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Project Plan

# Current Content Discovery for Module Teaching

by  
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# Abstract

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## 1 Introduction

### 1.1 Problem background

Since the emergence of the first Business schools in the late 19th century [40, 33], several distinct pedagogical teaching strategies have been applied. First institutionalized at Harvard Business School [14, 4] in the early 20th century, a method about teaching students with real world business cases (will be called *case method* in the rest of the thesis) has been found more effective and engaging [42, 3, 23] than many traditional, for example, big lecture based, teaching methods. The case method is valued as a form of *active learning* methods for students, for its ability to expose students to complex, context-specific problems that lack clear-cut solutions. As such, it has found wide adoption across the world [41, 9].

However, despite its aforementioned adoption and performance in business school teaching, the case method faces a significant constraint: the availability and collection of timely and relevant case material [36, 28]. In particular, Christensen has identified in his classical article that instructors would have to conduct “extensive preparation” [6] for case method. Another factor contributing to this constraint of case method is the ever-evolving business world and the necessity of the latest information: Clark argues that, because learned skill will lose value quickly in five years, it is critical for students to be up to date to remain relevant in the business world [7]; McFarlane emphasises the importance of updated cases, as otherwise students could be disengaged or discouraged [24].

### 1.2 Past advancements in information retrieval

During the past two centuries, a number of key developments have profoundly expanded an individual’s capacity to retrieve information about the world. In the early 19th century, the transmission of information was still traditional — carried by person on paper or simply remembered. This fundamentally limited both the speed and geographic reach of information retrieval. The invention of telegraph in the 1840s by Morse, Cornell, and Henry [34, 22], notably with Morse’s first telegraph message, “*What hath God wrought?*” in 1844 [26], marked a paradigm shift by enabling very fast transmission of encoded information over relatively short distances (w.r.t. the earth) via wired networks. This technological innovation was considerably improved by the invention of the telephone by Bell in 1876 [44, 11], enabling communication directly by human voice, instead of encoded Morse code.

Wired communication is critically constrained by geographical features on where the wires were laid. Around the late 19th century, Marconi’s experiments with wireless telegraphy [10] and the first successful transatlantic signal in 1901 [2] introduced electromagnetic wave-based wireless communication, eventually accumulating into the world’s first voice broadcast by radio in 1906 [39]. These milestones collectively redefined the temporal and spatial boundaries of information access.

The next many decades have seen people improving on the serious limitations of wireless communication: signal strength, interferences and attenuation, carrying capacity, and even deliberate sabotage during war times [13, 45, 1]. Theoretically, Hartley observed a logarithm pattern of information capacity [15] and then Shannon expanded on it to first define *bits* and *entropy*, giving a formal mathematical theory of information [37] in 1948. Meanwhile, engineers

were experimenting with alternative modulation techniques, notably frequency modulation (FM), and the concepts were formalized in the 1930s [16].

As the theoretical understanding of information progressed, people began to have the idea of *searching* for information based on content and by relevance, instead of by unique identifier [31]. Actually, the term *information retrieval* was not invented until Mooers coined it in 1950 [25]. Since then, information retrieval systems have quickly evolved, and went through four phases before 2000: “(1) manual and mechanical devices; (2) offline computing; (3) online computing, vendor access; (4) distributed, networked, and mass computing.” [12], with the last three substantially contributed to by the invention of the Internet [21], and consequently the emergence of search engines in the 1990s [35, 27]. For the next two decades, search engines greatly expanded in speed and coverage and has been significantly impacting the society’s information for at least a decade [5, 18].

LLMs have undoubtedly entered and transformed many areas, including daily life, business and the industry, and research [8]. One strong appeal of LLMs is that they could process user’s natural language input and generate natural language output in return with remarkable resemblance to what a human would say [47, 20]. However, because of the inherent limit of neural networks, some argue that they could not formally reason about what they output [32, 19, 30]. Indeed, hallucination [17, 29] and other forms of distortion of facts, is a big problem of LLMs. On the other hand, although search engines rely on deterministic algorithms that give precise reference to searched result, they could not compare with LLMs’ ability to process search prompt and summarize results.

Therefore, various attempts have been made to integrate LLMs with search engines [46, 38, 43]. Specifically, Xiong et al. proposes to categorize them into “LLM4Search” and “Search4LLM”, where “A4B” means using A to improve B [46]. Here is where my thesis will build upon. Previously, one would need to carefully craft search engine prompts into clearly and precise list of words or a short sentence. Now, with the help with LLMs that can easily process frivolous natural language input, I plan to integrate them together to boost information retrieval further, especially in the area of business school teaching content discovery.

## **2 Methods**

## **3 Results**

## **4 Discussion**

## **5 Conclusion**

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