Volume 12, Number 2 *2007*

Allied Academies
International Conference

Reno, NV
October 3-5, 2007

Academy of Educational Leadership

PROCEEDINGS

Volume 12, Number 2 *2007*

Table of Contents

THE ROLE OF BUSINESS STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS IN ENHANCING BUSINESS EDUCATION

Irfan Ahmed, Sam Houston State University
irfanahmed@shsu.edu

ABSTRACT

Among the numerous co-curricular activities available to the college today, membership and participation in campus student activities is a serious and desirable option. Student organizations that focus on the discipline of business and whose programs and activities are geared towards business school students are among the options that business students face when selecting from among the many organizations available on campus. Such organizations, referred in this paper as Business Student Organizations, offer students the opportunity to supplement their academic learning, in addition to a range of other benefits.

This study has the objective of studying BSOs, mapping out the range and variety of BSOs, and assess their role in enhancing the education and development of business students. Additionally, the problems facing the full utilization of the potential of BSOs is delineated, with recommendations for business school professors and administrators. The paper begins with a definition of a BSO and a demarcation of the range of organizations considered for study. Existing literature on student organizations and their role in enhancing student life and the college experience indicates a variety of student expectations and factors leading to satisfaction from participation in student organizations. A number of potential benefits from the operation on BSOs are identified, from the points of view of both students and business school faculty. The major benefits identified are student self selection, deeper interaction between faculty and students over and beyond the normal academic interaction, exposure to business practices and professionals, networking, and opportunities for community-based service learning.

However, the study has also identified several challenges facing the initiation and ongoing operation of BSOs. Among these challenges are: competition from alternative organizations and activities, lack of interest and commitment on the part of students, and the lack of a systematized support structure for BSOs among faculty and administrators at many institutions. BSOs represent a significant opportunity for enhancing the content and quality of the college experience for business school students. The study makes recommendations for achieving the full potential of BSOs through the full realization of their value and the nurturing and support of BSOs by faculty and administrators.

PREDICTING STUDENTS USAGE OF INTERNET IN TWO EMERGING ECONOMIES USING AN EXTENDED TECHNOLOGY ACCEPTANCE MODEL (TAM)

Khaled A. Alshare, Emporia State University
Faisal Alkhateeb, United Arab Emirates University
kalshare@emporia.edu

ABSTRACT

This study employed an extended technology acceptance model (TAM) to predict Internet usage in two developing countries (Chile and United Arab Emirates (UAE)). In addition to investigating the impacts of perceived ease of use (PEOU), perceived usefulness (PU), and perceived Internet content (PIC) on students' usage of the Internet, it analyzed the direct impacts of external variables such as gender, educational background, income level, self-reported measure of computer knowledge, Internet cost, and Internet availability on Internet usage and their moderating role in the relationship between PEOU, PU, and PIC and Internet usage. To validate the research model, data was collected from 169 students from Chile and 194 students from United Arab Emirates (UAE). The results showed that only PU was a significant predictor of Internet usage for both Emirates and Chilean samples. Additionally, while gender significantly impacted Emirates students' usage of Internet, self-reported knowledge about computers significantly impacted Chilean students' usage of Internet. Income level was the only significant moderator for both countries. PU affected usage of the Internet more positively for students with high income level than it did for those students with low income. Discussion of practical implications of the results was included.

THESE STUDENT PRESENTATIONS ARE DRIVING ME CRAZY! A SURVIVAL GUIDE FOR THE "REAL WORLD"

Randy J. Anderson, California State University, Fresno
randy_anderson@CSUFresno.EDU
Lydia E. Anderson, California State University, Fresno
lyanderson@CSUFresno.EDU

INTRODUCTION

Let's face it – in business, image is everything. Unfortunately, most students don't learn this harsh reality until after graduation. This little tidbit of information for success in business is generally discovered during a job interview, the initial request for an executive summary, or, in its most frightening of revelations, the first formal presentation to the top brass.

In its most basic terms, a presentation (be it written, oral, or visual) is a performance. It is acting out, or communicating who you are and your passion of the moment. Presenting is also viewed as the art of persuasion. We as professors persuade students to value information imparted in the classroom. Students, in turn, persuade us that they have a fair grasp and understanding of respective concepts. When entering the workforce, graduates must persuade prospective employers to hire them. And, finally, colleagues must persuade colleagues to accept solutions, recommendations, and the like. Effective presentations pique one's interest, and are, in fact, a form of personal selling.

There is no argument that effective presentation skills contribute to a more competitive workforce. The simple process of creating a presentation stimulates innovation, and develops both organizational and communication skills – vital performance skills that are surely lacking in today's modern workplace. Unfortunately, far too many college graduates are not provided basic presentation tools or examples to prepare them to compete in the marketplace. Thus, the object and challenge of the classroom professor is to inspire our students to succeed. When they (the students) succeed, we (the professors) succeed. But how do we accomplish this task with stale, mundane classroom presentations ourselves? The goal of this paper is to elicit a commitment from academicians to assess their current presentation style, to identify and update the necessary skills needed for graduates in their respective disciplines, and to encourage the integration of these skills into their lectures and curriculum. A quick self-assessment instrument is included to assist professors in identifying opportunities to sharpen personal and professional presentation skills.

THE PROBLEM

As students enter the workforce, it has become increasingly evident that the majority of graduates lack basic presentation skills. Although academia has prepared students in research reporting, few students are well equipped to compile a formal executive summary, prepare and

provide a formal presentation or speak confidently in front of a crowd. Even though a student may excel academically, his/her failure to properly communicate his/her strengths may prevent the student from excelling in the "real world." Unfortunately, it is difficult for students to present a favorable image if they are not given the basic tools and opportunities to enhance these necessary skills. In the majority of instances, academia has (albeit subconsciously) not only ignored, but prevented students from sharpening their presentation skills. Recently, academia has put forth a concerted effort to sharpen students' writing skills by requiring more rather than less actual writing assignments. While the writing style and content are improving, students still insufficiently prepared to make quality presentations to wow corporate America. Students are told to respond, write or orally present in a certain manner, a manner which might sometimes differ from professor to professor. This results in a confusing, convoluted approach which leads students to conforming, or worse yet, imitating the mannerisms exuded by the professor of the moment. Although the problem of effective presentations may be considered trivial by some, it is not at all trivial for those junior executives making their very first big presentation to the corporate brain trust.

THE SOLUTION

A great presentation, whether written or verbal, might be hard to describe, but we generally know one when we see one. Quality presentations display similar characteristics. Characteristics that communicate that someone has done their homework, invested time and thought into the materials, and has no interest in wasting anyone else's time. All aspects of the presentation, including supporting collateral and ancillary materials and visual effects, always support the overall message. Every contributing factor of the presentation reflects interest, accuracy, creativity and useful information. These characteristics, in turn, contribute to the passion, enthusiasm and believability of the presenter. By his own admission, the Rev. Billy Graham is not a very good public speaker. Yet, somehow after the he has finished, those who have listened are inspired and feel "connected" to Dr. Graham. This can be defined as "added value." Added value includes what will happen after the presentation ends, the follow-up, the challenge of how one will apply the information to their real world.

It starts in the classroom – Do as I say

Providing students with effective presentation skills must start in the classroom. It is vital for academicians to lead by example, by demonstrating the attitude of "do as I say AND do as I do." Those in higher education must constantly review and update their presentation style. Far too often, professors get caught in the "habit trap" of presenting the same information semester after semester. The same transparencies, the same lectures, the same handouts, the same old worn out story. This approach might cause professors to lose their vision and enthusiasm and question why they ever entered academia. Worse yet, many seasoned academicians still fail to use current technology and current events on a day to day basis. Before every lecture, professors should take a moment and ask themselves, "Would I want to sit through this lecture?"

Perhaps, the following self administered evaluation instrument might provide the catalyst to create a positive, informative environment which motivates students. Moreover, the classroom

will be transformed into a dynamic, insightful learning laboratory where students reaffirm their choice of why they took your class.

Classroom Presentation Assessment

Please check (☏) the appropriate response

		Always	*Never*	*Room for Improvement*
In the classroom, I ...				
1.	dress appropriately.	❑	❑	❑
2.	utilize appropriate business terminology.	❑	❑	❑
3.	utilize educated language (no colloquialisms).	❑	❑	❑
4.	reflect a positive personal attitude.	❑	❑	❑
5.	project a positive attitude toward my colleagues.	❑	❑	❑
6.	project a positive attitude toward administration.	❑	❑	❑
7.	project a personal style appropriate for the workplace.	❑	❑	❑
Regarding classroom written and collateral materials…				
1.	Course syllabus is reviewed and updated each semester.	❑	❑	❑
2.	Handouts are reviewed and updated each semester.	❑	❑	❑
3.	Classroom handouts are graphically appealing.	❑	❑	❑
4.	When applicable, classroom handouts are presented in standard business writing form.	❑	❑	❑
5.	Worksheets are applicable to corporate America.	❑	❑	❑
6.	Students' written responses are expected in standard business writing form (e.g., executive summary, memos).	❑	❑	❑
7.	Students are provided a brief explanation on business correspondence format (e.g., executive summary, memos).	❑	❑	❑
8.	Students are provided amply opportunity to respond in standard business writing form.	❑	❑	❑
My classroom lectures…				
1.	are interactive.	❑	❑	❑
2.	provide ample opportunity for participation and dialog.	❑	❑	❑
3.	encourage students to challenge lecture and ask questions.	❑	❑	❑
4.	utilize voice tones and levels to emphasize various points.	❑	❑	❑
5.	integrate current events and current case studies.	❑	❑	❑
6.	allow students to utilize critical thinking skills.	❑	❑	❑
7.	display a passion for subject.	❑	❑	❑
Regarding the use of visual aids, I ...				
1.	integrate various multimedia (tapes, video, slides, etc.).	❑	❑	❑
2.	use various visual aids apart from those provided by the book publisher.	❑	❑	❑
3.	utilize flip boards, white boards, and/or chalkboards.	❑	❑	❑
4.	provide students the opportunity to speak in front of the classroom.	❑	❑	❑
5.	utilize computers and technologies inside the classroom.	❑	❑	❑
6.	utilize computers and technologies outside the classroom.	❑	❑	❑
7.	encourage students to utilize current technologies to customize reports, lectures and presentations.	❑	❑	❑

Unless your discipline is in the field of communication, the preceding test probably reveled several opportunities for improvement. Hopefully, this has whetted your appetite to apply useful presentation skills and tools in the classroom that can be passed on to your students to reinforce their success in the workplace.

THE RIGHT TOOLS FOR THE "REAL WORLD"

The Look of an Executive

As Dorothy reminded us in The Wizard of Oz, there's no place like home. Before embarking on any presentation, the presenter should take a good look in the mirror. You needn't become a Cindy Crawford or Tom Cruise look-a-like. However, every student should strive to look professional in their respective workplace. The way you dress influences the way you act, which in turn, influences the outcome of your presentation. Although accountants may dress more conservatively than marketing professionals or statisticians, professional business attire is the mode of the day. Taking this into consideration, professors in the respective fields should dress accordingly. With the expectations of professional dress by the leader (the professor), the dress parameters are implicitly defined for the subordinates (the students). Studies have shown that appropriate dress supports the attitude. The Kellogg Graduate School of Management at Northwestern University expects all their students to dress professionally. In other words, "no tie, no shoes: no service!"

Executive Summaries

Those executives who have successfully made the transition from academia to corporate America know that students might learn all they can about "proper report format," but what really matters in the "real world" is how to write a clear, concise executive summary (and/or consultant's report). As *Dragnet*'s Sergeant Joe Friday once put it, "Just the facts, Ma'am." Although the value of a formal report should not be discounted (sometimes known as "additional detail"), executives (and managers) want quick, accurate facts. Unfortunately, the majority of complete formal reports do not get read. What does get read is the executive summary. Therefore, whenever possible, professors should strongly encourage the continuous use of executive summaries in their curriculum. These summaries can be applied to all disciplines including statistics, finance, accounting, marketing, even business law. In the age of reengineering, TQM, and cost-containment, it is necessary for students to be proficient in the writing of executive summaries. This is now a requirement, not a luxury, if a student wants to make a smooth transition from the classroom to the boardroom!

Oral Presentations

Oral presentations are generally integrated into most management and marketing curriculums. However, it is a necessity for all disciplines to provide college students ample

opportunity to sharpen their public speaking skills. By utilizing the art of persuading others the correct method, alternatives or a viable solution, one's communication skills are honed and sharpened. Thus, the student is provided with another effective communication tools necessary for success in the workplace.

Practical Experience

Successful presenters know the value of displaying both critical thinking skills and the ability to think on one's feet. These skills can be learned through the use of applying current events to classroom concepts. Turning the current event into a "what would you have done" scenario teaches the student to behave like a manager, and utilize critical thinking skills. Consequently, the "school of hard knocks" in the form of comments and criticisms from their peers and professors further prepares the student for the workplace by enhancing their ability to quickly think on their feet. However, successful presentations cannot be bought, inherited, or ordained. On the contrary, this skill is developed over time. And just like golf, practice makes perfect. The more opportunities a student has in the classroom to speak and present, the more natural the delivery becomes. The investment of time and effort in this skill will pay handsome dividends in the "real world."

Job Search Skills

Many students have never been taught the basic skills that practitioners take for granted. There is tremendous value in tailoring presentations to a particular audience. If there is ever one eye-opening predicament that can teach a student the value of personal attention, it is the first job interview. Even though one may not have thought of it in this fashion, every job interview is nothing more than a customized presentation to a small audience. For example, by researching a prospective employer's company, your presentation would certainly be enhanced by displaying the company's logo on all ancillary materials to be presented to your prospective employer.

It is rare to find a college or university that does not have a placement office. Unfortunately, students tend to under-utilize this valuable resource. Although it is not the professor's primary job to teach basic job search skills, it should be a tangential motive for every professor. When applicable, students should be directed to the appropriate resources. Sadly, far too many students do not understand the concept of "selling one's self" to obtain the all-important first job. Needed information not only includes how to develop an effective resume, but also what should be included in a cover letter, the need to network, the skill of "asking for the sale," and especially the importance of following up with thank you letters. These topics are "real time" for students searching for a job. Too many college graduates are released into the workforce with too few marketable skills which culminate in unproductive employment. Finally, teaching students the art of personalizing all presentations toward the appropriate audience is a responsibility all college faculty share.

A Shot of Enthusiasm

Unfortunately, far too many individuals are under the impression that Corporate America is just a bunch of boring stuffed shirt yahoos. Perhaps, Corporate America is in need a grand

infusion of creativity. Responding to this criticism, some companies are trying to stem the tide by hiring consultants to present "creativity" and "having fun in the workplace" seminars. More and more employers are discovering that creativity stimulates innovation, teamwork, and productivity. In an enhanced workplace, high morale increases the bottom line. Encouraging students to think creatively teaches them independence and nonconformance, which in turn, help develop self-confidence and self-reliance. Consequently, these skills contribute to making students more competitive and marketable once they enter the workforce.

The Good Humor Man/Woman

Too often, presentations are a recitation of boring facts and power points slides which zonk the audience into oblivion. Spice up your delivery! You need not be a stand up comedian like Steve Martin or Larry the Cable Guy to engage your audience, but a little humor, especially if it is self-deprecating, is a wonderful tool in opening up the lines of communication to the audience. Even the old standby of "I once met a man with a wooden leg named Smith: What's the name of his other leg" or "A minister, a priest and a rabbi walked into a bar, and the bartender said, 'What is this, a joke?'"! Humor not only allows the presenter to connect with the audience, it can put both the audience and presenter at ease. This can make for an effective presentation.

CONCLUSION

The challenge offered here is to inspire university professors to raise the bar on how they can contribute to enhancing students' skills and abilities for effective communication through the professors' own actions. This communication, both written and orally, should utilize a variety of presentation tools, skills, and protocols, which can be facilitated by requiring more classroom assignments and opportunities. The curative approach presented in this paper is not new, nor is it innovative. However, it does identify the inconsistent implementation of basic communication skills inside and outside of the classroom. By an increased awareness of the necessity for students to acquire these much needed skills, the time is now for the professor to restructure lectures, assignments and exams to reflect a continued commitment to quality. Seasoned instructors should know the value of these skills and the potential harsh realities facing ill-prepared students in the workplace. By infusing these lessons back into the classroom, academicians can better prepare students to communicate, and hence, compete more effectively. After all, a college education is much more than just a college degree!

REFERENCES

Secrets of P~O~W~E~R Presentations, Peter Urs Bender, Firefly Books, 1997.

You've Got To Be Believed To Be Heard, Bert Decker, St. Martin's Press, 1992.

"Crazy Management Theories," *Working Woman*, September, 1997.

DEMAND FOR ENGINEERING GRADUATES IN WESTERN ILLINOIS, SOUTHEAST IOWA AND NORTHEAST MISSOURI: ASSESSMENTS AND FORECASTS

Adee Athiyaman, Western Illinois University
a-athiyaman@wiu.edu

ABSTRACT

This research is part of a new product planning exercise for a higher education institution. The study forecasts total market demand for general engineers in the Western Illinois, Southeast Iowa, and Northeast Missouri region. Then, it discusses the attraction of a planned, bachelor's degree in general engineering. A deterministic model was utilized to forecast total demand, and a stochastic model was employed to assess the attractiveness of the new product in the marketplace. The methodology of the paper should be of interest to practitioners in higher education.

Key words*: new product planning, engineering occupations, primary demand, secondary demand, United States.*

(Note: Thanks to Lori Sutton for help with data collection)

REUSABLE LEARNING OBJECTS: A MODIFIED DELPHI STUDY

Francis L. Bartholet, Missouri Southern State University
bartholet-f@mssu.edu
Thomas M. Box, Pittsburg State University
tbox@pittstate.edu

ABSTRACT

The Internet and World Wide Web have provided mechanisms for remarkably enhancing the presentation and acquisition of knowledge by students and corporate learners. This paper describes a modified Delphi study that was used to create a group of evaluation criteria for creating Reusable Learning Objects that have the potential of standardizing the presentation of information for wide-spread use in accordance with the goals of the Learning Technology Standards Committee of the Institute of Electrical and Electronic Engineers.

SERVICE LEARNING WITHIN UNIVERSITY SCHOOLS OF BUSINESS

Timothy C. Johnston, Murray State University
timothyc.johnston@murraystate.edu
Kevin L. Hammond, The University of Tennessee at Martin
khammond@utm.edu
Robert L. Webster, Ouachita Baptist University
websterb@obu.edu

ABSTRACT

This paper presents results of a nationwide survey of business school marketing and accounting department chairs regarding service learning. Descriptive data on the sample are provided, along with accreditation affiliation, data on the extent of service learning activities in the curricula and the emphasis on service learning in the organization's mission. The results provide insights into the emphasis on service learning in various types of business schools in the United States.

CYBER-PLAGIARISM: DIFFERENT METHOD-SAME SONG

Ida M. Jones, California State University, Fresno
idaj@csufresno.edu

ABSTRACT

Cyber-plagiarism or cutting and pasting material from the internet instead of writing in one's own words is a new twist on the age old problem. Learners give a number of different reasons for plagiarizing. Preventing plagiarism requires that faculty recognize that students may have more and different opportunities to cheat. Educating students about what constitutes plagiarism, careful crafting of assignments, adopting honor codes, and taking appropriate action upon discovering plagiarism can limit students' ability to engage in academic dishonesty and thus promote academic integrity in the classroom and in the institution. (Jones 2007)

INTRODUCTION

Students plagiarize to get a good job, get good grades, from social pressure to do well, because everyone does it and because faculty does not care about cheating. Perhaps student plagiarize because we are a nation of people who lie, cheat and engage in other unethical conduct to get ahead (Hanson, 2003; Lupton, 2000). Others allege that plagiarism is an issue of character and that there are students that will cheat just because they want to get away with it, but that up to 70% cheat because of their misunderstanding about what constitutes plagiarism (Hinman, 2002). In this excerpt of a longer paper, the author looks at recommendations to prevent cheating.

REDUCING ACADEMIC DISHONESTY

Given the myriad reasons one might plagiarize, it may seem difficult to prevent it. This paper includes a list of actions that faculty and institutions can take to minimize the likelihood of plagiarism. The following suggestions range from attempts to change character and the academic culture to redesigning the education environment in a way that minimizes the ability and benefits of cheating to using technology to thwart cheating.

HONOR CODES

Increases in students' academic dishonesty have resulted in increasing efforts to curb it. Schools have considered developing student conduct or honor codes as one method to curb the rising tide of dishonest (McCabe & Pavela, 2005; Schulman, 1998). This renewed interest is due in part to studies that show that cheating during tests is one-third to one-half lower in schools that have honor codes as contrasted to schools that do not (McCabe & Pavela, 2005). In addition, in these schools, students are more likely to report cheating by the peers than in non-honor code campuses.

This reduction may relate to the focus an institution places on character and the school's culture. If the institution successfully makes this culture shift, then students may conclude that everyone is not cheating and feel less justification to cheat or condone cheating by others. Changing the culture is a long-term strategy that may be difficult to implement. In a small, relatively homogenous group, a values-based honor code might be an effective way to change conduct (Berenson, 2004). It would be easier to change, in part, because the group is starting from a common value base. Large universities do not have a homogenous student population. The difficulties in changing culture in that environment are much more intractable.

A variation on the honor code theme is to require that students sign an authenticity statement for each assignment. The authenticity statement is a declaration from the student that the work is his or her own. Students thus make a written commitment that the language used in a project is their own and that if it is not, there has been proper attribution made.

PROVIDE CLEAR DEFINITIONS OF CHEATING AND PLAGIARISM

As noted earlier, a significant amount of cheating and plagiarism occurs because students do not clearly understand what constitutes cheating and plagiarism (hereinafter WPA, 2003). Most students know that surreptitiously glancing at and copying another student's answers during a proctored exam is cheating. Most students know that making an identical copy of another student's work or copying another's author's work is cheating. Students do not have equally clear beliefs regarding other types of academic dishonesty. Students have alleged, for example, that using the same paper from one semester to the next is not cheating and that copying someone's work and changing a few words and/or changing the order is not cheating. In this author's experience based on anecdotal evidence, students believe that changing a few words constitutes writing the work themselves and does not constitute cheating. In an appeal, a student alleged that he had not cheated because he reorganized part of the other student's work and that that was not academic dishonesty. This appeal was denied at every stage.

Students may not clearly understand that "cutting and pasting" resources from the internet is plagiarism. Students may not clearly understand the parameters of acceptable collaboration on group projects. The university, school and instructor must establish and publish clear definitions of academic dishonesty. This may even require that faculty provide examples to buttress and clarify their definitions or create course-specific definitions. An institutional and/or instructor-based explanation of the policy for the course can clarify acceptable uses of previous semesters' work for a current course. In addition to the institution's definition, this author provides a detailed definition of academic dishonesty in the course syllabus for each course. To clarify permissible and impermissible collaboration for group assignments, this author specifically defines acceptable collaboration.

This author, a professor of Business Law and an instructor of Communications, combined to develop and present their workshop: *Academic Integrity Workshop: Focus on Plagiarism* to students in a variety of courses at California State University, Fresno. The workshops were designed to prevent plagiarism through teaching students the definition of plagiarism, how to properly paraphrase and cite and through recommended strategies to avoid plagiarism. During the 2006-2007 academic year Jones and Scott presented these workshops to nearly 2,500 students. In the post

workshop surveys, many students (39%) admitted that they had plagiarized. Some who admitted that they had plagiarized alleged that the plagiarism was "accidental" or "unintentional" and that the workshops were helpful to help them understand plagiarism more clearly. Also, although the majority of students (60%) believed, at the beginning of the workshop, that they knew the definition of plagiarism, the vast majority (96%) of students responded that they had learned a great deal from the workshop. Survey results from faculty who attended the workshops were very positive and faculty uniformly stated that the workshops were helpful to them and to their students.

USE VIGILANCE IN DETECTING INCIDENTS OF CHEATING AND PLAGIARISM

Using technology to detect plagiarism is one way to minimize students' submission of plagiarized assignments in online and traditional courses. A professional service company such as Turnitin (turnitin.com) will check students' papers for plagiarism. Turnitin has a database of billions of pages copied from a variety of sources including journals, resources on the Internet and papers submitted by other students through Turnitin. Because the papers submitted by students become part of the Turnitin database, the faculty member has a database of past papers to check for future plagiarism. An alternative method of checking assignments and papers is to use Google (google.com) or another search engine to detect plagiarism.

STATE AND ENFORCE SANCTIONS

Deterrence through clearly defining what actions constitute academic dishonesty is one component of an effective policy to minimize cheating. Another component is to impose sanctions on those who have been determined to have violated the policy. A policy is only as effective as its enforcement against those who violate it. Faculty must be willing to take substantive action when students have cheated, especially when cheating has been clearly defined. In fact, students who want to cheat may choose to take courses from faculty members who do not effectively police cheating. Schools must also support faculty efforts to reduce cheating by endorsing sanctions imposed by faculty and obstructing the faculty's efforts.

RE-DESIGN COURSES

A more comprehensive strategy for reducing academic dishonesty is to develop and employ pedagogically sound teaching techniques and assignments. This is a more substantive, time-consuming and effective method of preventing plagiarism and cheating.

Another option for redesigned courses is to reduce the value or weight of online testing, especially where the testing involves objective questions or traditional/global short answer questions. Instructors can use such tests as self-tests (where students receive credit for taking the tests, but not for a specific grade). Instructors can also reduce the value of the tests in relation to the course grade. The result of these modifications would be that there would be no significant advantage to students to engage in academic dishonesty during tests. A subsequent section presents other alternatives for modifying the testing environment.

MODIFY WRITTEN ASSIGNMENTS

Increasing the weight of properly designed written assignments can reduce the impact of academic dishonesty during exams. If the value of objective exams is decreased relative to the students overall grade, then student cheating on the exams would not guarantee a passing grade in the course. Students would have to also perform appropriately in the other areas on which the students are assessed.

What is a properly designed written assignment? It is one that helps instructor determine whether the course objectives have been accomplished through the student's effort. For example, if the objective is to determine whether students can properly brief a case, the faculty member can ask students to brief relatively recent cases which are less likely to be available on the internet. The instructor can require that the student explain similarities and differences between the case(s) briefed and the text's discussion of the topic. Faculty can ask students to explain in their own words so that students must paraphrase rather than repeat the exact words of the opinion. Faculty can "test" student comprehension online by requiring group discussion of the cases briefed and to report on similarities and differences. Faculty can limit the length of the brief, thus requiring that students identify key issues within a relatively short space.

Most important is that faculty must vary assignments each semester. Even if the assignment is intended to accomplish the same objectives each semester, the type of assignment, the resources used or the timing of the cases must be altered to minimize cheating. Limiting the topics each semester helps to minimize the ability of students to use a previous semester's assignments.

USE AN ALTERNATIVE APPROACH: ASSIGNMENTS OUTSIDE THE BOX

In a provocative essay based on his book *Free Culture*, Lawrence Lessig argues that students should be permitted to use their ability to cut and paste in a way that is creative and is rewarded. He argues that there is a creative commons that should exist and that should allow individuals to improve upon previously made/copyrighted material. Thus, educators would develop assignments that require that students take existing materials and convert them to new uses.

How would that work? Faculty could start with assigning topics from the textbook. Each student (or group) could be assigned to copy passages from the textbook and compare to one or two sources from the internet. Specifically, students could be asked to copy (cut and paste) verbatim, then discuss the similarities and/or differences. Another alternative would be to ask students to take material from the text and from other sources and create a new document that contained elements of all sources. This approach takes the "cut and paste" activities that are so common for students and asks them to do so in a way that requires more critical thinking. Depending on the course objectives, modifying course assignments using this approach could be effective.

CONCLUSION

Careful crafting of assignments and increasing an institution's commitment to lessening cheating can limit students' ability to engage in academic dishonesty. The methods outlined above

can help the institution and the learner to develop his or her support of an environment of academic integrity.

REFERENCES

Berenson, Steven K (2004). What Should Law School Student Conduct Codes Do? (May 5, 2004). TJSL Public Law Research Paper No. 04-07. Retrieved September 8, 2007, from http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=529442.

Hanson, Kirk O. (2003, January 19). A Nation of Cheaters. *Boston Globe*. Retrieved September 8, 2007, from http://www.scu.edu/ethics/publications/ethicalperspectives/cheating.html.

Hinman, Lawrence M. (2002). Academic Integrity and the World Wide Web, *Computers & Society*, 32(33), 35-36.

Jones, Ida M. (2007). Cyber-Plagiarism: Different Method-Same Song. Presented to Allied Academies 2007 conference.

Lupton, Robert A., Chapman, Kenneth J., & Weiss, John E. (2000, Mar-Apr.). A Cross-National Exploration of Business Students' Attitudes, Perceptions, and Tendencies Toward Academic Dishonesty, *Journal of Education for Business 75(4)* 231-235.

Mccabe, Donald & Pavela, Gary (2005, Mar. 11). New Honor Codes for a New Generation, *Inside Higher Education*. Retrieved September 8, 2007, from http://www.insidehighered.com/views/2005/03/14/pavela1.

McMurtry, Kim (2001, Nov.). E-cheating: Combating a 21st Century Challenge, THE Journal Online. Retrieved September 8, 2007, from http://www.thejournal.com/magazine/vault/A3724.cfm .

Schulman, Miriam (1998). Cheating Themselves*, Issues in Ethics* 9(1). Retrieved September 8, 2007, from http://www.scu.edu/ethics/publications/iie/v9n1/cheating.html.

Council of Writing Program Administrators (Jan. 2003). Defining and Avoiding Plagiarism: The WPA Statement on Best Practices. Retried September 8, 2007, from http://www.wpacouncil.org.

A COMPARISON OF THE ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENTS TAUGHT BY FULL-TIME VERSUS ADJUNCT FACULTY IN BUSINESS COURSES

Florence R. Kirk, SUNY Oswego
fkirk@oswego.edu
Charles A. Spector, SUNY Oswego
spector@oswego.edu

ABSTRACT

In recent years there has been a significant increase in the numbers of adjunct faculty teaching at the college level. As of 2005, almost half of four-year college teachers were part-time faculty members. The causes of this shift toward a part-time faculty are well known; however, the effect of this shift is only beginning to be examined. In this paper we test empirically whether students of adjunct faculty in beginning accounting courses are as well prepared for required upper-level business course work as students of full-time faculty members. We also address whether adjunct faculty contribute to grade inflation. We find that students taught by full-time faculty members in their accounting principles classes performed at a significantly higher level (than students taught by adjunct faculty) in their first finance course. We find some evidence consistent with adjunct faculty assigning higher grades to students than full-time faculty, thus contributing to grade inflation. We also find that students taught by adjunct faculty in their first accounting course were less likely to choose accounting as a major.

MATHEMATICS COURSES IN CURRICULA AND BEGINNING SALARIES OF GRADUATES

B. Brian Lee, Prairie View A&M University
Jungsun Lee, Prairie View A&M University
brlee@pvamu.edu

ABSTRACT

This study examines an association between mathematics courses in the college curriculum and beginning salaries of graduates based on data collected from a state-run university in the South. The requirement of mathematics courses in the curriculum is classified into five levels by taking into consideration the number of mathematics courses required and contents. Empirical results show a strong positive association between the level of mathematics courses required in the curriculum and the beginning salaries of graduates. E.g., students could earn $2,913 more upon graduation by majoring in a subject that belongs to one upper level.

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP DOCTORAL STUDENTS CONCEPTIONS OF RESEARCH BEFORE AND AFTER A TWO-COURSE SEQUENCE IN QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

Daniel L. McCollum, University of Houston - Clear Lake
mccollum@uhcl.edu

OVERVIEW

Such things as students' prior knowledge and prior beliefs will influence what they learn, if they learn, and how they learn new material. There have been many studies of students' attitudes toward statistics (e.g., see Gal & Ginsburg, 1994) but little on their beliefs about research (Meyer, Shanahan, & Laugksch, 2005). There is little known about the mind-set of more advanced students and how their prior knowledge and beliefs influence their learning of new material and influence their beliefs about research. This presentation will examine, empirically, the relationship between prior knowledge and prior beliefs (i.e., knowledge and beliefs before a research course), taking a two-course doctoral level sequence in quantitative research methods, and students' outcome knowledge and beliefs. The students investigated in this research were all enrolled in an Educational Leadership doctoral program, seeking a superintendent specialization.

This study presents data exhibiting a relationship between taking quantitative research courses and shifts in knowledge and beliefs. With the growing national and international emphasis in education on assessment and quantitatively oriented research and accountability practices, the beliefs and knowledge educational leaders have on these topics will likely influence their job practices.

METHOD

Participants

A cohort of 19 doctoral students in educational leadership was examined. The mean age of the students was 42.01 years (*SD* = 8.38). There were 15 females and 4 males in the group. In the cohort, 2 students were African-American, 5 were Hispanic, and 12 were Caucasian.

Instrumentation and Procedures

Beliefs about quantitative research were measured using the Students Conceptions of Research Inventory (SCoRI) (see Meyer, Schanahan, & Laugksch, 2005). The validity and reliability of SCoRI has been previously established. The items on the SCoRI were scored on a scale of 1 = not at all true of me to 5 = completely true of me. In addition a researcher-created self-report

measure of quantitative research knowledge was used. On that scale students rated from 1 = no knowledge to 5 = complete knowledge

Doctoral level students taking a two course sequences in Quantitative research methods were given the SCoRI and the researcher-created self-report measure of quantitative research knowledge immediately before starting the two course sequence and immediately upon completion of the sequence. The course sequence included using case studies, journal articles, group and individual data analysis projects, small and whole group discussions, as well as lectures to explore the course topics. The course topics included: reviewing literature related to a research problem; developing research questions and hypotheses; selecting a research design appropriate for answering the research questions or testing the hypotheses; sampling; instrument development including identifying and creating instruments, as well as determining validity and reliability; analyzing quantitative data to answer research questions and test hypotheses, statistics included are descriptive, independent and related samples t-tests, Pearson's r, and one-way ANOVA. Topics in the second course included incorporating multiple regression, repeated measures ANOVA, two-way ANOVA, and ANCOVA into a variety of research designs.

RESULTS

A set of repeated measures t-tests were performed on the subscales from the SCoRI and the self-reported knowledge of quantitative research subscales. The results of the SCoRI are in Table 1. The results regarding the knowledge scale are presented in Table 2.

Table 1
t-tests for repeated measures of Belief Variables

Variables	Pre *M*	*SD*	Post *M*	*SD*	*t*-value	*p*-value
Misconceptions about Research	1.61	.53	1.68	.62	.49	.63
Research is re-search	**2.79**	**.92**	**3.21**	**.96**	**2.87**	**.01**
Research is an Insightful Process	4.00	.69	4.29	.70	1.87	.08
Research is finding the Truth	3.55	.98	3.71	.95	.60	.55
Research about Problem Solving	3.70	.74	3.81	.91	.56	.58

Table 2
t-tests for repeated measures of Knowledge Variables

Variables	Pre *M*	*SD*	Post *M*	*SD*	*t*-value	*p*-value
Quantitative Research Designs	1.57	.55	3.43	.68	12.45	**.00**
Descriptive Statistics	1.39	.61	3.28	1.03	9.63	**.00**
Probability	2.72	.96	3.61	.78	3.50	**.00**
Inferential Statistics	1.67	.74	3.24	.48	8.19	**.00**
Psychometrics	2.36	.94	3.58	.83	4.35	**.00**
Overall Knowledge	1.61	.61	3.28	.752	8.42	**.00**

CONCLUSIONS

It is clear that there are knowledge gains from the beginning of the two-course sequence to the end of the sequence. However, shifts in beliefs about research are not so strong. Although there were mean gains on all five belief variables, including misconceptions, only defining research as "re-search" showed a statistically significant gain. Hence, it can be concluded that changes in knowledge do not necessarily imply changes in beliefs. These results are limited to one group of doctoral students, whose influence was one sequence of courses taught by one professor. It may be the case that this professor emphasized technical aspects of research, thus the knowledge gains, and focused on re-examining research topics from the literature; thus the statistically significant gain in the belief that research is "re-search". It may also be the case that conceiving of research as "re-search" is tied to gains in knowledge of the subject matter.

EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS' EFFICACY AND GOAL ORIENTATIONS

Daniel L. McCollum, University of Houston-Clear Lake
mccollum@uhcl.edu
Lawrence T. Kajs, University of Houston-Clear Lake
kajs@uhcl.edu

INTRODUCTION

While individual ability is a valuable element, motivation is also needed for learning and performance. Motivation is a complex, multidimensional construct that can vary widely, and is difficult to pinpoint. Educational psychology literature speaks to many different theories of motivation. Understandably, knowledge of multiple motivational constructs, instead of just one, helps provide better comprehension of and appreciation for a person's motivation. For instance, knowing whether an individual has a set goal or aim is insufficient information to determine if s/he is motivated to accomplish the specific aim. Connected to the goal, there will likely be a set of beliefs that determines whether the aim will be pursued; and if pursued, what will be the person's level of persistence to accomplish the goal. Two motivational theories and constructs that help better understand this process (i.e., pursuit and persistence in accomplishing a goal) are self-efficacy and goal orientations. In the current paper, these two constructs were examined within the context of educational leadership.

SCHOOL ADMINSTRATORS' EFFICACY & GOAL ORIENTATIONS

Through a series of studies, McCollum, Kajs, and Minter (2006a, 2006b) and McCollum and Kajs (2007a) have developed a well-grounded theory of school administrator's self-efficacy. Aligned with the definition of self-efficacy given by Bandura (1986), a school administrator's efficacy is founded on self-referent judgments of his/her "capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required" (p. 396) for effective school leadership and reaching desired school results (McCollum & Kajs). An instrument called the School Administrator Efficacy Scale (SAES) was designed to determine the self-efficacy of school administrators (McCollum, Kajs, & Minter). The SAES has consistently shown to possess excellent psychometric properties, having strong indications of validity and reliability for the measure.

According to the theoretical model presented by McCollum, Kajs, and Minter (2006a, 2006b) and further described by McCollum and Kajs (2007a), eight dimensions of school administrators' efficacy exist: (1) Instructional Leadership and Staff Development (2) School Climate Development (3) Community Collaboration (4) Data-based Decision Making Aligned with Legal and Ethical Principles (5) Resource and Facility Management (6) Use of Community Resources (7) Communication in a Diverse Environment (8) Development of a School Vision. The

questionnaire items linked to these eight dimensions are listed in Appendix A. The eight dimensions and their related items are rooted in the Educational Leadership Constituency Council (ELCC)/Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) national standards. The eight dimensions of school administrators' efficacy help to better comprehend the self-efficacy construct as it operates in the development of school administrators.

The self-efficacy construct is valuable in the process of educational leader development since this construct is connected to effective learning and work results. The more efficacious an educational leadership student, the more likely s/he will be successful in coursework. Likewise, efficacious school administrators are apt to be successful in handling their responsibilities. Without a sense of efficacy, school administrators will tend to neither pursue challenging goals nor attempt to surpass obstacles that get in the way of such goals (McCollum, Kajs, & Minter, 2006a, 2006b; McCollum & Kajs, 2007a). The school administrator efficacy construct is one in a set of psychological variables that has recently been investigated by McCollum & Kajs (e.g., 2007b, in press) in the context of educational leadership.

Goal orientation is another variable in the field of motivation that helps explain why principal candidates and practicing principals seek certain aims. Goal orientations are a collection of beliefs people have about their aspirations in life (Woolfolk-Hoy & Hoy, 2006). That is, goal orientations are a collection of thoughts regarding a specific, desired outcome that help explain why that outcome is being pursued. A person's goal orientation influences her/his level of engagement (e.g., commitment, perseverance) in handling tasks (Meece, Blumenfel, & Hoyle, 1988).

Educational leadership goal orientations follow the 2 x 2 model of goal orientations presented by Elliot and McGregor (2001) and subsequently adapted to the educational leadership domain by McCollum and Kajs (2007b; in press). The 2 x 2 model incorporates two types of goals (i.e., mastery and performance), as well as two orientations to those goals (i.e., approach or avoidance). Thus, four possible goal orientations exist: mastery-approach, performance-approach, mastery-avoidance, and performance-avoidance. Generally, mastery-approach oriented students seek a thorough understanding of subject matter, welcoming new insights and understanding; while mastery-avoidance oriented individuals try to not lose previously acquired knowledge, understanding, and skill proficiency. Performance-approach oriented people are concerned with obtaining positive judgments (outcomes) of their work; while performance-avoidance oriented individuals are trying to avoid negative judgments (results) of their efforts. (For more on defining goal orientations, see Murphy & Alexander, 2000.)

PURPOSE

In domains outside of educational leadership, e.g., science education, studies have demonstrated relationship between goal orientations and self-efficacy (Bong, 2001). Using the SAES and a measure of goal orientations designed for school administrators (i.e., McCollum & Kajs, 2007b; in press), the present study examines this relationship in the domain of educational leadership. Since little study exists on the quality of these two theories and their accompanying measures (i.e., SAES and goal orientations scale) in the educational leadership context, this research can prove valuable. By knowing the level of influence efficacy and goal orientations have on each

other allows for better understanding of these constructs when these measures are applied to professional development needs of prospective and practicing school leaders.

METHOD

Participants

In the study, there were three-hundred-twelve (312) participants, who were either principal candidates or early career principals with a mean age of 34.12 years (SD = 7.10) They had a mean of 7.45 years (SD = 4.90) and 7.8 months (SD = 4.36) for teaching experience and administrative experience (e.g., assistant principal), respectively. The sample consisted of 88 men and 222 women; with two participants not reporting gender. Of those who reported their ethnicity, the sample included 51.6% Caucasian, 25.2% Hispanic, 20.9% African American, 1.3% Asian, and 1.0% reported other.

Instrumentation and Procedures

Two measurement instruments were administered in this study. The first one given to participants was the School Administrator Efficacy Scale (SAES) in order to measure school administrator efficacy. The SAES has sufficient construct, discriminant/convergent, as well as content validity evidence (see McCollum, Kajs, & Minter, 2006a, 2006b). Moreover, the subscales of the SAES have continually demonstrated to be internally consistent in a series of studies (i.e., McCollum, Kajs, & Minter). Thus, the overall psychometric properties of the SAES are solidly grounded in research and have proven to be excellent. The items on the SAES are tallied on a summated rating scale with the number 1 as "not at all true of me" and the number 7 as "completely true of me."

The second measure was the 2 x 2 goal orientations instrument that McCollum and Kajs (2007b; in press) had adapted for use in the educational leadership domain. This 2 x 2 model was an adaptation of the achievement goal orientation scale developed by Elliot and McGregor (2001), which was as an extension of an instrument created by Elliot and Church (1997). A multitude of researchers have offered validity and reliability evidence for this measure in domains other than educational leadership. In the context of educational leadership, the adapted instrument has proven to be sound psychometrically, i.e., evidence of construct and discriminant/convergent validity, and reliability (McCollum & Kajs). In the McCollum and Kajs studies, and in the present study, the items from the 2 x 2 instrument were scored on a summated rating scale as indicated above. Again, the SAES and the adapted 2 x 2 scale were given together in this study. Prior to the completion of these two measurements, participants gave their informed consent to take part in this study.

RESULTS

Using SPSS 15.0 descriptive statistics for the SAES and 2 x 2 tool subscales were computed, along with zero-order correlations, and Cronbach's Alpha (reliability). Based on the correlation analyses between the efficacy subscales and the goal orientations, a clear pattern comes forth. All of efficacy-related dimensions are statistically, significantly, positively correlated with mastery goal orientations. Also significant, although not as strong as the correlations with the mastery-approach goal orientations, are the positive correlations found between four SAES subscales and the performance-approach goal orientations. Moreover, mastery-avoidance goal orientations are significantly negatively correlated with efficacy subscale, Instructional Leadership and Staff Development, and efficacy subscale, Development of a School Vision. Another noteworthy result is the complete lack of statistically significant correlations between performance-avoidance goal orientations and the efficacy dimensions in the SAES. Finally, with regard to the 2 x 2 instrument, the subscale with the greatest mean was the mastery-approach orientation; and from the SAES, the subscale entitled, Communicating in a Diverse Environment, had the greatest mean.

After calculating the descriptive statistics, reliability coefficients, and Pearson's r (zero-order correlations) a series of linear multiple regressions were performed to discover the combination of goal orientation variables that maximally predicted each dimension of school administrator efficacy. The following regression equation was applied for each efficacy dimension of the School Administrator Efficacy Scale (SAES): B0 + B1 (MAP) + B2 (MAV) + B3 (PAP) + e (where e is unobserved error). Of note is that performance-avoidance (PAV) is not included in the regressions. This outcome is due to the lack of zero-order correlation between PAV and any of the efficacy dimensions. Without such correlation results, significance will not be established in the regression equations. From the regression models, the statistically significant predictors were identified. Then, the amount of variance accounted for in each efficacy dimensions by each one of the goal orientation predictors was obtained.

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS & FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Clear, significant relationships exist between the 2 x 2 goal orientations model and the school administrator efficacy constructs. It can be anticipated that school administrator candidates and practicing principals, who hold a mastery-approach goal orientation, will be the most self-efficacious. However, the relationship between goal orientations and school administrator efficacy can be further analyzed and extrapolated. Combinations of predictors, such as performance-approach, mastery-approach, and mastery-avoidance (as a negative predictor) serve to indicate the highest levels of efficaciousness for some of the dimensions of efficacy in the SAES. Using these combinations of goal orientation predictors to determine a school administrator efficacy criterion (e.g., Instructional Leadership and Staff Development), it is more beneficial to maximize mastery-approach and performance-approach orientations, while minimizing or eliminating mastery-avoidance orientations in order to enhance efficacy levels. The question then becomes how is a particular goal orientation encouraged or taught? In addressing this question, it is appropriate to examine the theoretical research concerning individual awareness and organizational context or climate.

School administrators' efficacy and goal orientations are useful constructs in understanding the motivation and professional development needs of aspiring and career principals. These constructs, and their associated instruments, can be used to assess students' development in principal preparation programs. They have been examined in the evaluation of one such program at the University of Houston–Clear Lake (UHCL). At UHCL, in the Collaborative Bilingual Administrator Training (CBAT) grant program, students' growth in efficacy and preference for mastery-approach orientations were identified. CBAT is a five-year, federally funded, Title III training grant program with the major purpose of preparing bilingual school administrators to better address English Language Learners' needs. Moreover, these two measures can be used as a formative and summative assessment instruments to assist practicing school administrators to identify areas of professional strengths and needs to select and participate in the appropriate continuing education programs for enhancing their capabilities.

REFERENCES

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bong, M. (2001). Between- and within-domain relations of academic motivation among middle and high school students: Self-efficacy, task-value, and achievement goals. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 93,* 23-34.

Elliot, A. J., & Church, M. A. (1997). A hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 72*(1), 218-232.

Elliot, A. J. & McGregor, H. A. (2001). A 2 x 2 achievement goal framework. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80*, 501-519.

McCollum, D. L., & Kajs, L. T. (2007a). School administrator efficacy: Assessment of beliefs about knowledge and skills for successful school leadership. In S. Donahoo, & R. C. Hunter (Eds.), *Advances in educational administration: Vol. 10. Teaching leaders to lead teachers: Educational administration in the era of constant crisis*. Oxford, UK: Elsevier Science.

McCollum, D. L., & Kajs, L. T. (2007b, April). *Applying goal orientation theory in an exploration of student motivations in the domain of educational leadership*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association – Division A – Administration, Organization, and Leadership/Section 5: Leadership Development, Chicago, IL.

McCollum, D. L., & Kajs, L. T. (in press) Applying goal orientation theory in an exploration of student motivations in the domain of educational leadership. *Educational Research Quarterly.*

McCollum, D. L., Kajs, L. T., & Minter, N. (2006) School administrators' efficacy: A model and measure. *Education Leadership Review, 7*(1), 81-92.

McCollum, D. L., Kajs, L. T., & Minter, N. (2006). A confirmatory factor analysis of the School Administrator Efficacy Scale (SAES*). Academy of Educational Leadership Journal, 10*(3), 105-119.

Meece, J. L., Blumenfeld, P. C., & Hoyle, R. H. (1988). Students' goal orientations and cognitive engagement in classroom activities. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 80,* 514-523.

Murphy, K. P., & Alexander, P. (2000). A motivated exploration of motivation terminology. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25,* 3-53.

Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Hoy, W. K. (2006). *Instructional leadership: A research-based guide to learning in schools* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon/Longman.

A CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYTIC STUDY OF THE GOAL ORIENTATION THEORY OF MOTIVATION IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Daniel L. McCollum, University of Houston-Clear Lake
mccollum@uhcl.edu
Lawrence T. Kajs, University of Houston-Clear Lake
kajs@uhcl.edu

INTRODUCTION

Motivation is a psychological element that stimulates and guides behavior (Woolfolk-Hoy & Hoy, 2006). In school and at work, motivation is a key element for success of an individual. When a principal candidate or principal is not motivated they are not likely to learn or perform. Although there are many theories of motivation in the educational psychology literature, little research exists on the motivation of graduate students preparing to be school leaders (e.g., principals). One workable theory shown to have promise in previous research with educational leadership students (i.e., McCollum & Kajs, 2007; in press) is the goal orientation theory of motivation. Goal orientations are a collection of beliefs students have about their goals, i.e., a set of thoughts concerning specific, desired outcomes (Woolfolk-Hoy & Hoy, 2006). Meece, Blumenfeld, and Hoyle (1988) describe this set of beliefs as being influential in the way people "approach and engage in" (p. 514) various assignments. These collections of beliefs explain why a particular goal is meaningful to an individual. Consider this: if a student desires an A grade in a class, is the motivation to look smart relative to his classmates, or is it because he wants to have mastery in the coursework? Goal orientations help explain desires.

GOAL ORIENTATION THEORY

Why someone pursues a particular goal makes a difference in one's level of success. Goal orientation theory explicates the *why* of an individual's goals. One empirically, well-tested model of goal orientations, presents four orientations in what is called the 2 x 2 model (see Elliot & McGregor, 2001). In the model, there are two types of goals: mastery goals and performance goals. Elliot and McGregor (2001) building off of the earlier work of Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996), Elliot and Church (1997), and Elliot, McGregor, and Gable (1999) incorporate the very early work of Atkinson (1957) and add two additional dimensions to describe the individual's association with the goal, which are approach and avoidance (see Atkinson, 1957). Hence, there are mastery-approach, performance-approach, mastery-avoidance, and performance-avoidance goal orientations in the model. Presented in Table 1 are definitions and sets of variables tied to each orientation, as identified in domains other than educational leadership.

Table 1
Definitions and Characteristics of Goal Orientations

	Mastery	Performance
	Definition: "desire to develop competence and increase knowledge and understanding through effortful learning" (Murphy & Alexander, 2000, p. 28). **Characteristics:** interest in class studies (Church, Elliot, & Gable, 2001); enjoyment of class presentations (Harackiewicz, Barron, Pintrich, Elliot, & Thrash, 2002); attributions of accomplishment resulting from efforts (Ames & Archer, 1988); pursuit of challenges (Dweck, 1986); higher academic success (Elliot & McGregor, 2001)	**Definition:** "desire to gain favorable judgments...of one's competence" in the sight of others (Murphy & Alexander, 2000, p. 28) **Characteristics:** efforts and strategic techniques (Ames & Archer, 1988); high academic attainment (Elliot & Church, 1997; Elliot & McGregor, 2001)
Approach		
	Definition: desire to avoid "self-referential or task-referential incompetence" (Elliot, 1999, p. 181) **Characteristics:** accounts for some degree of variance in academic performance levels (Elliot & McGregor, 2001)	**Definition:** desire to avoid negative judgments of competence in relation to others (McCollum, 2004) **Characteristics:** intrinsic motivation is low (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996); lacking effort as well as persistence (Elliot, McGregor, & Gable, 1999); sense of being incompetent and being afraid to fail (Elliot, 1999; Elliot & Church, 1997); disorganized, lower SAT scores, GPA, and test outcomes (Elliot et al., 1999)
Avoidance		

Generally, the more positive characteristics are attributed to the mastery-approach and performance-approach oriented students. Both orientations reflect strategic efforts in learning and tend to do better than the other orientations, academically. Moreover, it appears that performance-avoidance orientated individuals have a tendency to struggle, academically. Based on summary information in Table 1, little is known about the characteristics associated with the mastery-avoidance orientation. Overall, the approach orientations have more positive attributes than do the avoidance ones. In addition, the summary of information in Table 1 indicates that little is known about the characteristics associated with the mastery-avoidance orientation. Overall, the approach orientations have more positive attributes than do the avoidance ones.

PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

Given the soundness of the goal orientation theory of motivation with regard to other contexts, it is reasonable to try to assess these constructs in the educational leadership domain. Yet, because so much study has been conducted on 2 x 2 goal orientations in contexts outside of

educational leadership, what more might be accomplished? Given the theoretical and empirical findings on the possible domain-specificity of many psychological constructs (e.g., Stodolsky Salk, & Glessner, 1991), it again becomes reasonable to perform studies on such constructs as goal orientations in the specific context in which they are used.

The question of domain-specificity versus domain generalizibility has brought forth discussions in the literature. Stodolsky, Salk, and Glessner (1991) indicated differences in students' perceptions based on domain. Specific to goal orientations, there is evidence that performance-approach and performance-avoidance goals may be able to carry across domains (Bong, 2001). In Bong's study, these orientations remained steady in an assortment of performance and learning areas. On the other hand, mastery-approach goal orientations changed with changes in domains. Therefore, when mastery is sought after as a student, this may not carry into a professional role. This is can be viewed as noteworthy since older students tend to have mastery-approach orientations (Eppler & Harju, 1997) and many school administrator candidates are older students, having held positions as classroom teachers.

This paper is founded on the 2 x 2 goal orientation theory for understanding motivation, and on the argument that psychological constructs (e.g., beliefs) vary with domains. The purpose of this study is to evaluate a model and measure of goal orientations in the educational leadership domain. In the past, exploratory research was conducted using this model and measure (see McCollum & Kajs, 2007; in press) and the psychometric properties of the instrument have appeared promising. In the current research, a confirmatory factor analysis is applied to assess validity, and Cronbach's Alpha is used to assess internal consistency of the measure's subscales.

METHOD

A total of 326 principal candidates and early career principals participated in this study. The 2 x 2 model measure used for this research was adapted by the present authors to fit into the domain of educational leadership (see McCollum & Kajs, 2007; in press). This instrument, originally, was a nine item scale for measuring the three dimensions of goal orientations, designed by Elliot and Church (1997). The instrument was further developed into a twelve (12) item measure of the 2 x 2 model by Elliot and McGregor (2001). Eleven groups of approximately thirty students were administered the adapted 2 x 2 instrument in paper-and-pencil format, after they gave their informed consent to participate in this study.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

Examining the criteria commonly used in evaluating a model fit in a confirmatory factor analysis, the null hypothesis of non-model fit is rejected. Thus, the alternative hypothesis that the four-factor model, the 2 x 2 goal orientations model in the educational leadership domain, fits the research data. Adding to a powerful theoretical rationale and history of empirical support, the findings present strong evidence that a 2 x 2 model and measure of goal orientations is viable in this domain. Moreover, the low correlations among factors provide discriminant validity evidence. The internal consistency of subscales ranges from fair (.64) to very good (.87) for research use. These findings are consistent with those found on the 2 x 2 model in other domains, e.g., math and science.

The present results are supportive of the previous study when the 2 x 2 model was applied to the educational leadership domain (i.e., McCollum & Kajs, 2007; in press). In looking at these findings, researchers and practitioners can have confidence in the stability of this scale when studying the development of school leaders.

One UHCL program that participated in the 2 x 2 goal orientations study for school administrators was the grant project entitled Collaborative Bilingual Administrator Training (CBAT). CBAT was a five-year, Title III, professional development grant designed to train bilingual school administrators to better work with students who are English Language Learners (ELLs). The 2 x 2 scale was one of multiple measures designed to assess the dispositions of school leader candidates in the CBAT project.

REFERENCES

Ames, C., & Archer, J. (1988). Achievement goals in the classroom: Students' learning strategies and motivation processes. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 80*(3), 260-267.

Atkinson, J. W. (1957) Motivational determinants of risk-taking behavior. *Psychological Review, 64,* 359-372.

Bong, M. (2001). Between- and within-domain relations of academic motivation among middle and high school students: Self-efficacy, task-value, and achievement goals. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 93,* 23-34.

Dweck, C. S. (1986). Motivational processes affecting learning. *American Psychologist, 41,* 1040-48.

Elliot, A. J. (1999). Approach and avoidance motivation and achievement goals. *Educational Psychologist, 34*(3), 169-189.

Elliot, A. J., & Church, M. A. (1997). A hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 72*(1), 218-232.

Elliot, A. J., & Harackiewicz, J. M. (1996). Approach and avoidance achievement goals and intrinsic motivation: A mediational analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 70,* 461-475.

Elliot, A. J. & McGregor, H. A. (2001). A 2 x 2 achievement goal framework. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80*, 501-519.

Eppler, M. A., & Harju, B. L. (1997). Achievement motivation goals in relation to academic performance in traditional and nontraditional college students. *Research in Higher Education, 38*, 557-573.

Harackiewicz, J. M, Barron, K. E., Pintrich, P. R., Elliot, A. J., & Thrash, T. M. (2002). Revision of achievement goal theory: Necessary and illuminating. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 94*(3), 638-645.

McCollum, D. L. (2004). Development of integrated taxonomy of social goals (Doctoral dissertation, Penn State, 2004). Dissertation Abstracts International 65(9-A), 3279.

McCollum, D. L., & Kajs, L. T. (2007, April). *Applying goal orientation theory in an exploration of student motivations in the domain of educational leadership*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association – Division A – Administration, Organization, and Leadership/Section 5: Leadership Development, Chicago, IL.

McCollum, D. L., & Kajs, L. T. (in press) Applying goal orientation theory in an exploration of student motivations in the domain of educational leadership. *Educational Research Quarterly.*

Meece, J. L., Blumenfeld, P. C., & Hoyle, R. H. (1988). Students' goal orientations and cognitive engagement in classroom activities. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 80,* 514-523.

Porath, C. L. & Bateman, T. S. (2006). Self-regulation: From goal orientation to job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 185-192.

Stodolsky, S. S., Salk, S., & Glaessner, B. (1991). Student views about learning math and social studies. *American Educational Research Journal, 28*, 89-116.

Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Hoy, W. K. (2006). *Instructional leadership: A research-based guide to learning in schools* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon/Longman.

TEACHING THE "FISHBONE" AS A PLANNING TOOL: RESPONSIBILITY AND ACTION PLANNING MATRICES APPLIED TO AIRPORT SECURITY

Satyanarayana Parayitam, Mcneese State University *
Kiran Desai, Mcneese State University *
Mayur S. Desai, Texas Southern University
Mary K Eason, Mcneese State University
sparayitam@mcneese.edu

ABSTRACT

The present paper explains how FISHBONE can be used as a planning tool, instead of traditional problem-solving tool. Through the application of Responsibility and Action Planning Matrices, the paper presents the application of this teaching tool to Air Port Security. The topic of Air Port security is used for demonstration purposes only, and this exercise is not intended to solve the problems associated with Airport security, rather it serves as a pedagogical tool to emphasize the changing nature of application of Fishbone analysis.

* Both these authors have done equal contribution.

DRAWBACKS TO THE UTILIZATION OF THE ETS MAJOR FIELD TEST IN BUSINESS FOR OUTCOMES ASSESSMENT AND ACCREDITATION

David A. Parmenter, Northern Arizona University-Yuma
david.parmenter@nau.edu

ABSTRACT

Despite its popularity in outcomes assessment programs, the ETS Major Field Test in Business is problematic in a variety of ways, most importantly that it may not accurately measure student learning, although that inaccuracy isn't the fault of the exam or its authors. Also, its regularly reported results don't provide sufficiently detailed results to allow faculty to pinpoint specific problems and thus don't effectively facilitate continuous improvement. The paper discusses these problems and others, including a discussion of the outcomes assessment recommendations provided by the various regional and business-related accrediting associations and how those recommendations relate to the use of the exam. It also provides an alternative plan for both assessing and encouraging increased student learning.

INTRODUCTION

Many schools make use of the undergraduate Major Field Test in Business written by Educational Testing Service (ETS), often as part of a student outcomes assessment program used for accreditation purposes. The ETS website reports that fully 469 schools administered the exam between February 2003 and June 2004 (Educational Testing Service [ETS], 2005). The standardized multiple-choice exam focuses on the subjects generally covered in the undergraduate business core, i.e. the introductory courses in each business discipline that all business students complete regardless of major, and thus its administration is often connected in some way with the senior-level capstone course. The regularly available test results report performance for the eight subject areas of accounting, economics, management, quantitative business analysis, finance, marketing, legal and social environment, and international issues. National norms are provided, allowing schools to compare themselves to their peers.

At first glance this exam does indeed appear to be an obvious choice for inclusion in an outcomes assessment program. The respected name of the testing organization, the ability to compare one's school to national norms, and the comforting apparent precision of the resulting quantitative data all encourage business schools to include this exam in their assessment plans. Anecdotal evidence suggests that faculty may sometimes be making this choice without really giving the decision the significant analysis that it deserves.

Although the exam does provide several benefits, it is problematic in a variety of ways. First, it often fails to truly measure what students have learned, due both to a lack of student concern for the outcome of the exam and to the often long time lag between when the relevant introductory

courses were taken and the administration of the exam. It also can hinder continuous improvement efforts because the detailed results that faculty require to be able to pinpoint specific weaknesses in either curriculum or pedagogy are only available in a special report that requires payment of an additional fee. This paper discusses these problems and others and includes some discussion of the outcomes assessment recommendations provided by the regional accrediting associations as well as the two major business-related accrediting associations, AACSB and ABCSP. The paper will also briefly propose an alternative plan for assessing business core learning, a plan that will improve student learning and retention for the introductory core courses and greatly improve the learning experience in the capstone course.

BENEFITS OF THE MAJOR FIELD TEST IN BUSINESS

Although this paper focuses on the exam's drawbacks, it is only fair to first mention the benefits that the exam provides. First of all, the exam can be implemented quickly without the need for time-consuming faculty efforts to develop and validate a local exam because ETS provides the exam as well as the administration procedures, the grading and the results (Mirchandani, Lynch and Hamilton, 2001). Another potential benefit is that each school is able to compare its results to those of the many other schools taking the exam. Having the ability to rank one's school versus national norms is intuitively appealing, particularly given the need of so many schools to demonstrate performance effectiveness for accreditation purposes. Access to comparative data can also be very attractive to administrators who need empirical evidence to guide funding decisions (Maki, Doyle and Finney, 2001). Another potential benefit is that the exam's content, with questions written by subject area experts and updated regularly, can be used as a benchmark for curriculum. At one school, for example, the exam's relative weighting of financial accounting versus managerial accounting questions encouraged the accounting faculty to consider revising the proportional coverage given to the two subjects in the core accounting courses. Note that ETS strongly recommends that faculty review the exam carefully before beginning to utilize it in order to make sure that its content coverage matches the needs of the program (ETS, 2006a). To enable the achievement of a closer fit ETS also allows a school to add up to 50 locally generated questions to the exam.

DRAWBACKS OF THE MAJOR FIELD TEST IN BUSINESS

Despite the benefits of the exam as discussed above there are some potentially serious drawbacks that faculty should consider carefully before electing to adopt the exam. The most critical problem, student apathy concerning test performance, will be discussed first.

Student Apathy Concerning Test Performance

The first and most glaring problem is the fact that many students simply don't care about their scores and therefore don't try as hard as they would on a regular course-embedded grade-impacting exam. Although the evidence cited here is anecdotal, it's quite convincing. Many students comment after the exam that they simply didn't care and thus didn't try very hard. Even

the good students frequently comment that they read every question carefully but then simply guessed on the questions for which they didn't immediately recognize the right answer rather than pondering the relevant topic for a while in a serious attempt to figure out the correct solution. Fulton (1990, as cited in Yarbrough, 1992) notes that exam results often have limited value when generated by students who have nothing to gain from the exam, i.e. no grade, no admission to another course, etc. To demonstrate this he provides an example in which sophomore test-takers were so unmotivated that they actually scored lower on average than they had as freshmen on the same exam.

This student apathy may be the most frustrating problem for both the faculty administering the exam and the administrators who are subsequently forced to explain away disappointing test results when writing assorted departmental and college reports. Even more problematic is the fact that this well-recognized student apathy provides a ready-made excuse for poor student performance, allowing faculty and administrators to ignore the possibility that some of the poor performance might actually have been due to curriculum or pedagogy in need of evaluation and improvement.

Various solutions have been proposed for this problem. One is to make the exam count toward the course grade (Mirchandani et al., 2001), with the course in question usually being the capstone course. Faculty at other schools who were queried during an informal telephone survey on this topic reported the use of tactics such as counting the test score as 10% of the course grade in the capstone course or allowing students scoring at or above the national 75th percentile to receive a one-letter increase in their course grades. The major problem with this practice of utilizing the exam scores as part of the grade in the capstone course is that the material covered on the exam comes almost entirely from previous courses rather than from the capstone course. Even though the material from these earlier introductory courses is often utilized in the capstone course, it isn't taught in the capstone course and thus probably shouldn't be a factor in measuring a student's performance in the capstone course.

Assorted other tactics were reported as ways to encourage students to care more about their performance. These tactics include placing the students' scores on their transcripts and mailing the scores to the students along with a questionnaire concerning program quality.

Problematic Facilitation Of Continuous Improvement

A second problem with the exam has historically been that for security reasons the results were not made available on a question-by-question basis. These question-by-question results became available recently, although they are only provided in a special report that requires the payment of an additional fee. The regular reports provide only aggregated data, making it hard to pinpoint problems because the faculty have difficulty determining the precise topics on which students performed poorly. Results are reported for eight subject categories, as discussed above, and in many cases each category can be reasonably linked to a particular course or courses. A poor performance in management, for example, might be correctly attributed to weaknesses in the introductory principles of management course. However, based solely on the aggregated data it would generally be impossible tell which specific management subtopics were the major causes of the poor student performance. The aggregated data would not allow faculty to determine whether

the students performed poorly on, for example, planning, job design, performance measurement or employee motivation. This would obviously make it much more difficult to identify specific lectures, text chapters, assignments and so forth that were most in need of improvement.

If a school chooses to use this test, it should seriously consider paying the additional fee to access the special report giving question-by-question results. Otherwise, the need for faculty to do additional analysis in order to find the true underlying causes of poor student performance are liable to derail continuous improvement efforts even before they start. As Sanoff (2005) and Ulmer (1991) note, outcomes assessment requires a lot of time and effort from faculty, time taken away from research endeavors that are generally seen as being more highly valued by both the institution and the profession as a whole. This potential resistance to outcomes assessment efforts can be magnified when the data suggesting programmatic weaknesses are generated by standardized multiple-choice exams, which tend to be seen as less legitimate by faculty (Lopez, 1998).

It should be noted that sometimes the appropriate solution to a weakness in a particular subject area is not to alter the introductory course in which the subject was first taught but rather to increase the subsequent application of that subject in later courses. For example, at California State University, Northridge it was suggested that poor performance on the statistical analysis portion of a locally generated senior-level exam might best be addressed by increasing the application of statistical methodology in the advanced courses taken after the statistics course rather than by altering the statistics course itself (California State University, Northridge, 2005). In cases such as this the exam's inability to pinpoint specific problems within a particular course would be less of a drawback.

Long Delays Between Learning And Testing

Another major problem impacting the usefulness of the test scores is that there is generally a very long delay between when the students learned the topics covered on the exam and when the test is administered. This delay between the introductory courses and the exam can be particularly long for students who work full time and thus take only one or two courses per semester. The data on test scores for 2003-2004 show that even the more successful schools generally have very low values for the percentage of questions answered correctly (ETS, 2006b). For example, schools that performed at the 90th percentile had students who averaged less than 50% correct on the finance questions, less than 60% correct on accounting, economics, marketing and international issues, and less than 70% correct on management, quantitative business analysis and marketing. It would appear that most students have a difficult time remembering concepts learned years earlier. When the students at virtually every school perform poorly on an exam it's more difficult to take the school-to-school comparisons seriously.

Because some may suggest that a student who can't remember a concept didn't really learn it very well in the first place, it should be pointed out that practitioners, the people whose ranks we are ostensibly training our students to join, are not expected to perform exclusively from memory. They are able to consult the appropriate reference materials when necessary and can relearn assorted topics that they learned earlier, often relearning those topics quickly and effectively because of the initial learning that was achieved earlier.

This problem of memory failure is compounded by the fact that the Major Field Test in Business covers so many subject areas. Many business undergraduates tend to put most of their focus on their own specific major and tend not to put much effort into retaining information learned in the introductory courses associated with other majors after those courses have been completed. The classic stereotype would be the management major who begins to forget (seemingly almost with intent) everything that he's learned about accounting soon after completing the final exam in the last mandatory core accounting course.

Without intending any criticism of the authors of the exam and recognizing that virtually all multiple-choice exams contain some questions concerning relatively obscure points, the problem of memory failure is even further compounded by the trivial nature of some of the exam questions. Although the majority of the exam's questions focus on important concepts that all business students should be expected to remember, there are also some questions in each of the eight subject areas that cover topics that only students in that particular major could really be expected to recall a year or two after taking the relevant introductory course. Note that these obscure questions would even tend to stump the faculty who specialize in other business disciplines.

This problem of students performing poorly in subject areas outside their majors can lead to wide swings in performance as the proportion of test-takers from any given major changes from year to year. A dramatic decrease in performance on the marketing portion of the exam, for example, may suggest that a problem has arisen in the core marketing course. However, the decrease may instead be due simply to a dramatic decrease in the proportion of test-takers majoring in marketing. This phenomenon can make evaluation of the results even more difficult than usual. It can be particularly prevalent at schools that ask for volunteers instead of mandating that all students must take the exam. One school surveyed in the telephone interview mentioned earlier reported that the scores in accounting had risen substantially from one year to the next. This was initially viewed as very good news until further analysis showed that an abnormally high percentage of the students who had volunteered to take the test in the second year were accounting majors.

Other Problems

There are several other problems that deserve mention. One is that the Major Field Test seems to be such an obvious choice for use in outcomes assessment that it may be selected after only a cursory review, i.e. without first involving the faculty in a careful evaluation of the exam as well as the program's curriculum and learning objectives. This lack of faculty involvement might in some cases be encouraged by administrators anxious to minimize faculty participation in decision-making but it could also be due to a faculty desire to avoid its assessment-related responsibilities. To be done effectively, faculty must be fully involved in all aspects of outcomes assessment. To a certain extent, the ETS exam provides a convenient excuse to those who wish to minimize faculty participation.

Another problem, one that may plague standardized exams in general, is that the exam may not do an effective job of measuring value added. Mirchandani et al. (2001) and Anaya (1999) both suggest that performance on a standardized exam may be significantly impacted by general test-taking ability. In essence, the students who score higher on the exam may be doing so not only because of increased learning achieved in their coursework but also because of superior skills

unrelated to business course content that they possessed even before entering college. Thus even the achievement of high test scores may not provide fully convincing evidence that the program has been successful in its teaching efforts.

ACCREDITATION STANDARDS FOR OUTCOMES ASSESSMENT

Although virtually all schools can sincerely profess a desire to improve their programs and their students' learning, a significant portion of the student outcomes assessment that is being done currently was initially begun due to strong prompting from the various accreditation organizations. The six regional accrediting bodies as well as the two major business-related organizations, the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) and the Association of Collegiate Business Schools and Programs (ACBSP), all provide outcomes assessment recommendations relevant to this discussion of the Major Field Test in Business.

The discussion in this section will focus on three main topics, national norms, continuous improvement, and faculty involvement in outcomes assessment.

National Norms

Among the regional accreditation organizations there is some support for the use of measures that provide national norms, although it is generally lukewarm, with standardized tests and/or the ability to compare results to national norms being mentioned as simply one of many potential useful measures or characteristics. For example, the New England Association of Schools and Colleges' Standard 4.50 includes "being able to describe student experiences and learning outcomes in normative terms" (Commission on Institutions of Higher Education of the New England Association of Schools and Colleges [NEASC], 2005, p. 13) among a variety of perspectives schools could utilize to evaluate learning. The Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools includes standardized tests in its list of more than ten potentially useful outcomes measures (Middle States Commission on Higher Education of the Middle States Association of Schools and Colleges [MSASC], 2002, p. 51). Licensing exams, essentially standardized exams taken after graduation, are also mentioned by several associations.

The strongest support for the use of standardized exams among the regional accreditation associations comes from the North Central Association. Its list of potential measures, provided in Standard IS 8, includes standardized exams, but is not presented as a list of alternatives but rather as a set of measures which should all be included in an outcomes assessment program (Commission on Accreditation and School Improvement of the North Central Association [NSA], 2003, p. 2). Similarly, Standard PS 40 calls for the use of "a variety of measures including classroom and standardized measures" (NSA, 2003, p. 6).

Of the two major business-related accreditation associations, the Association of Collegiate Business Schools and Programs (ACBSP) and the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), ACBSP provides the most support for the use of the ETS exam. Although it doesn't specifically mention standardized exams, Standard 4.2 calls for the benchmarking of best educational practices and the use of data allowing comparisons with other business schools (Association of Collegiate Business Schools and Programs [ACBSP], 2004, p. 20). Standard 6.1.3,

which specifies the content areas that would normally be included in an undergraduate business program, also could be read as an encouragement of the use of the Major Field Test in Business as the suggested content areas align quite well with the subject areas covered in the ETS exam (ACBSP, 2004, p.38). In contrast, AACSB provides little support for the use of standardized exams, with many of its assessment examples involving embedded measures and a determined focus on the need for continuous improvement and full faculty involvement in the development of educational goals and assessment measures (Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business [AACSB], 2005).

It's important to note here that all of the accreditation associations call for the use of a variety of measures to assess learning. Although a standardized exam with national norms might be useful as one measure among many, schools that make a standardized exam the centerpiece of their assessment programs, accompanied possibly by something such as an occasional half-hearted alumni survey, are clearly in violation of the various standards.

Continuous Improvement

All of the accreditation organizations repeatedly profess continuous improvement as the main goal of assessment and accreditation. The North Central Association, for example, states "Each school conducts a continuous improvement process . . ." as the beginning of its very first standard, SIP 1 (NCA, 2003, p. 1). Similarly the Western Association of Schools and Colleges states "Leadership at all levels is committed to improvement based on the results of the processes of inquiry, evaluation and assessment . . ." in Standard 4.6 and further notes in Standard 4.5 that continuous improvement should be applied to the processes and measures used for gathering assessment data as well as the processes used for teaching and learning (Accrediting Commission for Senior Colleges and Universities of the Western Association of Schools and Colleges [WASC], 2001, p. 30).

Similarly, both ABCSP and AACSP expect continuous improvement of both academic programs and the outcomes assessment measures used to guide that improvement. ABCSP's mission statement includes "ACBSP fulfills its mission by establishing, promoting, and recognizing educational practices that contribute to the continuous improvement of business education . . . (ACBSP, 2004, p. 2). AACSB states in the very first sentence of its accreditation standards manual that it "promotes continuous quality improvement in management education" (AACSB, 2004, p. iii). It later states quite emphatically that "A school's strategic management should **not** consist of activities undertaken primarily to satisfy accreditation reviewers" (AACSB, 2005, p. 19).

Faculty Involvement

Similarly to their call for continuous improvement as the main goal of accreditation, the various accreditation associations also call for full involvement by the faculty in that continuous improvement process, although some calls are less forceful than others. For example, the Western Association of Schools and Colleges, with reference to an institution's learning objectives, states "The institution's faculty takes collective responsibility for establishing, reviewing, fostering and demonstrating the attainment of these objectives" as part of Standard 2.4 (WASC, 2001, p. 21). The

Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, in contrast, simply calls for "significant participation by the institution's academic community" in the construction of the school's Quality Enhancement Plan, but in most of the standards refers simply to "the institution" with no reference to specific administrative, faculty or staff roles (Commission on Colleges of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, 2001, p. 9).

ACBSP calls for faculty involvement, but does so rather weakly. In the discussion of Standard 1 it asks if "administrators and faculty review . . . performance and capabilities to assess . . . success" (ACBSP, 2004, p. 13), in the discussion of Standard 2 it asks if "faculty and staff members participate or have a voice" in strategic planning (ACBSP, 2004, p. 15), and in the discussion of Standard 4 it asks if outcomes assessment information and data is made "accessible to faculty, staff and students" (ACBSP, 2004, p. 20). There is very much a sense of the administration being in control of the assessment process.

AACSB, in contrast, is very clear about the need for faculty ownership of the academic programs and the assessment of program success. With reference to the setting of educational goals and the selection of outcomes measures, AACSB states that "The faculty . . . will normally be the persons responsible . . . for defining the school's learning goals" (AACSB, 2005, p. 59) and "faculty . . . must operationalize the learning goals by specifying or developing the measurements that assess learning achievement" (AACSB, 2005, p. 60). AACSB further states that "faculty cannot abnegate their own responsibilities for final definitions of goals and measurements" (AACSB, 2005, p. 60).

Implications For The Use Of The ETS Major Field Test

The accreditation associations do give some support for the use of standardized exams providing national norms, although that support is mixed. The emphasis on continuous improvement, however, makes the Major Field Test somewhat less attractive given the difficulty of using its regularly provided results to diagnose problems precisely. The need for full faculty involvement in outcomes assessment also makes the exam less attractive, given that one of its major strengths is that it is an "easy" choice, one that can be selected by a handful of administrators and implemented quickly, possibly with no more faculty involvement than the actual administration of the exam by instructors in the capstone course. AACSB states "Since the process of creating assurance of learning systems should have high faculty involvement, systems that emerge quickly from the work of only a few individuals will raise questions with reviewers" (AACSB, 2005, p. 67). The easy choice is apparently not necessarily the right choice.

A PROPOSED ALTERNATIVE TO THE MAJOR FIELD TEST IN BUSINESS

Although this proposal would require significant faculty effort, it should result in significant increases in student learning, not only with respect to the content of the introductory courses but also in the capstone course as well. Note that this proposal is not presented as a complete outcomes assessment program. It deals only with the portion of outcomes assessment for which the Major Field Test in Business is generally utilized.

The proposal would involve the following steps. First, faculty would fully evaluate the program's curriculum and develop learning objectives for each subject area within the program.

Second, faculty would write a *Capstone Enrollment Exam* which would include a separate section covering the content of each subject area. Third, after completing the introductory courses but before being allowed to enroll in the capstone course, students would be required take the Capstone Enrollment Exam. Finally, any students who failed any section of the exam would be required to complete a brief refresher course on that section's subject area before being allowed to enroll in the capstone course, with students who failed multiple sections of the exam being required to take the relevant refresher course for each subject area failed. The refresher courses are envisioned as taking only a moderate amount of time, e.g. one weekend afternoon, and could also be put online for added convenience.

This plan would provide a wide variety of learning benefits. The students, knowing of the need to pass the Capstone Enrollment Exam, would recognize the need to learn effectively in all of their core courses, not just in the course or courses most relevant to their majors. The exam would also encourage students to put greater effort into retaining the knowledge gained in the non-major introductory courses. Similarly, it would encourage the faculty to more effectively integrate material from the entire set of introductory courses into the more advanced coursework so that students would relearn the important concepts and apply them repeatedly. The capstone course would thus become a truly phenomenal learning experience because of the dramatic increase in student preparation, whether due to improved learning and retention achieved by the students who passed the entire capstone enrollment exam or due to the remediation provided by the refresher courses for students who failed parts of the exam. Finally, the results from the capstone enrollment exam would provide excellent documentation of program effectiveness. Even more importantly, the exam results plus the experience of preparing and teaching the various refresher courses would greatly enhance the faculty's understanding of program strengths and weaknesses, facilitating continuous program improvement. The main drawback to this proposal is that it would obviously require a tremendous amount of work on the part of the faculty. It would also not provide school-to-school comparisons.

CONCLUSION

Despite its popularity the Major Field Test in Business is problematic in a variety of critical ways. As discussed above, it should not be used without careful consideration by the faculty and should not be used as the centerpiece of an outcomes assessment program. Even if the problem of student apathy can be overcome, the exam simply provides too little encouragement for the key attributes of successful outcomes assessment, a fully involved faculty utilizing trustworthy measures of student learning to guide continuous improvement.

REFERENCES

Accrediting Commission for Senior Colleges and Universities of the Western Association of Schools and Colleges. (2001). Handbook of Accreditation. Retrieved August 13, 2005 from http://ww.wascsenior.org/wasc/DocLib/2001%20Handbook.pdf

Association of Collegiate Business Schools and Programs. (2004). *ACBSP standards and criteria for demonstrating excellence in baccalaureate/graduate degree schools and programs.* Available from http://www.acbsp.org

Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business. (2005). *Eligibility procedures and accreditation standards for business accreditation.* Retrieved on August 13, 2005 from www.aacsb.edu/accreditation/business/AACSBSTANDARDS-Jan05-Final.pdf

Anaya, G. (1999). College impact on student learning: Comparing the use of self-reported gains, standardized test scores, and college grades. *Research in Higher Education, 40*, 499-526.

California State University, Northridge. (2005). Fall 2004 CSU-BAT Results. Retrieved December 8, 2005 from http://busecon.csun.edu/assessment/reports/CSU_BAT_F04.pdf

Commission on Accreditation and School Improvement of the North Central Association. (2003). *Standard and criteria for accreditation of schools approved for postsecondary education*. Retreived August 13, 2005, from http://www.ncacasi.org/files/pdf/std_postsec_2003.pdf

Commission on Institutions of Higher Education of the New England Association of Schools and Colleges. (2005). *Standards for accreditation*. Retreived August 12, 2005 from http://www.neasc.org/cihe/standards_for_accreditation_2005.pdf

Educational Testing Service. (2005). *Institutions administering the major field tests*. Retrieved September 7, 2005 from http://www.ets.org/Media/Tests/MFT/pdf/appbus03-04.pdf

Educational Testing Service. (2006a). *A guided tour of the Major Field Tests*. Available from http://www.ets.org/Media/Tests/MFT/demo/mftdemoindex.html

Educational Testing Service (2006b). Institutional Assessment Indicator Mean Score Distributions. Retrieved February 16, 2006 from http://www.ets.org/Media/Tests/MFT/pdf/mft_compdata_business_K-3ymf.pdf

Lopez, C.L. (1998). Assessment of student learning. *Liberal Education, 81*(3). Retrieved April 15, 2005 from the Academic Search Premier database.

Maki, P.L., Doyle, W. & Finney, J.E. (2001). From standardized tests to alternative methods. *Change, 33*(2). Retrieved April 15, 2005 from the Academic Search Premier database.

Mirchandani, D., Lynch, R. & Hamilton, D. (2001). Using the ETS Major Field Test in Business: Implications for assessment. *Journal of Education for Business, 77*, 51-56.

Middle States Commission on Higher Education of the Middle States Association of Schools and Colleges. (2002). *Characterstics of excellence in higher education*. Retrieved August 12, 2005 from http://www.msche.org/publications/Characteristicsbook050215112128.pdf

Sanoff, A.P. (2005). Measure for measure. *American Society for Engineering Education Prism 14*(5), 37-40. Retrieved on February 16, 2006 from http://www.prism-magazine.org/jan05/feature_measure.cfm

Ulmer, L.K. (1991). Standardized exams and the faculty: An uneasy alliance. *The Journal of General Education, 40*, 224-238.

Yarbrough, D.B. (1992). Some lessons to be learned from a decade of general education outcomes assessment with the ACT COMP measures. *Innovative Higher Education, 16*, 223-234.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF ON-LINE AND HYBRID COURSE DELIVERY IN INTRODUCTORY ACCOUNTING COURSES

Paul J. "Jep" Robertson, Henderson State University
Renae K. Clark, Henderson State University
robertp@hsu.edu

ABSTRACT

This paper compares the effectiveness of two different course delivery techniques in accounting principles courses: on-line and hybrid. Comparisons are made between a pure on-line section and hybrid sections, one of which met face-to-face once per week and the other twice per week. A hybrid course is one that utilizes both traditional face-to-face instructional techniques with one or more web based tools, whereas the on-line section employs only web based tools. Topical coverage, examinations and the professor were identical in each of the sections. Results indicate that students performed best, as measured by final grades, in the hybrid section that met most often and lowest in the pure on-line section. Overall student satisfaction was also evident in the hybrid section that met face-to-face most often.

RETHINKING FACULTY ROLE IN A KNOWLEDGE AGE

Craig M. Sasse, Rockhurst University
craig.sasse@rockhurst.edu
Randy Schwering, Rockhurst University
Randolph.schwering@rockhurst.edu
Sylvia Dochterman, Rockhurst University
Sylvia.dochterman@rockhurst.edu

ABSTRACT

While the relationship and the relative importance between the primary faculty tasks of teaching and research have been debated and empirically examined, the fundamental faculty expectations at most universities remains unchanged. The shift to a knowledge age and the need for knowledge workers along with an emerging paradigm shift towards learning begs that the traditional faculty role be reexamined. Briefly, the knowledge age has changed the nature of work and skills needed to do this work. For instance, Thomas Friedman observes that today's worker must be more generalist and be able to see things not in silos but more broadly. Also, with information more ubiquitous the most effective workers and thinkers are those able to "arbitrage" or use information from disparate places to create value in a global economy. The need for faculty to disseminate information has been replaced by the need for learners to know how to use and apply information.

In this article, we apply value chain analysis to determine where the focus of faculty work is located and to identify how faculty can best create leverage among their activities along the chain. This analysis yields a shift in faculty focus "downstream" in the value chain, where more is expected of faculty in the areas of course design and student learning and assessment. In fact, the article points out several trends that clearly indicate that this shift downstream has taken place. Based on this value chain analysis, the authors draw conclusions on what changes should be considered regarding faculty roles. This article should be of interest to those academics that want to understand why faculty work is changing and what adjustments might be made to the traditional faculty role.

AND YOU THOUGHT IT WAS THE APPLE: A STUDY OF JOB SATISFACTION AMONG TEACHERS

Wanda R. Tillman, North Greenville University
wrtillman@earthlink.net
C. Justice Tillman, Lander University
cjtillman@lander.edu

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship length of service, salary, and supervision has on the job satisfaction of teachers in Upstate South Carolina. Hypothesis One provided no significant support for teacher length of service and the six satisfaction scores. Teacher length of service was not positively correlated with job satisfaction. None of the six related correlations provided support for hypothesis two which predicted teacher salary would be negatively correlated with job satisfaction. Hypothesis three was confirmed. Supervision was positively correlated with teacher job satisfaction. The study predicted other findings that were significant. Overall, the study provided a significant difference in length of service, salary, and supervision as they impact job satisfaction. Implications of this study for teachers, administrators and human resource professionals in schools are discussed.

TAKING THE LEAD ON DOCTORAL STUDENT RETENTION: A SYSTEMATIC INTERVENTION

Isaac Wanasika, New Mexico State University
Carolyn I. Chavez, New Mexico State University
cchavez@nmsu.edu

ABSTRACT

The attrition rate for doctoral students in social sciences is alarming as only 50-60% of students complete the program (Denecke & Fraisier, 2005). This is a disturbing statistic when we consider AACSB predictions of a growing gap between supply and demand for business Ph.Ds. Many educational researchers argue that we can find both the problem and the solution to doctoral student attrition in socialization and integration strategies. Therefore, we developed a program-long systematic approach designed to improve retention through an organizational integration and socialization process that decreases psychosocial hindrances. We based our methodology on experiential learning principles.

Early results support the intended four objectives: to provide a shared experience within which students can help one another develop appropriate learning strategies; to provide a means by which socialization and integration in academia can occur; to ease feelings of isolation among doctoral students; and to promote self-regulation while providing group support. Whether this intervention supports our long-term objective -- decreased attrition -- requires more time and the involvement of many more universities. Here, we take the lead by presenting one approach towards decreasing doctoral student attrition rates. We hope that sharing our experience will motivate others to do the same either by using this methodology, or by developing other approaches.

EXPLORATORY RESEARCH WITH ANECDOTAL FEEDBACK ON AN EXPERIENTIAL PEDAGOGICAL APPROACH: THE INTEGRATION OF MIND MAPPING AND METAPHORICAL MUSICAL LYRICS

J. Donald Weinrauch, Tennessee Technological University
dweinrauch@tntech.edu

ABSTRACT

There has been an outcry by many educational leaders and organizations, such as AACSB, that there is a vital need to encourage innovative pedagogical methods to encourage holistic interactive student learning. The paper provides exploratory research from anecdotal evidence on the efficacy of combining metaphorical music lyrics and mind mapping assignments. It is believed that the experiential activity enables students to creatively visualize the interdependencies and interconnections of business course concepts. The paper first explains the concept, purpose, use, and benefits of musical metaphors and mind mapping. The discussion below then offers a sample assignment that could be duplicated or modified by educators. A few sample mind maps are also provided to visually illustrate the maps created by students. The perceptions of the students and professor on the value of combining musical metaphors with students' mind mapping drawings are covered. Based on exploratory research, feedback is offered from a tabulation of students' comments, selected student written comments, and this writer's observations. In sum, the paper allows professors to easily experiment with this experiential activity in their own classes and then perform further research on this pedagogical approach.

TEACHING LEADERS TO LEAD THEMSELVES: AN EMERGING LEADER EXERCISE

Carolyn I. Chavez, New Mexico State University
Yasanthi Perea, New Mexico State University
Glaudia Gomez, New Mexico State University
cchavez@nmsu.edu

ABSTRACT

Leadership scholars agree that leadership is extraordinarily important both as a social phenomenon and as a subject for scholarly research. Most agree that individuals can learn to be leaders. However, several noted scholars have recently questioned the appropriateness of what we teach in leadership courses. Hackman and Wageman (2007) suggest that instead of teaching leadership models that focus on fixed traits or capabilities, what we really need is to teach leaders how to lead themselves. To succeed, learners must break away from automatic thoughts and responses, and move towards an attitude of inquiry and self-discovery. They must embrace personal growth as an on-going life-long process. However, personal growth can be daunting, as it necessarily requires addressing anxiety-arousing questions. Despite such challenges, we believe the benefits are well worth the effort, for it allows one to choose the kind of leader they want to be instead of becoming a simple transmitter of the memes and genes of previous generations.

As a method of teaching potential leaders how to lead themselves, we developed a semester-long emerging leader exercise that requires learners to see themselves through the eyes of others. Each week students nominate two classmates that they perceive to possess the most (relative to others in the class) of an announced leadership trait/characteristic taken from Offerman, et al's., (1994) Implicit Leadership Theory (ILT) model. We compile and feedback anonymous votes and explanations to nominated students. Each student learns how many votes s/he received for a particular trait/characteristic and the reason for each vote. The feedback is ongoing throughout the semester, so that students can see the emergence of perceptual patterns.

We use both positive (Leader Prototype) and negative (Leader Antiprototype) model elements for the emerging leader votes. Thus, students can see when an intended positive behavior, is perceived as negative (e.g., dynamic vs. loud, self-confident vs. conceited) and adjust their behaviors accordingly. At the end of the semester, we determine emerging leaders by summing both positive and negative votes accrued throughout the semester. We ceremoniously announce the top three emerging leaders and reward them with bonus points. The emerging leaders then share the behaviors they changed, and the resulting reactions.

Students often report initially making too drastic of a behavioral change (e.g., speaking out in order to portray self-confidence but being perceived as conceited instead), and having to readapt their behaviors accordingly. Such announcements lead to highly charged discussions about what worked, what did not work, what might work, and the reasons why. Students learn how others perceive behaviors and how they themselves form perceptions. An important learning outcome of

this exercise is the realization that our own actions elicit reactions so that if we do not like a reaction, we can change our action and elicit a different reaction. Thus, we engage in a process of leading ourselves by refocusing our energy away from defensiveness towards something we can control – our own actions.