digital adoption, there is a need to build the strategies that provides equal opportunities of learning for each person of the population with no influence for those who are affluent. Additionally, a provision equal learning and teaching facilities, and the facilities of upgrading and upskilling for the digital era all Pakistani educational institutions should be provided equal opportunities and facilities for their digital development. The penetration of internet technologies is in every form of work and the challenge in Pakistan is the availability of the right workforce with the specified skill set and there is considerable shortage of skilled workers in the different sectors of Pakistan (Malik & Raziq, 2021). Hence, the argument again here is that the education institutions would need to come up with the advanced and new ways of teaching and learning to prepare a digital workforce.

CASE OF A DEVELOPING ECONOMY: PAKISTAN

In common with other developing countries, Pakistan has entered in the era of digitalization; the need to adopt updated technology is perceptible at various levels, across industry and economic sectors (Malik & Raziq, 2021). To promote and develop digitalization in Pakistan, the Government of Pakistan has established various research centres in different areas of the country (InnovatePK, 2018a). Over the last few decades, Pakistan's higher education sector has been striving for development through attracting investments and collaborating with various institutions. The advent of big data and AI have seen renewed efforts to boost the links between universities and companies in these areas with the aim of increasing firms' competitiveness (InnovatePK, 2018b). One of the key aspects of this greater collaboration between universities and firms is to upgrade workforce skills (InnovatePK, 2018b). Policy makers and managers in firms alike recognize the need to promote relevant skills amongst a greater percentage of the workforce. There, however, are also growing fears that an inability to enhance workforce skills may imply that Pakistani firms are less competitive than their Indian and Russian counterparts and, hence, are less able to export their services (InnovatePK, 2018). In order to respond to this industrial development, the education sector of Pakistan will need to play an important role for the human capital development.

Education System in Pakistan

Education is a basic human right for every child in Pakistan. As stated in the constitution of Islamic Republic of Pakistan, The Article 25-A – Right to Education – of the Constitution states that: "The State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of five to sixteen years in such manner as may be determined by law". Education plays a critical role for the successful development and survival of generations. Pakistan's government is investing in the education sector for the human capital development and economic growth of the country. According to Labour Force Survey (2017-2018), literacy rate in Pakistan is 62% while youth literacy rate is 74%.

Pakistani schooling system is divided into three categories of public sector schools, private sector schools and Deeni Madaris (In these educational institutions formal religious education is provided). As per the National Education Consensus (NEC), (2005), there are total 67% public education institutions in Pakistan while 33% education institutions are owned by the private sector of Pakistan. More than half (56%) of the students are enrolled in public sector while remaining 44% are enrolled in private sector.

As per the survey report of Pakistan Education Statistics 2017 – 2018, the majority of Pakistani educational institutions provides the primary level of education. The statistics provided in the table 1 shows that the majority (61%) of the educational institutions are of primary level, while only 3% and 1% provides high secondary and degree/university level of education respectively. Hence, the major capacity of higher educational institutions is devoted to primary level of education.

Table 1. Percentage of students by level of education

Level of Education	Percentage
Pre-Primary and Primary	61
Middle High	21
High	14
High Secondary	3
Degree Colleges/ Universities	1

Formal education institutions = 223116
Source: Pakistan Education Statistics 2017-2018

There are 1659 degree colleges in the education system of Pakistan out of which 90% are in the public sector. The total enrolment in degree colleges is 0.605 million. There is total 186 universities in Pakistan. 60% of the universities are working under public sector while 40% are private sector universities. The total enrolment in these degree awarding institutions and universities is 1.576 million which mean only 4% students have access to university level education.

Many MNCs operating in Pakistan offer internship and job upskilling programs in digitalization. There are schools in the main cities of Pakistan which are offering International Baccalaureate Diploma and are authorized as international schools. The famous international schools operating in the country are Beaconhouse, Roots Millennium, The international schools of Karachi and Islamabad. The higher education commission (HEC) in Pakistan offers collaborative and exchange programs with other international universities.

Additionally, there are five different education foundations working in Pakistan. Furthermore, there are technical and vocational training institutions in Pakistan and Deeni Madaris. For equal and lifelong quality education opportunity for all, along with other nations Pakistan has signed a Sustainable Development Goals Agenda (SDG) 2030. The initial projects namely Education For All (EFA) and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) started by Pakistan would be an integral part of SDG.

Digitalization and demand for digital content is increasing in academia and Pakistan is also emerging in digitalization of educational sector. Various studies have been conducted in the digitalization adoption in Pakistani universities which revealed that the universities and students are adopting and preferring the digital platforms (Malik & Mahmood, 2009; Ullah, 2007; Rafiq & Ameen, 2009). The usage of digital media in educational institutions of Pakistan is growing (Rafiq & Ameen, 2012). The technological infrastructure of Pakistani universities is growing with the passage of time due the growth in the telecom sector of Pakistan. Various universities in Pakistan are using Local Area Network (LAN), Wide Area Network (WAN), video conferencing and web-based internet services which has ultimately increased the usage of digital tools in the higher education institutions (Rafiq & Ameen, 2012). The usage of Information Communication and Technology (ICT) varies among different higher educational institutions and there is lack of digital usage among students due to non-availability of ICT infrastructure and technology in higher educational institutions. The findings of Rafiq & Ameen, (2012) study revealed that the demand for digital content is increasing in Pakistani higher educational institutions.

Digital Policy of Pakistan

As said earlier, Pakistan is on the path of digitalization. The facts and figures presented here indicate that Pakistan is still in the initial phase of development. The individual usage of internet in percentage of population in low-income category country, such as Pakistan is 17.1%, Kenya 22.6% and Bangladesh on the lowest end is 12.9% compared to high income countries UAE 99.1%, Saudi Arabia 95.7% and Denmark 98.0% (World Bank Open data, 2020). The individual usage of internet in Pakistan is far behind from high-income countries, which is one of the main reasons of lower adoption of digitalization in Pakistan.

The Government of Pakistan is taking immense measures to mitigate the gap between the adoption of digitalization and its actual usage. The provision of high-speed network by the Next Generation Mobile Spectrum Auctions (NGMSA) led towards the massive growth of broadband subscription from 2.7 million to 44.6 million from the years 2013 to 2017 respectively (Pakistan Telecommunication Authority, 2018).

A growth has been observed in the telecom sector of Pakistan. Pakistan has more than 2000 IT companies and call centers. Pakistan has more than 300,000 IT experts with the experience of emerging digital tools and techniques. Pakistani universities are producing more 20,000 IT graduates yearly. Additionally, the Government of Pakistan is facilitating the masses through digitalization research and projects, internships, training, software technology parks and subsidized bandwidth. Additionally, for the growth of IT sector the government is providing tax exemption on IT exports and revenues. Additionally, National Incubation Centres have been established to support the start-ups of technology companies for the promotion of innovation in Pakistan.

In Pakistan, the Ministry of Information Technology (MoIT) is responsible for the promotion and development of ICT. Pakistan's current position in global IT platform is challenging, but full of opportunities in the path of digitalization. Pakistan ranks 119th out of 139 countries in terms of usage and adoption of ICT (Networked Readiness Index, 2016). This lower adoption towards IT is the indicator of lower implementation of ICT rules and regulation at the national level. To bring Pakistan up in terms

of digitalization national level policies such as *Digital Pakistan Policy* is being drafted with the prime focus on e-health, e-commerce, and e-education sector.

The vision of **Digital Pakistan policy** is "To become a strategic enabler for an accelerated digitization eco system to expand the knowledge-based economy and spur socio economic growth" Ministry of IT and Telecom (MoIT) has formulated the Digital Pakistan Policy with the objective of digital development of the economy and for a holistic approach towards the digital modernization of the economy. This policy involves multiple stakeholders for the IT transformation of economy of Pakistan on fast-track basis.

The policy aims to develop a holistic digital ecosystem of the advanced digital services for the up-coming generations. This policy provides the opportunities to the local entrepreneurs to experience and advanced themselves in IT sector in order to compete and prosper at the international level.

Additionally, to promote digital development of education sector the Digital Pakistan policy aims to create equal opportunities and quality education in ICT. The policy will bridge gap between the IT requirements of the industry and courses offered by the universities through collaboration between the universities and industrial requirements. The policy aims to introduce the coding and cloud computing from elementary level and to update the syllabus as per the international guidelines. The development of e-portal for the provision of academic services and other supplementary material for schools, colleges and universities across the country.

In e-education the Digital Pakistan policy has a prime focus on the creation of long-term equal digital learning policies for all to bridge the gap between the education sector and the industry requirement of digitalized manpower, to inculcate the analytical, problem solving and logical thinking among student at the tertiary level to prepare them for the digitalized working environment, the promotion of advanced technological course for the higher secondary schools and to encourage the promotion of online learning management system from primary schools to universities.

Another policy at national level is *Pakistan 2025 one nation – one vision*. The planning Commission has drafted and is responsible for **Pakistan 2025** policy. The aim of this policy is to make Pakistan among top 25 economies of the world by 2025 and by 2047 one of the top 10 economy in the world. The seven main pillars of this policy are People, Governance, Growth, Security of food, water and energy, entrepreneurship, knowledge, Economy and Regional Connectivity. They are linked with United Nations Sustainable Development goals and Millennium Development goals.

The policy emphasizes that the digital technologies have the potential to help government in achieving its aims. Additionally, the policy emphasizes to make every school, college and university digitalized by 2025. The government is implementing these policies in collaboration and coordination with provincial governments.

The provincial governments of Pakistan are also striving for the promotion of digital technologies in Pakistan; for example, the Punjab Information Technology Board (PITB) is working on the digitalization of education sector, healthcare sector and services sector. PITB took the initiative of e-education promotion in Pakistan by creating a digital central library database for uploading the all-relevant literature (E-learn Punjab, 2017). The literacy rate in Pakistan is 58% and the education sector has a major role to play in removing the urban-rural literacy gap and can help to enhance digitalization and to reduce the digital skill gap among the masses. Therefore, education and universities, in particular, are vitally important.

Pakistan has one well-established university based completely on ICT. Its current student strength is 72000. It offers undergraduate and postgraduate courses in business administration, economics, computer science and information technology. It is well known for its online lectures and broad casting programs

via TV. Virtual university has its own satellite television channels, available via cable or satellite that are purely for educational purposes.

The COVID-19 pandemic has disrupted the way people work worldwide. The requirement of "social distancing" shifted face to face learning to online mode. Because of this pandemic, educational institutes looked for advanced and more accessible mode of teaching. Some educational institutes offered a blended mode of teaching and others shifted completely to online. However, while the digitalization process in the education sector got accelerated in Pakistan, the exact number of the institutes adopting digitalization are unknown.

However, there are gaps in this transformational process with the transformation more rapid in urban areas compared to rural areas. Additionally, the rural-urban gap in population is also one of the causes of slow and gradual process of digitalization in schools and universities, particularly in the rural areas of the country. Some rural areas have few institutes that have digital facilities, and so such institutes having established software and ICT programs might take initiatives and look to collaborate and provide training and facilities to the less advantaged schools and universities. Such initiatives at the micro level may help uplift the traditional mode of teaching towards the digitalized mode.

Role of Higher Education of Pakistan in Digitalization

Educational institutes are the backbone of a society and digitalization of the education sector is a new phenomenon, which has received significant research attention (Sousa, Karimova, & Gorlov, 2020). Research often highlights the importance of integrating digitalization in educational institutions. It is argued that while higher educational institutes are often faced with the need for restructuring their strategies, they are generally not ready internally for such major shifts (Suleimenov, Shaltykova, & Egemberdyeva, 2020, p. 794). This is important as educational institutions are important pillars of a society and are responsible for training and education of their students. They are responsible for imparting the required skills and knowledge among their students (Orr et al., 2020). Therefore, they need to be on a par with the existing market demands and trends to produce the required resource that is needed by the industry. For the sustainable development and growth of potential and current workers in the global world, the existing educational system, particularly in the developing countries must embrace new developments, and train and educate their students accordingly.

With the increase in digitalization, the objective of higher education institutions has radically shifted where the prominent emphasis is now to prepare future generation professionals empowering and enabling them to solve the problems and finding solutions through their digital competency, collaborative and inter-disciplinary skills (Bond et al., 2018).

As noted above, digitalization is disruptive in nature, so many individuals would resist as they may neither have the capability let alone willingness for embracing such change, but to meet the requirements of the current age, they would need to upgrade their skills and capabilities particularly in the use of internet, computer, social media and online teaching. These skills, while require lifelong learning and constant improvement of knowledge and skills, once the person gets used to of digital technology, the upgradation of skills and learning new tools do not necessarily require training all the time, and people quickly adapt to the new technology. For example, very few individuals during the current pandemic would have required training for tools like Zoom and Teams, and most of them learned on their own.

The key digital competency would be vital and lifesaving in this new age of digitalization. The loss of some jobs or early retirement due to digitalization is another expected disruption. Whether we consider

faculty, administrative staff or members of leadership teams, skills in ICT and operations of computers to operate, store, retrieve, present and exchange information, participation in collaboration through digital networks via internet would be the minimum requirement to perform and work effectively in the digital age. Of course, this disruption would also affect students.

Office staff, administrative staff, management and support service personnel would have to enhance their knowledge and skills to perform their work through digital tools, software tools, internet, and computer efficiently and effectively. The works of departments, inter-departmental communication, coordination and workflows processes would need to be digitalized. Those teachers equipped with the certain skills, tools and techniques would play a pivotal role in the establishment of online teaching platforms, online content creation and creation of in-depth online strategies (Ahmad, 2015).

The digitalization would increase the effectiveness and efficiency of teaching style and of the higher education institutions as well. For increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of teaching the need to be motivated, ambitious, self-responsible and flexible to teach and train the students through both conventional and online mode. The active participation by the faculty members would result in motivating and exciting the students about the usage and digitalization. Apart from the motivation the teachers must have strong written, critical thinking, communication skills and a strong work ethic. The teachers must be well versed in research and in seeking knowledge through computer and internet sources above all must be ready to take over the responsibility to pass on these skills to their students.

The faculty members have the major responsibility to drive and strengthen digitalization without their awareness and commitment technologies, how automated robotic or self-propelled they are, cannot bring the shift in the thinking and actions of the people around them. It is not just about working collaboratively with the human teams, but also about working collaboratively with the machines, IT tools and techniques. The universities, faculty staff, and leadership have to collaborate effectively with each other and the technologies to improve work and work processes to manage all functions seamlessly to deliver the knowledge.

Faculty staff would have to spend more time in advising students, sharing knowledge and real experiences rather than classical lecturing through books and notes. Engagement of students with teachers is of significant importance for interactive and more responsive information sharing on the subjects having relevance of their education to their future responsibilities and tasks in the real life to use their own initiatives and creativity. Devotion to seek and acquire knowledge with self-responsibility, self-discipline, self-initiative, and self-motivation is a key requirement of learning in the digitalized world.

CURRENT CHALLENGES

Apart from the lower levels of digital adoption, Pakistan is facing challenges in the digitalization of higher education institutions. First, there is a digital skills gap. For digitalization of higher education institutions, it is imperative that instructors and teachers have digital skills unfortunately, the majority of university teachers and instructors do not have digital skills.

Pakistan has better standards of literacy compared to many other developing countries but, unfortunately, the Pakistani education system is not aligned with skills development requirement of the labor market. Majority of Pakistan universities and colleges of higher degree are producing bachelors and master's degree holders who, unfortunately, remain unemployed or if luckily find job they remain under-

employed or employed in sectors where their capabilities and learned knowledge is not utilized because the education system is not fully aligned to the requirement of the labor market.

The unemployment problem in Pakistan exists from many decades and youth unemployment is giving rise to many social issues. Educated unemployment is due to less job vacancies, deficient economic plan and due to deficiencies in Pakistani education system because it is not developed on the international standards. The second issue is the division of education sector into public and private sector. The private sector has more quality education facilities as compared to public sector educational institutions. The Pakistani education system is not at par with the industrial and market requirement which is one of the main reasons of high unemployment in Pakistan.

In the age of digitalization, knowledge of Computer, ICT knowledge and digital skills are required for all streams of education irrespective of arts, science, social sciences or technology and engineering field. Introduction and change in curriculum to teach ICT and computer (hardware, software) courses must be included in the so-called non-technical arts and social sciences courses too.

The second challenge is the digital divide that refers to the gap between those who have access to digital technologies and those who do not have the possibility to possess or have access to digital technology, such as internet connections. The Pakistani society has major digital division the lucky ones having access to digital technology are in minority and are living in urban areas. Majority of the Pakistani population lives in rural area and are unfortunate not to have access to digital technology such as internet etc.

In the COVID-19 pandemic, this issue came to the fore when the universities shifted their teachings to internet and online system and the students in rural and more remote areas could not attend the classes or sit in exams as they had poor access or uninterrupted internet connections. Similarly, in COVID-19 majority of the medical doctors offered e-health and online consultation however, the majority of the beneficiaries were the people living cities and urban developments. The unfortunates who could not have the access to online medical consultation and e-health were again those living in rural and remote areas which is the majority segment of Pakistan.

The third challenge is the shortage of power and energy that hinders the development of ICT and digitalization in Pakistan. Due to a shortage of electricity, the power supply companies resort to massive scheduled or unscheduled disruption of electricity supply that disturbs the internet connection and hinders access to the internet in commercial, residential and industrial areas of urban as well as rural population.

The fourth challenge is the availability of ICT facilities. For a qualified maintenance, service, support and upgrading the reliability of digital equipment, and qualified service centres for repair and maintenance are required. Unfortunately, there are no such centre in the rural areas and also there is a shortage of such facilities even in the big cities. In emergency cases, users do not have any access to their digital equipment but have to travel long distances to the urban areas and wait for days to get their equipment repaired, maintained, or serviced.

The fifth challenge is cost. Digitalization in higher education requires massive investments into state-of-the-art hardware, software, and other relevant digital technology tools. The majority of the universities and colleges in Pakistan do not have financial capacities and have lack of sufficient funds to acquire the crucial digital technologies for the digitalization. Many universities and colleges struggle with old and obsolete digital equipment without the latest software. Similarly, students do not have state-of-the-art digital technologies hardware and software. Due to the financial reasons, many students and some teachers resort to the unethical practice of software piracy and use fake, forged, and illegally acquired copies of the expensive software that are in use in the field of education. However, many universities support their teachers and students to purchase copies of the licensed software.

Sixth challenge in digitalized education system is the provision of a high-quality content for teaching online. Some universities and colleges are not having a high-quality learning content. Content development is of course a costly affair.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND PROPOSED SOLUTIONS

There is a timely need to align industry 4.0 to education 4.0 and transform the education through technologies such as IOT, big data and AI in Pakistan. There is a time to act now as per the Global survey report of PWC that found that 74 per cent of executives are worried about finding the right people with the required skills for future jobs 24th Annual Global CEO Survey (pwc.com). The education 4.0 should upgrade and upskill workforce and realize the potential of industry 4.0 in digital technologies. In light of the above challenges, this chapter, at hand, offers the recommendations and solutions for the digital development of higher education of Pakistan. These recommendations have been grounded on selected peer and aspirational comparator countries such as the best models of UK, USA and German education system.

- German and British universities are working in collaboration on the industrial requirement of 3D models. Pakistani universities should also seek to work in collaboration and in consortium with industry along the following lines. Develop expertise and specialization in research and knowledge and play a role in developing innovation based on shared beliefs, and interests of the society and the industry. Play an active role in creating a unified new educational model on national scale and prepare and equip graduates with knowledge and professional skills to face the challenges of disruption of the industry 4.0. The broader network should have collective teaching and learning emphasis on innovation, creativity, entrepreneurship, and social impact with a focus on the industry 4.0 requirements. The research produced by educational institutes should have a focus on solving real-life problems and challenges, and universities should work in cooperation with the government and businesses.
- In the United States, The National Science Foundation (NSF) and Industry-University Cooperative Research Centre Program (IUCRC) Academics are working in close collaboration with industry and universities for innovation and development. Based on US model the policy makers in Pakistan should create an expert group comprising experts from industry, businesses and society at large, and seek to update the curriculum and the educational system in general. The establishment of think tanks for accessing the research and usage of digitalization in higher educational institutions would serve as a great collaboration between the industry experts and the higher educational institutions.
- A digital route with the specified skills, knowledge and behavior for faculty members and for students is a strategic requirement at the national level. For digitalization of education, a major shift from teacher-centered to student-centered learning and teaching model would be required. Based on the MOOC courses offered by Coursera, Stanford, Harvard and MIT are a great example of online teaching. Extensive digital courses ranging from learning digital methodology, digital capabilities, cloud analytics, internet of things, artificial intelligence, ICT etc., should be included in the curriculum in all domains of the subjects. Additionally, targeted awareness, seminars and

awareness and other approaches for the digital inclusion and investments at national levels are required.

- The policies and procedures should be developed with great care and in consultation with the industrial requirement in order to enhance the digital literacy and competency. The graduates need to be introduced to the digitalized concepts, tools, and techniques. Analytical skills development department should be established at each university where all university graduates can go and develop their skills required for the digital era.
- In order to reap the benefits of the digitalization this divide of *have and have nots* in the digital divide must be overcome and full fledge internetworking system covering rural and far-flung areas need to be provided.
- The internet connectivity issues can be resolved through the CPEC. Pakistan has joined China's multi-billion-dollar scheme of infrastructure development, known as the China Pakistan Economic Corridor (CPEC). Among many other roads, highways, railways, electric power plants, industrial and free zones projects developments a major cross border Pakistan China fiber optic project is to lay the optical fiber cable in Pakistan to enhance telecommunication and information & communication technology (ICT). The fiber optical cable covers an area of 820 km and is exclusively meant for improving telecom and ICT industry of Pakistan including 3G/4G/5G telecommunication services. Similarly, China's multinational telecommunication giant Huawei is establishing a Huawei technical support center in Pakistan; also Huawei in investing and supporting Pakistan to enhance its telecommunication and internet capabilities.
- The electricity shortage issues can also be resolved through CPEC. As CPEC is investing $33 billion into the infrastructure for energy such as power plants and transmission lines and is planned to enhance energy generating capacity of Pakistan by over 10,400 MW of energy to alleviate the chronic energy shortage of Pakistan. It is hoped that Chinese investments in such projects would help to develop ICT, internet, and computerization areas and help in development of digitalization process.
- In a digitalized education system, a high-quality content for teaching is very crucial. Some universities and colleges are not having a high-quality learning content. Content development is of course a costly affair. A solution could be to share the content development with other universities and colleges. Webinars, conferences, and specialized online lectures play a major role in digitalized education system. Due to lack of digital technology, managerial skills for organizing and managing such events many schools and colleges skip this crucial part of learning and interactive collaboration. Cooperation and network operations in this area could reduce the cost and resolve the problem. This would require good cooperation to allow students to participate and have access to the webinars, seminars, and conferences of other universities freely.
- Young people are the main and frequent users of digital tools, such as smart phone, internet (YouTube, WhatsApp and other social media tools). However, this does not make them automatically the expert users of educational technology such as, learning management systems (LMS), Zoom, Microsoft teams, cloud storage, lecture recording and retrieving, presentations, institutional platform tools provided by the institutions and the extraction of knowledge from different online data bases and libraries. Therefore, in the curriculum, universities should include courses related to the use of digital tools and methods associated with online teaching and learning.
- Learning Management Systems (LMS) are mostly institutional platforms of the universities. Majority of platforms built up as an organizational tool for classes (enrollment, seminars, upload-

ing assignments and class work etc) being part of management system, it does not enhance the actual learning of the courses but are necessary for coordination and collaboration between the teacher and the student and solving the systemic problems while using LMS. The universities should impart these skills regarding the usage of LMS to the students.

- Pakistan's higher educational institutions can cooperate and collaborate with Virtual university to benefit from its experience and digital technologies as applied in online education. It is strongly recommended to all Pakistan based higher institutions to create a **network for digitalization of teaching and learning** to exchange and share information knowledge, experience and best practices to collaborate research on digitalization.
- Courses for continuing education and learning for adults can play a vital role in imparting, training and knowledge to adults' workforce already employed or unemployed but need to enhance their skills for better chances. Digitalization requires people with digital skills. There is a massive task ahead to train the existing employees and the unemployed people for the technical skills to have better chances of employment. Traditionally, Pakistani higher education institutions shy away from offering informal education in parallel to the formal system of education with the strict curriculum and other obligations with the degrees being awarded at the end. The informal education can play a crucial role if the universities and colleges start offering courses and training under the auspices of continuing professional development (CPD) or continuing education and learning for adults in digital technology area.
- The Government of Pakistan can statutorily task all higher education institutions to provide informal education for advancement of digitalization to the adults in short courses. It could also be an extra earning source for the universities to compensate the deficits in their in their funding's.

The aspects of digitalization should be aligned with the institutional strategies. The entire educational institutional community should be engaged with and train for digitalization. All universities and colleges should have an adequate sustainable staffing model and a funding model. Finally, yet importantly, a proactive and dynamic unwavering support from the leadership of the institution is needed to enhance the digital capabilities and digitalization of the education in higher educational institutions.

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Chapter 10
Why Students Prefer "Business Administration Education"?
A Qualitative Research With the International Students

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ABSTRACT

This chapter aims to identify the factors that are effective in the decisions of business students to choose this department. For this purpose, motivating factors for personality and work life were preferred in the study and questions were prepared in this direction. A and B type personality structures were preferred for the personality factor. The motivating factors for business life examined under three headings as occupational prestige/status, earning potential, potential of occupational advancement. The sample of the research consists of the senior year undergraduate students in the Department of the Business Administration from different universities. Data were collected through a semi-structured interview technique. In the research, a total of 25 students were interviewed on an online platform. In the results of the research, personality type tendencies of the students were revealed, and it was observed that factors such as prestigious job, status, high income, career progression, family, and personality influence their preferences of the business administration department.

INTRODUCTION

Education, which is one of the important concepts both individually and socially, covers a long process that will start from an early age and shape a career. In this long process, students make various preferences and one of these important preferences is the "choice of the department". This important choice has direct and important implications for the initiation and development of professional career life, the

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ability to express oneself correctly and a quality life. It is possible for a person to succeed in and adopt their job with the right choice of job and therefore with the right choice of department.

Since the choice of department at the university forms the first step of career choice tendency and process, the factors affecting department choice and the factors affecting career process may be in a similar structure. A determined and successful career decision reflecting the individual also covers department choice and is shaped by various factors. It is observed that career decisions are generally shaped by contexts controlled by socio-cultural factors, individual factors, personal and cultural values and other structural factors. In addition, it has been suggested that the degree of importance given by students to different factors affecting their major or career choices varies according to these factors (Watt et al., 2012). Based on this, it is thought that factors affecting career choices will also play a role in influencing students' department choices. In addition to this, although there are many studies are examining the effects of different factors such as family and socio-economic status (Dandy & Nettelbeck, 2002); personal, references and family (Tan & Laswad, 2006); long-term career prospects, work environment and salary (Lim & Soon, 2006); general skills, interest, course satisfaction and educators (Jackling & Calero, 2006); self-development, education, career beneðts and salary (Ng et al., 2008); skills, competencies, abilities and family (especially father) (Agarwala, 2008); job opportunities and potential high salary, genuine interest, advice given by reference groups such as parents and relatives (Jackling and Keneley, 2009); intrinsic value and employability/financial prospect (Owusu et al., 2018); intrinsic value, abilities, make a social contribution (Watt et al., 2012); skills and competencies, training and education opportunities, promotion opportunities, training and education opportunities (Özbilgin et al., 2005); job opportunities, high initial salary, prestige (Allen, 2004) on career choices in the literature there is a limited number of studies on the factors affecting students' business administration department choices makes it necessary to determine these factors.

In this study, the factors that affect students' choices of the business administration department are classified as *personality* and *motivating factors for business life.* The motivating factors for business life will be examined under three headings as occupational prestige/status, earning potential, potential of occupational advancement. It is important for students, universities and businesses to be able to understand the reasons for students to choose the Business Administration Department and the factors behind their choices. It is hoped that the research findings will be useful for the universities with Business Administration departments to reorganize, differentiate, or improve their business administration education, by considering these findings. On the other hand, the findings may improve students' awareness of the factors related to their department choices and career decisions.

BACKGROUND

The choice of department, which is the starting point and an important stage of individual career planning, is one of the critical decisions regarding students' future and includes a comprehensive process. In the construction of a happy and successful career future, it is extremely important to determine and evaluate the factors that are effective in the appropriate education for this career and in the right department choice. Students' satisfaction with the choice of a major will also provide satisfaction with their academic field of study, future profession and career (Lakhal et al., 2012).

Since the choice of department at the university forms the basis of career choice tendency and process, factors related to department choice are seen as the strong influencers in guiding career choice.

Therefore, the factors that affect the department choice will also be effective in determining the students' career choice in the next phase or in leading their career more accurately.

Students can obtain more comprehensive information about the fields they want to work in the future during their university education through the department they choiced, and they can form their career choices accordingly. Considering that the career paths formed by individuals' university department choices will usually continue until their retirement, department choices play an important role in determining the career in which they will be happy and successful (Yavuz et al., 2018).

In the limitation of the literature review carried out during the preparation phase of this study, there are few researches on determining the influential factors in students' department choices. Generally, in the researches related to department choices, the ability, cost of education, individual factors, socio-economic factors and location factors, the influence of others (family members, teachers, etc.), family income, demographic characteristics, perceptions about the profession, students' interest levels were examined (Prakasam et al., 2019; Sovansophal, 2019; Marshall, 2003; Mauldin et al., 2000). For this reason, under the content of the study, the previous studies that reveal the influential factors on students' career choices were also used in determining and evaluating diverse factors affecting the students' department choices.

In studies on the career; it is revealed that factors such as knowledge, interest in a possible profession/job, satisfaction as a result of the individual values, and personality characteristics affect the decision on the profession choices. These factors can also affect department choice. The career choice process is a combination of the interaction of an individual's attitudes, values, and social support that they are received. Super (1980) examines the factors affecting career choices under three categories as *role factor* (self and roles), *personality factor* (intelligence, abilities, preferences, values, personality, ability to adapt), and *situational factor* (socio-economic status of parents, parental approach, educational opportunities, economic conditions).

Farmer (1987) states that career choice occurs as a result of the interaction process between an individual's background (gender, ethnicity, socio-economic status, and age), personal variables, and environmental variables. Beynon et al. (1998) argue that three basic factors, namely "internal factors" (e.g. interest in the job and job satisfaction), "external factors" (e.g. job opportunity and wage), and "interpersonal factors" (e.g. the influence of family and other important people) are effective in career choice. Özbilgin et al. (2005) reveal *micro-level* (free choice, education, skills, abilities, economic situation, family or acquaintances); *meso-level* (quality of life, flexibility, autonomy, development opportunity, promotion opportunity) and *macro-level* (gender, ethnicity, age, luck/success/belief) factors in their study, in which they explain the effects on career choice. Schröder et al. (2011) examine the effects of developmental outcomes, individual resources (personality traits, gender, birth order) and contextual factors (parental support, role model, parental working conditions) in their study on career choice goals.

In this study, the *personality* and *motivating factors for business life* affecting students' business administration department choices were determined by using the observations and experiences of the researchers and the results of previous studies examining effective factors on career choices.

THE FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE DEPARTMENT CHOICE IN ORGANIZATIONS

This section inludes the influencing factors such as personality, areas of interest in the business administration education, motivating factors for business life (*occupational prestige / status, earning potential and potential of occupational advancement)* on the department choice.

Personality

A personality that expresses the process that determines who a person is throughout their life, the reasons for their behavior, and the emotional, behavioral, and cognitive structure in which their social environment can make sense of them is a good predictor of career choice (Yavuz et al., 2018; Arnold, 2005). As a result of the correct determination of personality-career harmony, it is thought that the education-career path will be parallel and the possibility of the individual to choose a different career path can decrease. Personality is a characteristic that increases the power of other factors that influence major selection, and since it is a characteristic that does not change throughout a person's life, it is also a predictor of satisfaction with the major (Pritchard et al., 2018).

In most of the studies conducted with the subject of personality in the literature, Holland's personality types and the big five personality traits are associated with the result, in order to differ in this study and Type A and B personality structures will be included. Type A and B personality emerged in the studies of Friedman and Rosenman (1974), which defined it as an action-emotion complex observed in individuals. Type A and B personality can be observed as a result of behavior, lifestyle and interaction with the environment (Billing and Steverson, 2013). Personality traits of Type A and B, which try to explain the behavior of individuals on two grounds, are briefly given below:

Type A Personality

People with this personality trait are competitive individuals who are impatient, fast, success-oriented, have a tendency to do many jobs at once, and achieve a lot in a short time (Billing & Steverson, 2013; Robbins & Judge, 2013; Mahajan & Rastogi, 2011). They are hasty during conversation, have tense facial muscles and are energetic. These types of individuals tend to think in polyphasic and engage in a job even in their spare time. They tend to be self-centered and have a high level of expectation (Kunnanatt, 2003).

Type B Personality

People with this personality trait are people who have calm attitudes, are fun, less competitive, enjoy success, are patient, are less sensitive to time, know how to enjoy life, and are less prone to stress. Individuals with a type B personality do not prefer to engage in many activities in a certain period of time. Type B individuals are mild-tempered individuals who do not feel time pressure and do not like to rush (Long et al., 2015; Verma & Mansuri, 2018, Mahajan & Rastogi, 2011; Kunnanatt, 2003; Luthans, 2010).

Both Type A individuals and Type B individuals are individuals who attach importance to the need for success. The difference between them is that Type A individuals feel pressure in this situation, and Type B individuals want to meet their needs for this success in a way that does not create psychological pressure (Billing & Steverson, 2013). It is assumed that individuals with Type A personality traits tend

to have more financial gain and higher positions than individuals with Type B personality traits (Kunnanatt, 2003: 723). Friedman and Rosenman stated that people cannot be type A or type B directly, they may be more prone to one of these two types. Type A and B personality shows the two extremes of personality traits. For this reason, it can be mentioned that individuals are closer to which personality type according to their behavior intensity and frequency, rather than carrying all of the extreme personality traits of the individuals.

Personality differs from other factors in that it spreads to all aspects of the student's life (Pritchard et al., 2018). Since personality is a largely immutable feature that distinguishes the individual from other individuals, it is important to examine the student's status with the choice of major and other factors.

It is important that students' personalities match these departments in a particular major choice. According to Holland's professional choice theory, it is assumed that individuals will turn to professions that they believe will match their personalities. Accordingly, it is assumed that individuals doing similar jobs may show similar personality traits and differ from other occupational groups (Pringle et al., 2010). For this reason, it is possible for students who will choose various business majör branches to show certain and different personality traits.

According to previous studies, students of the business administration department were found to be more extroverted individuals (Balsamo et al., 2012; Humburg, 2017). In addition, a study conducted by Lounsbury and colleagues (2009) found that students studying in the Department of business, which has a structure intertwined with people, are at the forefront of conscientiousness. And again as a result of this study, it was stated that the students of the Business Administration department have high assertiveness.

When the international literature was examined, it was seen that studies related to the major of Business Administration such as Finance, Accounting, Marketing, Management Information Systems were carried out on students and personality types. Since the fields of Finance, Accounting, Marketing, Management Information Systems are also included in the major of Business Administration, and since there is no separate branch selection in Turkey, studies related to these departments have also been examined. For example, students who specialize in finance are extroverted individuals and have higher scores in perception, thinking and judgment (Lounsbury et al., 2009).

It has been revealed that students in the accounting department tend to be more timid, concrete and less likely to work with people (Noel et al. 2003). It is argued that Marketing and Management Information Systems students are more self-controlled, creative, entrepreneurial and imaginative individuals. Again, according to a study conducted with Marketing department students, these individuals are extroverted and creative skills are important for them (Noel et al., 2003; Roach et al., 2012).

Areas of Interest in the Business Administration Education

The general structure of business administration education, the curriculum offered in the education programs, and the management functions are similar all over the world. This education offers the opportunity to comprehensively evaluate career plans within the framework of education by introducing organizations, institutions, departments, and providing management behavior. The introduction of different disciplines and fields of study of business administration education to the student simultaneously enables the individual to make a decision before graduating. With the introduction of marketing, human resources, accounting, finance, production, management, and organization, R&D functions, business administration education provides guidance on which field of study an individual can choose in the future regardless of the sector. It is argued that the choice of a major or career is often influenced by an

individual's interest, self-efficacy, and outcome expectations. The individual's beliefs in his/her interest in a particular field of work, beliefs about results, motivation, cognitive resources, and ability to combine activities can be a guide for the field of study (Joshi & Kuhn, 2011).

As has been shown by studies that the student's interest in the field is an important factor in the selection of the major (Mauldin et al., 2000; Malgwi et al., 2005; Downey et al., 2011), may also be said to be the case for minor. Interest and concern are also factors that make learning and choosing an major a goal (Davies et al., 2016).

Motivating Factors for Business Life

In this study, these factors are classified under three dimensions:

Occupational Prestige / Status

Prestige has an important place in branch preferences or career choices. The social status of the profession and its acceptability by the society are among the factors affecting the individual in the process of choice (Brown, 2003). According to the previous researches, it is revealed that occupational prestige is effective in the decision of the branch preferences and career choice of individuals. (Wrzesniewski, 2002).

When looking at the motivating factors for business life, the need to gain prestige (obtaining status), which is in the fourth step of the hierarchy of needs put forward by Maslow, and the opportunities for advancement, responsibility, status, achievement, recognition, which are among the motivating factors by Herzberg, gain importance. Studies have revealed that prestige, social status, and increased reputation have an important role in career choice motivation. (Wrzesniewski, 2002; Jackling & Calero, 2006; Jackling & Keneley, 2009; Haase & Lautenschlager, 2011).

Studies show that majors and careers with a higher social image are preferred (Sugahara et al., 2008). Prestige or status can be one of the external awards that affect a student's choice of a university major (Roach et al., 2012). According to the results of the study conducted by Kumar and Kumar (2012) with Business students, students' attitude towards business branch is affected by job availability and social image. It is also revealed that professional prestige affects the selection of branches such as Accounting and Management Information Systems. However, according to a different study, it is revealed that students studying at MIS, which is one of the business branches, have lower importance of respect and prestige than students in accounting and finance departments (Roach et al., 2012). Davies et al. (2016) with students from different countries, reputation and career outcomes differed according to countries and cultures, and US students gave more importance to career outcomes than students from other countries.

Earning Potential

Individuals want to work in jobs where they can get wage increases suitable for their living standards and get high wages. Studies show that the economic gain factor, high wage, financial wage, and earning potential are factors that affect the career choices of both students and employees (Jackling & Calero, 2006; Jackling & Keneley, 2009; Odia & Ogiedu, 2013).

In the studies conducted, the importance of salary and earning potential and labor market conditions among the factors that affect students' major selection has been revealed (Berger, 1988; Downey et al., 2011; Tan & Laswad, 2009). In the research conducted by Stock and Stock (2019) on the choice

of university students, it was revealed that first personal interest, then the influence of parents, and then potential income factors for the students of the Business Administration Department are effective. In their study by Cebula and Lopes (1982) in which they investigated the reasons for the choices of students in different undergraduate degrees, they revealed that the expected future earnings are an important factor in the student's decision. In another study, it was concluded that Accounting and Management students attach importance to future earning potential (Lowe & Simons, 1997). According to a different study, while high earning potential may be effective in students' choices, after starting education, this effect may decrease and leave its place to different factors (Staniec, 2004). In the study conducted by Pritchard et al., (2017), it was revealed that wages, salaries and social rights are among the other factors that affect the choice of the department besides personality. In the study conducted by Roach et al. (2012), it is concluded that students may prefer areas they see safe especially during economic recession periods and make choices according to economic conditions rather than personal tastes.

Potential of Occupational Advancement

The expectations of individuals are that have a structure that can create a potential for them to progress, which from a career that can also be described as an advancement occupational or knowledge. Research shows that occupational advancement, advancement opportunities, and learning experiences are important in influencing career. (Wrzesniewski, 2002; Edwards & Quinter, 2011).

It is claimed that career prospects and job opportunities are effective on students' choice of department (Roach et al., 2012). According to the results of the study conducted by Malgwi et al. (2005), while the primary reason for choosing the department was the interest in the department regardless of gender, career development, job opportunities and payment (wage) levels in the field were other important preference factors for men. Alanezi et al. (2016), as a result of the study conducted with students who want to specialize in the field of Accounting, revealed that career opportunities and prestige are the factors that affect their preferences the most. The factor of finding a job for students who determine the field they want to head for has been found to be one of the most important factors affecting their department choices. And for these students, their professors at the university have been the strongest factor in their choice of a field. It has been an important factor in social image choices for students who are unsure about the field they want to head towards (Kumar & Kumar, 2012). According to the results of another study, it was concluded that Accounting students make their choices by giving importance to their future career options (Lowe & Simons, 1997).

MAIN FOCUS OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter aims to identify the factors that are effective in the decisions of business administration students to choose this department. For this purpose, motivating factors for personality and work life were preferred in the study and questions were prepared in this direction. In this study, the qualitative-exploratory research method is used. This method is mostly used in the fields of education, social and behavioral to examine the human experiences and behavior and aims to identify or highlight an unknown and implicit phenomenon with comprehensive data (Kalu & Bwalya, 2017; Phillips & Pugh, 2000 retrieved from Khan, 2014).

Data were collected through a semi-structured interview *technique.* The interviews were conducted between March 2021 and April 2021. and ended averagely between 35-40 minutes. At the beginning of the interview, participants were informed about the aim of the research and the content of the interview. Then, their approval was obtained to record the interviews. 4 open-ended questions were asked to the participants along with the Type A and Type B personality scales. The research sample consists of 25 senior students who are educating in Business Administration Department.

Data were analyzed by using the content analysis method, which is one of the frequently used methods in the field of social sciences; it aims to create interpretative analysis steps and to improve existing knowledge on the subject (Mayring, 2000). The content analysis includes identifying themes by systematic classification, comparisons, and coding process of text data (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

In the first stage of the analysis, audio recordings were taken from the interview. The sound recordings were transcribed electronically. The voice recordings were deciphered and the directly related and frequently repeated important answers given by the participants to the interview questions on the topic were determined. The words with the same / similar meanings in these answers are coded for analysis. Later, all these expressions and codings were analyzed and the thoughts revealed by each interview question and participant responses were interpreted in a descriptive way.

In accordance with the protection of personal data for the audio recordings used during the analysis, the students were informed about the voice recording and each student received separate approval. In addition, in terms of the confidentiality of personal data, the names of the students and the names of the universities where they study were not included, instead all participants were defined as P1, P2, P3… During the interviews, the gender of the students was noted by the researchers.

The Bortner Scale was used to reveal type A and B personality structures in the interview questions. The scale consists of an 11 range (from 1 to 11) and 14 expressions with opposite expressions at both ends. The total score varies between 14 and 154, and interpretation can be made on the individual's personality according to the total score. According to this classification, there is a scale from extreme Type B to extreme type A.

Scores are classified as follows (Edwards & Clawson, 2008):

Extreme Type B scores between 14-63
Type B scores between 64-92
Type A scores between 93-107
Extreme Type A scores between 108-154

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The genders of the participants in the interviews were noted by the researchers. Participants were asked to answer the statements by showing the Bortner Scale regarding personality types, and the personality types were revealed by calculating the scores by the researchers according to the answers given. Descriptive information and personality types of the participants are given in Table 1.

During the interview, the participants were asked the function/department they would like to choose in a business when they graduated from the business administration department in line with the courses they took during their business education. Participants were informed that they could choose more than one department and are shown in Table 2 in the order of responses.

Table 1. Personality scores and types of the participants

Participants	Gender	Personality Score	Personality Type
$\mathbf{P_1}$	Male	90	Type B
$\mathbf{P_2}$	Male	92	Type B
$\mathbf{P_3}$	Female	90	Type B
$\mathbf{P_4}$	Female	97	Type A
$\mathbf{P_5}$	Female	112	Extreme Type A
$\mathbf{P_6}$	Female	107	Type A
$\mathbf{P_7}$	Female	68	Type B
$\mathbf{P_8}$	Male	65	Type B
$\mathbf{P_9}$	Female	119	Extreme Type A
$\mathbf{P_{10}}$	Female	71	Type B
$\mathbf{P_{11}}$	Male	97	Type A
$\mathbf{P_{12}}$	Male	82	Type B
$\mathbf{P_{13}}$	Male	129	Extreme Type A
$\mathbf{P_{14}}$	Female	122	Extreme Type A
$\mathbf{P_{15}}$	Male	98	Type A
$\mathbf{P_{16}}$	Female	101	Type A
$\mathbf{P_{17}}$	Male	106	Type A
$\mathbf{P_{18}}$	Female	96	Type A
$\mathbf{P_{19}}$	Female	101	Type A
$\mathbf{P_{20}}$	Male	70	Type B
$\mathbf{P_{21}}$	Male	87	Type B
$\mathbf{P_{22}}$	Male	98	Type A
$\mathbf{P_{23}}$	Female	74	Type B
$\mathbf{P_{24}}$	Female	64	Type B
$\mathbf{P_{25}}$	Male	98	Type A

Source: Prepared by the authors

According to a study, it was stated that students with Type A personality were more likely to choose departments such as accounting or finance (Pringle et al., 2010). When Table 1 and Table 2 are examined together, there are seven participants who want to choose Finance and Accounting departments. 4 of 25 participants are prone to Type A (P15, P16, P19, P25) and 3 of them Type B (P7, P20, P24) personality traits. The majority of all participants with a Type A personality stated that they thought of choosing the Marketing section. In this respect, the study reached a different finding than the previous study.

As seen in Table 3, The 25 participants stated 57 department preferences that they would like to work in business life. The marketing, sales, and human resources departments are the most preferred ones by the participants. Participants stated that they had an interest in these departments and that they were doing internships/work related to the reasons for choosing these departments. In addition even though the participants preferred a different department as their first choice, the majority of them stated the marketing area among their other preferences.

Table 2. Business functions/ department choices of the participants

Participants	Business Function / Department Choice 1	Business Function / Department Choice 2	Business Function / Department Choice 3	Business Function / Department Choice 4
P_1	Marketing	Sales	Human Resource	Production
P_2	Marketing	Sales		
P_3	Sales	Marketing		
P_4	Sales	Marketing		
P_5	Marketing	Sales	Human Resource	
P_6	Marketing	R&D		
P_7	Accounting			
P_8	Sales			
P_9	Marketing	Sales		
P_{10}	Marketing	Production		
P_{11}	Portfolio Management			
P_{12}	Start a Venture			
P_{13}	Marketing			
P_{14}	Marketing	Sales	Human Resource	
P_{15}	Finance	R&D	Logictics	
P_{16}	Finance			
P_{17}	Sales	Production	R&D	Logictics
P_{18}	Marketing	Sales	Human Resource	
P_{19}	Finance	Marketing	Human Resource	Production
P_{20}	Finance	Accounting		
P_{21}	Marketing	Human Resource	Logictics	
P_{22}	Marketing			
P_{23}	Human Resource	Production	R&D	
P_{24}	Human Resource	Accounting	Marketing	
P_{25}	Finance	Marketing	Sales	

Source: Prepared by the authors

According to Leppel et al. (2001) students who prefer the Business Administration Department are influenced by their parents' profession and socioeconomic status. At the same time, it is possible for the student to be influenced by the people around in department choice. According to results of some studies, students "departmental preferences were determined by their parents and their parents" professions (Zhang, 2007; Calkins & Welki, 2006; Liao & Ji, 2015; Roach et al., 2012; Leppel et al., 2001) or their teachers (Calkins & Welki, 2006; Mauldin et al., 2000; Roach et al., 2012). In parallel with the results of previous studies, as seen in Table 4, most of the participants were influenced by their families in various ways in their department preferences. Participants stated that they chose the Business Administration Department for reasons such as family guidance, family members (mother/father/close relatives) as a role model, and being influenced by the professions of family members.

Table 3. Business function / department choice percentages

Business Function / Department	Number of Choices	Percentage
Marketing	16	%28,07
Sales	11	%19,29
Human Resource	8	%14,03
Finance	5	%8,77
Production	5	%8,77
R&D	4	%7,01
Accounting	3	%5,26
Logictics	3	%5,26
Another (Portfolio and venture)	2	%3,50
Total	57	%100

Source: Prepared by the authors

According to the study of Kumar and Kumar (2012), it was observed that the different factors have priority on the decisions of women and men in choosing the Business Administration Department. It has been demonstrated that the most important effect for women is family, while friends, counselors and professors are more effective for men (Kumar & Kumar, 2012). As seen in Table 4, most of the female participants stated that they preferred the Business Administration Department with family guidance, family role modeling or parental influence. However, the result is so similar for men. For this reason, the study confirms part of the previous study.

Table 5 includes open-ended questions asked to the participants. The answers given by the participants were coded according to similar expressions. T The answers to the main questions of the research in Table 5 will be presented and discussed below. It has been observed that the responses of the majority of the participants (60% of the participants) to the first question were generally positive. In the following, there are some selected expressions in which they give reasons for their positive views:

The business administration department has a wide range of departments and our lecturers give examples from business life. **(P3, Female)**

Too much graduation in this field is a disadvantage. But if I improve myself, I can stand out from many of my competitors. **(P6, Female)**

I think the business has a very broad perspective. A business student can easily work in any department they want. In particular, I think that being a graduate of Business Administration in English can make a much more difference in today's conditions, graduate students can be much more successful and attract more attention. **(P4, Female)**

80% is about my education from school, 20% is about my personal effort. We also need to have internship experience for a prestigious job opportunity. We also need to do some studies to improve ourselves. **(P24, Female)**

Table 4. Factors that participants are affected by when choosing the business administration department

Participants	Gender	Personality Type	Reason to Choose the Business Administration Department
P_1	Male	Type B	wide choice alternatives
P_2	Male	Type B	family orientationand and owning a family business
P_3	Female	Type B	guidance of high school teachers
P_4	Female	Type A	wide choice alternatives, being influenced by parents and be appropriate with personal characteristics
P_5	Female	Extreme Type A	wide choice alternatives
P_6	Female	Type A	wide choice alternatives and family orientation
P_7	Female	Type B	wide choice alternatives and family orientation
P_8	Male	Type B	being influenced by parents and owning a family business
P_9	Female	Extreme Type A	being influenced by parents
P_{10}	Female	Type B	owning a family business and being influenced by parents
P_{11}	Male	Type A	being influenced by parents
P_{12}	Male	Type B	wide choice alternatives
P_{13}	Male	Extreme Type A	family orientationand
P_{14}	Female	Extreme Type A	wanting to be a manager and family orientation
P_{15}	Male	Type A	wanting to be a manager and influenced by business people as role models
P_{16}	Female	Type A	owning a family business
P_{17}	Male	Type A	owning a family business and wide choice alternatives
P_{18}	Female	Type A	being influenced by parents as a role model and owning a family business
P_{19}	Female	Type A	parents' occupations and influenced by business people as role models
P_{20}	Male	Type B	wide choice alternatives
P_{21}	Male	Type B	influenced by business people, wanting to be a manager and high income potential
P_{22}	Male	Type A	wanting to be a manager and being influenced by parents as a role model
P_{23}	Female	Type B	being influenced by parents as a role model
P_{24}	Female	Type B	family orientationand
P_{25}	Male	Type A	being influenced by parents as a role model

Source: Prepared by the authors

In order to have certain competencies, I need to have a minimum undergraduate degree. Working as a manager in a technology firm can be considered a prestigious job. For example, in order to work in a managerial position, it is important to receive business education. I think the trainings we have received from marketing to finance are very important. However, in order to be successful, it is necessary to know the dynamics of the country you will work in. I think it is necessary to know and understand the cultures of the geography you will work with and the people you will interact with. **(P25, Male)**

Table 5. Interview questions and coding related to the questions

Interview Questions	Codes
1. Do you think business education will be important in finding a job that will be considered prestigious by the society?	**No, I don't think it will be important (%4)** **Not quite (%36)** **Yes I think it matters (%60)** *-Studying in the English language provides prestigious jobs * (%20)* Total 25 participants (%100)
2. Do you think that having a business education will be beneficial in providing status and high income in business life?	**It will be useful (%68)** *- Provides status but not sure about income (%5,8)* *- It's about improving myself (%47,05)* *- English language education (%17,64)* *- Since business education includes subjects for different fields (%29,41)* **Noncommittal (%4)** **I partially agree (%20)** *- It's about improving myself (%80)* *- Luck/chance factor (%20)* **I don't think it will be useful (%8)** Total 25 participants (%100)
3. Do you think that the Business education you received when you switch to business life will be beneficial in career advancement?	**I think it will be useful (%72)** **I think experience will have an effect, not education (%16)** **Education has an impact; but I think other factors are also important (%12)** *- Seminars, trainings, network (%33,33)* *- Postgraduate education (%33,33)* *- Experience etc. (%33,33)* Total 25 participants (%100)

* Apart from the answer given by 3 of the participants, they emphasized that studying in English will help to provide a prestigious job.
Source: Prepared by the authors

In the following are some selected expressions about the reasons for giving this answer (36%) of participants who answered the same question "not really, I don't think it will be very useful":

Generally, companies look at experience. They also look at talent. **(P8, Male)**

The business major just isn't enough, too many students of the business administration department. A person's knowledge and perseverance are important in what they add to themselves. **(P19, Female)**

Business education alone is not enough, it is directly proportional to how many different things a person can add to himself. 70% Education, 30% self-improvement, communication with other people is important. **(P21, Male)**

I don't think I can get a prestigious job as a direct business graduate. But I think I can gain the necessary qualifications to get that job by studying business administration. **(P20, Male)**

I think it depends on the University where you study business. I think the business administration department is not a very prestigious department in general. It can be a section that too many students sometimes choose when they are indecisive, without thinking too much about it. **(P10, Female)**

The answers that represent the answer "not really" above, the participants think that factors such as skills, abilities, and experience will be at the forefront rather than business education. In addition, a participant who thought that business education would not be important in finding a job that would be considered prestigious by the society answered as follows. It can be said that experience and skills come to the fore with his answer. From this point, it can be concluded that the most of students consider the business education important is important in owning a prestigious job, but at the same time, experience, abilities and self-improvement are also inevitable. And the negative answer given by a participant to the first question is given below.

Education and real business life are quite different things. They want more realistic things than what we've learned. We take lessons theoretically, but we can't reflect them into work. The information is not application-oriented, practical. **(P2, Male)**

For the second question, "Do you think that having a business education will be beneficial in providing status and high income in business life?" has been asked. The majority of participants (68%) thought it would be beneficial. 5 students (20% of participants) stated that they partially participated. 2 students (8% of participants) think that having a business education will not be beneficial in providing status and high income in business life. And one student abstained. Firstly, the answers selected from the participants who said "I think it will be useful" are given below:

Since the business administration department is a very large area, it is possible to rise in status. It provides status, but I'm not sure about high income. Regardless of the higher the status, the salary can usually be at a certain level. I don't think the salary goes at the same rate as the status. But it may differ from country to country. But as a result, the business administration department is a very competitive field and there are a lot of business graduates. Status and high income do not come just because I graduated. I can earn status and high income by being really good in the field. **(P5, Female)**

The Department of Business Administration, which has a more comprehensive education process than other undergraduate departments, and is a department in which knowledge and experience are more accessible in general. I believe that it will enable me to be more successful and progress in business life. **(P19, Female)**

All of our courses in business education are in the field of management. Whatever job you do, is the most important vehicle management skill that can lead to high income and prestige. Status and a high-paying job can be achieved as long as management skills develop. **(P15, Male)**

…In fact, studying in English puts you one step ahead of other Business graduates. **(P16, Female)**

Commuting to and from school and getting high grades is not enough in today's conditions. In high proportion (70%), education is important, while (30%) one's own efforts are also very important. **(P24, Female)**

While the participants think that business education will provide status and high income, the reasons for this are mostly due to the fact that business education includes information about various fields and to receive education in English. They also emphasized the importance of developing oneself in various ways. Among those who answered the same question "partially agree", below are some of the selected statements:

People are interested in how many languages you speak, they care about issues such as whether you can sell a product or come up with an idea. So now they want something practical, not information. **(P8, Male)**

Not everyone looks to education to get a prestigious job. Nobody has ever said "What lessons did you take, let's see them .." . I think experience, language, self-confidence are important for status and high income… Business education is a small part of the process. **(P14, Female)**

You don't need to have a lot of knowledge for high earnings. I think it's also a bit of luck. If I rate it, I think that education (50%), self-improvement (20%) and chance/luck factor (30%) are effective. **(P21, Male)**

Participants who partially agree that business education is important for high income and status emphasized that factors such as knowing a foreign language, experience and self-confidence are more important. These factors are specific to the individual and can be controlled by the individual. In addition, it was stated by the participants that the chance/luck factor is also important in this regard. Chance/luck factor is a factor that is independent of the individual and cannot be controlled by the individual. In this respect, it would not be wrong to say that status and high income can be shaped both depending on and independent of the individual, according to the opinions of the participants. An expression that thinks that the status and high income are entirely dependent on the individual and that business education will not be beneficial in this regard is given below.

I am a person who thinks that status and high income are completely dependent on the person. It has an impact on the parts of the study, but it is really that most high school graduates come to high-status places and make a lot of money. I think it's a little bit about the person himself. **(P4, Female)**

As the last question, "Do you think that the Business education you received when you switch to business life will be beneficial in career advancement?" asked the participants. The majority of participants think it will be useful (72%) and a smaller proportion (16%) think it will not be useful. 3 students (12% of participants) believe that education has an effect, but other factors are also important. In the following, there are some selected expressions in which they give reasons for their positive views:

Actually, before we start a university, we sign up for a school-based on your career. We're setting a target before we start university. In line with that goal, we choose a department that we think will have an impact on the career of that department. Therefore, I can say that the training is effective at 70%. ...Business education opens the door for us to establish a network. Seminars organized at the university and online trainings that we receive from foreign universities are also effective in our development. **(P5, Female)**

We learn a lot in the business administration department. for example Marketing, finance. When we come to the last year, it is up to us to choose. Therefore, I think it is a very seminal branch. The diploma has an impact on this. **(P6, Female)**

Sometimes we hear a sentence in class that we never forget, and it can appear suddenly one day. Thanks to the diversity of the courses we take, we we can attend master programs in so many areas that this will certainly work in more than one place in the future. For example, one of our teachers hosts someone from business life in his lesson. How do I know that I will not meet that person in the future? I think studying Business Administration will have great advantages for the future. **(P4, Female)**

We learn a lot of management based lessons. I also learned how to be social and how to connect with people in business life. For example, working in clubs is very important and helpful in these matters. **(P12, Male)**

Choices somehow guide people's careers. I think those preferences will be beneficial as they will be shaped by the education we receive. The lessons, the content of the lessons, the quality and close interest of the lecturers are important. **(P13, Male)**

The scope of the business is very wide. It can range from accounting to Human Resources. If I want to work in a company, I can concentrate on the branch I choose (R&D, sales, marketing, etc.). Apart from that, I can start my own business because I will have enough business knowledge to do this. For example about what is important to a company, what is required. **(P14, Female)**

I think like this: To become a manager, you first need to know what the people you will manage are doing, so that you can give them the right directions and have the right expectations. my undergraduate education will enable me to climb the steps on my career path to management much faster. Because first of all, I can learn and apply more quickly than a non-business person with a bachelor's degree education, and I can progress in these career steps much faster. **(P25, Male)**

When the answers of the participants are examined, it is seen that they perceive and define the business administration department as a department that provides a network, includes a wide variety of fields, creates great advantages for business life, teaches how to be a social person and enables the skills to understand others. According to an article published in Forbes (2017), it is stated that business education is an excellent foundation for a career, but there are some important points to turn this education into a good career. In the article, it is stated that points such as networking, focusing on a feature that makes a difference, developing skills and being patient are important, and it is seen that the participants whose comments are given below support the answers. On the other hand, the selected expressions given by the participants who think that the experience will be more effevtive than the education, not the education, are as follows:

I think 25% of career advancement is business education. The rest is purely experience. I think career advancement can be possible with experience. I may even have said a lot about the rate I give to business education. ... Business training alone makes me just one staff member in an ordinary firm. I stay at the level of staff, I can't even become an expert. **(P14, Female)**

We are dealing with the theoretical part of the work right now. After putting these theories into practice, I will decide which field I am good at. Of course, self-improvement is very important in this regard. **(P6, Female)**

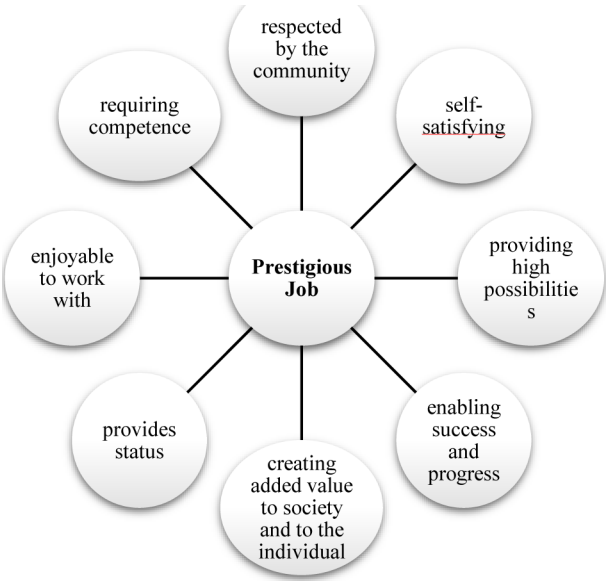
The explanations given by those who think that education has an effect but other factors are also important are given below.

The main thing here is practice. For example, the theoretical knowledge I learned in the department in managing the process or solving a problem while working in a workplace is very useful for me and contributes a lot to the development in my career. But I think it's more important to practice. It depends largely on one's self-improvement. **(P16, Female)**

Business education be useful, but I still don't think I will go too far with a single undergraduate education. For example, I don't think I can be a CEO. My business education helps me become the mostly department manager in terms of career progression. But for me to move forward, I have to improve myself. for example I need a postgraduate education. Or you need to work in different fields and increase your knowledge and experience. **(P8, Male)**

According to the progress of the interviews, the participants were asked one more question about "prestigious job" related to the first question. During the interviews, the participants were also asked what "prestigious job" meant to them and what they understood from "prestigious job". All of the participants expressed their thoughts on "prestigious job" using similar expressions and the statements were coded under certain headings as follows. While some of the business students' perspectives on "prestigious job" are completely geared towards society, the other part perceived it as completely individual.

Figure 1. Prestigious job codes
Source: Prepared by the authors



When asked whether it would make a difference in their perspective on business education if they were studying Business Administration at one of the most prestigious universities around the world, their views were divided into two: *those who believe the label and University name is important* and *those who believe that the name of the university is unimportant that the candidate will make a difference*. Some of the participants who believe that the name of the university and the label are important are as follows.

I believe the label is very important. Looking at the recruitment sites of some businesses, some universities do not even exist in the university pool. **(P3, Female)**

Anyone can read the business branch. When they graduate, everyone is equal in a way. But learning foreign languages, participating in certificate programs, and working places are definitely very important. It is possible to rise to the level of graduates from prestigious universities by participating in different things. But on the other hand, if the person does not improve will definitely be behind to the others. **(P9, Female)**

I do not consider the graduates of the business administration departments of prestigious universities to be superior. but people have a perception and certain stereotyped thoughts. **(P18, Female)**

I think companies can evaluate candidates from prestigious universities differently as a preference. Because universities are more difficult to enter or because they accept students with higher scores. Therefore, there may be a bias. I think this is wrong. Because a different candidate may have improved himself a lot. It can add a lot to the business. But I think the name of the university has a huge impact on most people. **(P10, Female)**

I think it makes a difference. Because I think the education offered by prestigious universities will make a difference. I also think that the diversity of the social environment they offer along with the education and the activeness of the students will make a difference. **(P7, Female)**

Considering the answers given, although the individual opinion of the majority is that the label is not important, there is a perception by the society that the label is important and that the business graduates of prestigious universities can be treated differently. Some of the participants who believe that the name of the university is unimportant that the candidate will make a difference are as follows.

Of course, education is important, but the person receiving the training is also important. The main thing is how that training is used. This depends on the person conducting the Interview. It doesn't matter where the university is, if it cares more about self-improvement than prestige. **(P12, Male)**

This situation is very related to the interviewer. It is very effective if the university names the university names instead of putting the personality traits of the incoming person in the foreground. But if he/she thinks that the important thing is the quality of the candidate who comes to the interview, I think the university names and the label are not important. **(P15, Male)**

I think it is more important for the candidates to improve themselves. I know from the interviews I have participated in. Mentioning your work experience and the tasks you have taken in the interview neces-

sarily changes the mind of the other party. If I was an employer, I would be affected by this. Candidate's grammar, self-expression, etc.. **(P20, Male)**

University can make a difference on CV at first. The candidate from the prestigious university has a high level of academic knowledge but cannot adopt this into practice. The candidate who graduates from the other university has the same knowledge and can put it into practice. At this point, the name of the university and the label are no longer important. Human relations, practical intelligence, working quickly, working under pressure, self-control, stress management, foreign language knowledge, internships are very important. **(P21, Male)**

When looking at the answers above, the participants think that the name of the university and the label are not important and that the candidate can make a difference. It emphasizes that the individual perceptions of the participants are that the label is insignificant, while the university name/label is completely based on the perception of the interviewer/recruiter. From this point of view, it can be concluded that there is no difference between the business education of very prestigious universities and other universities, they only deal with the "individual". In addition, as can be seen in the explanations of the participants above, the individuals who think that the name of the university and the label are important are mostly women, while the participants who think that the university name and label will not make a difference are mostly male.

It is claimed that the career expectations and job opportunities of the students are effective in the selection of the department (Roach et al., 2012). Most of the participants think that business administration education will support their career development. Besides this, they also stated that the experienced professors, the diverse courses, content of the curriculum, work or internship experiences, and additional training programs such as MBA, workshops, and seminars are effective for career development. Therefore, based on these thoughts management team of the business administration department should try to build more close cooperation with the business life actors while developing the curriculum, arranging the content of the courses. They may also invite more professionals at different positions from different sectors and departments to some courses, seminars in order to develop students' business life vision and to guide their career choices. Taking an active role in such activities as a student is considered very important in the careers of students. According to an article published in Forbes (2020) magazine, academic excellence, extracurricular leaders, innate potential, and personal leadership are seen as qualities that make a difference. Skill and career development workshops, mentorship program, a discussion group, and community bonding activities that can be done by students will make a difference in their careers.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study is an initial study. In future studies, increasing the number of participants, conducting the research in the Business Administration departments of universities in different countries and using the quantitative method in addition to the qualitative method will be beneficial to gather more comprehensive and comparative results.

CONCLUSION

This study aims to reveal the personality types and motivating factors that affect the choice of business administration department. The factors that motivate business life were examined under three headings: professional prestige/status, earning potential, and potential for professional advancement. For this purpose, personality and motivating factors for business life were preferred in the study, and the factors that motivate business life were examined under three headings: professional prestige/status, earning potential, and potential for professional advancement.

Most of the participants stated that they were affected by their families in various ways in their choice of business administration department. The participants stated that they chose the Business Administration Department for the reasons such as family guidance, role models of family members (mother, father, or close relative), and the effect of the family members' professions. Some studies in the literature (Zhang, 2007; Calkins & Welki, 2006; Liao & Ji, 2015; Roach et al., 2012; Leppel et al., 2001) support this result. Most of the male and female participants stated that they preferred the Business Administration Department with family guidance, family role models or parental influence.

25 participants stated that they would like to work in business life, and they preferred the department related to 57 business majors. Marketing, sales and human resources departments are the most preferred departments by the participants. Although the participants prefer a different department as their first choice, their other preferences usually include marketing. The majority of participants close to the type A personality stated that they were considering choosing the marketing department. On the other hand, most of the participants close to type B personality stated that they would prefer marketing, human resources, and sales departments. But according to previous studies, it has been determined that the students of the business administration department are more extroverted individuals (Balsamo et al., 2012; Humburg, 2017). On the other hand, most of the participants close to type B personality stated that they would prefer marketing, human resources, and sales departments. But according to previous studies, it has been determined that the students of the business administration department are more extroverted individuals. On the other hand, in further studies, this result may change with more participants and by using the different personality type scales.

Participants define a prestigious job as a job that is respected by society, self-satisfied, provides high opportunities, success, and advancement, and requires competence. According to the majority of the participants, business administration education will be important to find a job that will be considered prestigious by society.

Most of the participants think that having business administration education will be beneficial in providing status and high income in business life. They also think that studying in the English language, self-development efforts, and learning about the different fields that are included in business administration education provide these benefits too.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Business Administration Education: It's a kind of university-level education that provides both theoretical and practical knowledge about the functions required in the management of businesses.

Career: It consists of the experiences and titles that the person has throughout working life.

Personality: It is all the characteristics, behaviors, and habits that distinguish a person from other people.

Prestige: It can be described as "respectability", which can be evaluated at an individual or social level.

Status: It is about how the individual perceives herself/himself in society and how she/he is perceived by society and includes the roles she/he has.

Type A Personality: They are hasty individuals, tend to do more than one job at the same time, are competitive and impatient, and have a high level of stress/anxiety.

Type B Personality: They are individuals who do not feel pressure, are less competitive, calm, empathetic, and flexible.

Chapter 11
Student Perspectives on Business Education in the USA:
Current Attitudes and Necessary Changes in an Age of Disruption

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ABSTRACT

This chapter examines the academic and personal trajectory a student takes from before they ever set a foot on campus to beyond a college degree. By first assessing the private vs. public school dynamics in Southern California, the author documents the ways in which these systems are a reaction to the American college system, and how the prevailing psyche around college as being an ultimate end for students and their parents plays out. Reflecting on personal choices and circumstances unique to the individual yields a variety of challenges and benefits posed by pursuing a college degree, all of which influence what to study and where to pursue it. Influences range from relative income to geographical location and parental occupation. Through an examination of these elements, the relative importance and weight of a college degree in light of developments accelerated by the COVID-19 pandemic leaves the collegiate system and the students who are at the center of it in an unparalleled position.

INTRODUCTION

It is the job of higher education to constantly be reacting to the disruption around it, as socioeconomic dynamics and trends push and pull at the status quo. The COVID-19 pandemic has increased the level of this disruption, but the task of students and professors has not changed, it just looks a little different. As a student still in the foundational stages of pursuing a degree, the theatrical visions of a traditional college experience were dismantled as the months of remote learning passed by. This isn't to say that the experience has been a solely negative one. In fact, being a college student in an age of disruption provides the unique opportunity to start anew and do it all again wherever that new start point is. It is

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important to understand what the higher education landscape looked like pre-pandemic, what has stayed the same and what has changed, and what areas should be focused on to ensure the prosperity of the collegiate system for all stakeholders. This chapter aims to provide a unique perspective from inside the heart of higher education in the U.S., focusing on a business education, from the day applications come out to graduation four years later.

PRIVATE VS. PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

National Psyche and Historical Development

The national psyche surrounding the preeminence of U.S. colleges and universities is a largely unspoken, but accepted mindset. The necessity of obtaining a degree to ensure employability is an expectation in select social strata, and higher education is seen as an ultimate means in achieving this goal. This being said, these attitudes aren't as steadfast as they maybe once were, as exponents of U.S. higher education exceptionalism are prideful but hardly complacent. They recognize deficiencies in this vaunted system. Their celebratory statements are modulated by concerns about growing challenges and threats to its standing. The narratives convey worries about domestic trends and intense competition from overseas institutions and governments, which seek the economic advantages and prestige that strong universities can confer (Mittelman 2018). Evidently, this wavering position is reflective not only of increased potential of international institutions, but the "domestic trends" mentioned stem from a variety of societal and political dynamics that need to be examined.

Higher education can be viewed through a variety of lenses in Southern California that circle back to a sense of duty on the part of the student, and it is important to gain a sense of perspective before assessing these attitudes. An underlying culture that views college as an ultimate marker of success is drilled into student's minds from a young age in some areas more than others. Pasadena is a sprawling superb 20 minutes north of downtown Los Angeles, where the private school system is a mini-biosphere for college-preparedness. Colloquially, Pasadena acts as an umbrella term that includes several smaller cities in the surrounding areas in which there are over 50 private elementary, middle, and high schools (Niche, 2021). In spite of having some of the highest rated public high schools in the surrounding cities of La Cañada and San Marino, a distinct separation between public and private education perpetuates in Pasadena.

This is traceable back to bussing policies that began in the 1970s in an attempt to reintegrate schools. In 1954, the U.S. Supreme Court declared racial segregation in public schools unconstitutional. In the 1970s and 1980s, and under federal court supervision, many school districts started implementing mandatory busing plans within their district (Elachem, 2019). Pasadena was a nation-wide vanguard for racial equality in the classroom, but support was not unanimous. Parents who opposed the scheme--and were able to afford it--began sending their children to private schools, and as buses started taking fewer and fewer of the privileged children, generally white at the time. This gradually showed that the bussing system ended up bussing less fortunate families, blacks, Hispanics and other minorities, causing the plan to contradict its purpose and continue the segregation in the area rather than improve and integrate it (Elachem, 2019). This trend developed over time. The public school system in Pasadena statistically falters by comparison to neighboring cities, as of the 21 public schools within Pasadena

Unified School District (PUSD), 11 score four or below out of a possible ten (with ten being the highest and one being the lowest). Three are given five out of ten, and seven are given a six or higher (Ogilvie, 2019). Evidently, this chasm has been widening for several decades and has developed to a point where stark cultural differences between the two systems formed.

Experiences from Inside the System

Speaking to an existence inside the private school system, it can be argued that a child's journey to college begins at the age of five, if not before. While the rigidity of the public versus private comparison is not so prevalent in pre-kindergarten, there are several of these schools and nurseries that tend to feed into the larger private system.

The first-time students and their parents are exposed to application processes and interviews, is right after preschool. These application processes are by no means as comprehensive as what is seen in the Common Application, but it nonetheless gives students and parents a taste of what is to come. Should they be accepted, students typically attend joint elementary and middle schools dotted around the city. A loose coalition "Prep League," binds these K-12 schools together, with sporting events and school dances are ways in which the insularity of the private school system maintains itself. While these schools pool students from a variety of areas, the lines between public and private education are fully drawn here.

The application process is repeated when it comes time for students to enter high school. Test prep classes, books, and tutors are utilized by most students to ensure entry into the top local high schools. In many ways, the test prep process for high school is more intense and time consuming than for college. Different high schools require different tests that require separate preparation. Moreover, high schools look at the location where the test was administered, and student's chances are improved by taking the entrance exam at the school they are applying to as opposed to sending the scores into them. Other requirements such as recommendation letters and interviews are the next steps before students ultimately find out where they get in.

There is an expectation in attending one of these private K-12 schools that a student will apply to, and ultimately select a private high school. High school admissions are used as a metric of success, so encouragement by faculty and staff to test well and get into the top schools is emphasized. This is by no means unique to the private system, and these kinds of incentives are prevalent in public schools, but the ways in which acceptance into high school is discussed with such intensity makes its way down into the student psyche. A sense of competition or even jealousy can be unsavory by products of putting this kind of weight on the shoulders of 13- and 14-year-olds. The private school landscape is then redefined upon entrance into high school. Students from both private and public schools from farther ranging schools outside Pasadena are thrown together into a similar but less defined coalition of high schools. Religious affiliations and gender separation (or lack thereof) yield a variety of schools with a variety of cultures. Much in the same way students will come to find the collegiate institution that is "the right fit," eighth graders make a similar decision years earlier.

The repetition of this process to get into high school truly normalizes the intensity and apparent gravity of college applications. In the same ways acceptance into private high schools is the expectation in middle school, acceptance into a four-year degree program is the expectation upon the completion of high school. This is all to underscore that by the time these same students enter their senior year of high school, they are well versed in how this kind of process works and what it brings out of people.

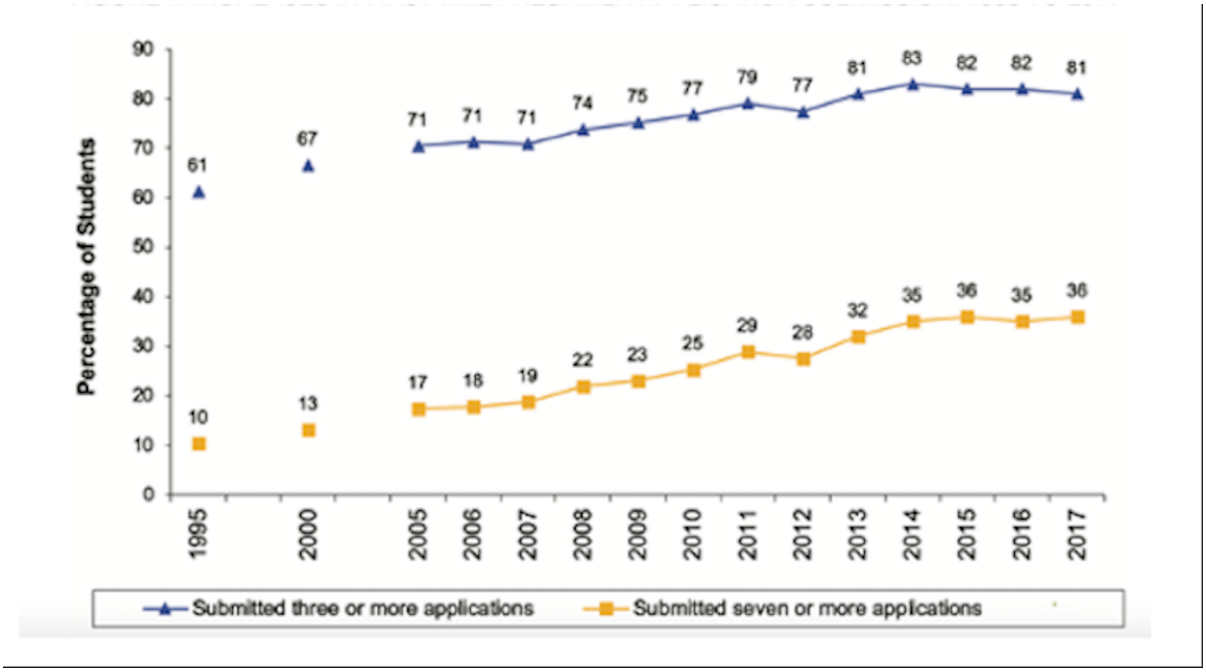
Flintridge Preparatory School is a private college preparatory high school located in La Cañada Flintridge, CA, a neighboring city to Pasadena. According to Niche, an independent assessment body, Flintridge Prep ranks as the second best private high school in the Los Angeles area and seventh in California (Niche, 2019). The metrics used are SAT/ACT scores, the quality of colleges that students consider, student-teacher ratio, private school ratings, and several other factors. While these rankings do not necessarily hold the same weight as annual college rankings, the popular importance of these statistics play into the prevailing culture surrounding these institutions.

In much the same way students are highly encouraged in middle school to take the necessary steps to ensure high school acceptance. Students at Flintridge Prep are given the same incentives. While faculty and staff avoid being explicit about rankings, test scores, or GPA's, students are acutely aware that the school's credibility lies on student's shoulders to a certain extent. The same culture that exists in middle school is essentially kicked up a gear in high school.

Such metrics are often decried as unimportant, but there is an expectation that each and every student take at least some Advanced Placement (AP) courses, partake in extracurricular activities, and be actively involved on campus and in the community. These additional expectations are in conjunction with rigorous academics as a baseline expectation.

It is important to point out however that as much as this may be a specific school culture, the motivation for pushing students in this way is a reflection of the ever-increasing competition for limited spots at these institutions. The line chart in figure 1 from the National Association for College Admission Counseling (NACAC) reflects this trend, and the subsequent implication for students.

Figure 1. Increases in first-time freshmen application submission from 1995-2017
Source: Clinedinst, 2019



Matters have only been complicated by the COVID-19 pandemic which saw standardized testing largely cancelled. Some schools, such as the entire UC system, have decided to eradicate the need for SAT or ACT testing altogether, with no plans to create their own assessments (Burke, 2021). While there are other factors at play, this is a part of the continually changing landscape surrounding college admissions which takes away the already limited sense of control students have over the entire process.

This corner of Southern California serves as an example of how the U.S. college system trickles down as far as preschool. The public versus private dynamic developed out of more than just this, but the entire psyche existing in this biosphere has spawned out of a necessity to ensure success later on. While it is easy to harp on the negative aspects of this culture, the ultimate goal is excellency. The system does favour students of certain socioeconomic backgrounds, but nonetheless it provides a framework in which individuals can excel and work toward an ultimate goal. Moreover, it is not as if these systems spawned out of nothing; they are a reaction to the intensity of the U.S. collegiate system.

It is important to point out that a lot of personal sacrifice on behalf of both parents and students is involved in attending these private schools and losing sight of what they have to offer would be doing a disservice. While acceptance into a four-year institution is viewed as an ultimate end, the long hours of studying, testing, and participation in extracurriculars facilitate a certain "group-identity" amongst students. These shared experiences develop a sense of community that comes as a result of collaboration. As someone who experienced these dynamics firsthand, the opportunity to explore a variety of interests knowing that there were resources available to help reach these goals should not be overlooked. Attending university is by no means a guarantee, so it is important to maintain perspective on what these opportunities bring.

PERSONAL CHOICES AND DEVELOPMENT AFTER HIGH SCHOOL

As stated previously, the expectation that a student would apply and hopefully receive acceptance into college is the norm. In this way, other non-college alternatives never enter the conversation as a viable option, at least not personally. While other, non-college alternatives may not have been a realistic path to take, personal growth can exist in a variety of ways not solely limited to attending college. An interesting question to consider is whether or not the "traditional" college campus really is the best place to witness this growth. Is the "college experience" a tangible developmental stage in someone's life or a societal construct? Maybe both? Experiences such as backpacking, missionary work, community service, or other immersive programs and activities can maintain elements for personal development to an extent that equals or maybe even exceeds what going to college can do for some individuals, but it comes down to personal choice.

After the cinematics of high school graduation come to a close, the dawn of move-in day begins to glow. Now comes the actual realization of four years of hard work. Choosing to attend a university in Los Angeles was in-part due to the practicality of remaining in a city aptly suited to career aspirations, but also because of the insecurity of leaving familiarity behind. This geographical familiarity also takes some pressure off the adjustment period and does act as a "safety-net" if and when needed, especially in those first few weeks. Since then, a great deal of personal growth and development has taken place, but this security was definitely a factor in providing the confidence to explore new things.

When thinking about students whose freshman college experience was stripped from them, what the semester and a half on campus provided does come into focus. This is the first time in one's life when one is able to leave the home and cultivate a personal sense of livable identity. Living with complete strangers is part of a process of learning about oneself through others, what they do, how they act and react, and their outlook on things. This will be expanded on later, but this all plays into the expectations and realities of attending college.

WHY A BUSINESS EDUCATION?

Parental Influences

Parental influence is what ultimately led to the decision to pursue a business education. A 2017 study by the New York Times shows that children often pursue their parents' jobs because of the breakfast-table effect: Family conversations influence them. They fuel interests or teach children what less commonly understood careers entail (probably one reason textile spinning, and shoemaking are high on the list of jobs disproportionately passed on to children). In interviews, people who followed their parents' career paths described it as speaking the same language The bar chart in figure 2 depicts this correlation.

Figure 2. Parental influences on career choices
Source: Bui & Miller, 2017

Having two parents who studied accounting, the "grown-up" conversations at dinner largely revolved around what they were doing in the office. They both have had successful careers, specializing in areas of accounting they both love. When the people raising and ultimately guiding a child to college commit their educational and professional lives to one thing, the tendency to follow in their footsteps comes as no surprise.

Another element at play is the popular attitudes toward chosen academic pathways. Through personal experience in high school and even before, there was a general belief that pursuing a collegiate education in STEM was viewed as more laudable than one in the liberal arts system. A 2020 study by the National Association of Colleges and Employers paints a clearer picture as to why these perceptions persist, and the data in table 1 documents this.

Table 1. Average salaries by bachelor's degree

BROAD CATEGORY	2020 SALARY PROJECTION	2019 SALARY PROJECTION	% CHANGE
Engineering	$69,961	$69,188	1.1%
Computer Science	$67,411	$67,539	-0.2%
Math & Sciences	$62,488	$62,177	0.5%
Business	$57,939	$57,657	0.5%
Social Sciences	$57,425	$57,310	0.2%
Communications	$56,484	$52,056	8.5%
Humanities	$53,617	$56,651	-5.4%
Agriculture & Natural Resources	$53,504	$55,750	-4.0%

Source: National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2020

While this table uses a relatively broad brush, it nonetheless underscores the emphasis placed on students to choose a major in STEM as opposed to humanities; the return on investment is simply higher. This kind of pressure was not felt personally, these figures support the mindset that studying solely within the domain of liberal arts would not lead to a sustainable career. While studying within the domain of STEM was something that was never seriously considered, sincere interest in the subject matter of business was a key factor in deciding to pursue a B.B.A.

Selecting a Specific Program

The decision on where to pursue a business education was the next step, but the decision of what to study can be just as difficult and confusing as where to study. Loyola Marymount University (LMU) is a private Jesuit university in Westchester, CA, a smaller city in the larger Los Angeles Metropolitan area. LMU is a synergy of interests, as its well-ranking business school and dedication to a liberal arts education catered to personal interests most holistically. This conjunction of business with humanities-based classes was a unique opportunity that kept doors open for a career rooted in a business education but with opportunities in other areas.

Admittance into the business school at LMU allows students to choose a major under the larger umbrella of "business", with the opportunity to take a variety of courses in other areas. Marketing is the specific area of study currently being pursued, and while this was a largely unknown topic beforehand, previous coursework in psychology illuminated marketing as an intersection of interests. This process of specialization within the sphere of business is something all students have the opportunity to pursue, marketing more so than others. LMU offers a series of marketing concentrations, allowing students to

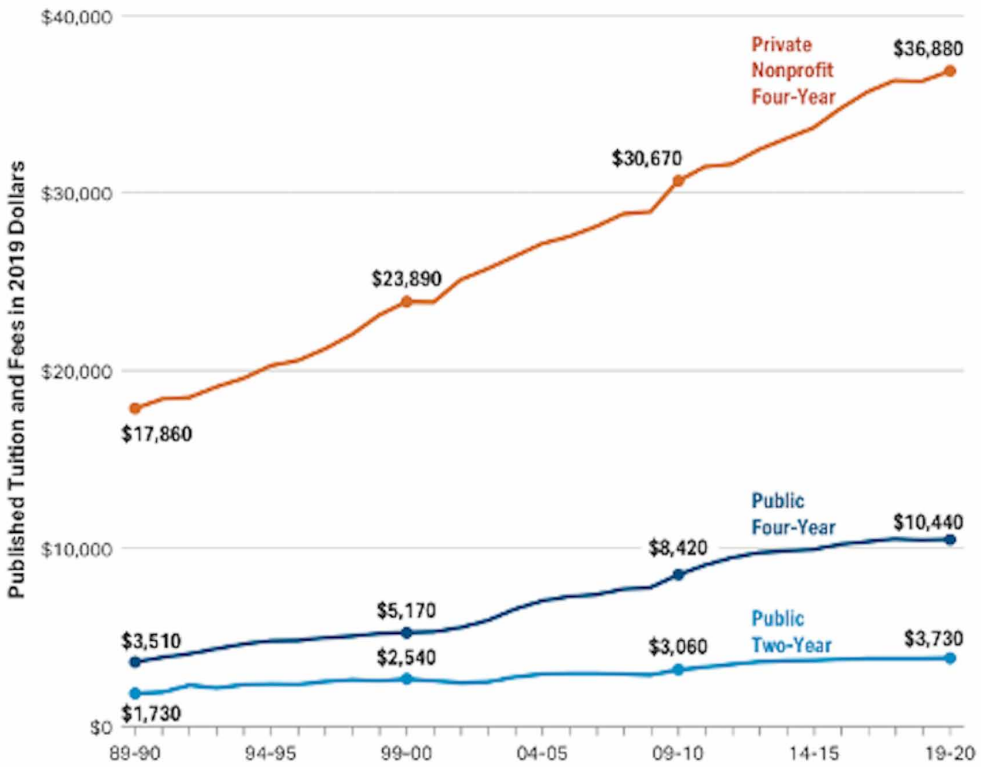
further tailor their academic interests. Taking courses in the Applied Learning in Societal Transformation assesses how cultural dynamics influence marketing behavior and how we as marketers can influence and direct them based on personal goals. This concentration opens the door to a variety of classes on a variety of topics best suited to ultimate career aspirations of working in the entertainment or sports industries. This process of exploring interests to forge a coursework pathway based on personal interests and aspirations is definitely a unique opportunity that is best utilized through time and dedication.

COST/BENEFIT ANALYSIS IN ATTENDING BUSINESS SCHOOL

Costs and Risks

One of the largest risks involved in making the decision to go to college is the financial burden taken upon enrollment. The thousands of dollars spent on tuition, loans taken out, time taken to obtain a degree, and missed income from not working full time can be a heavy weight during a student's four years. The line chart in figure 3 from College Board (Baum et al., 2021) visualizes the ever-increasing tuition and fees for both private and public institutions (in 2019 dollars) over time.

Figure 3. Averaged published tuition and fees in 2019 dollars
Source: Baume et al., 2019



It is important to point out that in spite of these upward trajectories, the increases in the net prices that students actually pay, after taking grant aid and tax benefits into consideration, have been smaller over the long term than increases in published prices (College Board, 2019). As of the 2018-19 school year, the average total cost (room and board included) for 4-year public institutions was $18,383 according to the National Center for Education Statistics, while average private school tuition was $44,306 (2019). As a private school in Southern California, LMU's tuition rates for the 2020-2021 school year are upwards of $60,000 (LMU, 2020). Even with financial aid or merit awards, this figure is higher than national averages. This impact comes down to a cost-benefit analysis based on specific financial situations, and while there are resources in place to help students with their tuition, the incredibly high price of attending college in the United States, especially in the private school system is something that needs to be addressed.

Students maintain their own expectations, many of which are being uprooted in light of increased digitization within the fourth industrial revolution, and the speed with which these developments occur only increasing with the COVID-19 pandemic. This has brought on more intensity to what college students already see as a large risk: being unable to get a job upon graduation. In January of 2021, the Labor Department reported that the unemployment rate for people aged 16-24 was 11.5% nearly double the 6.7% seen for the rest of the workforce (2021). This is a risk faced by any student as they seek to become financially independent, and it is important not to forget the array of opportunities provided by what many consider to be the "necessity" of a college degree. In this sense, this risk is inherent regardless of the decision to attend university or not, and in light of current outlooks, that risk is increased, at least temporarily. The weight a college degree holds should neither be underestimated nor forgotten.

In the context of the oncoming fourth industrial revolution, the fusions of digital and physical realms are by no means limited to a change in discourse surrounding education. The ever-increasing fear of "automation" of many jobs, skilled or unskilled, is pushing many individuals to take their education further in an attempt to maintain job security. A discussion on the real-world impact of technologies such as AI and myriad more putting jobs "at risk" is complex, but the reaction to these trends is relatively simple: students now feel they have to do more.

Beyond a Bachelor's Degree

There is no doubt that a bachelor's degree opens many doors, but people are finding more and more of those handles won't budge with one degree alone. According to the US Census Bureau, since 2000, the number of people aged 25 and over whose highest degree was a master's has doubled to 21 million. The number of doctoral degree holders has more than doubled to 4.5 million (2019). Many companies now offer to fund master's degrees (at least partially) as an employee begins their time with the company. Harboring some professional experience prior to beginning the degree can be very beneficial, as the perspective gained from even a few years in a position can provide insight that the classroom alone cannot. This again comes down to an opportunity cost analysis but taking more time to get that master's degree does not necessarily require as much sacrifice as one may think. Some students choose to pursue a more advanced degree even earlier, as many universities now offer "4 + 1" programs in which students can get a head start on their master's degree before graduation and can earn it in just five years, and the attractiveness of this program is increasing, ever more so in the COVID-19 landscape.

Katrina Lopez is a recently graduated senior at Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute who began her undergraduate career in the autumn of 2018. Studying Information Technology and Web Science with a concentration in Management Information Systems, Lopez was on track for a four-year graduation before the pandemic hit. In a college system in which students find themselves taking general education courses for their first few semesters on campus, Lopez utilized the AP tests as a means to circumvent extra time in the classroom. In March of last year, she made the decision to graduate early and jumped on the opportunity to take summer classes (K. Lopez, May 4, 2021). In Lopez's view, spending time taking classes online rather than entering the workforce and earning money simply was not a worthy exchange.

With tuition figures still increasing despite virtual instruction, this appeal of "getting in and getting out" is magnified. Lopez turned RPI's "4 + 1" program into a "3 + 1" by taking classes throughout the summer and even during Christmas break. She left as a sophomore and will be returning to campus with a B.S in the autumn of 2021 where she will pursue a M.S. Information Technology with concentration in Web Science, aiming to work for IBM upon completion. Lopez serves as a key example of what students and their families give up in dedicating resources to pursue a higher education, as well as what a nontraditional journey to receiving a degree looks like in a COVID and post-COVID world. This time has shown us that the traditional rigidity of the "college experience" is by no means the only way of going about things, let alone the most efficient or economical.

Lopez serves as a prime example of how the perceived benefits, costs and risks associated with attending college are not only based on personal circumstances, but also how they can, and ultimately have changed for so many students.

Benefits of Attending University

It is important to reemphasize the wide range of benefits that come with pursuing a college degree, professionally or otherwise. At the risk of sounding cliché, deciding to go to college is one of the most impactful decisions an individual will ever make; it will quite literally change the course of one's life. The benefits in going to college are exponential in theory, but it is coming to recognize those benefits and what is ultimately done with them are the most important things.

The interpersonal connections made with classmates, teammates, professors, or anyone else on campus are the single largest benefit in attending college. The sheer variety of individuals on a college campus, and most importantly endless ways to connect with them, is unique and no other environment maintains these possibilities as does university. It is the hope for everyone that deciding to go to college opens up a unique door into fostering relationships in an environment unlike any other. Meeting someone in a class or in the dining hall may lead to nothing, but it could lead to them being a familiar face on campus, a friend, a mentor, or even a life partner. The benefits are everywhere, it is about recognizing and harboring that potential.

Taking a more pragmatic approach to this, professors and other individuals on campus can be part of a larger network of individuals who can ultimately be career shaping. Alumni networks are important factors in deciding where to go to school and what to study. Professors repeatedly emphasize the importance of "maintaining your network," and while this may seem like a formalized process, this can be as simple as speaking to a professor at their office hours every week.

There are other key benefits as well. The development of the intellect inside the classroom through a wide range of courses, discussions with professors, and activities outside the classroom make college campuses a hub for innovative thinking. This innovation allows for personal investigation into areas of interest in a way and with resources that would not be available to the same extent elsewhere.

THE POWER OF A COLLEGE DEGREE: THE IMPACT OF COVID-19

In the months following the initial closure of college campuses across the globe as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, students began to reassess the costs and benefits of continuing on the same academic trajectory. As discussions about a return to campus slowly turned pessimistic, as the reality of a virtual semester became more obvious, and for many students, the prospect of further online instruction was undesirable. According to the UN, At least 24 million students could drop out of school due to the coronavirus pandemic (Feuer, 2020). The prospect of halting an academic pathway that continuously builds on itself was not ideal. Operating under the assumption that normal instruction would resume for the spring semester, adapting to the changes wrought by remote learning was bearable for the autumn semester, which runs from August to December, and a majority of peers chose to do the same. Nonetheless, a comparison of the relative pros and cons of going to college and continuing to pursue a degree did change throughout this time.

The "tangible" benefits from attending college were by no means a mystery before setting foot on campus. The coursework, the connections, the resume help, these were just some of the main attractors of pursuing a business education in a traditional college setting. It was the expectation that obtaining a degree provided at least some security in getting a job and ultimately earning a living.

While the professional landscape is different as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, pursuing a business degree in the midst of it does provide the unique opportunity to learn and develop with the changes through rather than react to them post-degree. As a marketing student, the notion of "disruption" is a concept that has played out since the use of digital channels to market to consumers began, but the events of the past 18 months have accelerated these developments dramatically. "Content marketing" takes a different approach to traditional advertising as it strives to be in step with disruption, rather than being reactionary. Michael Brenner of the Marketing Insider Group describes it as meeting in the middle of what you want to publish and what customers want… it is the overlap of what you know and your solutions with answering customer challenges, problems, and questions. You must move from a promotion mindset to a publishing mindset (2020). As someone entering their third year of college, there is still so much opportunity for growth and development, and the opportunity to study such changes and developments in real time does pose challenges, but also the advantage of entering the workforce already knowing what these trends are and how to most effectively operate.

Even more than this, the interpersonal connections made with peers and faculty outside the classroom and the skills garnered in developing them have also had a lasting impact. From academic clubs, networking events, and guest speakers, to partaking in Greek life recruitment and playing on intramural sports teams, there was an opportunity every day to meet someone new. College can be viewed as nothing more than an incubator for personal growth, and when weighing up other non-college alternatives, the opportunities granted do not compare. Failing a test or sleeping through a class, forgetting an assignment or struggling socially, looking at these opportunities as a way to learn about oneself is key.

The costs involved in pursuing a degree, especially at a private school have been discussed, and in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, their impact has been magnified. In this sense, these sacrifices made are not so much a downside as something to be even more mindful of in the pursuit of a business degree. The importance of this education increases.

THE COLLEGE EXPERIENCE SO FAR: REALITY VS. EXPECTATIONS

Prior Expectations

There is an expectation that college should be any number of things, all of which will come to impact an individual's life. Through television, film, and mass media in general, there are certain expectations or milestones individuals "should" meet during their time in college. This adds onto the pressure in choosing where to go, as it comes to hold more weight than just being an environment that can lead one to a good job, but a place that will be life shaping in some way or another. This pressure can lead to many great things, however. Forcing students to get out of their comfort zone and try things not offered on a high school campus or through other non-college alternatives.

A major factor in the reality of a student's college experience is the respective high school experience they left behind. Thus, gaining an assessment of how peers feel about their high school experiences is incredibly telling. Leaving behind a comforting environment where the expectations, unspoken rules, and proceedings were accepted and understood makes the chilling freshness of college even more daunting; the pecking order is reshuffled yet again. Coming from a place of similarly minded individuals to one with people coming from global backgrounds is another element that makes the adjustment to college challenging. The task is not to compare college to what was left behind, as finding a comfortable place in a college community can take time. The decision to attend college in close proximity to one's hometown can be an attempt to hold onto surroundings and a culture that would not be as foreign as choosing to go somewhere else. Some students rightfully feel the need to move elsewhere, but this imagined familiarity was a comforting force.

Challenges and Solutions

The initial difficulties of the college experience largely stemmed from the fluidity of the social scene on campus, as all students seek to "find their place" amongst peers. It was no surprise that would take time, but it was a struggle, nonetheless. It almost felt as if this "treading water" phase would last forever, but it is important to gain perspective, as it takes time to settle into a routine and forge meaningful connections with others. This came in due course, and the friendships made with peers proved to be as fulfilling and enjoyable as any previous.

From an academic standpoint, the classes and coursework were as challenging and stimulating as expected, as the integration of a liberal arts education into the pursuit of a business degree truly allows for the exploration of multiple avenues of intellectual interest. There is an emphasis at LMU to give students a holistic baseline education in their first year on campus, and this foundation allows students to go forward with their chosen areas of study with a great foundation. A large motivating factor in choosing to study in Los Angeles is its proximity to industries of interest, and the opportunities provided fulfilled this expectation. The networking events, guest speakers and professional opportunities are only bolstered

by the unique location of campus and are fully utilized. All expectations were shattered however, as the COVID-19 pandemic put a halt to academic and social proceedings.

Time away from college proved to be a beneficial period that allowed for some serious self-reflection. In completing a semester and a half of college, there were many enriching experiences, but taking a step back was a much-needed way to gain perspective on life in college and some of the challenges it poses. It was easy to get overly swept up in the social dynamics of the school, and these feelings of "competition" while jostling for social positioning was not an enjoyable experience, and something that could have been avoided with a different approach. Finding oneself back in a familiar environment at home was instant comfort, and readjusting sincerely felt like taking a temporary step back in time. As the months drew on however, this lack of closure on a period with as much intense personal development without the opportunity to advance further did take its toll.

This disruption affected everyone, and its severity in personal circumstances took a great deal to work through. Half of students in fall 2020 screened positive for depression and/or anxiety," says Sarah Ketchen Lipson, a Boston University mental health researcher and a co–principal investigator of the nationwide survey, which was administered online during the fall 2020 semester through the Healthy Minds Network. The survey further reveals that 83 percent of students said their mental health had negatively impacted their academic performance within the past month, and that two-thirds of college students are struggling with loneliness and feeling isolated—an all-time high prevalence that reflects the toll of the pandemic and the social distancing necessary to control it (McAlpine, 2021). However, there is a sense of unity amongst students from going through this time together, and reliance on friendships with peers was a life-saving force in spite of these difficulties.

Given the circumstances at the time, the decision to remain at home for the beginning of the second year of college was the correct decision. As the months dragged on however, and the prospect of normal instruction in the spring vanished, the distance from peers and disconnectedness of online classes had negative impacts elsewhere. This disconnectedness led to unhappiness, as perspective was hard to grasp. The decision to move closer to friends who were living near campus was a great way of clawing back some of what was lost. It is not a unique thing to say that this time away from campus has had a lot of impact, but the prospect of returning to campus in the autumn allows for a revival of the elements of the college experience so dearly missed.

Business courses were largely unaffected by remote instruction, and the efficiency of online classes allowed for new, innovative ways to learn and utilize concepts. As opposed to other areas, this model of learning is just as suited to the coursework of a business degree as the traditional model. Remote collaboration is something all professionals adapted to in some capacity, and the opportunity to develop these skills in a classroom setting was incredibly useful. While it certainly is not the goal to maintain the status quo of the last 18 months, this time away provides both professors and students a myriad of ways learning can be made more efficient and engaging.

POST-COLLEGE PLANS

Employment Perspectives and Personal Growth

There is a cultural emphasis placed on college to be some of the most foundational years of someone's life. While this may be true, there is an inherent pressure that comes with it. The first year on campus

almost feels interminable as foundations are still being laid. With COVID-19 curtailing this process, it left many students in a middle ground between this feeling of insecurity and lack of clarity about their place on campus and full acclimation to their new environment. As a student who left campus as a first year only to return as a third year is an incredibly unique situation to be in, one that increases this "pressure" to extract the most out of these four years, but this is not something to shy away from.

With a B.B.A in marketing, the intended goal is to work in the entertainment or sports industries in digital marketing either in Los Angeles or in Europe. Los Angeles is the international hub for the entertainment industry and remaining in the city was a big motivating factor when choosing which college to attend. Efforts are being made to continuously foster a network that will allow for a potential career in these fields through connections made both inside and outside the classroom. Speaking to the entertainment industry specifically, the increasing monopolization of content distribution and increasing number of brand-specific streaming platforms creates a fascinating yet challenging landscape. In-depth knowledge of industry trends and developments will be key for any recent college graduate trying to break into that sphere, and with parental influences holding strong, efforts are directed at reaching this goal through coursework. LMU offers specific entertainment and sports marketing classes taught by professors with specific industry knowledge and connections, which provides students the chance to take their interests further and potentially seek professional experience in the classroom. Moreover, involvement in a variety of academic clubs such as marketing and international business, coupled with actual work and internship experience, are all part of the process in building a skillset and name for yourself that will not only open doors for possible employment, but also to foster the confidence to pursue these opportunities in the first place.

Speaking more generally, a business degree provides a baseline foundation of skills and mindsets. Soft skills such as emotional intelligence, decision making, and communication, are inherently developed in the classroom to a certain extent, and while they do take work to foster, the opportunity to develop hard skills in areas such as accounting and finance, is vital. Exploring these areas through coursework that may deviate from one's specified major will yield a more holistic skillset and outlook that helps students understand and empathize with other areas of the business machine.

A degree will only get someone to the door; it's finding a way to get your foot in it. This all comes down to fostering a continuously maintained network that is ever-growing. Advanced Networking goes beyond establishing mutually beneficial relationships. Knowing a name may well lead to a meeting or interview, but networking is also an opportunity to teach about cultural differences and build transcultural competence around issues like formality and body language (Lear 2019), something that will be incredibly important with personal aspirations to someday work abroad as well. These small things can solidify a relationship beyond knowing someone's name. Networking can be seen as the ultimate soft skill, and through personal experience, professors are dedicating an increasing amount of time to help students learn how to network.

Graduating from college will also provide a variety of opportunities for personal development. In spite of the difficulties that came out of the unpredictabilities of the COVID-19 pandemic, a return to campus this autumn provides the unique opportunity to have a second stab at the college experience; it's a fresh start in more ways than one. In even the short time spent on campus, an incredible amount of personal growth took place and the subsequent months have only built on this. Recognizing amiable qualities in oneself and how to foster them takes a great deal of self-reflection and developing the tools to do this are a part of the process . While the prospect of leaving the college experience behind when it feels like it's barely getting started is daunting, the goal is to never stop developing oneself as a person.

Something as seemingly simple as maintaining happiness can require a lot of personal reflection. Finding oneself in a new environment yet again, where previous comforts no longer exist can make this process all the more difficult, so the ability to recognize where happiness comes from and how to maintain it is also an incredibly important goal after college.

NECESSARY IMPROVEMENTS TO THE COLLEGE EXPERIENCE

The classroom is no longer limited to four specific walls in a building on a college campus. The relative ease with which online instruction was developed and continued for several semesters proves that education can happen anywhere. While the intention held by most is get students back in the classroom, this time has proven that there are other possibilities. Should this alter the discourse of the "traditional" college journey? There is still something to be said in favor of in-person instruction where the only barrier between student and teacher is a few feet of open air. The flow of conversation and ability to adapt is never quite mimicked online in spite of the use of break out rooms and other tactics. From a student perspective, returning to traditional testing with the teacher's gaze watching over examinations may not be as exciting, but the conversations and connections made in the classroom have been sorely missed.

This being said, this time has proven what is truly possible. Colleges can now offer online programs that suit the needs of students better, and a generally more flexible approach to class times can be beneficial to some as well. All things considered, the adaptation to online instruction was seamless. This opens up new doors that can allow colleges to redefine the "college experience" by opening new doors and reopening old ones.

Learning in an online environment sharpens the lens as to what is necessary and what isn't. The largest impact this has is when it comes to testing. Professors, aware of the distinct possibility of cheating, shifted open-note policies, something that sounds great on paper, and is to a certain extent, but it is not necessarily a slam dunk for students not wanting to study. It changes study habits, as it is no longer necessary to cram information into the brain. It is about knowing where and how to look; the actual application of these concepts or processes has not changed. Thinking pragmatically, this shift is by no means a bad thing. In the "real world" students by-and-large will have access to a variety of resources. These online tests no longer suited students who could cram the most information into their brains, but those who actually understood the material. The days of exclusively closed-note exams should be over. Obviously key exceptions necessitate memorization, but open-note examinations allow for further collaboration between students and removes a large amount of stress involved in testing.

When thinking about how specific coursework can be altered, there should be a change in priority. In reaction to COVID-19 specifically, proficiency in a variety of online services from presentation creation platforms to data analysis services is vital for any business student. Reflecting on personal experience, professors already placed emphasis on these areas, and this was increased during the crossover to remote learning.

From an even broader perspective, business schools can take a look at the world around them and alter their approach in different ways. Milton Friedman's views on businesses providing equity solely to stakeholders is an increasingly farcical outlook in the face of increasing wealth disparity and climate change (Wolf 2020). It is the purpose of business schools to educate new generations of leaders on the best business practices, and the current state of business education in the context of larger surroundings is to find out what "best" really means.

The experience gained from online instruction should force professors to assess what is truly relevant and what is not. There was a general relaxation of assignments and exams for the first, partial semester of online learning, but a return to normal, if not increased workloads was a burden on students. Returning to this status quo is by no means necessary and spending time on engaging material that is actually going to solidify concepts is something all instructors in higher education should do. Business classes specifically, the increased level of collaboration that came with working in an online environment should be kept as a mainstay of all curricula. This time also proved to students' which professors truly view their class time and students as a vocation. Colleges have a unique opportunity once again to assess their faculty and staff based on how they dealt with the COVID-19 pandemic.

This being said, the most necessary change that needs to be seen in higher education is a shift towards a more forgiving culture. For two and a half semesters now, students have been away from each other, whether it be at home or in unfamiliar environments, everyone sacrificing a lot. Professors witnessed the same outlook, and on both sides, a lot of understanding and empathy was sustained throughout this time. This is something that should continue upon return to the physical classroom. The rigidity of class time or harshness of due dates are largely arbitrary and don't necessarily further the underlying educational goals of these institutions. This is not to say throw all protocol away, but a general easing of rules and policies can come to benefit all.

It is hard to predict what things will be like. In some senses there will be three years of students still laying their roots. Some students left in the middle of that process, others pushed that entire process back by a year, and then there are those who will be starting it right on schedule. Even then, no one can predict what life in higher education will actually look like when classes begin. The majority of students on college campuses in the autumn will not have a real sense of what campus culture is really like, but this is by no means a negative thing. Colleges and universities, as well as the remaining student body, have the opportunity to start fresh and put potential change they want to see into effect. Never before has the entire higher education community stood together on the precipice of so much potential change. It is the job of each and every individual, from student to professor, to ensure the prosperity of the college experience in the months and years to come.

CONCLUSION

Exploring the educational systems students experience before they ever set foot on a college campus shines light on the dominating attitudes that depict the "college experience" as something students must strive toward. While these prior educational systems exist as a reaction to the preeminence of the US college system, assessing these dynamics is vital. Currently, higher education is viewed as an ultimate end for which students must find their own means to reach, and while the perceived pressure surrounding it is not necessarily negative, trends and dynamics at play that were only accelerated by the COVID-19 pandemic are changing the landscape for all involved in higher ed and those trying to get there.

Speaking to a business education specifically, the skillset required not only to learn in a virtual space, but those necessary to enter the virtual workforce require a holistic change. While this has posed a variety of challenges, the opportunity to adapt with the change rather than react to it places college students in a unique yet unfamiliar position. The basic tenets of the in-person college experience may have changed for the moment, but certain elements remain steadfast. Skills garnered along the way, connections made with professors and peers, and the personal development undergone throughout a student's time in col-

lege maintain no-less importance the ability to maintain self-awareness and understanding in these times in ever-more vital.

Higher education has the unique opportunity to rewrite some of its long-standing rules and norms surrounding the academic process, but this opportunity also exists from a cultural perspective. Business education was able to adapt to remote instruction with relative ease and proved that a culture of collaboration is the way of the future. In a time of complete isolation, these connections with peers, professors, and others that kept students going.

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Chapter 12
Reflective and Dynamic in Style

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ABSTRACT

This chapter dives into the different components that weighted on the author's decision to pursue higher education in the United States. She compares business degrees in the US, Brazil, and Europe, explaining how each one has a different reputation in their own country and abroad. Bringing to the table a perspective of a born and raised Brazilian who was exposed to a diverse environment since an early age, she analyses the critical components included in choosing where to expand her academic career and provides both factual material and personal experience to support her decision of pursuing a business degree in the United States.

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is written with the goal of exploring different educational systems around the world, with a heavier focus on higher level education on Business Administration in the United States, Brazil, and Europe. From the perspective of an undergraduate student at the College of Business at Florida International University, the author unpacks her first motivations that led to the academic choice and her affirmations on why it was the right one. Born and raised in Brazil, she also brings data to compare both systems, as well as her own perspectives on the topics at hand. The chapter follows a track of the reasoning for choosing Business Administration, how that connects to her roots and personal context, and how she then chose the United States as the country she would pursue this academic milestone in, all while incorporating both international cases and her own point of view on the subjects.

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WHY BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

Business is everything and everywhere. From the language people use, to teamwork abilities, to analytical reasoning, this field of study truly incorporates a great range of skills and experiences to prepare students for the real world. It is a course broad enough to allow you to explore any field out there, yet unique enough to be able to dive into specific segments and concentrate on those.

The argument that you can be successful without a business degree, backed up by the stories of the most famous and rich executives such as Bill Gates and Jeff Bezos, has been used too many times, and the Dean of the Kellogg School of Management, Sally Blount, disputes this common misperception. In her Bloomberg article: *Yes, the World Needs More MBAs*, Blount states that "Business is the cultural, organizational, and economic super force in human development", referring to the intellect and critical knowledge that is gained through formal education (Blount, 2014). The professor makes an important point: though big names stand out for making it to big fortunes without a college degree, they stand out for a reason, as these paths are not easily followed. The skills of networking, leadership, management, and communication are heavily enforced both inside the classroom and the outside environment of college, and this was one of the many reasons why business was my chosen career path.

HOW AND WHERE IT ALL STARTED

As an international student, I have been exposed to a collection of unique experiences and realities, all of which shaped me into the global citizen that I am today. For context, I was born and raised in the capital of Brazil, Brasilia, a high economic power city that does not reflect Brazil's overall reality. As a developing country, it still faces major socioeconomic and political issues, including the lack of investment in education, social inequality, and the deep poverty cycle. The lamentable conditions my country has been facing opened my eyes to a reality many choose to neglect. There is a long-term exhaustion that has split the country between those who still hope for a better tomorrow and those who completely lost faith in the possibility of change. Though I naturally alternate between the two extremes, I choose to use the harsh realities as a motivator to be part of a greater transformation. While the external setting seemed to be of a never-ending chaos, I lived a completely different reality from 8:00AM and 4:00PM. An opportunity was given to me through my mother, who by being a teacher at the American School of Brasilia granted me a full-ride scholarship to study at the most prestigious school in the district. Located in the capital of the country, my school had an enormous variety of cultural backgrounds represented through the students and staff. Having such an intense international exposure since an early age allowed me to grow up with an open mind to all kinds of diversity. Living between these two parallels opened my eyes to the privileges I have had and encouraged me to further seek the necessary skills in order to make an impact on the lives of those who unfortunately don't have the same opportunities. This is what led me to study business in the United States.

THE LAND OF OPPORTUNITY

Despite attending an American School which undoubtedly focused on preparing students for higher education in the United States, I was never short on resources or motivation to either stay in Brazil or

seek opportunities in other continents. There were certainly times I leaned towards different possibilities when it came to deciding my future, but through extensive research, experience, and observation, the reasons for attending college in the United States became exponentially bigger.

Solely from an economic standpoint, there is already tremendous data to validate why the US is such an interesting place to expand your academic and professional career. With the highest Gross Domestic Product in the world (GDP by country), the nation exhibits signs of economic strength and health. With high incentives and protective measures for the private sector alongside partial governmental control regarding economic affairs, the United States is the perfect demonstration of a successful mixed economic system.

Throughout history, there have been countless instances where the nation has proven to persevere through tough economic depressions. Beginning with probably the most notorious economic crisis in American history, the Great Depression. Though it lasted about a decade, with President Roosevelt's implementations of several programs and agencies, like the Social Security Association, more jobs were established, new amendments were added to the constitution, and labor incentives were created (Amadeo 2020). Many of the implementations seen through the New Deal continue to the present day, revealing how meaningful and significant each decision was (History, 2019). With the fiscal stimulus programs such as government spending and tax cuts, the US was able to get out of yet another depression, the 2008 market crash. Lastly, we have just recently experienced another unpredictable economic crisis with the covid-19 pandemic. Though the nation still faces consequences brought by the crisis, there has been significant economic growth since covid-19 was officially declared as a pandemic. Unemployment rates decreased almost ten percent, as it went from 14.7% last April to 6% this March. Stocks are also near all-time highs and e-commerce segments are booming (Davidson, 2021). Needless to say, the United States embodies resilience and demonstrates time and time again its ability to grow and continue being one of the most developed countries in the world.

DOMINANCE IN ACADEMIC RECOGNITION

In the field of education, the US is also the country with the most well-known and big-name universities globally. Not only considering Ivy Leagues, which are well recognized in most countries, but even colleges that might not be notorious for their names stand out due to the American Curricula. Having a diploma from a certified university in the United States opens doors for you all around the world. The educational and professional system are so well known that there is not much mystery when one handles the paperwork for an employee with an American degree.

When it comes to a Bachelor and/ or Masters of Business Administration, most companies around the world will accept them, as they are a great base to go into almost any area. This field provides the foundational knowledge of businesses which permits for exploration and relocation between different roles and environments. The skillset ranges from technical skills, such as finance, marketing, and general operations, to soft skills like networking, communication, and critical thinking. The enormous range of occupation areas allow for each individual to specialize in a segment of which they identify with the most within the world of business. Some people really enjoy human interaction and connection, and those can opt for a professional path in human resources or sales. Others are entertained by the technical side of business and may prefer a career in information systems or finance. In any case, the variety of outcomes with a business degree are endless, so there is definitely a place for everyone.

PERPETUAL DYNAMISM IN THE MARKET AND SOCIETY

Alongside this great variety, there is also an ongoing dynamic environment around the field, as it is all based on current events. What goes on around the world, involving politics, business decisions, or social issues, oftentimes have direct and indirect impacts on business decisions. Companies are starting to take a stand much more nowadays, as consumers demand their positioning when it comes to issues of big importance to the audience. This is visible in many of the greatest marketing campaigns, which can focus more heavily on the issues around the nation or world even more than the product itself. Brands like Nike and Dove are notorious for producing heart touching commercials that focus on selling stories over selling products, and this ultimately builds a loyal customer base following the strategy of emotional branding. This comes to say that any good business must be on top of global trends and opportunities, so whoever works in this field must be attentive to the dynamism that revolves around them.

This constant flow of change leads to great opportunities for growth. The Information Technology Field is one that has been seeing exponential growth for the past few years. As we advance in the field of computer science and engineering, the world begins to see inventions that were not expected to be implemented in the market so soon, like self-driving cars, for example. These booming industries promise great advancements in the near future and investing in such fields right now seems to be the trend.

On a different perspective, some fields have intensively developed on a path that wasn't too expected like the ones that have been growing for the last decade. Due to Covid-19, the world has shifted priorities and outlooks on different issues facing us today. Crises are crucial moments that demand a different perspective and new actions from those involved. With the world facing an on-going healthcare crisis, this ultimately led to an economic and social crisis too, and the trends that were being followed before no longer fit the new reality. This necessity for adaptation brought rise to areas that otherwise would either have taken longer to boom or not even see the day they would. Healthcare and e-commerce are two examples of fields that saw exponential growth since the beginning of the pandemic. The global spread of a virus truly opened people's eyes to the importance of healthcare and the restrictions of in-person activities shined light to the world of e-commerce. So, crises, as much as they are difficult to face and come out of, assist us in redirecting our attention to fields with great opportunity for growth that might not have been as considered before. Though there is danger in every crisis, the ones who are able to come out of it stronger are those who see opportunity beneath the chaos.

By keeping up with business trends, one can seek employment by following where the opportunities are being formed. With the boom in e-commerce, for example, countless jobs were created in order to assist companies in that growing sector. Omnichannel retailer Nordstrom Inc. saw e-commerce revenue grow from 33% in 2019 to 55% in 2020. Gap now intends to double its online business by the end of 2023 (Davis, 2020). These businesses reveal the strategy of allocating their time and resources to grow alongside current trends, demonstrating capabilities of shifting business plans and adapting to the changes seen in the world. Consequently, the individuals who adopt the same mindset of studying current events and keeping up with fields that suggest opportunities will most likely guarantee a spot in the field. Thus, for those who are seeking jobs but are unsure of which area to specialize in, getting a solid business foundation and developing skills to enter one of the emerging fields can definitely assist in the search.

There is a high and consistent inflow of investment into the United States, as American companies are mostly well reputable internationally. Before covid-19, the U.S. held the position as the largest recipient of Foreign Direct Investment in the world, attracting over two hundred and fifty billion dollars of inflows

in 2019 (Global Investment Flows, 2020). From a business perspective, there is no place more ideal to start your academic and/ or professional career.

DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES WITH LATAM'S BIGGEST ECONOMY

The economic power this country displays was a dominant factor weighing on my college decision. It would have been much more convenient, cheaper, and comfortable to get a business degree in my home country. Business Administration is one of the most popular college programs in Brazil and there are many well-known universities, recognized both nationally and internationally. Universidade de São Paulo, Fundação Getúlio Vargas, and Insper are consistently ranked top universities in the country and often show up in global rankings. In order to get into these institutions, be them public or private, the individual must take a test which is usually offered once or twice a year. Attending a well-versed school gave me the resources to successfully pass these tests on the first try, yet I still chose to go through the extensive application process required by American universities.

While often lasting the same number of years, the components of a bachelor in each of these countries do have some differences. In Brazil, students start diving into the subjects of their course early on, while in the U.S. most of the classes on the first few semesters are general courses in a variety of fields. As someone who still wasn't sure which path I wanted to take professionally, opting for a more broad and holistic educational approach gave me the freedom to explore interests beyond a stricter curriculum. Another systemic difference is the non-academic engagement. While in North America it is very common for students to live on campus and immerse themselves in different activities, clubs, and events in between classes, in Brazilian universities students just usually commute to campus to attend class. For those who are certain of what they want to do and are focused on their academic objective, the educational system in Brazil might suit them better. However, as an individual who is still truly curious and uncertain of the future possibilities, the American educational system fit better with my preferences. Additionally, though the Brazilian universities mentioned above do have great standings nationally, they are still fighting for the same stand as the big-name colleges in the US. In fact, while Brazil has 2,448 universities nationwide (Dados do Censo, 2018), the United States records having 4,298 institutions, nearly double the options (Shorelight Team, 2021). Even within Brazil, international diplomas are more reputable than our own domestic ones.

I have personally witnessed this differentiation throughout my internship application process. The biggest companies in Brazil have recently started adopting the "Summer Internship" experience, specifically designed for Brazilian students pursuing higher education abroad. While internships in Brazil are traditionally done during the academic year, businesses know how the American educational system works and have developed an immersive program designed to accommodate "special national talents" that are studying abroad. This demonstrates that even early in the career those who are working towards an American degree stand out more than those who learn and work in their own country, in this case Brazil. Another comparative example can be seen in Brazilian politics. The current Minister of Economics, Paulo Guedes, is notorious for having a masters and PHD from the University of Chicago. Though he went to great universities in Brazil for his undergraduate and first masters, oftentimes his diploma from the American university is the one that is highlighted. Evidently, in different professional and academic fields, as well as in distinct contexts, a diploma granted from an American institution stands out more than the certificate earned in Brazil.

There is an interesting analogy about the differences between being an entrepreneur in Brazil versus the United States that really resonates with me. The comparison establishes the setting as a race. In Brazil, starting a business is like running on a track that is full of traps, holes, and places you might trip. Your competitors, however, are only a few. In the United States, you are running in a recently built, modern track that gives you a perfectly well-designed road. On the other hand, you look around you and find a huge crowd of competitors. This analogy brings on the pros and cons of starting your own business in Brazil versus the U.S. Brazil's lack of established regulations and inflow of investments make the road to success extremely bureaucratic and difficult. However, there is a small number of direct competitors you will need to face, so the race will include less opponents. Diversely, racing on the entrepreneurship road in the United States is relatively simple, considering the resources and guidance you are provided in your environment. The lack of external difficulty and bureaucracy, however, clashes with the struggle of competing with a large number of adversaries.

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND EUROPE

Contrasting the United States with Europe takes a different route yet reaches a similar destination. Europe generally consists of more well-developed countries than South America. Undoubtedly there are well renowned universities and companies established there, making it an attractive destination for those who want to pursue a career in business. I myself, did consider pursuing higher education in Spain, as it also counts with reputable universities and has a multicultural community, with all sorts of international businesses located in their metropolitan cities. However, looking at opportunities in absolute terms, the US continues to drastically stand out. Europe, however powerful many of the nations located there are, consists of small countries, size and population wise. Looking for a geolocation with an intensive focus in the private sector, the United States continues to be distinguished from other nations worldwide.

CONCLUSION

A business degree provides the individual with academic and professional foundations that are needed in any industry at any time. The acquired interpersonal skills will open doors for you beyond the workplace, boosting your confidence to deal with difficult situations and people. Walking into my first day of class being extremely anxious to make new friends yet not having enough courage to initiating a conversation, to two years later giving presentations to an entire class or organization without much fear, is proof of how much this college environment has developed my soft skills. Despite a global pandemic taking over about half of the in-person experience, I still managed to make unforgettable memories, learn new concepts in class, and especially gain knowledge in the work environment, relationships with others, relationship with myself, and life in general. There is a motivating and welcoming space to develop teamwork abilities, creativity skills, and strategic thinking proficiency, which will always assist you, both inside and outside the classroom. Specifically, universities in the United States provide a mixture of competitive and collaborative environments that push the individuals to greatness yet encourages doing so alongside others. My decision to come to the U.S. was not an easy one to make, yet it was rewarding, worthwhile, and valuable.

Moving forward I plan on completing my bachelor's education here at Florida International University and work towards gaining true experience in the workplace once I graduate. Miami is a booming metropolitan city full of opportunity, and I believe that beginning my career here would be ideal. I clearly see myself seeking further education and completing an MBA in a not-so-distant future but find value in first narrowing down my interests by having hands on experience in the workplace. Going through my business education in the United States assures me that I am on the right track to accomplish my professional and personal goals, as I've already seen tremendous transformations on myself, and this is just the beginning.

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Chapter 13
Business Education Trends in Japan and America:
Japanese Perspective Towards Entrepreneurship and MBA Programs

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ABSTRACT

This chapter shares the author's academic and career experiences in Japan and America and its influence on his perception towards business education, specifically MBA programs, in America. By sharing his experience, he will compare the business education in Japan and America and its differing perception of entrepreneurism. Comparing these two countries would highlight the current obstacles and future improvement for business education. Compared to business education in Japan, business education in America emphasizes the importance of entrepreneurship within its curriculum.

INTRODUCTION

Having lived in California for 17 years, I wanted more personal development by moving out of my comfort zone and decided to attend college in Japan to understand my career potential as a person with a bi-cultural background. Attending International Christian University (ICU) gave me an environment that emphasized cultural exchange engaging with people of diverse backgrounds. This liberal arts university allowed me to explore other majors and was known for its international environment to network with people of different nationalities. The school encouraged students to be involved in international programs such as study abroad which led me to attending exchange programs at Freie Universität Berlin in Germany and taking part in field works under ICU Peace Research Institute (PRI). In addition to promoting a global environment, I was attracted to the school's philosophy of critical thinking which was an uncommon concept among other Japanese universities. The curriculum challenged students to

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reflect on their career goal, academic interests, or other aspects in society. ICU's diverse student community and philosophy in critically thinking would influence my personal growth, academic interests, and career path.

Engaging with people of different nationalities at the campus, my interest in learning about global issues such as environmental sustainability policy or political issues in Asia led me to major in International Relations. I would apply my knowledge in field works and formulate my perspective on each political issue. PRI would allow me to participate in student forums in Korea to share my perspective on Korean-Japanese relations. Though I enjoyed learning about political theories, I felt that it would be difficult to apply that knowledge to the business world. Considering my career prospects, minoring in Economics provided me with general knowledge in business management and micro/macroeconomics. My interest in international business grew as I talked with American Professors who had professional experiences in International banks which made me critically reflect on my career goals in Japan and America. Interning at international companies would help me explore my career options and allowed me to apply my bilingual skills and diverse background.

Later, Weber Shandwick, a Public Relations Agency, offered me a chance to use my bilingual background for career development in Japan. The reason for not immediately attending a Master's program after receiving my undergraduate degree is so I explore career options and interests in Japan. For the past 18 months (including internships), I worked as an Associate PR consultant by working on brand marketing and crisis management for corporate clients in Asia-Pacific regions. Reflecting on my career and academic life, I felt the responsibility to play a pivotal role in bridging the Japanese and US markets. My colleagues and ICU's alumnus who pursued a master's degree abroad fueled my interest in post-undergraduate education. By attending school in different countries, they were able to explore other career paths abroad and broaden their perspective. Reflecting on ICU's philosophy, I wanted to find opportunities to improve my critically reflect on my career goals by exposing myself to a global academic environment. With that in mind, I decided to study under the MBA program in California State University of Long Beach (CSULB) to pursue this vision.

I was attracted by the university's MBA program as it tailored towards young professionals who had an interest in entrepreneurship. The program emphasized entrepreneurship as it hosted startup incubator programs and provided students with opportunities to plan your own startup firm. As I will mention in the later section of this chapter, Japan's business education lacks the promotion of entrepreneurism (Yokoyama, 2020). The absence of entrepreneurship education in Japan motivated me to seek an MBA degree from outside of Japan. CSULB would give me resources to explore the startup industry in California and expand my network with professionals in the industry. Unlike business education in Japan, I felt that this program aligned with my goals to become a business leader in both countries and critically view my business understanding in entrepreneurship.

Continuing to share more information about myself, this paper will examine my career and academic background to compare the business education in Japan and America. I'll analyze Japan's perception towards entrepreneurism and startup industry to offer a background in the country's business education. In addition, the paper would address my reasoning for attending an MBA program in California, my positive and negative experiences in the MBA program, and suggestions to enhance the MBA experience.

JAPAN'S PERCEPTION TOWARDS BUSINESS EDUCATION AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP

In terms of perception, many Japanese students would see business education as a general business degree that provides practical skill sets. It is seen as a versatile degree that can be used in any industry. As a result, many Japanese students would pursue a business degree for its practicality. However, a business degree can be seen as a generalist degree that lacks focus on a specific area such as Marketing or Human Resources. While job hunting, many of my colleagues had a business degree making them hard to stand out from recruiters.

Furthermore, reflecting on the business courses in Japan, I think these courses lack the capability to promote entrepreneurship or start your own startups. Often, this lack of promotion for entrepreneurship in Japan is stemmed from its underdeveloped startup ecosystem and unwillingness to take risks. Many Japanese investors are unwilling to make large investments for young startups and instead prefer older startups with clearer track records (Arnold-Parra, 2021). This risk aversion mindset reflects the business education in Japan of focusing on safe and secure business practices. In America, I felt that professors would encourage students to have an entrepreneurship mindset whereas professors in Japan are concerned with providing stable business practices. Phillip Seiji from Plug and Play Japan mentions that professionals in the startup industry should play a role in supporting entrepreneurial education and changing the mindset of younger generations (Narigon, 2020). Successful entrepreneurs like Yanai Tadashi, founder of Fast Retailing, have been advocating for entrepreneurism where Japan has seen a growing optimism for startup cultures. The recession caused by the pandemic could be seen as a turning point where young Japanese professionals realized that job security under a big company is no longer assured and exploring opportunity in the startup industry (Koll, 2021). This new generation of professionals would adopt a high risk high reward mindset and normalize entrepreneurship in Japan. Hopefully, as the startup industry in Japan expands, this trend would influence business education in Japan to promote entrepreneurship and opportunities within the startup industry.

Meanwhile, people who hold an MBA degree are often associated as people who work as a consultant or a management position in an international company. This public perception may have been influenced as some Japanese business executives such as Hiroshi Mikitani, CEO of Rakuten Inc., received their MBA degree from abroad (Thompson, 2012). Furthermore, people with an MBA degree are viewed as bilingual where most of the degrees are taken from abroad. With these factors in mind, people who hold an MBA degree are seen as qualified to work in international companies and plan business strategies for overseas operations. As more Japanese companies compete with the global market, the demand for MBA holders has been increasing (Japan-based degree offer international advantages, 2019). From my personal experience, many of my colleagues in Japan assumed that I would apply for a position at major consulting firms after receiving my MBA degree.

In terms of recent negative trends, the number of Japanese MBA students attending school in the U.S. has been decreasing. In comparison, Chinese and Indian students have bigger attendance in these programs. One leading factor is Japanese businesses are less willing to sponsor MBA student as many of those students are less willing to return to their original company and prefer to switch jobs in America. Many of the students mention that they feel out of place in Japan's corporate culture and saw significant increase in their annual salary when switching jobs. Many of the Japanese students feel that Japanese corporation's seniority system is outdated (Nakafuji, 2019). Japanese companies are hesitant to support

employees to pursue an MBA degree as it risks losing that employee to a more competitive American company.

Kinya Seto, a member of the Dartmouth Tuck School of Business MBA class of 1996, mentions that the job security issue, low job liquidity, and differing perception is contributing to the issue of low Japanese applicants in an MBA program in America. After graduating from high school or university, many people prefer to spend majority of their career in one company and are afraid to leave the company to pursue an MBA. In terms of perception, as a homogeneous society, Japanese professionals believe that it is more important to focus their career skills in a particular company and a particular industry rather than heterogeneous knowledge and expertise gained from the MBA program (Ethier, 2021). From my personal experience, my Japanese colleagues have expressed their interest in attending Master's program but are concerned with the job gap in the resume and job security. While switching to different industries are slowly being normalized, they were also concerned with keeping a consistent career path.

One small negative perception on an MBA degree would its expensive program or a cost barrier among potential Japanese applicants. Compared to the US, tuition fees in Japan are relatively cheaper as students do not experience a massive student loan debt. While scholarships are option, students are hesitant to apply due to a large sum of tuition and the difficulty to pay back student loans

Japan must review its current business education system to encourage entrepreneurship and help grow its startup industry. With less Japanese people pursuing an MBA degree, Japanese corporate culture must also change to help MBA students promote corporate innovation. In the next section, I want to reflect my rationale for attending an MBA program in America

MY RATIONAL FOR ATTENDING BUSINESS SCHOOL

Unlike joining a company or a startup, I decided to attend business school to expand my career network for job hunting or mentorship opportunities in America. This network would guide my career goals, internship opportunities, and my career skills (G, 2021). When I was studying in Japan, I took advantage of the alumni network and my Japanese colleagues to navigate my career opportunities such as applying to internships or prepare for interviews. Reflecting on my experience at Weber Shandwick, I felt that my network was limited to PR professionals in Japan. Not wanting to limit my career network in Japan, I wanted to expand my career network in California and its startup industry. Wanting to expand my network to other industries, an MBA program would give me a much more diverse network with alumni from different industries. Many professionals would consider networking an important career skill as I'll be able to learn about career opportunities that aren't widely known yet. Many businesses would rely on referrals to gain new partnerships and hires (*Why Get an MBA? Build Your Professional Network,* 2021). As a matter of fact, the MBA director of CSULB would later introduce me to a startup firm who is looking for bilingual interns as part of its Japan operations.

I also felt that going to business school would give me more practical skills in business management. For my undergraduate degree, I majored in International relations and minored in Economics. While I enjoyed learning these subjects, it mainly focused on theory-based research rather than providing me with practical skill sets for the real world. As a result, during my internships, I had to self-learn some practical skills such as Microsoft excel to avoid falling behind my office colleagues. Many of my past jobs did not provide professional training where all the learning was relying on on-the-job training at

the individual level. With these struggles in mind, I felt that business schools would give formal training on finance, technical skills in data analytics, and other business management tools.

When choosing a specific program, I was concerned with the program's location and academic style. In terms of location, I looked for graduate programs in California since I received k-12 education in California, was familiar with the academic culture, and location. Notably, my parents were still living in California so I applied to universities within the state. Reflecting on my experience at ICU, I felt that university courses in America encourage critical thinking and students to be involved in hands-on discussions. I enjoy being in this type of academic environment as it allows me to broaden my perspective and share my insight with my cohort. Sharing perspectives allows students to critically analyze the concept of business innovation from a technical and business culture stand point. Finally, I believe a tight-knit community such as a cohort encourages students to share information and succeed as a group.

My rationale for attending an MBA program would be to diversify my career network in America, to gain practical skill sets for business management, and familiarity with the location of the campus. The MBA program would fill my career obstacles that I felt in Japan. One year into the MBA program, I want to share some of the cost and benefits from a career and academic perspective.

COST AND BENEFITS OF ATTENDING BUSINESS SCHOOL

Regarding cost versus benefits, while the graduate tuition is much higher than that of Japan, I think having an MBA degree from a university in California would help me distinguish myself from other young career professionals in Japan. Specifically, my career portfolio would highlight my international business background as I would have academic degrees from both US and Japan. Having a degree from both countries would certify my ability to work in international work settings. This would create career opportunities such as meeting with international clients or helping to open offices abroad. Reflecting on my career experiences, many of my career colleagues who worked in international companies had degrees from different countries. In addition, my father has suggested me to pursue a graduate degree as he holds a doctoral degree and sees the benefit in advanced academic degrees. Regardless of the expensive tuition, the choice to pursue an MBA degree in the US would give me more career choices in America and Japan.

The cost of pursuing an MBA would be the difficulty to hold a full-time job and gain work experience in the process. However, at the time of application, the COVID-19 pandemic has affected the job market and made it difficult to seek new career opportunities. With this in mind, I believed it was better to apply to an MBA program and gain advanced business management skills. The pandemic has affected my job search as many companies have conducted hiring freezes and limited my opportunity to explore other industries. Realizing the tough job market, I decided to apply for the MBA program to "ride out" the pandemic and hope that the job market would heal within the next few years (Thomas, 2020).

In terms of risk in applying for an early career MBA, I felt that I would be less competitive to other young career professionals who have attended higher-tiered universities.

A Harvard Business Review mentioned that recent college graduates from "top" ranked universities tend to have a better work performance than "peers" from an "average" university. Though that performance difference is nominal, recruiters would focus on resumes based on the rank of the university and would offer those students from elite universities higher compensation. The study concludes that hiring graduates from higher ranked universities would lead to a nominal improvement in performance. It also

mentioned that reviewing a resume based off of university rank is poor way to evaluate potential employees (Taras et al., 2020). Reading this article, I felt that having a degree from "big name university" would be differentiator for securing a job, especially during a difficult job market. Considering that recruiters review thousands of resumes, a student from UCLA or Stanford would have a high likelihood of securing the first interview. However, despite this study, I wouldn't regret studying in CSULB.

As I talk with my colleagues and career professional, I realized that my future career success isn't determined by my school name. Instead, my career success is determined by the career advice, mentorship, and network at school. It's also important to mention that many CEOs of large companies did not attend Ivy League School (Hargrave, 2020). In addition, CSULB has offered me with a hands-on education experience and provided me with practical skill sets that could be applied to my day-to-day work ("UC or CSU? Here's How to Pick What's Right for You" 2021). I don't regret applying to CSULB and feel privileged to meet with professional from different background/industries.

In my case, having two degrees from different countries helps me highlights the capability to work in an international work environment as well as open more career opportunities. The section also discussed the potential impact of university ranking in terms of job hunting. However, I would later uncover that my job prospects wouldn't be influenced by university ranking. The next section would reflect on my MBA experiences such as taking online courses and interning at a California based startup.

ONE YEAR INTO MY MBA EXPERIENCE

Having started my MBA program in August of 2020, I've had the great opportunity to meet with alumni from different industries and intern at a California-based startup. I was able to find this internship where the director of the MBA program introduced me to the CEO of the startup. At the time, the CEO was planning to expand his business in the Japanese market and looked for bilingual interns. Currently working at this company, this internship gives me an opportunity to communicate with overseas partners and engage with investors. Reflecting on this experience, I would not have had this experience if I wasn't in this MBA program which has paved the way for me giving me a new career and internship opportunities.

Within the curriculum, I was able to take advantage of the career course program which helped my career development such as interview preparations, job hunting, industry navigation, and networking strategies. At ICU, a career center was available for the students but it focused on helping them get a job rather than plan a long-term career goal. In comparison, CSULB's career course focuses on providing skill sets that would benefit the student's long-term career path. Specifically, I saw a lot of value in learning to use platforms like LinkedIn where its less known in Japan (Riney, 2015). Unlike the career resources provided by ICU, the course taught me how to network, find career opportunities, and engage with recruiters through LinkedIn. I have benefited from this program as it taught me to critically think about my career path and to research other industries by utilizing my network.

The program's cohort model has helped me develop my team working skills and collaborative mindset. Specifically, this model has encouraged me to communicate with my team during exam preparations and assignments. Rather than individually approaching an assignment, working as a team allows students to gain different perspectives, pool knowledge, and tackle complex problems efficiently. I also enjoy working with people of diverse backgrounds as I am able to gain their insight and broaden my perspective. As the pandemic forces students to study online, the model encourages them to engage with others and

grow a tight-knit community. In the future, I believe this teamwork skill would be relevant in my career as I plan to apply this when working as a team or collaborating with different departments.

In terms of the negative aspect of this program, like many students during the pandemic, I felt that the online courses have made it less engaging. While many strive to be involved in discussions, online courses have made it difficult to connect with students and teachers. These courses diminish social interactions and the opportunity for students to network with the cohort (Klawitter, 2020). Though online learning provides more flexibility, I lost the opportunity to meet with students from other faculty and limited to meeting with my cohort. The ability to discuss ideas in a classroom with your colleague gives an excitement that allows the conversation to expand. Unfortunately, I found it difficult to emulate the same energy within online platform. Compared to online courses, traditional MBA programs includes a personality aspect where students encourage and inspire each other in class. As a cohort, they share a similar vision to be a business leader which helps reinforce the motivation to make the best out of the program (Ethier, 2021). As CSULB is allowing students to return to campus, I believe that this would further inspire us and help us engage with the program.

Admittedly, online courses have made the less engaging for cohort. However, I've had a positive experience in the program so far where I was able to grow my soft and hard skills through internships and classes. Reflecting to my experiences so far, I felt that the business education in Japan is lagging behind as it didn't teach me resourceful tools such as LinkedIn. The following section would compare the initial expectation that I had towards the program before entering the program and the realities I faced after one year into the program.

THE REALITIES OF MY MBA LIFE

When researching to apply for the MBA program, I had the impression that my future colleagues would mostly consist of professionals who've had five years or longer work experience. This assumption was made since other MBA programs expect applicants to have an extensive amount of work experience. With that in mind, I felt that I would potentially struggle to keep up with my future cohort. When I started my MBA program, I was surprised to see that the majority of my cohort members were recent graduates with only a few years of working experience. Having only two years of working experience, I felt reassured by this where I felt comfortable working with people who have similar career levels and age demographics. By sharing a similar background with them, we are able to emphasize our career struggles and figure out how to overcome those struggles.

I was also surprised by how much group work was involved in each course and discussion-based lecture. Reflecting on my undergraduate study, I did not have that much group work as it mostly focused on drafting individual reports or presentations. In Japan, the professors lead the lecture while the student and rarely give an opportunity to discuss the topic. Even in this rare case of discussions, Japanese students are not familiar with expressing their opinions. Meanwhile, in the U.S., students are familiar with the discussion-based courses and are confident in sharing their opinions regardless of the different views (Baseel, 2015). Our program director encouraged us to work as a team and communicate with each other during class, Courses were assigned to us as a group where we worked on assignments like case study reviews or drafting a marketing plan. As it helped facilitate our teamwork skills, we learned to share our ideas and give each other feedback on assignments. Meanwhile, in Japan, I felt the lecture taught by Japanese professors were one-sided as students were only listening to the professor and distant

from the professor. The MBA program pushed students to have closer communication with professors and promoted critical thinking through discussion-based courses.

Within the program's career course, I learned practical skills in navigating my career goals, applying to jobs, or analyzing specific industries. However, I was later surprised that the career course professor teaches us time management skills, or how to manage our mental health. Notably, we would sometimes discuss social issues such as racial discrimination in the U.S. job market. By talking about these subjects, I'm able to critically think about my career plan. Would I want a job with higher pay or a better work-life balance? This class served as an open discussion platform where students could help answer each other's concerns and help navigate our career path.

With many of my colleagues having a similar career length, I felt comfortable communicating with my cohort members and encouraging each other our career goals. Comparing to my studies in Japan, the discussion-based curriculum in America allowed me to engage with the professor and the cohort. This allowed me to share and learn different ideas about business management. The next section would mention on my plans after graduation in terms of career and personal interests.

CAREER OBJECTIVE IN RELATION TO MY MBA

Post-graduation, one of my employment objectives would be to continue my work as a part-time or full-time employee at a start-up company that I am currently interning for. As of now, the company is expanding its operations in the Japanese market where I've been able to use my bilingual background to assist my team and work with Japanese corporate partners. My current job function aligns with my interests in bridging the U.S. and Japanese markets. The CEO has been a great mentor for me as he guided me throughout this process, giving me advice on communicating with investors or potential clients. With these in mind, I want to help the company successfully launch its platform in Japan and continue to gain more experience in international business management.

Reflecting on the previous paragraph, my career interest revolves around the start-up industry. In this industry, I think young career professionals have the opportunity to take on more responsibility and play a pivotal role in the company. Furthermore, they would be able to learn about different companies with innovative technologies that aren't publicly known yet. With this in mind, I think the startup industry is much more exciting than working at an established company.

Having previously worked at a PR agency in Japan, I'm also interested in working at a marketing agency to gain experience in planning marketing campaigns in the U.S. When promoting a product in Japan or America, I think it would be valuable to have marketing insight from both countries. Social media and digital marketing play a vital role in engaging with the local consumers. By working under an agency, it would give an opportunity to plan marketing campaigns and expand my network with other marketing specialists that would guide me. Notably, this experience would allow me to critically think about tailoring marketing campaigns to approach consumers from different countries.

My overall career objective would be to expand my network in the startup industry or the marketing industry. Having career networks in Japan and America, it would give me more flexibility to work in these countries. I would seek career positions that would allow me to use my bilingual skills and diverse background. My ideal career position would be to work flexibly in Japan, America, or even in another country and explore other industries.

The past sections shared my personal experience and goals for attending an MBA course in America. Using my experience, I hope to provide possible suggestions to enhance to the current status of business education for aspiring MBA candidates.

POSSIBLE IMPROVEMENTS FOR FUTURE BUSINESS EDUCATION

Business education in Japan should promote more entrepreneurship and teach practical skillsets to plan a business. Professors in Japan should teach students to seek career opportunities in the startup industry and take more risks in business (Narigon, 2020). In comparison, MBA programs in America motivate students to be young entrepreneurs and provide stepping stones to build your own business. Optimistically, I believe a generation of young entrepreneurs in Japan could help reevaluate the quality of business education. Universities should encourage students to launch their own business or organization rather than training them to find a job. The university could support their students by funding their business, introducing them to other student entrepreneurs, or helping them partner with local businesses. Likewise, the career course should highlight the career path of being a young entrepreneur and the potential learning growth of this experience. While there is a high failure rate of startups, students will have a huge learning outcome from this experience. Students would be able to reflect on this failure and apply this knowledge in their next career opportunity. As we see more young entrepreneurs, business education should highlight the learning benefits of starting your own company rather than working for an established company.

Reflecting on Kinya Seto's perspective, academic institutions should encourage students and young professionals to apply for MBA programs in the U.S. or abroad. With that, a business organization should re-structure their company culture to incorporate the diverse mindset of MBA professionals (Ethier, 2021). Japanese companies should ask themselves, how do we change the company culture to be more accepting of MBA professionals?

For both American and Japanese business universities, I think there should be more communication between faculty members as I feel that professors are not aware of other courses' workload. Due to the lack of coordination, students are often overwhelmed with the large workload as most of them have full-time jobs or internships. If teachers are able to better coordinate the course's workload, students will have more flexibility in their schedule as students can focus on work and internships. Not to mention, those opening times could be used by students to participate in networking events or apply to job positions.

CONCLUSION

The goal of this paper is to provide insight on the business education in Japan and America by reflecting on my personal account of studying in the MBA program and analyze Japan's perception towards entrepreneurism. Currently, the country struggles to promote an entrepreneurial mindset in its academic curriculum and expand the industry. However, a new generation of startup professionals could help restructure Japan's business education to promote a high-risk high-reward mindset and innovation in the startup industry.

This chapter also reflects my decision factors for attending an MBA program at CSULB. My rationale to attend an MBA program in America would be to diversify my career network in the U.S. and gain formal training for business management. In terms of cost and benefits, despite the high tuition, I think the benefits would outweigh the costs as having two degrees from Japan and America would certify my ability to work in international work settings. On year into the MBA program, while there were certain difficulties due to the pandemic, it's been generally a positive experience so far. The discussion-based lecture has helped the class become engaged in the difficulty of online learning. As I pursue the last half of my MBA program, my career objectives would be seeking a career position within the startup industry that would allow me to use my bilingual skills and career background in Japan. However, I'd like to keep an open mind by exploring other industries and professions.

Reviewing my current trend of business education in Japan and my personal account in the MBA program, I've mentioned possible improvements for Japan's business education. Japanese professors should teach students to become entrepreneurs and adopt a high-risk high-reward mindset. Furthermore, companies should critically reflect on their company culture to be more accepting of MBA professionals and open to their diverse mindset.

I hope that this paper provided a window on the recent trend of business education from a global perspective and possible solutions to overcome obstacles in this institution.

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