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## **Simulation-Based Tools in Graduate Accounting Education: A Conceptual Framework for Bridging Variance Analysis Theory and Practice**

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### **Abstract**

Variance analysis remains a centrepiece of graduate cost and managerial accounting curricula, yet a persistent gap separates procedural fluency from interpretive competence. Graduates can often compute price, quantity, rate, efficiency, and overhead variances while struggling to translate those computations into diagnostic narratives, managerial recommendations, and defensible decision support. This paper develops a conceptual framework for embedding simulation-based tools into graduate accounting education with the specific objective of bridging variance analysis theory and practice. The framework is grounded in experiential learning theory, constructivist pedagogy, and cognitive load theory, and it draws on two decades of accounting education research on case-based, computer-assisted, and serious-games instruction. Five framework components are specified: scenario architecture, which defines the business context and its embedded cost structure; data fidelity, which governs the realism of the accounting records with which learners interact; decision cadence, which sets the tempo at which learners must interpret

variances and act; feedback design, which governs the timing and specificity of diagnostic feedback; and assessment alignment, which links simulation performance to programme learning outcomes. The framework is positioned relative to prior instructional technology models and is differentiated from generic business simulation literature by its focus on variance analysis as an interpretive competency rather than a computational skill. Three propositions are advanced for empirical testing: that simulation-based instruction improves learners' capacity to generate diagnostic narratives relative to traditional case instruction; that decision cadence interacts with feedback specificity to influence learning transfer; and that the assessment of simulation performance must be designed jointly with the scenario architecture to avoid construct-irrelevant variance. The paper contributes to the accounting education literature a structured design vocabulary for simulation-based instruction in variance analysis, and identifies directions for empirical work on the effectiveness of simulation relative to alternative pedagogies.

**Keywords:** Accounting Education, Variance Analysis, Simulation-Based Learning, Experiential Learning, Graduate Curriculum, Instructional Design, Managerial Accounting

### **1. Introduction**

Variance analysis is a foundational topic in graduate managerial and cost accounting. Curricula at the master's level typically cover flexible budgeting, standard costing, the computation of price and quantity variances for materials and labour, efficiency and spending variances for variable overhead, and production-volume and spending variances for fixed overhead. Beyond computation, programmes expect graduates to interpret variances, diagnose their causes, and translate the diagnosis into managerial recommendations that inform pricing, production, procurement, and performance evaluation decisions (Apostolou *et al.*, 2019; Horngren *et al.*, 2015) [5, 21].

The gap between computation and interpretation is well documented. Employer surveys and accounting education reviews consistently report that graduates enter practice able to execute the arithmetic of variance analysis but less able to explain what a given variance pattern implies for the business, to identify the organisational actors responsible, or to recommend corrective action (Albrecht & Sack, 2000; Lawson *et al.*, 2014) [1, 28]. The gap is attributable not to deficient instruction of the formulae

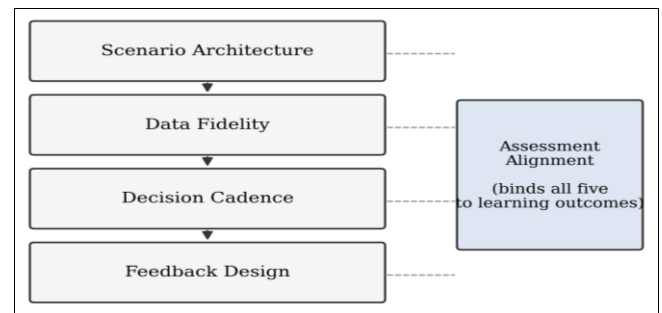
but to the limited exposure of learners to the business contexts in which variances are generated and must be interpreted.

Simulation-based instruction has been proposed as a response to this gap. Simulations reproduce, in a controlled instructional environment, the operational and accounting conditions under which variances arise. Learners interact with a simulated enterprise, observe the accounting outputs of operational events, compute variances, and receive feedback on their interpretations and recommendations. The method has been used in business education since the 1950s and has been applied in accounting since the 1990s (Faria *et al.*, 2009; Springer & Borthick, 2004) [18, 40]. Its extension into the graduate variance analysis classroom has, however, been uneven, and the instructional design literature offers limited structured guidance on how simulation should be specified for this particular topic. The uneven adoption is partly a function of the absence of a design vocabulary for this specific instructional problem, and it is partly a function of the institutional frictions that impede instructional innovation in established graduate programmes.

The uneven adoption reflects, in part, the absence of a structured design vocabulary for simulation-based variance analysis instruction. Educators considering the introduction of simulation in their variance analysis classroom face design decisions spanning the scenario (what business, what products, what operational profile), the data (what records, what fidelity), the tempo (what cadence of decisions), the feedback (what, when, from whom), and the assessment (how performance is measured and certified). Without a structured vocabulary, these decisions are frequently made implicitly or by analogy to unreflective precedent, with predictable consequences for instructional quality.

This article develops a conceptual framework for the design of simulation-based tools in graduate variance analysis instruction. The framework is intended to serve two audiences. For accounting educators, it provides a structured vocabulary for the design decisions that must be made when specifying a simulation. For accounting education researchers, it offers a set of analytically distinct constructs that can be manipulated and measured in empirical studies of simulation effectiveness. The framework is grounded in established learning theories, draws on two decades of accounting-education research on computer-assisted and simulation-based instruction, and is organised around the specific design problem of building interpretive competence in variance analysis rather than computational fluency alone. The article is organised as follows. Section 2 situates the argument within experiential learning theory, constructivist pedagogy, and cognitive load theory, and reviews prior research on simulation in accounting and business education. Section 3 describes the conceptual methodology. Section 4 develops the scenario architecture and data fidelity components of the framework. Section 5 develops decision cadence and feedback design. Section 6 develops assessment alignment. Section 7 sets out three propositions and an empirical research agenda. Section 8 concludes.

The five-component framework is summarised in Figure 1. Components interact in specific ways that the framework makes explicit, and the integrative property of assessment alignment binds the other four components to the programme learning outcomes the simulation is intended to support.



**Fig 1:** Five-component framework for simulation-based variance analysis instruction. Components interact: scenario architecture shapes data fidelity options; decision cadence interacts with feedback design; assessment alignment binds the framework to programme outcomes.

## 2. Theoretical Foundations

Three theoretical streams inform the framework. Experiential learning theory, as articulated by Kolb (1984) [26] and extended by subsequent authors, conceptualises learning as a cycle through concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation. Simulations are an instructional response to the first stage of the cycle: they provide the concrete experience that a traditional classroom cannot easily supply. The reflective and conceptual stages are provided by guided debriefing and the linkage of simulation outcomes back to variance analysis theory. The active experimentation stage is provided by the opportunity to re-enter the simulation with revised assumptions or decisions.

Constructivist pedagogy, drawing on Vygotsky (1978) [47], Bruner (1966) [11], and the subsequent literature on situated cognition, treats knowledge as constructed by the learner through engagement with authentic tasks embedded in social and organisational contexts (Brown *et al.*, 1989) [10]. For variance analysis, the construction of interpretive competence requires engagement with the operational substrate from which variances arise: machine downtime, procurement delays, labour absenteeism, quality rework, demand volatility. Simulations supply this substrate in a form that textbook cases cannot.

Cognitive load theory, developed by Sweller (1988) [42] and subsequently refined, provides a counterweight. Simulations that reproduce excessive operational complexity without scaffolding generate extraneous cognitive load that crowds out the germane load required for conceptual learning. The design of a simulation for variance analysis must therefore manage the tension between authenticity, which drives engagement and transfer, and simplicity, which preserves cognitive capacity for the target conceptual work (Van Merriënboer & Sweller, 2005) [43].

A fourth theoretical input comes from self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) [15, 35], which identifies autonomy, competence, and relatedness as fundamental psychological needs whose satisfaction drives sustained engagement with challenging tasks. Applied to variance analysis simulations, the theory implies that effective design should provide learners with autonomy over simulation choices, progressive competence development as simulation complexity increases, and relatedness through social features such as team play or instructor interaction. Simulations that neglect any of the three needs typically experience engagement decline over extended instructional sequences.

A fifth theoretical input comes from the literature on deliberate practice (Ericsson *et al.*, 1993) <sup>[16]</sup>, which identifies structured, focused practice with immediate feedback as the primary driver of expertise development. Applied to variance analysis, deliberate practice implies that learners benefit from repeated exposure to specific variance-interpretation tasks under conditions that permit identification and correction of specific conceptual errors. Simulations are particularly well suited to supporting deliberate practice because they can be repeated at controlled difficulty, with feedback calibrated to the learner's current level of competence.

Prior research on simulation in accounting education is concentrated in three areas. The first concerns financial accounting simulations, where firms such as Harvard Business Publishing and McGraw-Hill have produced extended cases with embedded decision points (Springer & Borthick, 2004) <sup>[40]</sup>. The second concerns audit simulations, including the widely used audit case studies of Knapp (2016) <sup>[25]</sup> and the interactive audit environments developed by firms for university partnerships. The third, and smaller, body of work addresses managerial accounting and cost accounting simulations, including the ALEKS adaptive platform and discipline-specific tools developed by individual faculty (Cagwin & Barker, 2006; Marriott, 2004) <sup>[12, 30]</sup>. The conceptual framework developed in this article contributes to the third stream by offering a structured design grammar tailored to variance analysis.

The broader literature on serious games and game-based learning in higher education provides adjacent evidence. Studies of serious-games deployment across disciplines have identified consistent patterns in what distinguishes effective from ineffective serious-games instruction, including the centrality of learning-outcome specification, the importance of feedback calibrated to learner level, and the critical role of debriefing in translating in-game experience into transferable learning (Connolly *et al.*, 2012; Sitzmann, 2011) <sup>[14, 38]</sup>. These findings inform the framework developed here and justify the attention given to feedback design and assessment alignment as components distinct from the scenario and data architecture.

The tension between constructivist and directive instructional traditions warrants explicit treatment. Constructivist approaches, grounded in Piaget (1970) <sup>[62]</sup>, Dewey (1938) <sup>[61]</sup>, and subsequent theorists, emphasise learner construction of knowledge through engagement with authentic tasks. Directive approaches, grounded in behaviourist and cognitive traditions (Bandura, 1977; Reiser, 2001) <sup>[63, 52]</sup>, emphasise explicit instruction, structured practice, and systematic feedback. Critics of constructivist approaches in complex-skill learning, notably Kirschner, Sweller, and Clark (2006) <sup>[54]</sup>, have argued that minimally guided instruction is inefficient compared to more structured approaches. Applied to simulation design, this debate implies that effective simulations combine

constructivist and directive elements, with scenarios providing authentic context for learning (the constructivist contribution) and feedback, scaffolding, and debriefing providing structured support for knowledge construction (the directive contribution). The framework developed here reflects this synthesis, treating scenario design and feedback design as equally consequential elements of the overall design.

The active-learning literature provides additional empirical grounding. Meta-analyses of active-learning interventions across higher-education disciplines consistently identify active-learning instruction as more effective than passive instruction across multiple outcome measures (Freeman *et al.*, 2014; Prince, 2004) <sup>[56, 55]</sup>. Simulation-based instruction represents one of the more structured forms of active learning and inherits the general benefits demonstrated by the broader literature. The specific contribution of simulation-based instruction is its capacity to present authentic business contexts at a level of detail and interactivity that other active-learning approaches (problem-based learning, team-based learning, flipped classroom) cannot match.

The problem-based learning tradition, developed extensively in medical and engineering education, provides a further adjacent theoretical input. Problem-based learning centres instruction on the analysis of authentic problems rather than on the transmission of pre-organised knowledge, and has been shown to produce stronger transfer to professional practice than traditional instruction across multiple disciplines (Hmelo-Silver, 2004) <sup>[53]</sup>. Applied to variance analysis, the problem-based perspective suggests that simulation design should emphasise the problems to be solved (variance interpretation, managerial recommendation) rather than the concepts to be learned (variance types, computational formulae). The framework's emphasis on assessment alignment with interpretive tasks is consistent with this problem-based orientation.

Dewey's (1938) <sup>[61]</sup> framing of education as preparation for the unknown future of professional practice, Schön's (1983) <sup>[60]</sup> analysis of reflective practice as a developmental pathway for professional expertise, and Knowles's (1975) <sup>[59]</sup> treatment of self-directed learning as the appropriate framing for adult education all inform the approach advanced here. Graduate accounting students are adult learners preparing for professional practice, and the instructional approach should reflect the distinctive features of adult-learner motivation, prior-knowledge activation, and self-direction that these theoretical traditions identify. Simulations provide a particularly suitable instructional instrument for this learner population because they support self-directed engagement with authentic problems in ways that conventional classroom instruction cannot match.

Table 1 summarises the theoretical streams informing the framework, their central claims, and the specific implications each stream has for simulation design choices.

**Table 1:** Theoretical streams informing the framework and their specific implications for simulation design

Stream	Central claim	Design implication
Experiential learning	Learning cycles through concrete experience, reflection, conceptualisation, experimentation	Scenario provides concrete experience; debrief provides reflection; repeat play provides experimentation
Constructivism	Knowledge constructed through authentic context	Scenario must embed variance analysis in plausible operational context
Cognitive load theory	Extraneous load crowds out germane load	Complexity must be scaffolded; progressive difficulty
Self-determination theory	Autonomy, competence, relatedness drive engagement	Design for choice, progressive mastery, social features
Deliberate practice	Structured focused practice with feedback builds expertise	Repeated exposure with calibrated difficulty and feedback

### 3. Methodology

The paper adopts a conceptual methodology. Conceptual research, as characterised by Meredith (1993) [32] and Whetten (1989) [48], aims to produce theoretical contributions in the form of constructs, relationships, and propositions that organise existing knowledge and guide subsequent empirical work. The method is appropriate because the stated contribution is a design framework, not an empirical test of instructional effectiveness.

The construction proceeded in four steps. First, the literature on variance analysis pedagogy, simulation-based instruction in business and accounting education, and the three theoretical streams identified in Section 2 was reviewed. Literature was drawn from the Journal of Accounting Education, Issues in Accounting Education, the Accounting Education journal, the Simulation and Gaming journal, and cognate outlets in educational psychology and instructional design. Second, recurring design decisions were extracted from the simulation literature and grouped thematically. Third, the thematic groupings were refined into five analytically distinct constructs: scenario architecture, data fidelity, decision cadence, feedback design, and assessment alignment. Fourth, the relationships among the constructs were specified, and propositions were formulated for empirical testing.

The framework is not claimed to be exhaustive. Other design decisions, including the social architecture of simulation (individual versus team play), the platform technology, and the integration with learning management systems, are relevant but outside the scope of the present article. These are acknowledged as boundary conditions in Section 7.

The framework is presented as a design theory in the sense of Gregor and Jones (2007) [19]: it specifies both the constructs involved in the phenomenon of interest (the five components) and the relationships among them (the joint-design interactions and the three propositions). Design theories differ from explanatory theories in that they aim to guide the design of effective interventions, rather than solely to explain observed phenomena. The framework is therefore intended to support both academic investigation of simulation-based instruction and practitioner design of specific simulation deployments.

Methodological limitations are acknowledged. The framework has not been empirically tested, and the three propositions advanced in Section 7 represent the empirical research agenda that subsequent work should address. The focus on graduate variance analysis instruction limits direct applicability to other accounting-education topics, though the core design vocabulary should transfer with appropriate adaptation. The framework assumes a level of programmatic

and institutional support for simulation-based instruction that may not be uniformly available across accounting programmes, and its application in resource-constrained programmes will require adaptation. These limitations define the scope within which the contribution is offered rather than undermine the contribution itself.

A further methodological consideration concerns the relationship between the conceptual framework and the practice community it seeks to serve. The framework is developed with explicit attention to the design decisions that practitioners actually make when specifying simulations for variance analysis instruction, rather than to the theoretical abstractions that might structure an entirely academic framework. This practice-oriented framing reflects the view that conceptual research in education serves its community most effectively when it provides vocabulary that practitioners can use in their daily design work, rather than abstractions that remain largely within academic conversations. The validation of this orientation will emerge over time through the uptake of the framework in practice and through the practitioner feedback that subsequent empirical work will surface.

### 4. Scenario Architecture and Data Fidelity

Scenario architecture specifies the business context within which variance analysis is to be conducted. Three architectural decisions matter. The first is industry selection. Manufacturing scenarios are the traditional default because they produce the richest set of variance types. Service and process industries can be used but require design attention to the mapping of activity to cost. The second is firm scale and structure. A single-site single-product firm simplifies the standard-costing framework; a multi-site multi-product firm introduces allocation and transfer-pricing complexities that can overload novice learners. The third is operational volatility. A scenario with stable operations produces small, easily interpreted variances; a scenario with significant volatility produces variance patterns that require more sophisticated interpretation but also risk overwhelming learners.

Educators designing simulations face a trade-off between realism and tractability. A scenario that is too simple fails to exercise the interpretive competences that the simulation is intended to build. A scenario that is too complex generates extraneous cognitive load and may confuse rather than instruct. The framework recommends progressive complexity: initial scenarios should isolate one or two variance types in a stable operating environment; subsequent scenarios should introduce additional variance types and increased volatility; capstone scenarios should present the full variance set in a multi-product environment with

operational disruption. This progression is consistent with the scaffolded-instruction principle derived from cognitive load theory (Van Merriënboer & Sweller, 2005) [45].

Data fidelity governs the realism of the accounting records with which learners interact. Three levels can be distinguished. Low-fidelity simulations provide summary variance reports as outputs, abstracting away the underlying transaction detail. Medium-fidelity simulations provide structured cost-accounting records, including standard costs, actual costs, and production data, from which learners compute variances. High-fidelity simulations provide transaction-level accounting records, including inventory movements, labour time records, and production orders, and require learners to extract the data needed for variance computation. High-fidelity simulations more closely approximate professional practice but impose substantial data-handling demands that may distract from the interpretive objectives.

The framework recommends that data fidelity be set just above the level of the assessment task. If the assessment requires learners to interpret pre-computed variances, medium fidelity is sufficient. If the assessment requires learners to extract data and compute variances from primary records, high fidelity is necessary. Mismatches between fidelity and assessment produce either wasted instructional effort or inadequate preparation for the assessment.

Data fidelity also interacts with the use of enterprise systems in instruction. Simulations built on ERP platforms such as SAP or Oracle Cloud provide genuine transactional records at the cost of significant platform learning. Simulations built on purpose-designed teaching platforms provide tailored pedagogy at the cost of reduced transfer to professional systems. The choice should be guided by programme-level competency objectives: programmes that aim to produce graduates ready for ERP-based work environments benefit from ERP-based simulations; programmes that aim to build interpretive competence without platform specialisation are well served by purpose-designed tools (Rom & Rohde, 2007; Sledgianowski *et al.*, 2017) [34, 39].

The specific technology implementation of data fidelity warrants additional attention. Spreadsheet-based simulations remain common in accounting education because of their accessibility and the analytical familiarity of spreadsheet tools to both instructors and learners; they typically support low to medium fidelity. Purpose-built web applications provide richer interactive features and support higher fidelity at the cost of development effort. ERP-based simulations, either on live enterprise platforms or on teaching versions of commercial platforms, provide the highest fidelity but impose substantial platform-learning overhead that can crowd out the variance-analysis learning objectives. The framework does not prescribe a specific technology implementation but recommends that the technology choice be made deliberately in light of the programme's competency objectives and resource constraints, rather than defaulting to whatever technology is most readily available.

Data quality within the simulation deserves specific attention. Simulations that include deliberate data quality issues — missing values, classification errors, unit-of-measure inconsistencies — reproduce the data conditions learners will encounter in practice and develop the diagnostic habit of questioning data before computing variances from it. Simulations that present perfectly clean

data, while computationally tractable, develop habits of analytical trust that do not transfer well to practice contexts. The framework recommends that simulation data quality be calibrated to the stage of instruction: introductory simulations should provide clean data to support conceptual learning; advanced simulations should include realistic data quality issues to support the development of diagnostic habits (Bonsor-Kurki & Watson, 2014; Sledgianowski *et al.*, 2017) [9, 39].

Scenario narrative coherence is a further architectural consideration that shapes learner engagement. Simulations embedded in coherent business narratives (a specific firm facing specific strategic challenges, with specific historical context and specific managerial personalities) typically produce stronger engagement than simulations that present isolated accounting puzzles without narrative framing. The narrative investment is not trivial, but it yields disproportionate returns in sustained learner engagement and in the transfer of simulation experience to subsequent professional work. The framework recommends that scenario design include explicit attention to narrative coherence, including the development of background documentation that provides context for the specific variance-analysis tasks the simulation requires (Kopainsky *et al.*, 2010; Riedel & Hauge, 2011) [27, 33].

The specific choice of variance types to emphasise in a scenario deserves attention. Textbook treatment of variance analysis typically covers price, quantity, rate, efficiency, spending, and volume variances, with equal weight assigned to each. Practitioner work in modern managerial accounting contexts places disproportionate weight on a smaller set: price and quantity variances for direct materials, rate and efficiency variances for direct labour, spending variances for variable overhead, and spending variance for fixed overhead. Volume variances, while mathematically well-defined, are less operationally actionable in contemporary contexts where fixed costs are treated strategically rather than allocated tactically. Scenario design should therefore weight variance types by their practical salience, while preserving exposure to the full set for pedagogical completeness (Hornigren *et al.*, 2015; Marriott, 2004) [21, 30]. The integration of non-financial performance data into scenarios supports the broader competency of interpreting variances in operational context. Variances do not arise in isolation from operational performance indicators such as yield rates, cycle times, quality metrics, and customer service indicators. Simulations that integrate financial and operational data enable learners to develop the interpretive habit of triangulating variance interpretation with operational evidence, rather than treating variance analysis as a closed accounting exercise. The integration is consistent with the broader competency framework advanced by Lawson *et al.* (2014) [28] for accounting graduate preparation and supports transfer to contemporary practice environments (Bonsor-Kurki & Watson, 2014) [9].

A further scenario consideration concerns the balance between proscribed and open-ended design. Proscribed scenarios specify the exact sequence of business events the learner will encounter, with the same events in the same order for every learner. Open-ended scenarios specify a business context and allow events to emerge dynamically based on learner decisions and simulation logic. Each approach has strengths: proscribed scenarios support strong experimental control and consistent assessment; open-ended

scenarios support stronger engagement and more authentic learning. The framework recommends that early instructional scenarios lean toward proscribed design to support consistent competence-development, with capstone scenarios leaning toward open-ended design to support transfer to authentic practice contexts. The balance between the two approaches is a programme-level design decision rather than a scenario-level decision (Merrill, 2002; Reiser, 2001) <sup>[51, 52]</sup>.

The cultural embedding of scenario narratives deserves attention in globally diverse accounting education programmes. Scenarios embedded exclusively in Western business contexts may produce reduced engagement for learners from non-Western backgrounds, and may fail to develop interpretive competence applicable to the accounting-practice contexts learners will eventually operate in. Scenario-design that includes diverse geographic and industry contexts supports broader competency development and more inclusive learner engagement. The design effort required for culturally diverse scenarios is non-trivial but supports programme objectives around global applicability of accounting-education outcomes.

Table 2 summarises the progressive-complexity scenario design recommendations across the instructional sequence, from introductory through developmental to capstone stages.

**Table 2:** Progressive-complexity scenario design recommendations across the instructional sequence

Stage	Operating context	Variance scope	Data fidelity	Decision cadence
Introductory	Single-site, single-product	One or two types	Low to medium	Event-paced
Developmental	Single-site, multi-product	Three to four types	Medium	Period-paced
Capstone	Multi-site, multi-product	Full variance set	High	Period-paced or real-time

## 5. Decision Cadence and Feedback Design

Decision cadence is the tempo at which the simulation requires learners to interpret variances and take action. Three cadences are common. Event-paced simulations advance from one business event to the next as the learner processes each event; the learner controls the clock. Period-paced simulations advance at fixed intervals, such as weekly or monthly, regardless of learner pace. Real-time simulations advance in continuous time, requiring the learner to monitor and respond within bounded windows.

The choice of cadence affects both learning and assessment. Event-paced simulations permit deep reflection on individual variances and are well suited to early learning. Period-paced simulations introduce the time pressure characteristic of actual reporting cycles and require learners to prioritise. Real-time simulations approximate operational decision-making environments and are appropriate for advanced learners preparing for managerial or controller roles. The framework recommends that cadence, like scenario complexity, follow a progression from event-paced to period-paced across the instructional sequence (Anderson & Lawrence, 2014) <sup>[3]</sup>.

The relationship between cadence and learning objectives deserves explicit treatment. Cadence choices shape which learning objectives are most effectively supported. Event-paced simulations support the development of deep conceptual understanding, because they give learners time to

work through the full variance-interpretation process without time pressure. Period-paced simulations support the development of prioritisation skills and time-pressure resilience, because they force learners to allocate limited attention across competing demands within each decision cycle. Real-time simulations support the development of operational-decision fluency, because they require learners to respond within tight windows that approximate actual managerial practice. Programmes with different learning objectives therefore benefit from different cadence choices, and the cadence decision should follow from explicit articulation of the learning objectives rather than default to whatever cadence the simulation platform supports most conveniently.

An emerging cadence consideration concerns asynchronous simulation, in which learners engage with the simulation on their own schedules within defined completion windows rather than in synchronised cohorts. Asynchronous simulations support flexibility that synchronous simulations cannot, particularly for programmes with working professional learners or geographically distributed cohorts. They introduce design complications around the maintenance of cohort coherence, the handling of peer interactions, and the scheduling of debriefing activities. The framework accommodates asynchronous simulations without modification but recommends that their specific design considerations be addressed explicitly during programme planning rather than treated as post-hoc adaptations of synchronous designs.

Feedback design governs the timing, specificity, and source of feedback on learner decisions. Timing ranges from immediate feedback on each decision, through delayed feedback at the end of a decision cycle, to deferred feedback at the conclusion of the simulation. Specificity ranges from simple correct-incorrect indication, through diagnostic feedback that identifies the conceptual error, to developmental feedback that suggests improved approaches. Source ranges from automated system feedback, through peer feedback in team settings, to instructor feedback during or after the simulation.

Research on feedback in instructional contexts indicates that specific, timely, and developmentally oriented feedback produces superior learning outcomes (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Shute, 2008) <sup>[20, 37]</sup>. In variance analysis simulations, this implies that feedback should diagnose conceptual errors rather than merely flag incorrect answers, and should be delivered at the point of error rather than deferred to a summary debrief. The framework recommends a layered feedback structure: automated system feedback providing immediate diagnostic cues on computation errors, with instructor feedback reserved for higher-order interpretive and recommendation tasks where diagnostic judgement is required.

Feedback design interacts with decision cadence. Immediate feedback is feasible in event-paced simulations but can disrupt the rhythm of period-paced or real-time simulations. In the faster cadences, feedback is better delivered at decision-cycle boundaries or through unobtrusive in-simulation signals rather than through interrupting prompts. This interaction is one of the principal joint-design considerations the framework identifies.

The role of peer feedback in simulation-based instruction deserves explicit treatment. Team-play simulations produce opportunities for peer feedback during and after each

decision cycle, and the quality of peer feedback materially affects the learning experience. Peer feedback calibrated to conceptual quality (rather than to social convention or team politics) supports learning; peer feedback uncalibrated or distorted by team dynamics can mislead. The framework recommends that team-play simulations include explicit scaffolding for peer feedback, through prompts that direct learners to evaluate specific conceptual dimensions of teammates' contributions. This scaffolding converts peer feedback from a potential source of noise into a genuine learning resource (Topping, 1998; Van Popta *et al.*, 2017) [44, 46].

Debriefing is a further feedback dimension that requires explicit attention. The instructional value of simulation experience depends substantially on the quality of the debriefing that links the experience back to variance analysis theory and to transferable interpretive frames. Debriefing research in the broader experiential-learning literature identifies several characteristics of effective debriefing: clear learning objectives stated at the outset; structured review of the decisions made and their consequences; explicit connection of in-simulation events to theoretical concepts; and opportunities for learners to articulate their own learning through reflection and peer discussion. The framework recommends that debriefing design be integrated with scenario design at the specification stage rather than treated as a post-hoc addition (Fanning & Gaba, 2007; Lederman, 1992) [17, 29].

The handling of unsuccessful learner performance in the simulation deserves specific design attention. When learners make incorrect decisions or produce flawed interpretations, the simulation environment must provide opportunities for recovery and learning from error rather than penalising error so heavily that learners disengage. The design of error-recovery pathways, including the provision of hints, the ability to revisit prior decisions, and the explicit framing of errors as learning opportunities, supports sustained engagement through extended instructional sequences. The emotional dimension of learning from error is frequently underestimated in simulation design but is among the principal determinants of long-run engagement (Cannon-Bowers & Salas, 1998; Keith & Frese, 2005) [13, 24].

Adaptive feedback, in which the specificity and content of feedback varies with observed learner performance, represents a design frontier that warrants explicit treatment. Adaptive feedback systems track learner performance across repeated simulation encounters and calibrate feedback to the specific conceptual gaps revealed by the performance pattern. A learner who consistently computes quantity variances correctly but struggles with efficiency variances receives increasingly specific feedback on the conceptual distinction between the two. A learner who masters computational aspects but struggles with interpretive application receives feedback that emphasises the interpretive dimension. The technical implementation of adaptive feedback is non-trivial but is increasingly supported by learning-analytics infrastructure available in contemporary learning management systems (Clark & Mayer, 2016; Mayer, 2005) [50, 49].

A further feedback consideration concerns the balance between process-oriented and outcome-oriented feedback. Process-oriented feedback focuses on how the learner approached a task: the steps taken, the reasoning applied, the decision-making heuristic employed. Outcome-oriented

feedback focuses on what the learner produced: the correctness of the computation, the quality of the interpretation, the relevance of the recommendation. Both types of feedback have instructional value, but they serve different purposes. Process-oriented feedback supports the development of analytical discipline; outcome-oriented feedback supports the calibration of analytical judgement. The framework recommends that simulations deliver both types of feedback in calibrated measure, with the balance shifting toward process-oriented feedback in early instruction and toward outcome-oriented feedback in advanced instruction (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Mory, 2004) [66, 67].

Team-play feedback considerations differ from individual-play considerations in ways that warrant explicit treatment. Team-play simulations produce two distinct feedback flows: individual feedback on each team member's contributions, and team feedback on the collective performance. The balance between these flows shapes the learning outcomes: heavy emphasis on team feedback risks masking individual-level learning gaps; heavy emphasis on individual feedback erodes the team-play benefits. The framework recommends that team-play simulations maintain both flows explicitly, with individual feedback delivered in private and team feedback delivered collectively, and with explicit attention to the interaction between the two feedback flows (Bonwell & Eison, 1991; Chickering & Gamson, 1987; Prince, 2004) [57, 58, 55].

## 6. Assessment Alignment

Assessment alignment is the correspondence between what the simulation asks learners to do and what the assessment instrument measures. Misalignment produces two failure modes. If the assessment is narrower than the simulation experience, learners perceive the simulation as instructionally inefficient and disengage. If the assessment is broader than the simulation, learners are insufficiently prepared and perform below their learning.

Alignment decisions operate at three levels. At the level of learning outcomes, the simulation and the assessment must target the same competencies. If the programme learning outcome specifies the interpretation of variances, the simulation and the assessment must exercise interpretation, not merely computation. At the level of task format, the simulation and the assessment should share similar decision structures: a simulation that requires diagnostic narratives should be assessed through diagnostic narratives, not through multiple-choice items. At the level of scoring, the rubric used to evaluate learner output should reflect the same dimensions that the simulation rewards, which typically include correct computation, quality of diagnosis, managerial relevance of recommendations, and coherence of narrative.

The assessment-alignment literature in higher education emphasises that alignment is a design property rather than a post-hoc check (Biggs, 1996) [6]. For simulation-based variance analysis instruction, this implies that the assessment instrument should be specified in parallel with the simulation, not after the simulation has been built. The framework recommends that programmes producing simulations for variance analysis develop an assessment blueprint at the scenario-design stage, specifying the learning outcomes to be assessed, the task formats to be

used, the scoring rubric, and the expected distribution of scores under intended instruction.

Assessment alignment also has a threshold effect on the construct validity of research on simulation effectiveness. Studies that compare simulation-based instruction to traditional instruction using assessments aligned only with traditional instruction are likely to understate the effect of simulation. Studies that use assessments aligned only with simulation-exercised competencies are likely to overstate it. The framework recommends that empirical evaluations use assessment instruments that span the competencies exercised by both instructional conditions, with explicit reporting of the alignment between the instrument and each condition.

Authentic assessment represents a specific approach to alignment that has gained traction in accounting education. Authentic assessments require learners to perform tasks similar to those they will face in professional practice, under conditions that approximate professional constraints. For variance analysis, authentic assessment might require learners to produce a memorandum to operations management explaining observed variances and recommending corrective action, under time constraints similar to those of actual practice. This format aligns closely with the interpretive competencies that simulations can develop, and its use in assessment reinforces the instructional value of simulation-based preparation (Birenbaum, 1996; Stiggins, 1987) [7, 41].

Rubric design deserves specific treatment within the assessment-alignment discussion. A rubric is the structured tool by which learner performance is evaluated against the stated competencies, and its design shapes both the reliability and the validity of the assessment. Well-designed rubrics specify the dimensions of performance to be evaluated, the levels of performance on each dimension, and the evidence required to assign performance to each level. For variance analysis assessment, typical dimensions include computational accuracy, interpretive depth, managerial relevance, and narrative coherence. The framework recommends that rubrics be developed collaboratively with the scenario design and piloted with a subset of learners before full deployment, to surface calibration issues before they compromise live assessment outcomes (Andrade, 2005; Jonsson & Svingby, 2007) [4, 23].

The relationship between formative and summative assessment in simulation-based instruction deserves attention. Formative assessment, delivered during instruction with the primary purpose of supporting learning, differs from summative assessment, delivered at the conclusion of instruction with the primary purpose of certifying attainment. Both types of assessment have roles in simulation-based variance analysis instruction: formative assessment supports the iterative refinement of learner competence through repeated simulation engagement, while summative assessment certifies the attainment of specified competencies at the conclusion of the instructional sequence. The framework recommends that the design of both types of assessment be coordinated with the simulation design, with formative assessment integrated into the simulation experience and summative assessment designed to align with the scenario-simulated competencies (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Taras, 2005) [8, 43].

The treatment of inter-rater reliability in simulation-based assessment deserves explicit discussion. Assessment of

interpretive and narrative responses requires human judgement by raters, and the reliability of that judgement across raters materially affects the defensibility of assessment results. Strategies for maintaining inter-rater reliability include rater training, double-rating of a sample of responses, and the use of anchor responses that establish shared calibration across raters. These strategies impose overhead on the assessment process but are necessary to maintain the credibility of simulation-based assessment outcomes. Programmes that neglect inter-rater reliability in simulation-based assessment expose themselves to legitimate challenge when assessment results are used for high-stakes certification or progression decisions (Jonsson & Svingby, 2007; Rebele & St. Pierre, 2019) [23, 64].

Assessment feasibility constraints warrant treatment. Simulation-based assessment of interpretive competencies typically requires more rater time than conventional multiple-choice assessment, and this time cost must be weighed against the assessment-validity benefits. Programmes with limited rater capacity may need to prioritise simulation-based assessment for learning outcomes where conventional assessment is demonstrably inadequate, relying on conventional assessment for outcomes where its validity is acceptable. The framework does not prescribe a specific balance but recommends that the balance be articulated explicitly as a programme-level design decision rather than drifted into as an accumulation of separate assessment choices (Biggs, 1996; Stiggins, 1987) [6, 41].

The role of peer assessment in simulation-based instruction has received increasing attention. Peer assessment exercises, in which learners evaluate each other's simulation performance against specified rubrics, serve two purposes: they distribute the rating workload across the learner population, reducing instructor burden; and they develop learners' own evaluative competence as a transferable skill. Research on peer assessment identifies the conditions under which it produces reliable and valid assessment results, including explicit rubric training for learners, anonymous assignment of peer reviews, and calibration against instructor assessment. The integration of peer assessment into simulation-based instruction is an area where practitioner innovation has been substantial, and its continuing development warrants attention in subsequent research (Topping, 1998; Van Popta *et al.*, 2017) [44, 46].

Assessment-driven learning is a further consideration warranting explicit attention. Students direct their learning effort toward the activities they expect to be assessed, regardless of the instructional intentions of the course designers. If the assessment emphasises computational accuracy, students will direct effort toward computational practice; if the assessment emphasises interpretive depth, students will direct effort toward interpretive practice. This behavioural reality reinforces the framework's emphasis on assessment alignment: programmes that want learners to develop interpretive competence must assess interpretive competence, not merely hope that it emerges as a by-product of computational instruction. The explicit incorporation of this principle into simulation-based instructional design is one of the framework's principal contributions (Andrade, 2005; Biggs, 1996) [4, 6].

## 7. Propositions and Research Agenda

Three falsifiable propositions are advanced for empirical

testing. Proposition 1: simulation-based instruction designed in accordance with the framework produces mean gains on diagnostic-narrative rubric scores (assessing managerial recommendations and evidence-based reasoning about variances) at least 30 per cent larger than traditional case-based instruction over an equivalent 14-hour instructional window, in randomised studies with graduate accounting cohorts. The disconfirming condition is that the two instructional modalities produce rubric-score gains that are statistically indistinguishable after controlling for prior GPA and baseline variance-analysis competence.

Proposition 2 (falsifiable form): the interaction between decision cadence and feedback specificity produces a cadence-by-specificity interaction effect on learning-transfer scores in factorial studies, such that high-specificity feedback produces transfer gains at least 40 per cent larger under event-paced and period-paced cadences than under real-time cadences. The disconfirming condition is that the cadence-by-specificity interaction term fails to reach conventional significance in factorial ANOVA with adequate power, indicating that feedback specificity produces equivalent transfer gains regardless of cadence.

Proposition 3 (falsifiable form): in quasi-experimental studies comparing simulations matched on scenario richness but varying in assessment-alignment (high-alignment vs low-alignment conditions), the high-alignment condition produces learning-gain scores at least 25 per cent larger than the low-alignment condition even when the low-alignment condition has higher absolute scenario richness. The proposition is disconfirmed if scenario richness dominates alignment in well-specified regression models predicting learning gains.

The research agenda extends beyond the three propositions. A fourth research direction concerns the effect of simulation design on learner affect, motivation, and engagement over extended instructional sequences. A fifth direction concerns the transfer of simulation-developed competencies to early professional practice, measurable through longitudinal studies of graduate performance. A sixth direction concerns the cost-effectiveness of simulation-based instruction relative to alternative pedagogies, particularly relevant in resource-constrained educational settings where investment in simulation must be justified against alternative uses of limited instructional resources. A seventh direction concerns the integration of emerging artificial-intelligence capabilities into simulation environments, including AI-generated scenarios, AI-delivered feedback, and AI-mediated assessment. Each of these directions represents a substantial research programme in its own right, and their pursuit would materially advance the evidence base on which accounting-education practice depends (Aliliele *et al.*, 2023; Mbonu *et al.*, 2021) [2, 31].

Methodological considerations for the empirical research agenda warrant explicit treatment. Controlled experimental designs provide the strongest evidence for causal claims about simulation effectiveness but face feasibility constraints in educational settings where instructional time is scarce and random assignment may be infeasible. Quasi-experimental designs with matched comparison groups offer a practical alternative that preserves causal inference at the cost of reduced internal validity. Mixed-methods designs that combine quantitative outcome measurement with qualitative investigation of learner experience provide the richest evidentiary base but are resource-intensive. The

framework does not prescribe a specific methodological approach but recommends that researchers explicitly articulate their methodological trade-offs and report sufficient detail to permit replication and synthesis across studies (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Shadish *et al.*, 2002) [22, 36].

Boundary conditions of the framework warrant explicit discussion. The framework applies to graduate-level variance analysis instruction, and its application to undergraduate contexts or to continuing-education settings may require adaptation. The framework assumes programme-level commitment to simulation-based instruction as a strategic pedagogical choice, and its application in programmes that treat simulation as a peripheral instructional add-on may produce attenuated benefits. The framework focuses on the instructional design dimension and does not address the technology-platform dimension in depth; the specific choice of simulation platform is acknowledged as a material consideration but is treated as an implementation decision rather than as a framework element.

The interaction between simulation design and instructor capability warrants explicit treatment. Simulation-based instruction imposes distinctive demands on the instructor, including the design and maintenance of scenarios, the delivery of debriefing sessions, the calibration of peer-assessment activities, and the ongoing adaptation of simulation content as business contexts evolve. Instructor capability to meet these demands varies widely, and the effectiveness of simulation-based instruction depends substantially on the fit between simulation design and instructor capability. Programmes investing in simulation-based instruction should invest concurrently in instructor development, through professional-development programmes, instructional-design consultation, and communities of practice that support the exchange of simulation experience across the instructor population (Apostolou *et al.*, 2023; Rebele & St. Pierre, 2019) [65, 64].

A further research direction concerns the integration of simulation-based instruction with broader curricular reform. Variance analysis is typically one topic within a broader managerial accounting curriculum, and simulation-based instruction for this topic interacts with instruction for adjacent topics (activity-based costing, performance evaluation, strategic cost management). The framework as developed here addresses the variance analysis topic specifically, but its principles have implications for the broader curriculum. Programmes considering comprehensive curricular reform can use the framework to structure the simulation-based component of the reform, with attention to the coherence of simulation experiences across topics and to the cumulative competence development across the curriculum as a whole.

Cost-effectiveness research in accounting education is a further under-developed area that the framework's implementation would benefit from. Simulation-based instruction requires significant initial investment in scenario design, platform deployment, and instructor development, and the return on this investment must be demonstrated against alternative instructional approaches that require lower initial investment. Rigorous cost-effectiveness analysis of simulation-based instruction, conducted across multiple programmes and over extended time horizons, would provide evidence base for practitioner investment

decisions that are currently made primarily on qualitative grounds. The methodology for such analysis combines educational-research techniques with the economic-evaluation methodology developed in health economics and other applied social-science disciplines, and its adaptation to the accounting-education context is an important research contribution awaiting completion.

International-comparative research on simulation-based instruction would extend the evidence base beyond the North American and European contexts that currently dominate the literature. Accounting-education traditions differ substantially across countries, reflecting differences in the accountancy profession, in higher-education systems, and in the professional-certification landscape. Simulation-based instruction may transfer across these differences with modification, or may require substantial re-design. Systematic investigation of the transferability of simulation designs across international contexts would clarify the adaptations required and would support the efficient spread of effective practice across the global accounting-education community.

## 8. Conclusion

Simulation-based tools offer a potentially substantial contribution to the preparation of graduate accounting students for practice environments in which variance analysis is used interpretively rather than mechanically. The gap between computational fluency and interpretive competence has been documented for decades, and simulation represents one of the more promising instructional responses to the gap.

The framework developed in this article specifies five components — scenario architecture, data fidelity, decision cadence, feedback design, and assessment alignment — that together support the design of simulation-based variance analysis instruction. The framework is grounded in established learning theories, informed by prior research on simulation in accounting and business education, and oriented toward both educator use and researcher use.

Three propositions have been advanced for empirical testing, and an extended research agenda has been identified. The framework's claim to usefulness depends on the subsequent empirical work that tests, refines, and extends it. The article is offered in the expectation that such work will proceed, and with the recognition that the framework will be modified by the evidence it generates. The value of the framework lies as much in the empirical research programme it structures as in the conceptual architecture it articulates, and both aspects are offered in support of the cumulative development of effective simulation-based instruction in graduate accounting education.

Broader implications follow for the accounting education community. The framework makes explicit a set of design decisions that have often been made implicitly, and by doing so it supports more deliberate and defensible design practice. The explicitness also supports knowledge transfer across institutions: simulation designs developed in one programme can be characterised in framework terms and adapted for deployment in other programmes, rather than requiring fresh design work at each location. The cumulative development of simulation-based variance analysis instruction across the accounting-education community benefits from the shared vocabulary that the framework

provides.

The article also speaks to broader themes in accounting-education reform. The persistent gap between computational fluency and interpretive competence is not unique to variance analysis: it arises across the managerial-accounting curriculum, in financial-statement analysis, in audit reasoning, and in the interpretation of risk metrics. The framework developed here for variance analysis can be adapted to these adjacent topics, with modifications that reflect the specific competency profiles each topic requires. Subsequent work extending the framework to adjacent topics would produce an integrated design vocabulary for simulation-based accounting instruction that currently exists only in fragments across the accounting-education literature. Policy and programmatic implications also warrant brief consideration. Accounting-programme directors considering investment in simulation-based instruction can use the framework to structure their investment cases, specifying the scenario architecture, data fidelity, decision cadence, feedback design, and assessment alignment for which support is sought. Accrediting bodies considering the role of simulation-based instruction in programme evaluation can use the framework to structure their expectations, recognising that effective simulation instruction requires attention to all five components rather than mere platform deployment. Professional accountancy bodies considering the role of simulation-developed competencies in certification can use the framework to articulate the specific competencies that simulation-based preparation delivers, supporting the integration of simulation-developed competencies into certification frameworks.

The relationship between simulation-based instruction and emerging artificial-intelligence capabilities deserves closing attention. Large language models and related AI tools increasingly support instructional activities including scenario generation, feedback provision, and assessment scoring. The integration of AI capabilities into the five-component framework is an active frontier, and several research questions merit investigation. How do AI-generated scenarios compare to instructor-authored scenarios in their learning effectiveness? How does AI-delivered feedback compare to instructor-delivered feedback in its formative value? How can AI-scored assessment be reconciled with human judgement in ways that preserve assessment validity while reducing instructor workload? Each of these questions opens a substantial research programme, and the framework developed here provides vocabulary for structuring the programme coherently.

The framework also speaks to the continuing evolution of the accounting profession itself. The competency profile required of accounting professionals has shifted substantially over recent decades, away from computational fluency and toward interpretive judgement, analytical synthesis, and business partnering. Simulation-based instruction, properly designed, addresses these evolving competency requirements more effectively than conventional instruction can. The framework's emphasis on interpretive competency development is therefore aligned with the broader direction of the profession, and its application to graduate accounting education supports the preparation of practitioners for the roles the profession is evolving toward rather than the roles it has historically occupied.

The article closes on a note of measured ambition. The framework is one contribution to a growing literature on simulation-based accounting instruction, not a definitive account. Its value to the field will be determined by the research and practice it enables, and by the modifications it undergoes through empirical testing and practical application. The cumulative direction of the field is toward more deliberate, more theoretically grounded, and more empirically validated simulation-based instruction, and this article is offered as a contribution to that cumulative direction rather than as a final statement of the design problem it addresses.

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