

Volume 13, Number 3

ISSN 1095-6328

ACADEMY OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP JOURNAL

Michael Shurden
Editor
Lander University

Charles Emery
Editor
Erskine College

Academy Information
is published on the Allied Academies web page
www.alliedacademies.org

The *Academy of Educational Leadership Studies Journal* is owned and published by the DreamCatchers Group, LLC, and printed by Whitney Press, Inc. Editorial content is under the control of the Allied Academies, Inc., a non-profit association of scholars, whose purpose is to support and encourage research and the sharing and exchange of ideas and insights throughout the world.

Whitney Press, Inc.

*Printed by Whitney Press, Inc.
PO Box 1064, Cullowhee, NC 28723
www.whitneypress.com*

All authors must execute a publication permission agreement taking sole responsibility for the information in the manuscript. The DreamCatchers Group, LLC is not responsible for the content of any individual manuscripts. Any omissions or errors are the sole responsibility of the individual authors.

The *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal* is owned and published by the DreamCatchers Group, LLC, PO Box 2689, 145 Travis Road, Cullowhee, NC 28723, U.S.A., (828) 293-9151, FAX (828) 293-9407. Those interested in subscribing to the *Journal*, advertising in the *Journal*, submitting manuscripts to the *Journal*, or otherwise communicating with the *Journal*, should contact the Executive Director of the Allied Academies at info@alliedacademies.org.

Copyright 2009 by the DreamCatchers Group, LLC, Cullowhee, NC

**ACADEMY OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP JOURNAL
EDITORIAL BOARD MEMBERS**

Michael Shurden, Editor
Lander University
Charles Emery, Editor
Erskine College

Kavous Ardalan
Marist College
Poughkeepsie, New York

Debbie Beard
Southeast Missouri State University
Cape Girardeau, Missouri

Linda Bressler
University of Houston-Downtown
Houston, Texas

Doug Cagwin
Lander University
Greenwood, South Carolina

Charles Emery
Erskine College
South Carolina

Jerry Garrett
Indiana University Purdue University Fort Wayne
Fort Wayne, Indiana

Doug Grider
University of Arkansas-Fort Smith
Fort Smith, Arkansas

Elizabeth E. Grandon
University of Bío-Bío
Chile

Rassule Hadidi
University of Illinois at Springfield
Springfield, Illinois

Michael Harris
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan

Kanata Jackson
Hampton University
Hampton, Virginia

Tim Johnston
The University of Tennessee at Martin
Martin, Tennessee

Raghu Korrapati
Walden University
Blythewood, South Carolina

Asghar Nazemzadeh
University of Houston-Downtown
Houston, Texas

Robert Pritchard
Rowan University
Glassboro, New Jersey

Mel Schnake
Valdosta State University
Valdosta, Georgia

Neil Terry
West Texas A&M University
Canyon, Texas

**ACADEMY OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP
JOURNAL**

CONTENTS

EDITORIAL BOARD MEMBERS	iii
LETTER FROM THE EDITORS	vi
A COMPARISON OF SERVICE-LEARNING AND EMPLOYEE VOLUNTEERING PROGRAMS	1
Glenn A. Bowen, Western Carolina University	
Debra D. Burke, Western Carolina University	
Beverly L. Little, Horry Georgetown Technical College	
Paul H. Jacques, Western Carolina University	
THE POSTSECONDARY PROFESSORiate: PROBLEMS OF TENURE, ACADEMIC FREEDOM, AND EMPLOYMENT LAW	17
Randall G. Bowden, Kaplan University	
AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RESEARCH ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS OF BUSINESS SCHOOL FACULTY	37
Angela D’Auria Stanton, Radford University	
Robert L. Taylor, Radford University	
Andrea J. S. Stanaland, Radford University	
ONLINE DELIVERY OF ACCOUNTING COURSES: STUDENT PERCEPTIONS	51
Michael P. Watters, Henderson State University	
Paul J. "Jep" Robertson, Henderson State University	

CURRICULUM ADVICE FROM YOUR ADVISORY BOARD: A SURVEY INSTRUMENT	59
Kevin L. Hammond, The University of Tennessee at Martin	
Ernest Moser, The University of Tennessee at Martin	
INTERNATIONALIZING BUSINESS CURRICULA: INTRODUCING THE STUDY OF CANADA INTO INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS PROGRAMS	73
Richard D. Parker, High Point University	
Kirk C. Heriot, Columbus State University	
VALUE-ADDED ASSESSMENT USING THE MAJOR FIELD TEST IN BUSINESS	87
Sarah P. Rook, University of South Carolina Upstate	
Faruk I. Tanyel, University of South Carolina Upstate	
MATHEMATICS AND ACADEMIC SUCCESS IN THREE DISCIPLINES: ENGINEERING, BUSINESS AND THE HUMANITIES	95
B. Brian Lee, Prairie View A&M University	
Jungsun Lee, Prairie View A&M University	
ATTRIBUTES OF EFFECTIVE BUSINESS TEACHERS	107
Earl Simendinger, The University of Tampa	
Bella Galperin, The University Of Tampa	
Daniel R. LeClair, AACSB International	
A.G. (Tassos) Malliaris, Loyola University	

LETTER FROM THE EDITORS

The *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal* is owned and published by the DreamCatchers Group, LLC. The Editorial Board and the Editors are appointed by the Allied Academies, Inc., a non profit association of scholars whose purpose is to encourage and support the advancement and exchange of knowledge, understanding and teaching throughout the world. The *AELJ* is a principal vehicle for achieving the objectives of the organization. The editorial mission of this journal is to publish empirical, theoretical and scholarly manuscripts which advance the discipline, and applied, educational and pedagogic papers of practical value to practitioners and educators. We look forward to a long and successful career in publishing articles which will be of value to many scholars around the world.

The articles contained in this volume have been double blind refereed. The acceptance rate for manuscripts in this issue, 25%, conforms to our editorial policies.

We intend to foster a supportive, mentoring effort on the part of the referees which will result in encouraging and supporting writers. We welcome different viewpoints because in differences we find learning; in differences we develop understanding; in differences we gain knowledge and in differences we develop the discipline into a more comprehensive, less esoteric, and dynamic metier.

Information about the organization, its journals, and conferences are published on our web site. In addition, we keep the web site updated with the latest activities of the organization. Please visit our site and know that we welcome hearing from you at any time.

Michael Shurden
Editor
Lander University

Charles Emery
Editor
Erskine College
www.alliedacademies.org

A COMPARISON OF SERVICE-LEARNING AND EMPLOYEE VOLUNTEERING PROGRAMS

Glenn A. Bowen, Western Carolina University
Debra D. Burke, Western Carolina University
Beverly L. Little, Horry Georgetown Technical College
Paul H. Jacques, Western Carolina University

ABSTRACT

A growing recognition of the social responsibilities of organizations to their communities has resulted in a significant increase in volunteer activities in the United States. Two types of structured programs that promote social engagement are service learning in higher education and employee volunteering programs (EVPs) in business organizations. Such programs are generally considered beneficial to the participants (students or employees), the community, and the sponsor. This paper explores the purposes of such programs and comments on their structures, activities, and outcomes. Lessons that EVP organizers can learn from service-learning programs and recommended steps for creating an EVP are included.

INTRODUCTION

Volunteering is on the rise in the United States. About 61.2 million people in the United States, representing 26.7 percent of the population, volunteered through or for an organization at least once between September 2005 and September 2006 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2007). Volunteering has rebounded to a 30-year high today – rising by more than 32 percent over the past 16 years – after declining between 1974 and 1989 (Corporation for National & Community Service [CNCS], 2006).

At the same time, an interesting new trend that involves purposeful volunteer activities is developing in both education and business practices simultaneously. Increasingly since the last decade, many colleges and universities have been encouraging a pedagogical approach known as service learning, in which structured community service activities are incorporated into the curriculum (Bowen, 2005; Bringle & Hatcher, 1996). Volunteerism and community service are the vehicles for service learning. Not surprisingly, therefore, college student volunteering increased by approximately 20 percent between 2002 and 2005 – from 2.7 million to nearly 3.3 million students (Dote, Cramer, Dietz, & Grimm, 2006). Students participate in two kinds of volunteering: “regular” volunteering (volunteering 12 or more weeks a year with their main organization) and what Macduff (1991) termed “episodic” volunteering (volunteering fewer than two weeks a year with their main organization). They volunteer in a variety of organizations: religious, educational or youth service; civic, political, professional, or international; hospital or other health; social or community service; sport, hobby, cultural, or arts. A marked increase in episodic volunteering since 1989 is driven largely by teenagers (67.9 percent are episodic volunteers) and adults ages 45 to 64 (57.7 percent are episodic

volunteers), the two groups with the largest increase in the sheer number of volunteers serving 99 or fewer hours in a year (CNCS, 2006).

Similarly, corporations increasingly have been encouraging their employees to contribute their time and skills to volunteer projects with nonprofit organizations and educational institutions in their communities. Both service-learning and employee volunteering programs, are gaining momentum, the former as a means of instructing students in the lessons of civic responsibility and the latter to fulfill a corporation's mission of social responsibility. College student volunteers are more likely than the general adult volunteer population (27 percent to 23.4 percent) to be episodic volunteers (Dote et al., 2006).

Campus Compact, a national coalition of nearly 1,100 college and university presidents, supports service learning and civic engagement by providing a wealth of resources, including a consulting corps, profiles of successful programs, toolkits, and conference information (Campus Compact, n.d.). For its part, the Center for Corporate Citizenship at Boston College runs an annual conference on employee volunteer programs (Center for Corporate Citizenship, n.d.).

Business Strengthening America (BSA) is a campaign in response to President Bush's 2002 State of the Union speech in which he asked Americans to increase their level of volunteerism. BSA encourages businesses to include volunteerism in their corporate social responsibility activities. In particular, BSA encourages companies to partner with nonprofits, especially with ongoing volunteer activities as opposed to one-time activities (Business Strengthening America, 2007). Likewise, the National Service Corps, or AmeriCorps, provides assistance mainly through education institutions, in the areas of education, public safety, health, and the environment (Witte, 1998). AmeriCorps supports such efforts at universities through the Learn and Serve America grant program sponsored by CNCS.

Both service-learning and corporate employee volunteering programs fill a void left by the failure of government at all levels to provide the extent of social services needed in society. At the same time, they present viable opportunities to achieve the respective goals of the institutions in which they operate – that is, education and business. The purpose of this paper is to compare these two types of programs and offer a shared approach to fulfilling roles of service leadership in business and education.

SERVICE-LEARNING OVERVIEW

Service learning is an educational experience in which students participate in a service activity designed to meet identified community needs as a means of understanding course content and their civic responsibility (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996). Stated differently, it is a form of experiential learning that engages students in structured activities aimed to address community needs, while intentionally promoting student learning and development (Caruso, Bowen, & Adams-Dunford, 2006). A service-learning program is structured formally and is implemented based on policies and procedures established in accordance with "best practices." This type of program has long-term goals related to student learning and development, as well as short-term objectives related to specific academic courses. Service learning may be incorporated effectively into most academic disciplines, from anthropology to zoology (Bowen, 2005).

The concept of corporate responsibility is now being studied in business classes throughout the United States. As business students assist a nonprofit agency, for example, in the preparation of a marketing plan or development of a Web page, or as they contribute to marketing efforts of small, community-based enterprises, they develop an appreciation for the importance of corporate citizenship. In business schools,

service learning may be particularly relevant to marketing courses, given marketing's interest in social causes (Klink & Athaide, 2004).

As a pedagogical tool, service learning is a means to an end. Just as management education may be taught by the lecture method, or alternatively, by the case method, service learning represents one means of achieving course objectives. Because it includes specific educational and civic goals, service learning is distinguishable from traditional community service and volunteerism. While student groups may volunteer to perform activities to address community needs, service-learning activities benefit the community while also enhancing curriculum content and teaching citizenship skills.

BENEFITS OF SERVICE LEARNING

Researchers have identified four service-learning constituencies: students, faculty, communities, and institutions as a whole (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996). All four constituencies may benefit from this educational approach. Service learning benefits students by increasing involvement with their learning experience, reinforcing critical-thinking skills, augmenting their resumes, and providing scholarship opportunities. As Eyler and Giles (1999) state, the experience enhances leadership development and cultivates democratic participation and civic responsibility. As a non-abstract form of experiential learning, in which inductive reasoning is used to formulate general principles from direct personal experiences, it also has a propensity to motivate lasting learning (Morton & Troppe, 1996). One study concluded that students participating in a service-learning project were more likely than those in traditional discussion sections to report that they had performed up to their potential in the course, learned to apply principles to situations, and developed a greater awareness of societal problems (Markus, Howard, & King, 1993).

Commensurately, service learning benefits faculty because it produces positive teaching and learning outcomes. Faculty members report that students in service-learning classes become more involved in the class, participate more in class discussions, develop a better understanding of course material, and become increasingly interested in community issues (Caruso, Bowen, & Adams-Dunford, 2006). Additionally, service learning provides avenues for meaningful research and scholarly activities, such as problem-based research, which unites faculty, students and community partners in an effort to solve real problems in the community (Strand, Cutforth, Stoecker, & Marullo, 2003).

Service learning benefits the community partner by supplying needed assistance, providing an opportunity to partner in the educational process, and generating networking opportunities. Community partners may include local schools, senior centers, public libraries, environmental centers, hospitals, and nonprofit business incubators. At our institution, more than 30 percent of students – approximately 2,460 students – participate in co-curricular voluntary work and course based service learning, averaging three hours of service each week. According to Bowen (2006), this translates into \$1,684.80 per student in service during the 32-week academic year. Overall, students at this institution provide local communities with approximately \$4.2 million worth of voluntary service each year.

Further, service learning benefits the university as a whole by enhancing its visibility and image. Through service learning, the university may gain access to community resources that might otherwise be unavailable. Moreover, service learning can have a positive impact on student recruitment and retention because students are attracted to practical, relevant learning experiences (Treuthart, 2003). It also has been credited with increasing student sensitivity to diversity issues (Eyler, Giles, Stenson, & Gray, 2001). Service-

learning programs also can serve to renew the civic mission of the university, particularly since the university's role in assuring participatory democracy and providing citizenship training has changed dramatically in the past few decades (Checkoway, 2001). Plater (2004) recognizes that, in essence, teaching and learning are acts of civic engagement because they profoundly affect society and the course of history.

ASSESSMENT

Assessment is regarded as a "best practice" in service learning. The Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS, 2005) has emphasized that service-learning program administrators must conduct regular assessments and evaluations, employing effective qualitative and quantitative methodologies as appropriate. The primary goal of assessment is to determine whether, degree, and to what degree student learning and development outcomes are being met, as well as to determine the effectiveness of service to the community. Data collected must include responses from students, agencies, and other affected constituencies (CAS, 2005). At our institution, both academic and civic learning outcomes are associated with the service-learning program. Learning outcomes are related to students' cognitive and affective development and cover three components: knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Table 1). Our institution's Center for Service Learning uses surveys, informal interviews and discussions, document reviews, observations, and reflection activities to assess learning and evaluate the program.

Table 1: Service-Learning Outcomes
Awareness of community
Involvement with community
Commitment to service
Career exploration/development
Self-awareness
Understanding of course content
Sensitivity to diversity
Sense of ownership
Communication
Valuing of multiple teachers
Source: WCU Center for Service Learning 2007 p. 2

An analysis of assessment data at our institution indicates that service learning has a positive effect on community awareness and involvement among students (72 percent of approx. 350 students surveyed agreed). However, it does not necessarily foster a commitment to service. Service learning contributes to career exploration/development (59 percent strongly agreed). Also, service learning has a moderate impact on sensitivity to diversity (52 percent agreed or strongly agreed). The program administrators acknowledge that assessment requires attention to outcomes but also and equally to the experiences that lead to those

outcomes. “Information about outcomes is of high importance; where students ‘end up’ matters greatly” (WCU Center for Service Learning, 2007, p. 3). At many institutions, including ours, volunteers receive formal recognition and may receive tangible rewards such as scholarships and stipends. At our university, an awards ceremony is organized annually to recognize students who excel in volunteerism and course-based service learning.

EMPLOYEE VOLUNTEERING PROGRAM OVERVIEW

The concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) recognizes that, from an ethical perspective, corporations are accountable to society at large for their actions, and in some circumstances, the interests of stakeholders other than shareholders should be considered. As such, the concept reflects an acknowledgment of the obligation of a corporation to support the community in which it operates in order to enhance the quality of life in that community. Forms of CSR include engaging in sustainable business activities, investing in alternative fuel technologies, addressing working conditions in lesser-developed locations, and reducing emissions from operations. Historically, another facet of this philosophy of social responsibility has been philanthropy, or the donating of money to nonprofit organizations. Recently, there appears to be a movement away from philanthropy alone toward community involvement and investment (Traves, 2005). It is not that corporations are donating less money, but rather that they are leveraging their monetary donations by putting a human face on such donations and coupling them with the time volunteered by employees.

Volunteering is motivated by some combination of self-interest and concern for the well-being of others (Brown, 1999). Employee volunteering (or volunteer) programs (EVPs) manifest the business concept of corporate social responsibility. An EVP is a company-supported effort to leverage organizational resources and engage employees in projects that target real community needs (Points of Light Foundation, n.d.). In an EVP, corporations support organized volunteer efforts of employees designed to benefit the communities in which they operate. For example, to facilitate volunteering, companies may host volunteer events, provide community organizations with directories of volunteers, provide release time (paid or unpaid), and create retiree volunteer programs (Points of Light Foundation, 2000). On Deloitte & Touche’s “IMPACT Day,” each local office participates in a project such as planting trees and shrubs, cleaning up parks, and painting community centers. The projects are designed not only to “connect with each other, encourage teamwork [and] deliver on our values, but also to make a lasting impression on our communities” (Deloitte & Touche, 2005). The company policy of Loew’s Hotels also supports the involvement of employees in the community with service projects in times of crisis, as well as in the normal course of operations (Tisch & Weber, 2004).

In the past decade, EVPs have increasingly been included in corporations’ plans for CSR in several countries, including Canada and England. In 2001, 30 percent of employers in Canada had an EVP (Hatton 2000). Eighteen percent of employers in England had an EVP in 2004 (Volunteering England, 2004), while in 2005, 33 percent of British and American companies had formal time-off policies for volunteering (Traves, 2005).

Timberland has one of the most well-known EVPs. Each employee is awarded forty hours a year of paid time off to volunteer, and each year the entire company shuts down for a day in order for the employees to work on projects. In addition, four employees can be awarded a paid six-month sabbatical each year to work with a nonprofit organization (Pereira, 2003). Jeff Swartz, President and CEO of Timberland, who is

one of the greatest advocates of this type of CSR, calls the company's business model "boot, brand and belief," to stress that CSR is an integral part of the company's mission.

Partnerships between companies, nonprofits, and cities are seen as crucial if changes brought by volunteering programs are to be sustainable. For example, building a playground does not add value if the neighborhood is not safe for children.

In service learning, a distinction may be drawn between volunteering for the sake of achieving a community goal and service learning, which is designed to incorporate the achievement of learning objectives with activities aimed at improving the community and learning the value of citizenship as an overarching objective. Similarly, EVP activities may be structured on two issues. The first of these is the nature of the volunteer activities. The second is the internal outcomes (business functions) that are desired because of the volunteering, as an added complement to the social objectives. The latter is comparable to service learning as a type of pedagogy because the activities are designed to achieve certain desired outcomes. In the case of EVPs, the desired outcomes involve the support of business functions, while in the case of service learning, the desired outcomes consist of achieving educational objectives. In other words, the concept of strategic community involvement looks for complementary business, employee, and community interests such that the EVP is focused on employees' use of their business-related skills. Such an approach hones employees' skills and gives community partners access to professionals. It also helps with brand identity, as, say, employees of a financial services company volunteer to teach children about how banks work, thus strengthening name recognition for the firm.

This approach is exemplified by Merrill Lynch, whose volunteer efforts are focused on their program "Investing Pays Off" (Cunningham, 2004). Investing Pays Off is a program that has created a curriculum for young people focused on leadership, entrepreneurship, personal finance, and business knowledge. The program is delivered by Merrill Lynch volunteers in conjunction with existing nonprofit organizations (Merrill Lynch, n.d.). Microsoft Canada tailors its volunteering program to its business know-how as well, by creating digital libraries for the blind (Traves, 2005).

The Points of Light Foundation, a national network that mobilizes millions of volunteers to help solve serious social problems, reports that 81.7 percent of companies with EVPs focus the activities on business functions (Points of Light Foundation, 2005). EVPs address business functions such as public relations (83 percent), marketing and communication (64 percent), employee skill development (60 percent), and enhancing diversity (56 percent) (Points of Light Foundation, 2000). In 1999, 81 percent of companies reported that not only did the EVP support core business functions, but also that volunteering activities were integrated into companies' overall business plans (Points of Light Foundation, 2000). The societal issues most often addressed by EVPs in 2000 were education, health and human services, youth, and the environment. These topics vary by industry, with health care companies tending to focus on health and human services, and utility companies often focusing on the environment (Points of Light Foundation, 2000).

However, the core function of the corporation is not always as closely aligned to its EVP. For example, defense giant Northrop Grumman's EVP consists of one event a month to repair the facility of a nonprofit or school chosen by a team of employees ((Northrop Grumman, n.d.). At Georgia Natural Gas, the volunteer efforts are concentrated on children and the elderly, the customers who are most at risk from rising energy costs (Points of Light Foundation, 2005). General Electric (GE) uses its volunteer program to target education, because the American economy (and GE) needs a workforce that is strong in research and development. Employees serve as mentors and advisors for at-risk students in underperforming public

schools. GE also provides financial aid for college costs, but without the mentoring, many of those students would not be prepared for college (Eisler, 1996). Apart from offering employees time-off from work to volunteer, companies may allow employees access to company premises and resources for their volunteer activity. In Regina, Canada, the Wascana Energy Company's employees partner with an elementary school. On company time, employees read to students, talk about careers, take the students on field trips, and present academic performance awards monthly. In addition, the students visit the Wascana offices (Eisler, 1996).

It is important for employees to commit to the EVP. At Fluor Corporation, where there is a long-standing tradition of community service, an employee steering committee selects, plans and coordinates the projects, to ensure that the projects are meaningful to the volunteers (Fluor Employee Volunteer Program, n.d.). Additionally, since employees may not want to do the same tasks during their volunteering time that they do at work, they may be more motivated to volunteer if they can choose the activity and recipient of their service (Cunningham, 2004). Deloitte & Touche and ExxonMobil both have flexible volunteering programs, in which the employees may choose the activities in which they participate. These corporations also leverage their philanthropic dollars by allowing employees to apply for grants for the community organizations for which they volunteer (Cunningham, 2004). Alternatively, Hasbro defines the nature of the EVP, but employees can choose the actual activity. Hasbro employees can have up to four hours a year of paid volunteer time for any activity that has been approved. The criterion for an approved activity is that it be child-focused. The company also has a link on its community relations Web site to enable agencies to apply to be included on the list of opportunities (Hasbro, 2006).

EVPs that support employee volunteer activities but are not tied to business functions are more comparable to volunteerism by student organizations than to service learning. While the image of the university or company may be enhanced tangentially by the participation of its students or employees in philanthropic endeavors supported by the organization, the volunteering activities are not designed to achieve either learning objectives or strategic business goals.

There also seems to be agreement that while employee volunteering programs need support from upper management and structure from the company, the actual ideas for programs should come from employees. The Home Depot has a Web site through which employees may suggest and plan volunteer projects, while Federated Department Stores (parent company of Macy's) stages a volunteer fair (Points of Light Foundation, 2005). This approach attempts to bring the impact of a large group of volunteers to bear on a project while increasing employees' motivation for the project through their input into the choice of activity.

BENEFITS OF EVPs

Corporations typically balance the interests of multiple stakeholders, including investors, employees, consumers, communities, and the environment (Dyer, Jordan, Rochlin, & Shah, 2005). However, employee volunteering is usually a three-way partnership among an employer, employees, and a community group in which each party benefits (Volunteering England, 2004). By making volunteerism visible to both employees and the public, EVPs create a "win/win/win" situation for the company, the employees, and the community (Points of Light Foundation, 2005). EVPs provide the community with more volunteers, break down barriers between parts of society, and build partnerships with private and public sectors (Volunteering England, 2004). The activities also serve to address social issues, foster a spirit of citizenship and civic pride, open lines of

communication between segments of the community, strengthen the local economy, and improve the quality of life (CNCS, n.d.).

Commensurately, employees gain a sense of satisfaction of having contributed to society and are able to take a break from regular work duties while developing and honing certain skills (Volunteering England, 2004). The experience can strengthen organizational, leadership, communication, and decision-making abilities. Furthermore, the activity encourages teamwork, reduces stress while increasing morale, expands networking opportunities, and increases the awareness of community issues (CNCS, n.d.). Also, volunteering can have a greater favorable impact on employee attitudes than does cash donations, in-kind donations, or nonprofit sponsorship (2005). In the case of GE, Welch (1991) reports that employees feel a real sense of purpose and pride as a result of the volunteer program.

Corporations certainly benefit from the positive public image generated by such programs. A recent report indicated that 64 percent of executives surveyed said that corporate citizenship produces a tangible contribution to the company's bottom line. Among executives at large companies, 84 percent saw direct bottom-line benefits (Dyer et al., 2005). In the wake of recent corporate scandals, both Ford Canada and GlaxoSmithKline Canada have asserted that employee volunteering can do far more to demonstrate good corporate citizenship than any number of press releases or even the donation of money (Pancer, Baetz, & Rog, 2002; Traves, 2005). Additionally, strategic EVPs can produce a return on investment in several ways. For example, the development of employee skills not only inures to the benefit of the employee, but also to the employer. According to one report, the top three skills gained through volunteering are communication skills, collaboration and team-building skills, and creative thinking (Points of Light Foundation, 2005). Other skills developed through volunteering include project management, leadership, interpersonal, communication, and creative thinking skills.

EVPs help to achieve other corporate goals and objectives as well. As part of business strategy, volunteerism can cultivate a set of values and an organizational culture and be used as part of a socialization system for new employees (Cunningham, 2004). Apart from creating teamwork opportunities, corporate volunteering improves teamwork and productivity when the employees are back at work (Traves, 2005). It can also contribute to strategic business goals by improving cross-functional relationships and communication between management and the workforce, in addition to building client relationships along with the company's goodwill and image (CNCS, n.d.). Correspondingly, in demonstrating a commitment to the community, EVPs improve the corporation's public perception. This improved image helps to differentiate a company from its competitors, enhances the corporation's reputation among investors, and leads to brand loyalty among consumers (Points of Light Foundation, 2005).

Just as service learning may enhance the retention rate at a university (Eyler et al., 2001; Treuthart, 2003), EVPs lead to greater employee loyalty/retention through increased morale and by strengthening relationships outside the normal scope of the job (Points of Light Foundation, 2005). Timberland believes that its EVP helps the company attract and retain talent. An internal survey found that more than 50 percent of employees say that community service is the main reason they work there (Pereira, 2003). Almost 90 percent of companies reported a reduction in employee turnover as a result of EVPs, and many believe their recruiting efforts are enhanced (Traves, 2005). Further, Greening and Turban (2000) found that job seekers were more likely to apply for jobs with socially responsible firms than with firms with a lower reputation for social responsibility.

In the same way that service learning can meet education and civic objectives while benefiting a university's constituencies, EVPs seem to be an effective way for corporations to meet social responsibility objectives in a synergistic manner. It seems appropriate that EVPs designed to achieve strategic goals may involve employee development in addition to meeting community needs. As in the case of service learning, effective, practices for EVPs may be developed and shared. Clearly, participants in service learning (primarily students) and EVPs (primarily employees) derive similar benefits from their involvement in these programs. While volunteering is typically not remunerative (AmeriCorps does offer stipends to volunteers), it can be instrumental in securing employment for participants. The new contacts made by volunteers could help their career or their business (Hodgkinson & Weitzman, 1996). In a national study of white collar workers, 63 percent of all respondents (74 percent of volunteers) reported that volunteering had had a positive effect on their careers (Deloitte/Points of Light Foundation, 2006). Furthermore, in both service learning and EVPs, volunteering also fosters teamwork, improves communication, boosts (student/employee) morale and retention, and contributes to building organizing and planning skills. Clearly, the community benefits similarly from service learning and EVPs, particularly in terms of resource support and the resultant improvement of the quality of life. At the same time, the sponsors (university and corporation) gain goodwill (and perhaps profitability), operational security, and a positive corporate image.

There is now some attention to what is called "corporate service learning." Corporate service learning might involve having customer service representatives better learn how to use the products they sell by participating in company-organized volunteer projects (Boccalandro, 2007). At The Home Depot, for example, every store has a Team Depot captain who is given at least two hours a week on the clock to coordinate employee volunteer activities. These volunteer activities may include building playgrounds, teaching job skills to disadvantaged young adults, and assisting elderly people with home repairs. Corporate volunteerism might also involve volunteer experiences that span weeks or months. For example, UPS's Community Internship Program (CIP) immerses senior level executives in a variety of social and economic challenges facing today's workforce. Executives leave their jobs and families to spend a month living and working in one of four CIP sites run by local nonprofit agencies. "This intense training program exposes managers to situations they would rarely encounter in corporate America but that their employees might experience, such as poverty, drug dependency and alcoholism. The goal is to "make better, more empathetic managers" (Boccalandro, 2007, p. 2).

Even as we highlight the benefits of service learning and EVPs, we wish to be cautious. As Wilson and Musick (1999) note, too much attention to benefits can distract attention from possible costs. Costs are not simply the lack of benefits. For example, a *consequence* of volunteering (to use a term that is less value-laden than "benefit") may be that the face-to-face amelioration of individuals' personal problems encourages antidemocratic political attitudes. That would probably be the case if observers attribute social problems (e.g., poverty) to the actions of individuals rather than to structural forces, which may require concerted political action. Therefore, in any analysis of the programs, especially EVPs, the consequences – intended and unintended – should always be considered.

FUTURE TRENDS AND OPPORTUNITIES

The evolution of service learning has produced a substantial literature concerning best practices for implementation (Jacoby & Associates, 1996; Howard, 1993). There exists a wealth of information

concerning such implementation issues, such as preparing the syllabus and designing relevant assignments to meet course objectives. Since ultimately service learning must be successful as a type of pedagogy in the teaching and learning of course objectives, whether or not those educational goals have been achieved should be assessed. Astin and colleagues (192) have published guidelines for practice in this important area concerning the assessment of learning outcomes.

As with most endeavors, there are risks. Hence, service-learning centers have developed best practices for recognizing and minimizing third party liability issues involved with service-learning activities (Joyce & Ikeda, 2002; Perkins, 2003). Corporations generally have the legal and technical expertise necessary to create an effective risk management policy and procedures for their EVPs.

What seems to be missing from the literature are data with benefits/cost ratios related to volunteer work in both higher education institutions and corporations. The assumption is that corporations incur higher costs, because employees use paid time to participate in EVPs while students in a service-learning program are unpaid volunteers. The benefits of volunteering have been well documented, but there is little evidence that the costs have not been fully analyzed.

Service-learning programs provide excellent models for EVPs. Recommended steps to create an EVP are outlined in Table 2.

1.	Assess employees' interests and community needs – survey employees to find out more about their volunteer experiences and specific volunteer interests with a view to matching them to community needs.
2.	Identify business priorities and strategic goals that the employee volunteer program can meet – ensure that the program reflects the culture and values of the company.
3.	Secure top management support and identify senior managers to champion the program while participating in volunteer activities.
4.	Develop program policies and a program structure – encourage participation from all level of employees and consider setting up an employee steering committee to determine the focus of the program.
5.	Align volunteering with financial contributions and in-kind support – consider organization volunteer activities that support the same nonprofit agencies that receive monetary donations from the company.
6.	Assess the outcomes of the program – develop mechanisms to track employee participation and satisfaction, and to evaluate the overall program.
7.	Develop systems to reward and recognize employee volunteers – they may be awarded certificates, plaques, or extra vacation time.
8.	Publicize the program and its results, both internally and externally (e.g., through newsletters, news releases, and articles featuring volunteers).

Among lessons that corporations can learn from colleges and universities regarding EVPs are these: Establish policies and procedures for the program, set long-term goals and specific objectives, evaluate the

program, and publicly recognize participants. As Vineyard (1996) suggests, giving participants highly visible recognition for their volunteer work will be a motivating factor in an EVP.

It would be beneficial for corporations that establish EVPs designed to achieve strategic corporate goals to develop best practices for program implementation, program assessment, and risk management. With respect to strategic EVPs, the issue of measurement is on the horizon. According to the Points of Light Foundation (2005), if there is a business case for EVPs, there must be defined goals, and outcomes related to those goals should be measured. For example, if reduction in employee turnover is a goal of a company's EVP, the Human Resources Department should track the relationship between engaging in volunteering and remaining with the company. A strategic EVP can deliver value to the community and to the company, with special attention to building relationships of trust and issues management. Since the establishment of EVPs is only one way of meeting a corporation's social responsibility, it is critical that progress, or the lack thereof, be checked through assessment processes.

Another measurement issue occurs at the individual level. Companies are beginning to include volunteering in employees' annual reviews. This could cause a problem because once volunteering is measured, it is no longer volunteering per se. In the management literature, going above and beyond one's job requirements has been termed "organizational citizenship behaviors" (OCB), which by definition are beyond the scope of the job requirements. When the construct was originally articulated, the essence of the concept was that OCBs would not be rewarded. Once something is included in a job description or a performance appraisal, it is no longer citizenship behavior (Organ, 1997). But later clarification of the construct suggests that it is probably unrealistic to expect that OCBs would have no positive outcome in terms of rewards. Particularly if they are tied to skills development plans, EVPs could be included in performance appraisals and career development plans. Similarly, in service learning, it is not the quality of the volunteer efforts that is measured, but ultimately the students' progress in learning course material. That principle could translate into the workplace with regard to EVPs and performance ratings.

If there are performance expectations for employees participating in EVPs, then management should communicate those expectations clearly and support the performance of those activities. In the same vein, university administrative support for service learning must be unequivocal and visible in order to support faculty efforts. An empirical study of participation by marketing faculty in service learning concluded that, while faculty members predicted positive student outcomes from such projects, a belief that such efforts are not rewarded affected their motivation negatively (McIntyre Webb, & Hite, 2005). The specific rewards faculty seek typically relate to tenure and promotion. Lessons such as these from the implementation of service-learning programs in universities are instructive for EVPs.

Risks should be managed as well, with a plan for evaluating and possibly supplementing workers' compensation coverage for employees, especially if there is an expectation of employee participation as part of their performance reviews. Likewise, insurance policies for potential third party claims resulting from the activities of the employees should be analyzed and addressed. Often, there are financial costs involved in supporting community volunteer efforts. As part of its support, the corporation should be prepared to absorb those expenses, as well as to assist in the identification of viable community partners, with input from employees.

Management, like university administrators, should reinforce the importance of these public service endeavors by recognizing the participants with awards or receptions designed to honor outstanding service, and showcase such contributions in public forums, as well. Certainly, companies could recognize their

employees without offering monetary rewards. Public expressions of appreciation at an employee volunteer dinner, for example, could serve the purposes of recognition and reward.

In sum, the effective implementation of an EVP, like service learning, requires defining the goals of service in the context of the corporation's mission, coordination with community organizations, allocation of budgetary resources, support for employees in their activities, assessment of the program, and recognition for participants. It is important that an EVP be grounded in a comprehensive corporate citizenship strategy that will benefit multiple stakeholders. The consequences of program participation and liability issues should also be considered.

CONCLUSION

Service-learning programs and corporate EVPs share many characteristics. Both types of programs are characterized by tripartite relationships involving the sponsor (education institution or corporation), volunteers (students or employees), and the external community (primarily nonprofit agencies and community-based entities). Also, both involve participants in mutually beneficial endeavors to assist their communities while achieving desirable institutional outcomes. They develop measurable outcomes, such as leadership and communication skills. Participants report positive results in terms of their perceptions of personal and professional growth. Both types of programs also enhance the images of their respective institutions dramatically. For corporations that wish to fulfill social responsibility goals through EVPs, it is advisable to formalize the approach into their strategic planning initiatives and to develop best practices for implementation, assessment, and risk management, perhaps with the assistance and guidance of the academic community. While neither service learning nor an EVP is without its costs, the benefits to be reaped in terms of service leadership are usually worth the effort expended. Therefore, corporations should continue to encourage and enable employees to volunteer in their communities even as higher education institutions continue to increase their commitment to civic engagement through service learning.

REFERENCES

- Astin, A.W., et al. (1992). *Nine principles of good practice for assessing student learning*. Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education.
- Boccalandro, B. (2007). For better employees, nudge them out of the office. [Opinion]. Points of Light Foundation, 1.
- Bowen, G.A. (2005). *Service learning in higher education: Giving life and depth to teaching and learning*. Cullowhee, NC: Coulter Faculty Center, Western Carolina University.
- Bowen, G. (2006, February 24). College students who participate in community service become better citizens. *Asheville Citizen-Times*, A9.
- Bingle, R.G. & J.A. Hatcher (1996). Implementing service learning in higher education. *Journal of Higher Education*, 67: 221.
- Brown, E. (1999). Assessing the value of volunteer activity. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 28(1), 3-17.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor (2007). Volunteering in the United States, 2006 [Press release, 10 January].

The business case for an employee volunteer program. (2005). Points of Light Foundation: Washington DC.

Business Strengthening America (2007). About BSA. Retrieved February 26, 2007, from <http://businessstrengtheningamerica.org/about.html>

Campus Compact (n.d.). Service-learning resources. Retrieved February 24, 2007, from http://www.compact.org/resources/service-learning_resources/

Caruso, R., G. Bowen, & J. Adams-Dunford, (2006). Student affairs and service learning: Promoting student engagement. *The College Student Affairs Journal*, 25(2), 186-198.

Center for Corporate Citizenship at Boston College (n.d.). *Building an effective employee volunteer program.* Retrieved February 24, 2007, from <http://www.bccc.net>

Checkoway, B. (2001). Renewing the civic mission of the American research university, *Journal of Higher Education*., 72 (Mar-Apr.): 125-131.

Corporation for National & Community Service (CNCS) (2006). *Volunteer growth in America: A review of trends since 1974.* Washington, DC: Office of Research and Policy Development, CNCS.

Corporation for National & Community Service (CNCS) (n.d.). *Implementing an employee volunteer program in ten steps.* Retrieved June 15, 2006, from http://www.nationalserviceresources.org/epicenter/practices/index.php?ep_action=view&ep_id=922

Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) (2005). *Service-learning programs: CAS standards and guidelines.* Washington, DC: CAS.

Cunningham, C. (2004). Aligning corporate goals with employee volunteerism. *World Volunteer Web.* Retrieved April 6, 2006, from <http://www.worldvolunteerweb.org/news-views/viewpoints/doc/aligning-corporate-goals-with.html>

Deloitte & Points of Light Foundation (2006). *Deloitte/Points of Light Volunteer IMPACT survey, 2006.* New York/Washington, DC: Deloitte/Points of Light Foundation.

Deloitte & Touche (2005). *Impact Day 2005: The results are in.* Retrieved June 10, 2006, from <http://www.deloitte.com/dtt/article/0,1002,cid=95418.html>

Dote, L., Cramer, K., Dietz, N., & Grimm, R. (2006). *College students helping America.* Washington, DC: Corporation for National & Community Service.

Dyer, B., S. Jordan, S.A. Rochlin & S. Shah (2005). *The state of corporate citizenship in the U.S.: Business perspectives in 2005.* Chestnut Hill, MA: Boston College Center for Corporate Citizenship and U.S. Chamber of Commerce Center for Corporate Citizenship.

- Eisler, D. (1996). Corporate volunteers in the classroom. *Maclean's*, 109(27), 46-47.
- Eyler, J.S., D.E. Giles, Jr., C.M. Stenson & C.J. Gray (2001). *At a Glance: What we know about the effects of service-learning on students, faculty, institutions, and communities, 1993–2000* (3rd ed.). Washington, DC: Learn & Serve America/National Service-Learning Clearinghouse.
- Eyler, J. & D.E. Giles (1999). *Where's the learning in service learning?* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Fluor Employee Volunteer Program (n.d.). Retrieved February 27, 2007, from <http://www.fluor.com/communities/volunteer.asp>
- Greening, D.W. & D.B. Turban (2000). Corporate social performance as a competitive advantage in attracting a quality workforce. *Business & Society*, 39 (3), 254-280.
- Hasbro (2006). *Employee programs*. Retrieved June 2, 2006, from <http://www.hasbro.org/default.cfm?page=employeeprogram>
- Hatton, L. (2000). *Canadian employee volunteer programs survey*. Ottawa: Volunteer Canada.
- Hodgkinson, V.A. & M.S. Weitzman (1996). *Giving and volunteering in the United States: A national survey*. Washington, DC: Independent Sector.
- Howard, J. (1993). Community service learning in the curriculum. In J. Howard (Ed.), *Praxis I: A faculty casebook on community service learning*. Ann Arbor: OCSL Press, University of Michigan.
- Jacoby, B. & Associates. (1996). *Service-learning in higher education*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Joyce, S. & E. Ikeda (2002). A risk management resource for college service programs. Retrieved April 15, 2006, from http://www.servicelearning.org/lib_svcs/lib_cat/index.php?library_id=5196
- Klink, R.R. & G.A. Athaide (2004). Implementing service learning in the principles of marketing course. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 26(2), 145-153.
- Macduff, N. (1991). *Episodic volunteering: Building the short-term volunteer program*. Walla Walla, WA: MBA Publishing.
- Markus, G.B., J. Howard & D. King (1993). Integrating community service and classroom instruction enhances learning: Results from an experiment. *Education Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 15(4), 410-419.
- McIntyre, F, D. Webb & R. Hite (2005). Service learning in the marketing curriculum: Faculty views and participation, *Marketing Education Journal*, 35(15).
- Merrill Lynch (n.d.). Investing in youth. Retrieved February 28, 2007, from <http://www.ml.com/philanthropy/ipo/resources/>

-
- Morton, K. & M. Troppe (1996). From the margin to the mainstream: Campus Compact's project on integrating service with academic study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 21, 23-25.
- Northrop Grumman (n.d.). *Employee volunteer programs*. Retrieved June 2, 2006, from <http://www.st.northropgrumman.com/aboutus/environment/community/volunteer.html>
- Organ, D.W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human Performance*, 10 (2), 85-98.
- Pancer, S.M., Baetz, M.C. & Rog, E.J. (2002). *Developing an effective corporate volunteer program: Lessons from the Ford Motor Company of Canada experience*. Toronto: Canadian Centre for Philanthropy.
- Pereira, J. (2003, September 9), Doing good and doing well at Timberland. *Wall Street Journal*, 242 (49), B1-B10.
- Perkins, K. (2003). *Best practices for managing risk in service-learning*. Retrieved April 15, 2006, from <http://www.calstate.edu/csl/documents/Cover.pdf>
- Plater, W.M. (2004). Civic engagement, service learning, and intentional leadership. In M. Langseth (Ed.), *Public work and the academy* (pp. 1-22). Boston: Anker Publishing.
- Points of Light Foundation (2000). *The corporate volunteer program as a strategic resource: The link grows stronger*. Washington, DC: Points of Light Foundation.
- Points of Light Foundation (2005). *Awards for excellence in workplace volunteer programs*. 2005 Business Leadership Forum Monograph. Washington, DC: Points of Light Foundation.
- Points of Light Foundation (n.d.). Corporate employee volunteering. Retrieved February 22, 2007, from <http://www.pointsoflight.org/networks/business/>
- Strand, K., N. Cutforth, R. Stoecker & S. Marullo (2003). *Community-based research and higher education: Principles and practices*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Tisch, J. & K. Weber (2004). *The power of we: Succeeding through partnerships*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley.
- Traves, J. (2005). What goes around. *Canadian Business*, 78(3): 67-68.
- Treuthart, M.P. (2003). Weaving a tapestry: Providing context through service-learning, *Gonzaga Law Review*, 215: 38.
- Vineyard, S. (Ed.). (1996). *Best practices in workplace employee volunteer programs*. Washington, DC: Points of Light Foundation.
- Volunteering England (2004). Is volunteering a popular activity? Retrieved June 1, 2006, from <http://www.employeevolunteering.org.uk/about/index.asp?id=1&themeid=75>
- Volunteering England (2004). What distinguishes employee volunteering from other forms of volunteering? Retrieved June 1, 2006, from <http://www.employeevolunteering.org.uk/about/index.asp?id=2&themeid=75>

WCU Center for Service Learning (2007). *Service-learning assessment plan, 2007-2008*. Cullowhee, NC: Center for Service Learning, Western Carolina University.

Welch, J. F. (1991). Restoring upward mobility. *Issues in Science and Technology*, Spring, 38-40.

Wilson, J. & M. Musick. (1999). The effects of volunteering on the volunteer. *Law & Contemporary Problems*, 62, 141-172.

Witte, D.E. (1998). Comment, Getting a grip on national service: Key organizational features and strategic characteristics of the national service corps (AmeriCorps), *Brigham Young University Law Review*, 7, 741-810.

THE POSTSECONDARY PROFESSORiate: PROBLEMS OF TENURE, ACADEMIC FREEDOM, AND EMPLOYMENT LAW

Randall G. Bowden, Kaplan University

ABSTRACT

In recent years higher education has come under intense scrutiny from stakeholders and the public. Particularly, faculty have been indicted for what many perceive as lack luster performance. The professoriate has been indicted for being self promoting, lazy, incompetent, and unaccountable. Yet, faculty are asked to perform in complex roles. In essence, the professoriate in higher education has fallen from grace. In order to address the indictments, this paper examines the complexity of the professoriate from three perspectives: (1) tenure; (2) academic freedom; and (3) faculty as employees. Utilizing the American Association of University Professors' (AAUP) "Statement of Principles" as a basis, these concepts are explored to address specific issues related to misunderstandings and misconceptions of tenure and academic freedom, as well as how faculty responsibilities of teaching, research, and service are not to overstep their faculty role as employees. Implications reveal both faculty and the public must have a clearer understanding of how tenure is a protection for academic freedom and academic freedom is not synonymous with freedom of speech. Additionally, certain privileges and rights afforded to faculty, such as tenure, academic freedom, and freedom of speech, are conditional according to both status and terms of employment.

INTRODUCTION

American postsecondary institutions and their faculty have come under expansive misconceptions and scathing indictments in recent years (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). As a result, significant change is on the immediate horizon, but change is nothing new to colleges and universities or their faculty. What is new, though, are the types of changes affecting college and university faculty. From fewer tenure-track positions being available to court intervention of academic behavior, the professoriate is faced with "scrutiny and a widening misunderstanding" (Finkelstein, 2001, 324), particularly as it relates to faculty. This paper helps clarify the complex role of the professoriate in American higher education. Whereas scrutiny and indictments no doubt will remain, a better understanding of today's professoriate may diminish the severity of criticism and mitigate its impact on the academy. The intent of this paper, then, is to examine the dual role of the faculty, first, as teachers, researchers, servants, and second, as employees according to three performance concepts: (1) the nature and context of tenure; (2) academic freedom and its limited constitutional protections; and (3) faculty and their behavior as employees.

BACKGROUND

No doubt the American professoriate has undergone many considerable transformations since its colonial days. Those were times where faculty roles primarily centered on teaching and when students were trained in the professions, predominantly for religious, legal, and medical purposes. These began to be altered in the 1800s with the German influence of *Lehrfreiheit* (freedom to research and publish wherever it may lead), *Lernfreiheit* (freedom to shape courses of study), and *Wertfreiheit* (objectivity and impartiality to research). The introduction of these into US institutions helped shape the PhD as the preeminent degree for faculty. Moreover, research became the esteemed role across campuses and the nation. As late as the mid-1960s, the professoriate experienced highly favorable reviews from public polls. Following World War II, American higher education experienced “prosperity, prestige, and popularity” (Thelin, 2004, p. 260). These ushered in the “golden years” of the professoriate to where the “biggest gains in income, power, prestige, and protections between 1945 and 1970 were those accumulated by the faculty” (Thelin, 2004, p. 310). In spite of criticism through the 1970s and 1980s faculty grew in rank and tenure in keeping with the expansion of community colleges, university systems, and student populations, both traditional and adults, but the admirable position of a professor scurrilously fell from grace over the next 20 years (Finkelstein, 2001).

THE PROFESSORiate’S FALL FROM GRACE

The professoriate’s fall from grace can be attributed to no one event. It is as though, in spite of the warnings and concerns of academic leaders, such as Boyer (1990) and Levine (1983), faculty woke up one day to find themselves indicted: Professors are self-promoters not interested in public good; They have little work ethic as seen by their lack of commitment in the classroom; Their tenure status promotes their incompetence; and, Tenure protects them from being accountable (Finkelstein, 2001).

One might consider the hand that helped feed institutional growth and faculty prestige may also be the one fostering the caustic indictments. During the “golden age” of higher education the federal government drastically increased funding allocations to institutions from \$2.2 billion in 1950 to \$23.4 billion in 1970 with an increase to \$31 billion in 1991 (Bender, 1997). With this growth eventually came greater accountability by political leaders and other stakeholders (e.g., Baldwin & Chronister, 2001; Bennett, 1998; Mallon, 2001) for its institutions to educate citizens in a new economy (Newman, Couturier, & Scurry, 2004). Postsecondary institutions, now increasingly exposed in the public mind to be more responsible, have tremendous demands of quality and accountability imposed on them from the federal government (Taylor, 1999). Poskanzer (2002) related that “higher education today faces unprecedented demands to demonstrate productivity and efficiency to all its stakeholders” (p. 200). With an increase in funding for higher education, more faculty employed, greater scrutiny by stakeholders, there is bound to be more cases of faculty misconduct revealed. This reaches beyond faculty behavior as well. It is suggested “that misconduct by college and university faculty members encourages students to behave as badly” (Braxton & Bayer, 1999, p. 2). With academy growth comes an increase of misconduct cases, more exposure to the public, and a subsequent public outcry (Chait, 2002).

Greater exposure translates into a greater need to clarify the mission of higher education and the role faculty must uphold *in* society and *for* society. Finkelstein (2001) revealed that much of the problem extends from the lack of the academy to communicate its form and function to its stakeholders in ways acceptable to

the public. He further related the “indictments reveal a misunderstanding of the institution of faculty tenure—what it is and what it is not” (p. 325). Educating the public is problematic (Bennett, 1998). Bogue and Aper (2000) characterized what tenure scornfully represents: “[T]enure has come to be viewed as an instrument that shields the uncaring, incompetent, slothful, and duplicitous from corrective action” (pp. 171-172). What was once a powerful and prestigious position—college and university professor—had taken a turn for the worse. One of higher education’s hallmarks—tenure—that aimed to protect the power and prestige had become one of its worst culprits. Tenure, at least in the eyes of many, had become an impenetrable shield to protect professorial slothfulness. Yet, tenure and the public’s view of it may not be the only problematic area.

PROBLEMS WITHIN THE PROFESSORIATE

The professoriate, itself, may indeed be ill-informed about “what it is and what it is not.” Greater attention should be given to problematic areas of faculty preparation and development related to their knowledge and understanding of where and how tenure, academic freedom, and employment law apply to their careers (Hamilton, 2002). A clearer understanding of these issues within the academy can eventually be transferred to stakeholders for a more informed public, thus helping to alleviate the repercussions of the indictments of which Finkelstein (2001) wrote.

Whereas research interests surrounding faculty in recent years have focused on career renewal and development (e.g., Baldwin, 1990; Crawley, 1995; Hubbard & Atkins, 1995; Karpiak, 2000), underrepresented populations in the professoriate (e.g., Heggins, 2004; Jones, 2000; Keller, 2001; Myers & Turner, 2004; Cooper & Stevens, 2002; van Anders, 2004), scholarship of teaching (e.g., Atkinson, 2001; Hutchings, & Shulman, 1999; Kreber 2002; Kreber, 2005; Kreber & Cranton, 2000; Richlin, 2001; Trigwell, Martin, Benjamin, & Prosser, 2000), salary differentials (e.g., Bellas, 1997; Fairweather, 2005; Guillory, 2001; Toutkoushian, 1998; Twigg, Valentine, & Elias, 2002), and particular interest in preparation of new faculty (e.g. Austin, 2002; Austin, 2003; Wulff & Austin, 2004; Cawyer, Simonds, & Davis, 2002; Gaff, Pruitt-Logan, & Weibel, 2001; Lindholm, 2004; Sands, Parsons, & Duane, 1991; Savage, Karp, & Logue, 2004), this article examines the dual role of the professoriate as faculty and employees. It looks at three major aspect of this dual role: (1) the nature and context of tenure; (3) academic freedom and its limited constitutional protections; and (3) faculty and their behavior as employees. A misunderstanding in any of the areas by faculty or stakeholders can lead to misconduct in these areas can further bring damaging indictments to the professoriate.

Tenure

It would seem that the term “tenure” is so widely known, its definition is assumed to be clearly understood both within the academy and well into society. Gappa, Austin, and Trice (2005) even referred to it “as the uniform model for academic employment” (p. 34) since it was formalized in 1940 based on a 1925 conference statement on academic freedom and tenure. This model of employment extended from the American Association of University Professors (AAUP). By the 1970s faculty in almost every college and university in the U.S. came under the protection of tenure. According to the words of Gappa, Austin, and Trice’s (2005), tenure is the “exchange for contractual guarantees of career-long job security and academic

freedom” (p. 37) and its presence helps institutions recruit the best scholars in the nation (Mallon, 2001). Bogue and Apter (2000) revealed the impetus of the protection:

The concept of tenure emerged in this century [20th] as an instrument to guarantee the independence of faculty in their search for truth, to assure them of due process, to offer a degree of employment security as a partial compensation for the relatively low salaries associated with work of the mind, and to protect them from the caprice of the politically and financially motivated, mostly external to the campus and the narrowness and meanness of colleagues who hold different views. (p. 171)

This perspective of tenure has changed, though. As Honan related (1998), it is “open season on faculty” (p. 33). Gappa, Austin, and Trice (2005) demonstrated one aspect of this, indicating how the professoriate is changing. From 1988 to 1999 tenured positions have decreased from approximately 60% of all faculty employment to roughly 40%. Yet faculty employed in non-tenure track positions raced upward from nearly 5% to 30% over the same time period.

With tenure-track positions decreasing and faculty employment on non-tenure tracks dramatically increasing, what really is the strength and basis of the contractual guarantee?

The American Association of University Professors (AAUP) statement of tenure (below), which gave rise to the protections for the professoriate, also provides *conditional* clauses for its application, which will be discussed more fully in the next section.

After the expiration of a probationary period, teachers or investigators should have permanent or continuous tenure, and their service should be terminated only for adequate cause, except in the case of retirement for age, or under extraordinary circumstances because of financial exigencies.

In the interpretation of this principle it is understood that the following represents acceptable academic practice:

- 1. The precise terms and conditions of every appointment should be stated in writing and be in the possession of both institution and teacher before the appointment is consummated.*
- 2. Beginning with appointment to the rank of full-time instructor or a higher rank, the probationary period should not exceed seven years, including within this period full-time service in all institutions of higher education; but subject to the proviso that when, after a term of probationary service of more than three years in one or more institutions, a teacher is called to another institution, it may be agreed in writing that the new appointment is for a probationary period of not more than four years, even though thereby the person's total probationary period in the academic profession is extended beyond the normal maximum of seven years. Notice should be given at least one year prior to the expiration of the probationary period if the teacher is not to be continued in service after the expiration of that period.*
- 3. During the probationary period a teacher should have the academic freedom that all other members of the faculty have.*

4. *Termination for cause of a continuous appointment, or the dismissal for cause of a teacher previous to the expiration of a term appointment, should, if possible, be considered by both a faculty committee and the governing board of the institution. In all cases where the facts are in dispute, the accused teacher should be informed before the hearing in writing of the charges and should have the opportunity to be heard in his or her own defense by all bodies that pass judgment upon the case. The teacher should be permitted to be accompanied by an advisor of his or her own choosing who may act as counsel. There should be a full stenographic record of the hearing available to the parties concerned. In the hearing of charges of incompetence the testimony should include that of teachers and other scholars, either from the teacher's own or from other institutions. Teachers on continuous appointment who are dismissed for reasons not involving moral turpitude should receive their salaries for at least a year from the date of notification of dismissal whether or not they are continued in their duties at the institution*
5. *Termination of a continuous appointment because of financial exigency should be demonstrably bona fide (AAUP, Tenure section, para. 1-7).*

The conditional nature of tenure was reiterated by LaNoue and Lee (1987). Although they stated tenure is a guarantee of lifetime employment, employment can be terminated for cause as well as for financial exigency.

Not understanding the *conditional* nature of tenure has serious implications. The professoriate's reliance on tenure as a contractual guarantee as well as protections from capricious behavior by administrators and colleagues may be a tenuous position for four main reasons.

First, "Tenure is a means to certain ends; specifically: (1) freedom of teaching and research and of extramural activities, and (2) a sufficient degree of economic security to make the profession attractive to men and women of ability" (AAUP, 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure section, para. 5). Strictly speaking, tenure protection is *only* for faculty to function within the parameters of teaching, research, and extramural activities. These extramural activities are further described as conducting one's self professionally as a citizen (this is provided in more detail below). Additionally, the statement is not necessarily a guarantee in that after a probationary period teachers "*should* have permanent or continuous employment" not that they *will* have permanent or continuous employment as some sort of entitlement. Moreover, throughout the AAUP principles, there are other conditional statements. These conditions are based on an agreement between the institution and individual faculty members and should not be considered pervasive across all faculty at all institutions (Trower, 2002).

Second, even though tenure can be granted, termination for cause may still occur. Tenure is not a protection against termination. In other words, faculty must still guard their teaching, research, and extramural activities with the utmost professionalism. According to the AAUP:

If the administration of a college or university feels that a teacher has not observed the admonitions of paragraph (c) of the section on Academic Freedom and believes that the extramural utterances of the teacher have been such as to raise grave doubts concerning the teacher's fitness for his or her position, it may proceed to file charges under paragraph 4 of the section on Academic Tenure" (1970 Interpretive Comments section, para. 10).

Section “C” relates that, as faculty members, they hold special status in the community and should take caution when speaking personally as not to be representing the institution in controversial matters. Although faculty may be extended the freedom to teach and research controversial issues, tenure does not protect them if in the eyes of administration their conduct is offensive. Hamilton (2002) concluded that if misconduct is perceived with reasonable evidence, it behooves faculty and administration to act upon it.

Third, the AAUP provides insightful principles for the probationary period as well as academic freedom during that time. Although seven years is a guideline implemented by institutions, it is by no means legally ratified by the AAUP. What is more engaging is the statement that probationary faculty “*should* have the academic freedom” of the other members (AAUP, Tenure section, para. 5). Technically, those faculty who have not yet been granted tenure may be scrutinized more closely for their actions related to controversial issues in teaching and research. They often are (Mallon, 2001).

Fourth, termination for cause according to the AAUP is also based on a conditional clause. Termination “*should, if possible*” (AAUP, Tenure section, para. 6) be considered by faculty committees and a governing body of the institution. Further procedural recommendations are provided under the 1958 Statement on Procedural Standards Faculty Dismissal Proceedings (AAUP, 1958 Statement on Procedural Standards in Faculty Dismissal Proceedings). Thus, tenure is not a protection against termination, but primarily a protection for pursuit of freedom in teaching and research, and secondarily, a protection for due process. However, due process protections, though conditional and established by the AAUP, must be endorsed by institutions. They may apply quite differently to the professoriate at private colleges and universities as faculty in public institutions have additional safe guards of due process guaranteed by the Constitution (Hendrickson, 1991). Ultimately, tenure is not sweeping protection for faculty.

According to Euben (2002), Legal Counsel for the AAUP:

Faculty tenure in higher education is, in its essence, a presumption of competence and continuing service that can be overcome only if specified conditions are met. Faculty tenure is similar to civil service protection and to judicial tenure. It is not a lifetime guarantee of a position. Tenure is usually provided for in: (1) an institution's governing documents (bylaws, state statutes, etc.); (2) the faculty handbook; (3) an individual faculty member's letter of appointment; and/or (4) if applicable, collective bargaining agreements. (What is tenure anyways? section, para. 7-8)

Ultimately, tenure may not be the strong-hold it is commonly considered to be. First, tenured faculty who step beyond the parameters of appropriate tenure standards may find themselves facing termination proceedings. Violations of standards can include “neglect of duty, incompetence, and professional or personal misconduct,” but termination can also comprise of program elimination and financial exigency of the institution (Euben, 2002, Acceptable Grounds for Dismissal of Tenured Faculty section, para. 2).

Second, probationary faculty who step beyond the guidelines of probation may further experience vulnerability for what they teach in classes and their research performance. Although tenure principles of academic freedom for probationary faculty *should* extend to them, they may not. Many of the protections will depend on each institution’s perspective as most commonly found in faculty handbooks and employment guides as well as other contractual agreements.

Third, which should be of most grave concern to the professoriate, is that as non-tenure track positions increase (Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2005), it appears to open the door for censorship of what faculty can and cannot teach and perform for research. By definition tenure is not a broad stroke for job security but a protection of academic freedom. Interestingly, though, it leaves one to wonder: Without this protection, how does this leave the professoriate exposed to capricious behaviors among colleagues, administrators, and the public? It is a question posed for further discussion throughout the academy and not this paper.

In its intended sense, then, tenure is a privilege granted to faculty by colleges and universities for professors to pursue teaching and research where ever they may lead within one's subject matter. This becomes clearer with the discussion on academic freedom below. However, tenure is not an innate faculty right or even a legal right in-and-of itself. Tenure only becomes legally ratified according to a written agreement between faculty and institutions: "Tenure is usually granted through an institution's formal affirmative decision, after review of the candidate's qualifications under stated criteria" (Euben, 2002, What is tenure anyways? section, para. 9)

Academic Freedom

Academic freedom among the professoriate is held in highest esteem. Ivie (2005) explained it well: "In the simplest terms, academic freedom means unfettered scholarly inquiry, a scholar's fundamental right of research, publication, and instruction free of institutional constraint" (p. 53). Teirney (2004) wrote that there is probably no other concept more central to academia. The AAUP once again provided the guiding principle for those stances. "The common good [of institutions of higher education] depends upon the free search for truth and its free exposition" (AAUP, 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure section, para. 3).

How this common good is expressed has its limitations throughout the professoriate, though. Similar to tenure, academic freedom should not be broadly applied across professorial freedoms as may be misunderstood by faculty, administrators, and the public (Hendrickson, 1991; Standler, 1999, 2000). The groundwork is established accordingly:

- a) *Teachers are entitled to full freedom in research and in the publication of the results, subject to the adequate performance of their other academic duties; but research for pecuniary return should be based upon an understanding with the authorities of the institution.*
- b) *Teachers are entitled to freedom in the classroom in discussing their subject, but they should be careful not to introduce into their teaching controversial matter which has no relation to their subject. Limitations of academic freedom because of religious or other aims of the institution should be clearly stated in writing at the time of the appointment.*
- c) *College and university teachers are citizens, members of a learned profession, and officers of an educational institution. When they speak or write as citizens, they should be free from institutional censorship or discipline, but their special position in the community imposes special obligations. As scholars and educational officers, they should remember that the public may judge their profession and their*

institution by their utterances. Hence they should at all times be accurate, should exercise appropriate restraint, should show respect for the opinions of others, and should make every effort to indicate that they are not speaking for the institution. (AAUP, 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure section, para. 6-8)

Standler (1999, 2000) was so bold as to write: “Academic freedom is an amorphous quasi-legal concept that is neither precisely defined nor convincingly justified from legal principles” (Introduction section, para. 5). And,

In practice, the notion of academic freedom is invoked to justify statements by faculty that offend politicians, religious leaders, corporate executives, parents of students, and citizens. Such offense is easy to understand, given that professors are often intellectual risk-takers, ahead of their time, and loyal to Truth—wherever it may lead and whoever it may offend—instead of loyal to money, political or corporate power, and dogma (Introduction section, para. 6).

Hendrickson (1991), as well as Goonen and Blechman (1999), wrote that academic freedom is not a constitutional guarantee, necessarily, but has some contractual rights at times overlapping with the Constitution’s free speech rights under the First Amendment. However, according to Kaplin and Lee (1995), “the trend...has been to deny First Amendment protection to faculty speech” (p. 316). Thus, there are limitations to the professoriate’s expression of academic freedom.

There are several implications for a better understanding of academic freedom that are critical for clearing up misconceptions about the professoriate. It is not uncommon to view academic freedom as a constitutional right according to the Supreme Court’s decision in *Sweezy v. New Hampshire* (1957): “[T]he four essential freedoms of a university [are]—to determine for itself on academic grounds who may teach, what may be taught, how it should be taught, and who may be admitted to study” (Birtwistle, 2004, p. 205). It should be noted that the decision describes the rights as “four essential freedoms of a *university*.” It is the AAUP that expounds the freedoms more clearly for faculty. As such, the guiding principles come with controls.

First, faculty are afforded freedom in research and publication only to the extent that they are performing well in their other duties. This is clear within principle “a” above. Metzger (1981) understood this when he wrote academic freedom was “on-the-job protection” in teaching and research and to extend beyond them professors “were presumed to enter at their own risk” (p. 61). As a general proposition academic freedom is considered “a very soft law,” if one at all, and “not policed by the courts” (Van Alstyne, 1993, p. 79). Moreover, research for “pecuniary return” as stated in the AAUP principles is in conjunction with the understanding (approval) of the institution’s authorities. The inference is that faculty in those instances may not be free to follow research wherever it may lead. According to Pecorino (2007), academic freedom exists as a right only in line with the value society places on new knowledge.

Second, when academic freedom pertains directly to classroom and classroom related activities, it must be relevant to the professor’s subject matter. Faculty who claim academic freedom when speaking about job related matters, whether they are in the classroom or not, may find themselves facing termination

(Hendrickson, 1991). Nevertheless, faculty may choose to introduce controversial matters into their classrooms. If they do, they must be careful to do so in a manner consistent with the subject matter (refer to “b” above). As Slaughter (1981) pointed out, academic freedom is elusive as a liberty and it varies with historical contexts and specific time periods. These are accounted for, generally, in the AAUP principles as well. Furthermore, there are limitations governed by religious foundations “or other aims” of an institution. The “other aims” not being specified by the AAUP should give rise for faculty concern to shield academic freedom as a liberty—a privilege—for teaching and research purposes and not wield it as a license for speaking one’s own mind.

Third, as discussed under the section above about Tenure, faculty hold a special position as citizens. As such, they may be held accountable for citizen actions as professors, which could jeopardize the standing of the institution in society. Academic freedom does not function as authorization for faculty to speak or write on controversial matters when the public may not distinguish the communication separate from the institution (Hamilton, 2002). This does not mean faculty as citizens cannot write or speak as citizens on contentious issues. The AAUP principle implies that when performed, the faculty member could sustain a backlash of charges detrimental to his or her career. In addition, claims for speaking under the protection of academic freedom may not shelter the faculty member from termination. Some speech is protected, some is not.

It should be unmistakably apparent that academic freedom is a dispensation related to the purpose of higher education and not a protection by the Constitution. The United States Constitution not only does not address academic freedom in its Articles or Amendments, it does not even reveal issues related to education. The term “education” is not found in the Constitution. Therefore, any claims to academic freedom based on constitutional rights are generally made via freedom of speech, property rights, and/or liberty interests. Three major implications, then, pertain to their affect on the professoriate.

First, speech can be determined free and protected under the First Amendment when in the judgment of the courts it is in public interest. Travis’ (2000) work in the area of case law concluded that “speech that is not public and is judged to interfere with harmonious working relationships is not constitutionally protected” (p. 816). Generally, then, a faculty member terminated for accusing his or her chair of impropriety most likely will not be protected under free speech. Similarly, faculty members lost free speech cases related to Bible reading in class [*Martin v. Parrish*, 1986] and use of profanity in the classroom [*Max Lynch v. Indiana State University*, 1978]. The courts ruled the actions were not academically related (Travis). Conversely, a faculty member was terminated for teaching a class from a Marxist perspective. However, the courts ruled in favor of the faculty member [*Cooper v. Ross*, 1979] because the institution could not prove that the subject matter was not course related (Travis). Thus, controversial speech in the classroom can be protected when it is subject matter related.

Students in another case filed suit against a university because in their view the professor made racist remarks and did not allow students a forum for debate. The university supported the faculty member and the courts supported the institution, citing the university as not being a political arena for personal moral codes (Travis, 2000). These are only examples of the differences between academic freedom and protections of free speech. Since academic freedom is not a constitutional right, censure, suspensions, and terminations for classroom and community actions, at least for public intentions, will most likely be scrutinized under the First Amendment clause associated with freedom of speech.

Second, often tenure and academic freedom claims of protection under the Constitution are linked to contractual arrangements (Poskanzer, 2002). Poskanzer continued:

Even after their basic job security has been established, faculty remain vitally concerned with the terms and conditions of their employment. This is a realm in which contract law is king. One must always remember that faculty are employees bound to their employer colleges or universities by written or unwritten contract and that the rights and obligations flowing between the parties are determined by those contracts. (p. 182)

Hendrickson (1991) wrote that “the terms of a contract establish a property right. A property right is ownership or the reasonable expectation of receiving something” (p. 23) and due process must be present as a provision of the Fourteenth Amendment, at least at public institutions. Whether a person is a tenured, probationary, or a non-tenured faculty member, it is the terms of the contract that constitute whether there are property rights involved. To clarify the matter in question form, does the faculty member have a right to the job? Institutions and faculty most likely are bound by contractual language determined by the contents of faculty and employment handbooks. Whether faculty are entitled to continued employment and obligated to the terms of non-renewal, probation, and termination should be delineated in those documents. Faculty who sign contracts without reviewing those documents run the risk of being subjected to the conditions therein of which they ultimately may not agree. It is befitting of faculty to have a definite understanding of the contractual obligations of their employment. They also need a clear view of the conditions conveyed in appointment letters, other employment documents, and perspectives of regular employment practices. Hendrickson clarified the issue from a legal angle: “The courts have consistently looked to these documents and institutional employment practices to determine the rights of the employee in non-renewal or denial of tenure cases” (p. 26). Whereas property rights may have more clearly definable boundaries according to the terms of a contract, liberty rights applying to faculty may not be as apparent as discussed below.

Third, faculty may claim constitutional protection under the Fourteenth Amendment related to not being deprived of liberty without due process. Liberty interests involve “statements which impugn one’s reputation” (Hendrickson, 1991, p. 25) and involve due process. Goonen and Blechman (1999) noted, “Denial of tenure (as opposed to the termination of a tenured faculty member) in a public institution generally affords no due process rights. Faculty do not have a liberty or property interest in the grant of promotion or tenure” (p. 76) and tenured and non-tenured faculty “may usually be terminated only for a reason designated in the contract of employment” (p. 101). Liberty interests come into play when a person’s good name, honor, reputation, or integrity are at stake. From a state law tort claim, one’s good name enters the legal realm of defamation (LaNoue & Lee, 1987). Faculty who are non-renewed or terminated, whether they are probationary, non-tenured appointees, or tenured have a claim to liberty rights if the actions of an institution produce a stigma of one’s name or if procedural due process was violated in the process of non-renewal or termination, which could impugn one’s good name or infringe on property rights.

For example, when a tenured faculty member was given notice of termination at an Alabama institution, the faculty member sued claiming his liberty interests (one’s good name) were infringed by the president when the contents of the letter violated privileged communication. However, since the communication was not made public—shared with anyone who was not involved with due process—the court sided with the institution (Hendrickson, 1991).

In another instance, a probationary faculty member at a public institution posted his termination letter on the university's site for faculty web pages (Termination letter accessible, <http://und.edu/instruct/areeves>, November, 2005). In doing so, his liberty interests were not infringed upon during hearings in the same sense as the previous example in that *he* made the contents of the letter public. However in a twist to the situation, since he revealed his gay status, the plaintiff's attorney claimed the university was in a panic that the faculty member would be a sexual predator, thus chose to terminate him. Without going to trial, the faculty member resigned before the termination went into effect (Wilson, 2007). The contents of the letter cited termination was for lack of duty and professional misconduct even though the letter stated his work in the classroom was not at question. In both instances above, the Fourteenth Amendment protected liberty interests, as well as property rights, with regard to procedural due process concerns (e.g., Kaplin & Lee, 1995) even though liberty interests were not applied in favor of either faculty members.

Few people, if any, would question the worth of academic freedom as a core value of faculty, a main purpose of higher education, and for the advancement of society. However, academic freedom is not a license for faculty to speak their minds on any topic in the classroom, or with research at their place of employment, or in society. Constitutional protections, including property rights, liberty interests, and due process arise primarily by employees of public institutions because of contractual circumstances of termination, nonrenewal, and denial of tenure and promotion and not the AAUP's statement on academic freedom.

Although faculty are afforded certain protections against termination, they still can be terminated for cause. The governing principles of terminations at public institutions must meet First and Fourteenth Amendment requirements (Goonen & Blechman, 1999). When they do, there are a number of conduct issues resulting in loss of job by faculty members at any level.

Faculty may assume that if they are attending to the job as it relates to teaching, research, and service their job is secure. For the most part this is true. Nonetheless, attending to the job also include matters of supervisor/subordinate relationships. Hendrickson (1991) stated that faculty have an employment obligation to comply with directives of superiors. They can include directors, chairs, and deans. Faculty should keep in mind, though, that there must be established a substantial reporting role, and faculty/supervisor conduct must be reasonable. Not abiding by realistic directives is considered insubordination, which is refusal to act in accordance with a supervisor's directives. Insubordination also can be demonstrated by uncooperative behavior. Insubordination can cover a faculty member's refusal to teach a course assigned. Additionally, if a superior tells a faculty member he or she cannot travel to a conference and the faculty member does so, this may qualify as insubordination (Hendrickson, 1991). The subordinate/supervisor relationship is not a blanket association for superiors to dictate orders. Again, directives and requests must be reasonable. Also, if an employee's speech is critical of a supervisor or colleague and is not deemed for public concern, the speech could be considered disruptive behavior and the faculty member would not be constitutionally protected. To help combat misconduct and misconceptions of the professoriate Bennett (1998) related that inappropriate behavior must be addressed immediately and when dealt with appropriately, faculty should be offered a way out.

Another possible troublesome area for faculty concerns neglect of duty (Hendrickson, 1991). Neglect of duty refers to a failure to perform responsibilities owed to the employer. Neglect of duty claims generally extend from what an employer views as a faculty member not performing tasks as part of the job description. An example would be if a faculty member reported an unruly student to authorities and they properly dealt with the student, but the student remains in the instructor's class and the faculty member refuses to teach the

course. In a case involving a tenured faculty member from North Carolina State University, she was fired for neglect of duty because she did not submit routine paperwork on time. Her termination came even after a review panel found no grounds for termination. However, the chancellor terminated her and removed her tenure on the basis of lack duties toward paperwork, relating personal problems at work, and criticizing the chair of the department in the classroom. She sued on the basis of retaliation and sex discrimination where she won back pay and reinstatement. Whereas the initial charges may have been considered a substantial offense for termination, other employment laws were violated in the process (Leatherman, 1999). This suggests that both faculty and institutions must beware of their behavior.

In another instance of a terminable offense, it is doubtful a faculty member would consider himself or herself incompetent, but institutional authorities might. Incompetence links to “fitness to discharge required duties” (Hendrickson, 1991, p. 47), though the likelihood of being terminated tends to be low. Even so, misconduct and incompetence are often ignored because of lack of paperwork documenting instances, difficulty in tracking them, and cost to litigate, according to Goonen and Blechman (1999).

As a result, faculty who miss their classes without notice, come to class unprepared, fail to meet office hours and keep appointments, dodge committee work, do not return students’ papers or submit grades in a timely manner, or misuse class time may be ignored or, at best, lightly reprimanded. (p. 107)

Poor teaching and inadequate scholarship can also be considered incompetent behaviors (Goonen & Blechman, 1999). Braxton and Bayer (1999) identified poor teaching also in terms of condescending negativism, inattentive planning, moral turpitude, particularistic grading, personal disregard, uncommunicated course details, and uncooperative cynicism. If these instances are as pervasive as one is led to believe, there is no wonder the professoriate suffers the indictments it does at the voice of public opinion.

Of these offenses offered by Braxton and Bayer (1999) gross misconduct and moral turpitude may be the most commonly known offenses by faculty resulting in termination. These concepts suggest violations related to criminal or sexual intent. The range of misconduct, however, is broader than those concepts. Faculty have been terminated and suspended for fraudulently certifying completion of credits by students; fraudulently signing another instructor’s attendance record; and researchers’ completion of deceptive billing on their grants. These cases run in the hundreds (Hendrickson, 1991).

Plagiarism and sexual misconduct also fall into the realm of moral turpitude and misconduct. They cover a wide range of issues. For example, after years of service a faculty member was fired for moral turpitude even though he disclosed on his application convictions he had earlier in his life. These only came to light after reporters questioned his extremist political past (Smallwood, 2004). Furthermore, faculty may not help their case when they promote the profession according to the terms in the following excerpt:

Still, the very security that tenure provides can come at a high cost. In all probability, you just frittered away the best years of your life—the years of your physical and sexual prime—desperately writing articles that no one will read and teaching hordes of bored semiliterates material that they loathe. And for what? Simply to spend the rest of your life doing much the same in the company of petty, mercenary, envious, paranoid, indolent, controlling, dysfunctional, stupid, and psychopathic colleagues who will in turn spend the

*rest of their lives regretting that they supported your tenure, never letting you forget that they did, and looking forward to the day of your dismissal for gross moral turpitude so that they can take over your office (Douglas & George, 2004, *The Academic Therapist: Treating Post-Tenure Depression*, para. 7).*

Although written tongue-in-cheek, this perspective can certainly fuel the flames of those who wish to indict academia further. According to the writers, the column was discontinued under continued lawsuits and threats of new ones. Whether the description of faculty life in the excerpt is true or not, the professoriate's fall from grace can greatly be corrected with a more positive portrayal of the work. However, the work must be fully understood.

Faculty as Employees

The issues surrounding the professoriate should be as unambiguous as possible. When faculty fail to distinguish the limitations of the principles governing tenure and academic freedom, they most likely will be subject to further indictments and possible termination. "At the root of these indictments...is a fundamental lack of understanding of the traditional academic role—faculty as practitioners of a discipline *and* as institutional employees" (Finkelstein, 2001, p. 325). Faculty who distinguish their roles in the traditional sense of teaching, research, and service *and* according to an institution's perspective as employees will "have great freedom to contract with college or university employers on terms that they find personally advantageous, and they are afforded meaningful substantive and procedural safeguards against wrongful personnel decisions" (Poskanzer, 2002, p. 254).

Faculty can get into trouble, though, when they blur the lines. Hendrickson (1991) wrote that speech involving employment issues not considered for public concern may be viewed as inappropriate. Poskanzer (2002) expressed this further when providing insights about faculty as employees: Faculty, similar to other employees,

fall short in their performance, harm or take unfair advantage of other members of the college or university community, hurt their employer institution or block the attainment of its goals, or even injure broader society. When such unfortunate events occur, faculty—again like all other employees at educational and commercial businesses—are subject to discipline by their employers (and may also incur civil or criminal liability). (p. 200)

Furthermore, inappropriate types of faculty behavior were delineated by Hendrickson (1991) in that

a federal district court found that complaints about the staffing and support of a program, the administrative skills of the dean and his department chair, the circulation of a course outline on management in which he insisted several administrators should enroll, and derogatory comments about a particular academic program by a faculty member were viewed as employee speech and not reached by first amendment protections. (p. 55)

Those actions by the faculty member fell into the realm of employment law. They became subject to processes not protected by freedom of speech. Moreover, they may fall under property rights or liberty interests as the incident relates to due process only.

At heart of the professoriate, then, faculty must maintain and balance dual functions. The first encompasses duties and responsibilities as faculty tend to teaching, research, and service. These, however, are guided by principles of tenure and academic freedom and are not open invitations to speak freely about issues *unrelated* to one's expertise whether within a college or university setting or about other matters as a citizen (e.g. Hamilton, 2002). The second covers employment law. While faculty as employees may speak on matters of public concern with constitutional protection, matters of personal interest, disruptive behavior, and insubordination, for example, become the substance scrutinized under employment law. No matter what activities in which faculty engage—teaching, research, service—they are also employees to carry out the purposes of an institution (e.g. Kaplin & Lee, 1999). They are paid and receive benefits from an institution and are subject to scrutiny and accountability. Violations of tenure guidelines, academic freedom principles, and employment policies jeopardize one's standing as a faculty member.

SUMMARY

The current condition of the professoriate, whether under scrutiny or indictment, even now deserves the words of Clark (1983). “[T]he academy is still a place where the devotion to knowledge and intellectual integrity remains most central, where it not merely survives but has great power” (p. 177). Will it continue to be? Within this great power are issues of tenure, academic freedom, and employment law.

Faculty, similar to other employees, are not exempt from the consequences of misconduct. However, because of their special standing as teachers and researchers, they generally are afforded privileges to pursue controversial matters regardless of outcomes. Unfortunately, some faculty may take advantage of these privileges for personal purposes. When colleagues, institutions, the community, and the courts determine public interests have been violated because of disruptive behavior, constitutional protections most likely will not apply. Criticizing other people, an institution, or the public that involve personal interests on behalf of the faculty member as an employee can be dealt with in terms of standard employment policies as would be the case with other public employees.

The professoriate does have a special standing in society, though. It is devoted to knowledge and intellectual integrity. Academic freedom helps protect these noble pursuits but constitutional protections only extend as far as they are connected to contracts and agreements associated with constitutional amendments. Faculty who extend their privileges beyond the principles of academic freedom may find themselves under the gavel of employment law. It is a place where tenure may not even protect them.

Finally, whereas “[f]ull-time tenure-track faculty are down to 20% at all but the top 50 universities” (Tierney, 2003, Higher Education in 2027 section, para. 2), tenure is still considered an “exchange for contractual guarantees of career-long job security and academic freedom...” (Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2005, p. 37). However, Gappa, Austin, and Trice (2005) and Tierney (2003) may indirectly have identified the most immediate concern for the professoriate. As stated earlier, by definition tenure protects academic freedom. Without this protection, how does this leave the professoriate exposed to censorship and capricious behaviors among colleagues, administrators, and the public? Is this a question worthy of further exploration? If so, how will the professoriate and the academy address this concern?

In the mean time, those issues relate to the dual function of the professorate: (1) faculty roles of teaching, research, and service; and (2) faculty as employees. A healthy professoriate recognizes its duties and attends to the dual function of its craft, as well as reflects innocuous indictments.

REFERENCES

- American Association of University Professors (AAUP). 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure with 1970 Interpretive Comments. <http://www.aaup.org/statements/Redbook/1940stat.htm>
- American Association of University Professors (AAUP). AAUP, 1958 Statement on Procedural Standards in Faculty Dismissal Proceedings <http://www.aaup.org/statements/Redbook/Rbfacdis.htm>
- Atkinson, M. P. (2001). The scholarship of teaching and learning: Reconceptualizing scholarship and transforming the academy. *Social Forces*, 79, 1217-1230.
- Austin, A. E. (2002). Preparing the next generation of faculty: Graduate school as socialization to the academic career. *Journal of Higher Education*, 73(1), 94-122. Retrieved February 17, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Austin, A. E. (2003). Creating a bridge to the future: Preparing new faculty to face changing expectations in a shifting context. *The Review of Higher Education*, 26(2), 119-144. Retrieved February 17, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Baldwin, R. G. (1990). Faculty career stages and implications for professional development. In J. H. Schuster & D. H. Wheeler (Eds.), *Enhancing faculty careers: Strategies for development and renewal* (pp. 20-40). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Baldwin, R., & Chronister, J. (2001). *Teaching without tenure: Policies and practices for a new era*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Bellas, M. L. (1997). Disciplinary differences in faculty salaries: Does gender bias play a role? *Journal of Higher Education*, 68(3), pp. 299-321. Retrieved February 18, 2007 from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Bender, T. (1997). Politics, intellect and the American university, 1945-1995. *Daedalus*, 126(1), 1-38. Retrieved February 17, 2007, from http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_qa3671/is_199701/ai_n8745340
- Bennett, J. B. (1998). *Collegial professionalism: The academy, individualism, and the common good*. Phoenix: The Oryx Press.
- Birtwistle, T. (2004). Academic freedom and complacency: The possible effects if 'good men do nothing' *Education & the Law*, 16(4), 203-216. Retrieved February 19, 2007, from <http://web30.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Bogue, E. G., & Aper, J. (2000). *Exploring the heritage of American higher education: The evolution of philosophy and policy*. Phoenix: The Oryx Press.

- Boyer, E. L. (1990). *Scholarship reconsidered: Priorities of the professoriate*. New York: John Wiley.
- Braxton, J. M., & Bayer, A. E. (1999). *Faculty misconduct in collegiate teaching*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Cawyer, C. S., Simonds, C., & Davis, S. (2002). Mentoring to facilitate socialization: The case of the new faculty member. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 15(2), 225-242. Retrieved February 18, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Chait, R. P. (Ed.). (2002). *The questions of tenure*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Clark, B. R. (1983). Faculty: Differentiation and dispersion. In A. Levine, (Ed.), *Higher learning in America: 1980-2000* (pp. 163-178). Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University.
- Cooper, J. E., & Stevens, D. D. (Eds.). (2002). *Tenure in the sacred grove: Issues and strategies for women and minority faculty*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Crawley, A. L. (1995). Senior faculty renewal at research universities: Implications for academic policy development. *Innovative Higher Education*, 20(2). Retrieved February 18, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Douglas, L., & George, A. (2003, February 21). The academic therapist: Treating post-tenure depression. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, p. B20. Retrieved February 20, 2007, from <http://chronicle.com/weekly/v49/i24/24b02001.htm>
- Euben, D. R. (2002). (AAUP). *What is tenure anyways?* Retrieved February 19, 2007, from <http://www.aaup.org/Legal/info%20outlines/legtenur.htm>
- Fairweather, J. S. (2005). Beyond the rhetoric: Trends in the relative value of teaching and research in faculty salaries. *Journal of Higher Education*, 76(4). Retrieved February 18, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Finkelstein, M. J. (2001). Understanding the American academic profession. In P. G. Altbach, P. J. Gumport, & D. B. Johnstone (Eds.), *In defense of American higher education* (pp. 323-351). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Gaff, J. G., Pruitt-Logan, A. S., & Weibel, R. A. (2000). *Building the faculty we need: Colleges and universities working together*. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- Gappa, J. M., Austin, A. E., & Trice, A. G. (2005). Rethinking academic work and workplaces. *Change*, 37(6), 32-39.
- Goonen, N. M., & Blechman, R. S. (1999). *Higher education administration: A guide to legal, ethical, and practical issues*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

-
- Guillory, E. A. (2001). The Black professoriate: Explaining the salary gap for African-American female professors. *Race, ethnicity, & education*, 4(3), 225-244. Retrieved February 18, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Hamilton, N. W. (2002). *Academic ethics: Problems and materials on professional conduct and shared governance*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Heggins, W. J. (2004). Preparing African American males for the professoriate: Issues and challenges. *Western Journal of Black Studies*, 28(2), 354-364. Retrieved February 18, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Hendrickson, R. M. (1991). *The colleges, their constituencies, and the courts*. Topeka, KS: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education.
- Honan, W. H. (1998, January 4). The ivory tower under siege: Everyone else has downsized—why not the academy? *New York Times*, section 4A, p. 33.
- Hubbard, G. T., & Atkins, S. S. (1995). The professor as a person: The role of faculty well-being in faculty development. *Innovative Higher Education*, 20(2), 117-128. Retrieved February 18, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Hutchings, P., & Shulman, L. S. (September/October, 1999). The scholarship of teaching: New elaborations, new developments. *Change*, 11-15.
- Ivie, R. (2005). A presumption of academic freedom. *Review of Education, Pedagogy & Cultural Studies*, 27(1), 53-85. Retrieved February 19, 2007, from <http://web30.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Jones, L. (2000). *Brother of the academy: Up and coming black scholars earning our way in higher education*. Sterling, VA: Stylus.
- Kaplin, W. A., & Lee, B. A. (1995). *The law of higher education: A comprehensive guide to legal implications of administrative decision making* (3rd ed). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Karpiak, I. (2000). The 'Second Call': Faculty renewal and recommitment at midlife. *Quality in Higher Education*, 6(2), 125-134. Retrieved February 18, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Keller, G. (2001). The new demographics of higher education. *Review of Higher Education*, 24(3), 219-235. Retrieved February 18, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Kreber, C. (2002). Controversy and consensus on the scholarship of teaching. *Studies in Higher Education*, 27(2), 151-167.
- Kreber, C. (2005). Reflection on teaching and the scholarship of teaching: Focus on science teachers. *Higher Education*, 50(2), 323-359.

- Kreber, C., & Cranton, P. A. (2000). Exploring the scholarship of teaching. *Journal of Higher Education*, 71(4), 476-495.
- LaNoue, G. R., & Lee. B. A. (1987). *Academics in the courts*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Leatherman, C. (1999, September 3). N.C. State U. to reinstate tenured professor who was fired, *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, p. A22. Retrieved February 20, 2007, from <http://chronicle.com/weekly/v46/i02/02a02202.htm>
- Levine, A. (1983). *Higher learning in America: 1980-2000*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University.
- Lindholm, J. A. (2004). Pathways to the professoriate: The role of self, others, and environment in shaping academic career aspirations. *Journal of Higher Education*, 75(6), 603-635. Retrieved February 18, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu>
- Mallon, W. T. (2001). *Tenure on trial*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Metzger, W. P. (1981). Academic freedom in delocalized academic institutions. In P. G. Altbach & R. O. Berdahl (Eds.), *Higher education in American society* (pp. 59-75). New York: Prometheus Books.
- Myers, S. L., & Turner, C. (2004). The effects of Ph.D. supply on minority representation. *American Economic Review*, 94(2), 296-301. Retrieved February 18, 2007, from http://www.econ.duke.edu/aeasp/Sloan/Education/Myers_and_Turner.pdf
- Newman, F., Couturier, L., & Scurry, J. (2004). *The future of higher education: Rhetoric, reality, and the risks of the market*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Pecorino, P. A. (2006). *Academic freedom and CUNY: The role of the faculty*. Paper presented at Medgar Evers College, CUNY, January 12, 2007. Retrieved February 19, 2007, from <http://web.acc.qcc.cuny.edu/SocialSciences/ppecorino/ACADEMIC-FREEDOM-CUNY-MEC.html>
- Poskanzer, S. G. (2002). *Higher education law: The faculty*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Richlin, L. (2001). Scholarly teaching and the scholarship of teaching. In C. Kreber (Ed.), *Scholarship revisited: Perspectives on the scholarship of teaching* (pp. 57-68). New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 86. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Sands, R. G., Parsons, A., & Duane, J. (1991). Faculty mentoring faculty in a public university. *Journal of Higher Education*, 62(2), 174-193. Retrieved February 18, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Savage, H. E., Karp, R. S., & Logue, R. (2004). Faculty mentorship at colleges and universities. *College Teaching*, 52(1), 21-24. Retrieved February 18, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Slaughter, S. (1981). Academic freedom in the modern American University. In P. G. Altbach & R. O. Berdahl (Eds.), *Higher education in American society* (pp. 77-105). New York: Prometheus Books.

-
- Smallwood, S. (2004, November 19). Professor who disclosed felony convictions is fired. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, p. A12. Retrieved February 20, 2007, from <http://chronicle.com/weekly/v51/i13/13a01201.htm>
- Standler, R. B. (1999/2000). *Academic freedom in the USA*. Retrieved February 19, 2007, from <http://www.rbs2.com/afree.htm>
- Taylor, P. G. (1999). *Making sense of academic life: Academics, universities, and change*. London: Open University.
- Termination letter accessible, <http://und.edu/instruct/areeves>, November 2005.
- Tierney, W. G. (2003). Remembrance of things past: Trust and the obligations of the intellectual. *Review of Higher Education*, 27(1), 1-15. Retrieved February 18, 2007, from http://muse.jhu.edu/cgi-bin/access.cgi?url=/journals/review_of_higher_education/v026/26.2austin.html
- Tierney, W. G. (2004). Academic freedom and tenure. *Journal of Higher Education*, 75(2), 161-177. Retrieved February 19, 2007, from <http://web30.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Theelin, J.R. (2004). *A history of higher education*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins.
- Toutkoushian, R. K. (1998). Racial and marital differences in faculty pay. *Journal of Higher Education*, 69(5), 513-541. Retrieved February 17, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Travis, J. E. (2000). Censorship in higher education: Is the public forum at risk. *Community College Journal of Research & Practice*, 24(10), 809-821. Retrieved February 19, 2007, from <http://web28.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Trigwell, K., Martin, E., Benjamin, J., & Prosser, M. (2000). Scholarship of teaching: A model. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 19(2), 155-168.
- Trower, C. A. (2002). What is current policy? In R. P. Chait (Ed.), *The questions of tenure* (pp. 32-68). Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Twigg, N. W., Valentine, S. R., & Elias, R. Z. (2002). A comparison of salary compression models and pay allocation in academia over time. *Review of Higher Education*, 26(1), 81-96. Retrieved February 18, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Van Alstyne, W. W. (1993). Academic freedom and the First Amendment in the Supreme Court of the United States: An unhurried historical review. In W. W. Van Alstyne (Ed.), *Freedom and tenure in the academy* (pp. 79-154). Durham: Duke University Press.
- van Anders, S. M. (2004). Why the academic pipeline leaks: Fewer men than women perceive barriers to becoming professors. *Sex Roles*, 51(9/10), 511-521. Retrieved February 18, 2007, from <http://web16.epnet.com.ezproxy.library.und.edu/>
- Wilson, R. (2007, January 27). Gay music professor resigns under fire. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, p. A14. Retrieved February 20, 2007, from <http://chronicle.com/weekly/v52/i21/21a01405.htm>

Wulff, D. H., & Austin, A. E. (2004). *Paths to the professoriate: Strategies for enriching the preparation of new faculty*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RESEARCH ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS OF BUSINESS SCHOOL FACULTY

Angela D'Auria Stanton, Radford University

Robert L. Taylor, Radford University

Andrea J. S. Stanaland, Radford University

ABSTRACT

Research and publishing have become increasingly important in colleges of business nationwide. The importance of research and publishing is even more evident in schools which are accredited, or seeking initial accreditation, by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB). The premise for this increase is that faculty's research efforts and outcomes enhance their performance in the classroom. But do business faculty agree with this premise, and do their attitudes toward the usefulness of research in their mission of teaching relate to their behaviors in this area? The current research examines the relationship between attitudes toward research, attitudes toward the impact of research on teaching, and research-oriented behaviors among business faculty at AACSB accredited institutions. A questionnaire was developed to assess faculty attitudes and behaviors relating to research, and was sent to a random sample of business faculty at AACSB accredited business schools. The results show that faculty generally support the idea that researching and publishing improve teaching, and that attitudes toward the usefulness of research relate positively to both research efforts and to research success in the form of published journal articles.

INTRODUCTION

While academic research has historically been an important component of faculty job descriptions at research-focused institutions, accreditation standards for business schools have expanded this focus to include a wider variety of institutions. The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB, 2003) has recently enacted more stringent standards in order for business schools worldwide to earn and maintain their accreditation. These standards focus on increasing the number of peer-reviewed journal publications achieved by faculty members during a 5-year window (generally agreed to be two articles at a minimum in that time frame, per Miles, Hazeldine & Munilla, 2004). In its white paper on deploying academically qualified faculty (AACSB 2006, p. 1), AACSB states that faculty should be "active scholars through their research and other development activities that support the maintenance of their intellectual capital in the teaching field." One of the primary justifications given for this increased emphasis on publications in colleges of business is that research results in more effective teaching, the premise being that faculty members who are actively engaged in research are more likely to remain current in their discipline

and that, in turn, results in enhanced teaching effectiveness and student learning (AACSB, 2008). The current research examines the relationship between attitudes toward research, attitudes toward the impact of research on teaching, and research-oriented behaviors among business faculty at AACSB accredited institutions.

THE IMPACT OF RESEARCH ON TEACHING

The impact of research on teaching has been the focus of a multitude of research studies over the past 30 years. One stream of research in this area purports the notion that research and teaching are complementary and mutually supporting (e.g. Bowen & Schuster, 1986; Shils, 1983; Tang & Chamberlain, 1997; Webster, 1986). Braxton (1996), for example, purported that teaching and research involve common and reciprocal values, while Neumann (1992) found that academic administrators believed in the idea of a teaching-research nexus, or, in other words, the idea that teaching and research are interrelated functions through which the process of teaching is enriched by research and that research can be initiated through ideas generated in the classroom. Many academics support the idea that those who are the most active in research also are the most effective teachers (Hattie & Marsh, 1996). It is often argued that faculty who are research active are more likely to be up-to-date in discipline-specific knowledge and can use their research findings in preparing teaching materials (Marsh & Hattie, 2002). Rowland (2002) claimed that good researchers can make good teachers through their love of the subject area and a passion for contributing to that knowledge. Faculty who are active researchers are perceived to be more passionate about what they teach which translates into a heightened sense of excitement and engagement among students (Coates, Barnett & Williams, 2001). Students also appear to value faculty research. Lindsay, Breen and Jenkins (2002) found that college students' perceptions of a faculty member's knowledge currency, credibility and enthusiasm were enhanced through that faculty member's research activities.

Although the idea that research enhances teaching is popular, there is little empirical evidence to support this claim (Gibbs, 1995). The long-held assumption that good researchers are also good teachers has been described as a myth of higher education (Terenzini & Pascarella, 1994). In fact, some research has found the opposite relationship: faculty placing more emphasis on research tend to put less emphasis on teaching (Allman 1988; Marsh & Hattie, 2002). This view espouses the notion that research and teaching are not complementary functions but, rather, at odds with each other as they compete for a faculty member's time, attention and efforts (Ladd, 1979) and create a source of "constant tension" (Light, 1974, p. 8). According to Fox (1992, p. 293), "research and teaching are conflicting roles with a different set of expectations and obligations." In her study on the impact of publication productivity on teaching, Fox (1992) found a negative relationship between research productivity and the importance a faculty member placed on teaching. Past research has also determined that the amount of time spent on research is negatively related to the amount of time spent on teaching (Fox, 1992; Olsen & Simmons, 1996). Conversely, research productivity has been consistently linked to the amount of time spent on research (Feldman, 1987; Hattie & Marsh, 1996) and negatively correlated to the time devoted to teaching (Fox, 1992; Jauch, 1976; Volkwein & Carbone, 1991). These findings led Marsh and Hattie (2002) to conclude "that time on research is related to research productivity but not teaching effectiveness, whereas time on teaching is not related to teaching effectiveness but may be negatively related to research productivity" (p. 613).

Ultimately, the vast literature which examines this relationship often has concluded little or no positive correlation between research productivity and teaching success (Brew & Boud, 1995; Elton, 2001;

Feldman, 1987; Hattie & Marsh, 1996; Jenkins, 2000; Marsh & Hattie, 2002; Webster, 1985). The results of these studies have been inconclusive with little clear empirical evidence to support the value of research and publishing and the role it plays in enhancing teaching effectiveness. Rather, research publications have been more consistently correlated with such things as a faculty member's personal goals, the percentage of time spent on research, and an individual's perceptions that research facilitates teaching effectiveness (Marsh & Hattie, 2002). Neumann suggested that "these perceptions may be a more powerful influence on behavior than reality" (p. 169). Thus, it may be more relevant to examine the relationship between attitudes toward research, and their impact on teaching and actual research behavior.

RELATING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR

In any study relating attitude and behaviors it is important to have an understanding of the theoretical relationship between the variables. Behavior can be viewed as affected by, or a result of, attitude, but it is important to note that behavior can also influence attitude. In conducting a study of faculty attitudes about research and its impact on student learning this relationship becomes particularly relevant given that the behavior of publishing is often a required behavior.

The literature defines "attitude" as a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993), and a long tradition of research has examined ways in which attitudes influence subsequent behavior (Glasman & Albarracin, 2006). Classic attitude models examine how personal and environmental factors influence the effects of attitudes on behavior, but generally support the idea that attitudes do indeed affect behavior. The Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) states that behavioral intentions are a function of both attitudes toward the behavior as well as subjective norms regarding the performance of the behavior. Subjective norms refer to the views of significant others in terms of performing the behavior (such as fellow colleagues and their opinions on academic research productivity), and are believed to exert influence on behavioral intentions independent of attitude. Thus, it would be possible for a faculty member to feel unfavorably towards conducting research in general, but to be motivated to do so nonetheless because it is the socially desirable and normatively appropriate behavior within his/her department or college. One might thus expect "publish or perish" institutions to have the strongest subjective norms. In fact, recent research on social network composition has found that attitude-congruous social networks increase attitude strength in the individual (Visser & Mirabile, 2004), reinforcing the notion that working in a college or department with a strong research orientation will likely strengthen the attitude toward research of the individual faculty member. It is plausible, then, that the subjective norms created by an overall "research orientation" in a particular college would help drive a culture in which faculty members are motivated to participate in research efforts and hold positive attitudes toward the process.

The revised version of the Theory of Reasoned Action was proposed by Ajzen (1985) as the Theory of Planned Behavior, which added the additional element of 'perceived behavioral control' in terms of influence on behavioral intentions. If a faculty member is not confident that his/her efforts will be successful (i.e., the time spent on research might not result in a publication, there are not adequate resources to support research efforts, etc.), then that would negatively impact behavioral intentions toward research. Wallace, Paulson, Lord, and Bond (2005) likewise found that situational constraints such as perceived social pressure and perceived difficulty weakened the relationship between attitude and behavior.

While various models of the attitude-behavior relationship may suggest different processes to explain how these two constructs influence each other, there is a general consensus that attitudes serve to influence future behavior (Glasman & Albarracin, 2006). However, there is a stream of research originating in Bem's (1972) self-perception theory that recognizes the possibility that attitudes might reflect behavior rather than merely influence behavior. Bem theorized that people infer their own attitudes to be consistent with their prior behavior because of the preference for consistency between one's behaviors and evaluations. Supporting this, Ross (1989) found that people have a tendency to reconstruct their past behavior to be consistent with their current attitudes. In terms of faculty, this might imply that people who feel strongly about the benefits of research might inflate the amount of time they report having spent on research.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In the current research, we draw from the attitude/behavior models and examine how a faculty's member's attitude toward the value of research in their teaching might affect their research-related behavior. We deviate slightly from the approach of classic attitude models, because those models typically use attitude toward a specifically defined behavior as a predictor of that behavior. In the current study, we have chosen to examine faculty members' attitudes toward research as it relates to the mission of teaching, rather than only measuring attitude toward research in isolation. This essentially taps into the usefulness of research as related to teaching in the eyes of faculty. Thus, we are extending the application of attitude models to predict how a faculty member's attitude about the *role* of research is related to the faculty member's efforts and productivity in that area. The focus of this research centers around the following questions:

1. *Do faculty believe there to be a positive relationship between research and teaching?*
2. *Are faculty attitudes toward research positively related to research productivity?*
3. *Are faculty research efforts positively related to outcomes?*

METHODOLOGY

A survey was developed to gather data about: (1) attitudes toward teaching, research, and the impact of research on teaching; (2) time spent on teaching and research; (3) research productivity; and (4) classification data about the respondents and his/her university. The questionnaire was distributed to 1000 faculty members at AACSB accredited schools of business. Schools were randomly selected from the accredited institutions listed on the AACSB web site and e-mail addresses for the randomly selected faculty were pulled from their university's web site. An e-mail, with a link to the online questionnaire, was sent to each faculty member selected requesting their participation. Of the 1000 faculty members originally e-mailed, 44 were undeliverable and 10 e-mails were blocked. This resulted in a final sample size of 946 business faculty.

A total of 136 faculty responded to the survey. This resulted in a 14.4% response rate. While the response rate was not as high as desired, it is not surprising and within the normal range for online surveys (Deutskens, Kode, Wetzels & Oosterveld, 2004; Porter & Whitcomb, 2003). In order to test for non-response bias, respondents were compared based on when they completed the survey. Respondents who completed the survey within 24 hours of receipt of the initial e-mail (early responders) were compared to respondents

who responded two weeks later (late responders). This approach has been used in previous research as it has been shown that late responders are similar to non-respondents (Armstrong & Overton, 1977). Because no differences were found demographically, attitudinally or behaviorally, it can be concluded that non-response bias was not present in the survey data.

RESPONDENT PROFILE

The survey respondents represented all of the major business disciplines. The largest percentage of the respondents were marketing (23.5%) and management (19.9%) faculty. An additional one-eighth of the respondents were from the finance discipline (12.5%), while 11.8% were information systems/MIS faculty and 10.3% were in accounting. Economics was mentioned by 7.4% of the respondents with an additional 4.4% in operations and 2.2% in business law. Of the remaining respondents, 4.4% identified other business areas (to include business communication, ethics, and entrepreneurship) while 3.7% did not provide their business discipline area.

The majority of faculty surveyed, 81.1%, stated they were at an institution with a masters program in business. An additional 15.9% were in a business college that offered a doctoral degree. Only 3% of those responding indicated they worked in a business school that only offered a baccalaureate degree.

When asked to identify the number of full-time tenured or tenure track faculty in their college/school of business, almost one-third of those responding, 31.8%, indicated the size as between 30 and 49 faculty. An additional 23.5% said there were between 50 and 74 tenured or tenure-track faculty in their business school, while 15.9% said their college size was between 75 and 99 tenured or tenure-track faculty. Of the remaining respondents, 14.4% stated the size as between 15 and 29, 12.1% indicated 100 or more, and 2.3% said there were fewer than 15 tenure or tenure-track faculty.

The faculty responding represented universities of various student body sizes. One-third of those responding, 33.3%, were at universities with between 5,000 and 9,999 students. An additional 27.3% were working at universities with a population of 20,000 or more students, while 23.5% were at schools with between 10,000 and 14,999 students (12.9%) and 15,000 and 19,999 students (10.6%). The remaining 15.9% of those responding indicated their university was home to less than 5,000 students.

Respondents were asked about how they divided their time as well as their research productivity. During a typical week, the faculty surveyed spent an average of 9.51 hours preparing for class, 8.48 hours in the classroom, 9.70 hours on the follow-up from teaching (such as grading, talking with students, etc.), 8.30 hours in service related activities and 9.69 working on research. A more detailed breakdown of the time faculty expend on these activities is depicted in Table 1.

On average, the respondents published 4.94 refereed journal articles during the last 5 years. However, there was a high degree of variability in this area. Twelve percent of those responding indicated they had not published any refereed journal articles during the past five years with an additional 12.2% indicating they had published more than 10 articles within the same time period. An additional 10.6% said they published 1 refereed journal article while 13.6% said they published 2 articles. The largest percentage of those responding, 37.1%, published between 3 and 5 refereed journal articles during the past 5 years with an additional 14.4% indicating they had published between 6 and 10 journal articles during this time frame.

Average Hours per Week Spent On	5 Hours or Less	6 – 10 Hours	More than 10 Hours
Preparing for Class	24.80%	47.30%	27.90%
Classroom Instruction	10.90%	65.70%	23.40%
Follow-Up from Teaching	31.00%	41.80%	27.10%
Service Activities	51.90%	26.40%	21.70%
Research	50.00%	24.20%	25.80%

STUDY RESULTS

Attitudes Toward Research and Its Impact on Teaching

Faculty were asked their level of agreement or disagreement with a variety of statements related to their attitudes toward research and its impact on teaching. As past research has shown, many faculty firmly believe that their research positively impacts their teaching. A correlation analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between this belief and the effectiveness of this research on their teaching (see Table 2), which focused on faculty responses to the statement “By researching and publishing I am a better teacher.” The mean response to this statement was a 3.57, and 62% of the sample agreed or strongly agreed with the statement (with 18% remaining neutral). Thus, the majority of faculty subjects do indeed feel that conducting research makes them better in the classroom.

Statement	Correlation with statement: “By researching and publishing, I am a better teacher”		
	Mean (Std Dev)	Correlation Coefficient	Significance
Teaching and research are mutually supportive activities	3.57 (1.14)	0.621	**
Business students educational experience is enhanced by the research activities of their professors	3.54 (1.06)	0.643	**
Securing publications in prestigious academic journals contributes more to teaching excellence than publications in less prestigious journals	2.20 (1.08)	0.449	**
The most highly rated professors, by students, in my department are those who are the most prolific publishers	2.15 (1.09)	0.356	**
Students would not be as well prepared, academically, to enter the business world if their professors did not publish in academic journals	2.66 (1.24)	0.556	**

Statement	Correlation with statement: “By researching and publishing, I am a better teacher”		
	Mean (Std Dev)	Correlation Coefficient	Significance
My students are generally aware of my current research projects	2.71 (1.14)	0.273	**
Most of my students have an appreciation for my contributions to my academic discipline resulting from my publications	2.21 (1.07)	0.323	**
Teaching interferes with my research productivity	3.41 (1.22)	-0.05	NS
I regularly use published research from academic journals or conference proceedings when preparing for my classes	2.81 (1.27)	0.55	**
** = statistically significant at the .01 level NS = not statistically significant			

While all but one of the attitudes measured were significantly correlated with the notion that faculty perceive themselves to be a better teacher due to their research and publishing, four of the items were highly correlated. There was a strong and positive correlation with the statements “business students educational experience is enhanced by the research activities of their professors” ($r = .643$), “teaching and research are mutually supportive activities” ($r = .621$), “students would not be as well prepared, academically, to enter the business world if their professors did not publish in academic journals” ($r = .556$), and “I regularly use published research from academic journals or conference proceedings when preparing for my classes” ($r = .550$). These results seem to indicate that teaching and student learning are perceived to be positively enhanced by a faculty member’s research.

There was a moderate and significant positive correlation between the perception that faculty are better teachers because of research and publishing and the idea that publishing in prestigious academic journals contributes more to teaching excellence ($r = .449$). Also significantly and positively related was the thought that faculty who are most highly evaluated by students are also the most prolific publishers ($r = .356$). This seems to indicate not only that faculty perceive research and publishing to have a beneficial effect on teaching but that teaching is significantly augmented by the quality and quantity of publications.

Positive correlations occurred between the beneficial impact of research on teaching and students appreciation for ($r = .323$) and awareness of ($r = .273$) a faculty member’s research activities and contributions.

Statement	Correlation with Number of Refereed Journal Articles Published During the Last 5 Years		
	Mean (Std Dev)	Correlation Coefficient	Significance
Teaching and research are mutually supportive activities	3.52 (1.14)	0.186	0
Research offers the greatest professional satisfaction	2.77 (1.21)	0.288	**
The reward structure at my university influences faculty members to devote their time and effort to research	3.50 (1.26)	0.055	NS
Business students educational experience is enhanced by the research activities of their professors	3.54 (1.06)	0.188	0
Securing publications in prestigious academic journals contributes more to teaching excellence than publications in less prestigious journals	2.20 (1.08)	-0.024	NS
Business faculty view themselves primarily as researchers	2.84 (.94)	0.117	NS
For most business faculty, the primary reason for conducting research is to secure a publication rather than advance the body of knowledge	3.93 (1.03)	-0.086	NS
If receipt of tenure and promotions were not contingent on research and publishing, most business faculty would devote less time and effort to this activity	4.10 (.98)	-0.15	0
Students would not be as well prepared, academically, to enter the business world if their professors did not publish in academic journals	2.66 (1.24)	0.147	0
My students are generally aware of my current research projects	2.71 (1.14)	0.127	NS
I am expected to publish on a regular basis in order to advance in my career	4.36 (.85)	0.223	**
Most of my students have an appreciation for my contributions to my academic discipline resulting from my publications	2.21 (1.07)	0.179	0
By researching and publishing I am a better teacher	3.57 (1.18)	0.185	0
I regularly use published research from academic journals or conference proceedings when preparing for my classes	2.81 (1.27)	0.191	0
I truly enjoy the research and publishing activity	3.40 (1.26)	0.323	**
** = statistically significant at the .01 level * = statistically significant at the .05 level NS = not statistically significant			

Research Attitudes and Productivity

A correlation analysis was conducted in order to determine if a faculty member's attitudes toward research and its impact on teaching were positively related to his or her research productivity (see Table 3). Although research productivity and publication productivity are not strictly identical, the one (publication) is an indicator of the other (research). The number of articles published has been shown to be the best established measure of research productivity (e.g., Fox 1992). As the "standard" in AACSB-accredited schools of business is a minimum of 2 peer-reviewed journal articles in 5 years, the number of refereed journal articles published during the past 5 years was used as the measure of research productivity herein.

While there were several significant correlations between a faculty member's attitude toward research and their research behavior as measured in publications, the relationships were not as strong as when examining attitudes solely. The perceptions most significantly and positively related to research productivity were enjoyment of research and publishing ($r = .323$), obtaining the greatest professional satisfaction through research ($r = .288$), and the expectation that research is necessary for career advancement ($r = .223$).

Positive relationships were exhibited with several variables related to the impact of research on teaching and research productivity. Research productivity was significantly and positively related to faculty using published research in preparing for classes ($r = .191$), research enhancing the educational experience of business students ($r = .188$), being a better teacher because of research and publishing ($r = .185$), students having an appreciation for faculty research ($r = .179$), and the belief that students would not be as well prepared to enter the business world if their faculty did not publish ($r = .147$).

One significant negative correlation was evidenced. Not surprisingly, there was a negative relationship between research productivity and the belief that faculty would devote less time and effort to research if tenure and promotion were not contingent upon it ($r = -.150$). Conversely, there was a positive correlation with the idea that teaching and research are mutually supportive activities and research productivity ($r = .186$).

Several of the attitudes evaluated proved to exhibit no correlation with research productivity. These included the beliefs that: the reward structure influences faculty to devote time and effort to research, publishing in prestigious journals contributes more to teaching excellence, business faculty view themselves as researchers, faculty publish to secure publications rather than advance the body of knowledge, and students are aware of faculty research.

Relating Research Efforts and Outcomes

Not surprisingly there was a moderately strong, positive relationship between the average hours a faculty member spent on research in a typical week and the number of refereed journal articles ($r = .422$, $p \leq .000$). This relationship serves to corroborate subjects' self-report measures of the amount of effort they are devoting to research. It also shows that the more time a faculty member spends on research, the more successful they will be as measured by the quantity of refereed journal articles published.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In general, faculty members do believe that researching and publishing make them better teachers. That belief, in turn, is related to a variety of attitudes that essentially embrace research as being mutually supportive with teaching and also as enhancing the educational experience of students. There are also significant relationships between these positive research/teaching attitudes and faculty members' successful research outcomes. Those outcomes, as indicated by journal publications, were significantly related to faculty effort dedicated to research.

Do the positive relationships we find between attitudes, effort, and outcomes indicate that positive evaluations of the benefits of research in the classroom are driving faculty contributions in that area? Alternatively, could they indicate that department or college cultures which demand faculty success in research are in fact contributing to related faculty attitudes? This brings to mind the time-honored question of which came first, the chicken or the egg? Do research-related attitudes influence behavior, or do research-related behaviors influence attitudes? Unlike in the chicken and the egg scenario, the answer in this case could be *both*. While we did not measure culture by department, it is reasonable to expect that all faculty at accredited business schools feel some degree of pressure to remain research active. Drawing from popular attitude models such as the Theory of Planned Behavior, we might surmise that the attitudes we measured serve as antecedents to subsequent research efforts and publishing. However, the self-perception stream of research would also suggest that behaviors that occur because of job requirements (i.e., pressures to publish) will in fact influence attitude formation after the fact, and may even bias the attitude that a faculty member retrieves from memory.

While Ross (1989) might predict faculty members to "reconstruct" past behavior to fit current attitudes, we saw no evidence of that in our sample. If faculty members were exaggerating their research behaviors to fit current attitudes (and normative expectations) toward research, then we would not expect to find a significant relationship between reported research efforts and actual research success. It is also possible that while college/department demands create the initial motivation for research productivity, faculty members ultimately appreciate the benefits to their teaching of such intellectual pursuits. Just such a circular effect is consistent with previous research relating attitudes and behaviors. It is not surprising that faculty who are successful with a desired behavior will have more positive attitudes in terms of the merits of the behavior. Thus, it seems plausible that a department or college wanting to shift toward a more research-active culture (as dictated by the increasing requirements for accreditation), might be able to successfully influence faculty attitudes toward the usefulness of research by essentially providing the best possible environment for faculty success in this area. Giving faculty adequate time to devote to research activities, and also providing adequate resources to improve the chances of success for those efforts should, in turn, lead to increased faculty support for the change of culture.

A limitation of the current study is that it relies solely on self-report measures as provided by faculty. As mentioned, there is a possibility that faculty could inflate their reports of research efforts, but we did not see evidence of this. It appears that the somewhat subjective faculty self-report measures of the time they devote to research (as measured by hours spent per week on research) are supported by more objective outcome measures of publications. Future research endeavors could more closely examine the interplay between attitudes, efforts, and behaviors by developing and testing a structural model. Specifically, it would be interesting to determine if attitudes impact behavior or if the behavior ultimately shapes the attitude. It

would also prove useful to incorporate a more quantitative determination of how research is incorporated into a faculty member's teaching.

REFERENCES

- AACSB International (2008). *Eligibility procedures and standards for business accreditation*. Retrieved February 12, 2008, from http://www.aacsb.edu/accreditation/process/documents/AACSB_STANDARDS_Revised_Jan08.pdf.
- AACSB International (2003). *Final report of the AACSB international impact of research task force*. Retrieved February 29, 2008, from https://www.aacsb.edu/resource_centers/research/Final/Impact_of_Research_Report-FINAL.PDF.
- AACSB International (2006). *Deploying academically qualified faculty: an interpretation of AACSB standards*. Retrieved June 23, 2008, from <http://www.aacsb.edu/accreditation/papers/AQ-statuspaper.pdf>.
- Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action control: from cognition to behavior* (pp. 11-39). New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Allman, W. F. (1988). Drowning in a sea of knowledge. *U.S. News & World Report*, September 12, 59.
- Armstrong, J. S. and J.S. Overton (1977). Estimating nonresponse bias in mail surveys. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 14 (3), 396-402.
- Bem, D. J. (1972). Self-perception theory. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 6, pp. 1-62). New York: Academic Press.
- Bowen, H.R. and J.H. Schuster (1986). *American Professors: A National Resource Imperiled*. Fairlawn, NJ: Oxford University Press.
- Braxton, J.M. (1996). Contrasting perspectives on the relationship between teaching and research. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 90, 5-14.
- Brew, A. and D. Boud (1995). Teaching and research: establishing the vital link with learning. *Higher Education*, 24 (1), 261-273.
- Coates, K. R. Barnett, and G. Williams (2001). Relationships between teaching and research in higher education in England. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 55 (2), 158-174.
- Deutskens, E., R. Kode, M. Wetzels, and P. Oosterveld (2004). Response rate and response quality of internet-based surveys: An experimental study. *Marketing Letters*, 15 (1), 21-36.
- Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The psychology of attitudes*. Forth Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Elton, L. (2001). Research and teaching: conditions for a positive link. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 54 (3) 274-283.

- Feldman, K. (1987). Research productivity and scholarly accomplishment of college teachers as related to their instructional effectiveness: a review and exploration. *Research in Higher Education*, 26 (3), 227-298.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: an introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Fox, M.F. (1992). Research, teaching, and publication productivity: mutuality versus competition in academia. *Sociology of Education*, 65 (4), 293-305.
- Gibbs, G. (1995). The relationship between quality in research and quality in teaching. *Quality in Higher Education*, 1 (2), 147-157.
- Glasman, L. R. & Albarracin, D. (2006). Forming attitudes that predict future behavior: a meta-analysis of the attitude-behavior relation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 132 (5), 778-822.
- Hattie, J. and H. Marsh (1996). The relationship between research and teaching: a meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 66 (4), 507-542.
- Jauch, L.R. (1976). Relationships of research and teaching: implications for faculty evaluation. *Research in Higher Education*, 5 (1), 1-13.
- Jenkins, A. (2000). The relationship between teaching and research: where does geography stand and deliver. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 24 (43), 325-351.
- Ladd, E. C. (1979). The work experience of american college professors. *Current Issues in Higher Education*, 22, 135-154.
- Light, D. (1974). The structure of academic professionals. *Sociology of Education*, 47 (1), 2-28.
- Lindsay, R., R. Breen, and A. Jenkins (2002). Academic research and teaching quality: the views of undergraduate and postgraduate students. *Studies in Higher Education*, 27 (3), 309-327.
- Marsh, H.W. and J. Hattie (2002). The relation between research productivity and teaching effectiveness. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 73 (5), 603-641.
- Miles, M.P., M.F. Hazeldine and L.S. Munilla (2004). The AACSB accreditation standards and implications for business faculty: a short note. *Journal of Education for Business*, 80 (1), 29-34.
- Neumann, B. (1992). Perceptions of the teaching-research nexus: a framework for analysis. *Higher Education*, 23 (2), 159-171.
- Olsen, D. and A.J.M. Simmons (1996). The research versus teaching debate: untangling the relationship. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 90, 31-39.
- Porter, S.R. and M.E. Whitcomb (2003). The impact of contact type on web survey response rates. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 67 (4), 579-588.

-
- Ross, M. (1989). Relation of implicit theories to the construction of personal histories. *Psychological Review*, 96, 341-357.
- Rowland, S. (2002). Overcoming fragmentation in professional life: the challenge for academic development. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 56 (1), 52-64.
- Shils, E. (1983). *The Academic Ethic. The Report of a Study Group of the International Council of the Future of the University*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Tang, T. L. and M. Chamberlain (1997). Attitudes toward research and teaching: differences between administrators and faculty. *Journal of Higher Education*, 68 (2), 212-227.
- Terenzini, P.T. and E.T. Pascarella (1994). Living with myths: undergraduate education in america. *Change*, January/February, 28-32.
- Visser, P. S. & Mirabile, R. R. (2004). Attitudes in the social context: the impact of social network composition on individual-level attitude strength. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 87 (6), 779-795.
- Volkwein, J.F. and D. Carbone (1991). A study of research and teaching orientation in twenty-seven academic departments: the impact on undergraduates. *Association for the Study of Higher Education*.
- Wallace, D. S., Paulson, R. M., Lord, C. G., & Bond, C. F. Jr. (2005). Which behaviors do attitudes predict? Meta-analyzing the effects of social pressure and perceived difficulty. *Review of General Psychology*, 9 (3), 214-227.
- Webster, D. S. (1985). Does research productivity enhance teaching? *Education Record*, 66(4), 60-62.
- Webster, D.S. (1986). Research productivity and classroom teaching effectiveness. *Instructional Evaluation*, 9 (1), 14-20.

ONLINE DELIVERY OF ACCOUNTING COURSES: STUDENT PERCEPTIONS

Michael P. Watters, Henderson State University
Paul J. "Jep" Robertson, Henderson State University

ABSTRACT

The authors taught introductory undergraduate, upper-division undergraduate and graduate accounting courses online using Tegrity Campus 2.0 integrated with a learning management system (WebCT, Angel) to prerecord and publish all course lectures and provide all other course-related content to students in the three accounting courses. Students in the three courses could access the archived video presentations over the internet or burn the presentations to a CD or a flash memory drive thus allowing students to view the digital videos at any time and as many times as desired. All of the students in the graduate course agreed that the online delivery of the course was as effective or more effective than a traditional course that meets in a classroom and all of the graduate students indicated that in the future they would prefer to take more online courses, compared with traditional courses. Students in the undergraduate courses were slightly less enthusiastic about online delivery; overall, approximately 75% of such students indicated that the online delivery of the courses was as effective or more effective than a traditional course. Further, unlike the students in the graduate course, less than one-half of the combined students in the two undergraduate courses indicated that they would prefer to take an online course versus a traditional course in the future. The authors agree that online delivery appears to be an effective alternative to physically meeting students in a traditional classroom setting but also believe, in this case, that the fully online delivery was more appropriate for the graduate course compared with the two undergraduate courses. The authors discuss several issues related to teaching the three online courses that accounting instructors may want to consider before undertaking such a teaching approach.

INTRODUCTION

As accounting enrollments grow, the number of qualified accounting faculty decline, and the diversity of student profiles widens, accounting programs may be able to adapt to and harness technological innovation in order to create more efficient and user-friendly ways of delivering course content. Technology, specifically as it relates to computers and the internet was encouraged in the previous decade by many as offering great potential for enhancing higher education (Bonner & Walker, 1994; Drucker, 1997; Ewell, 1994; Geary & Rooney, 1993; Gilbert, 1995). However, it is generally accepted among faculty members who have taught online courses that such courses are often more demanding of time and resources compared with traditional courses. Apparently, even though such course may create added burdens for faculty, higher education administration appears to have a keen interest in pursuing online delivery. For example, over fifty business schools accredited by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business currently offer an online

graduate degree program (U.S. News & World Report, 2004) and over 200 universities currently offer at least some portion of their accounting coursework online (Bryant, 2005). And it appears that growth of online education will probably continue. For example, the University of Illinois plans to enroll 70,000 students in its online programs by 2018 (Foster, 2007).

One aspect of concern about online course delivery will certainly be how students perform in such courses compared with those courses that meet in a traditional classroom setting. Prior research has been inconclusive regarding the effectiveness of on-line courses (Bernard, et al., 2004). Further, there has not been much written on blended courses, that is courses that combine classroom meetings with online instruction. (Young, 2002; Aycok, Garnham, and Kaleta, 2002; Waddoups and Howell, 2002).

In one study of student performance in hybrid versus online courses, Robertson and Clark (2007) examined the performance of students in three different sections of an accounting principles course: one section was delivered purely online and the other two were blended sections which employed traditional face-to-face class sessions along with various web based tools. One of the interesting findings of their study was that the students in the section that met face-to-face most often had the highest test scores on all five of the course exams. Their findings suggested that the more face-to-face interaction a student had with the professor the better they performed. However, their results were limited to a one-semester study of accounting principles courses. More research is needed in the area of student performance.

Another important aspect of concern about online course delivery is how such courses are perceived by students in terms of effectiveness compared with traditional courses. This paper examines teaching online two undergraduate accounting courses and a graduate accounting course. Tegrity Campus 2.0 was used to capture and record digital lectures and Angel and WebCT learning management systems were used to organize and make available to students all course materials including digital lectures. Specifically, student perceptions regarding the online courses are examined to gather evidence about how online delivery is perceived by students at different academic levels.

ONLINE DELIVERY

The authors used Tegrity Campus 2.0 integrated with Angel and WebCT learning management system (LMS) to prerecord and publish all course lectures in three accounting courses: an introductory-level course, Principles of Accounting, an upper-level course, Accounting Information Systems, and a graduate course, Advanced Auditing. Tegrity Campus 2.0 was used to automatically capture and record the authors' lectures, including the voice and computer screen activity. The authors each used a tablet computer with web-based Tegrity software and all other software applications (MS Word and PowerPoint) and a simple microphone to prepare and record all of the digital lectures. PowerPoint was used principally to develop presentations in advance and then free-form handwriting was used to write and draw over PowerPoint slides during the recorded lectures to add additional information to the basic slideshow. Tegrity allows for such free-form handwriting and other annotations to be made as it converts the instructor's PowerPoint presentation into a series of graphic images or slides/snapshots. Then, as the instructor delivers the lecture, making annotations and scrolling through his/her presentation the images are combined with the audio and, if used, video of the instructor. The authors' presentations were delivered in lectures ranging from 20 to 50 minutes in length. Lectures longer than 50 minutes were broken down into smaller chunks, with the idea that learning would be enhanced by providing shorter, more manageable sessions. Once a Tegrity presentation was created it was

uploaded to the Tegrity server and then published to the Angel or WebCT LMS. Students then could access the archived presentations via the internet and view the digital videos at any time and as many times as desired. Students also had the option of burning the Tegrity presentations to storage media such as a CD or flash memory drive. This allowed high quality recordings of presentations to be created (in an on-campus lab with high-speed connectivity, for example) and subsequently viewed off-campus by students who may not have had a high speed internet connection. (Based on the authors' experience and feedback from students, Tegrity presentations did not broadcast well over a dial-up connection).

On playback, the Tegrity display that students viewed has two main areas. The largest area is the right side of the screen which shows the instructor's presentation. This is the area in which the instructor's notes, PowerPoint slides and annotations are shown. A smaller area at top left corner of the screen displays pictures or, if the instructor wishes, video of the instructor. Students could navigate through a presentation by allowing it to play from start to finish or "jump" from slide to slide by using a table of contents that breaks down the presentation into different subsections. Additionally, three important functions available to students gave them significant control over their learning experiences; printing, fast-forward, and accelerated viewing. The Tegrity display allows students to print out the instructor's written presentation before it is viewed. Thus, students could have printed and read the lecture notes first, then returned to the lecture and viewed it with the instructor's lecture notes in hand. A function is also provided allowing students to fast forward through a lecture and select a particular part of the video to view. Thus, students had the ability to read through a printout of the lecture, and then, if desired, select a specific part or parts of a lecture on which to focus. Finally, Tegrity allows students to increase the presentation speed to up to 150% of the actual recording speed. Therefore, students had the ability to watch the video lecture, (perhaps for a second or third time) at an accelerated pace and shorter overall viewing time. All other course content and materials were delivered to students using either WebCT or Angel LMS. This included syllabi, course schedules, examination grades, email communications, homework assignments, homework solutions, supplementary reading assignments, study guides, etc.

STUDENT DEMOGRAPHICS

Of the 28 students enrolled in the introductory course, Principles of Accounting, 60% were female and 94% of students in the class were under the age of 25. In the upper-division undergraduate course, Accounting Information Systems, 55% of the 35 students enrolled were female and 76% of the class was under the age of 25. In the graduate course, Advanced Auditing, eight (67%) of the 12 students enrolled were female and four (33%) of the students in the class were under the age of 25. Withdrawal rates for the three courses were as follows: Principles of Accounting, 28%; Accounting Information Systems, 17%; Advanced Auditing, 0%.

STUDENT PERCEPTIONS

Perceptions Regarding Effectiveness

To gather evidence regarding student perceptions of the effectiveness of the online approach, students were asked to respond to two questions regarding their perceived effectiveness of the online course and the

prerecorded lectures compared with traditional courses offering in-class lectures. (A traditional course was defined as one that regularly meets for class and provides all course content delivery in a classroom.) In response to the question concerning the effectiveness of the online course, approximately 75% of students in the two undergraduate courses indicated that the online course was as, or more, effective than a traditional course. (Twenty-five percent believed that online delivery was less effective.) Of the students with self-reported GPA's 3.5 or higher, 100% in the two undergraduate courses indicated that the online course was as, or more, effective than a traditional course. Only 45% of the students in the two undergraduate courses with self-reported GPA's 2.5 or lower indicated that the online course was as, or more, effective than a traditional course. All of the students in the graduate course agreed that the online delivery of the course was as or more effective than a traditional course that meets in a classroom. Regarding effectiveness of prerecorded video lectures versus live classroom lectures, approximately 84% of students in the undergraduate courses and 100% of students in the graduate course indicated that such lectures were as, or more effective than a live classroom lecture. Results seem to indicate that student perception of the effectiveness of online delivery is in some way correlated with factors that lead to higher student success and performance, such as motivation, maturity, intellectual ability, etc. Also, student perceptions regarding effectiveness are not inconsistent with their performance on course exams. The author's noted, from only a cursory analysis of grade distributions, high/low scores, attrition rates, etc., that student performance on exams in the online courses was comparable to that experienced in equivalent courses taught in the traditional format; on the surface, there seemed to be little difference in student performance in the online courses compared with student performance on exams in traditional courses. Because of limited course offerings, it was not possible to teach another section of the same courses using a traditional approach, therefore, it was impossible to do a specific comparison of online course exam performance vis-a-vis a traditional course.

Student Perceptions Regarding Self Learning

One item of interest to the authors was their online students' perceptions about the degree to which they believed they were responsible for their own learning in the online courses compared with traditional courses. In other words, the authors were interested in determining if students felt that they had to accept more responsibility for learning, e.g., reading, in the online courses compared with traditional courses they had completed. The percentage of students indicating that they believed that they had accepted more responsibility for their own learning was 37% in the introductory course, 21% in the upper-level course, and only 17% in the graduate course. One possible explanation for these results is that the lower-level students needed greater explanation of material and more timely attention to questions and were more dependent for additional guidance, i.e., the lower-level students were less self-sufficient compared with the graduate students that were more willing, able, and confident that they could learn the materials on their own and find for themselves solutions to their questions. Further, it is possible that the graduate students were more likely to expect to do more work on their own and the lower-level students were less likely to expect to do coursework on their own.

Summary Student Evaluation of Online Delivery

To gather evidence regarding overall student assessment of online delivery of course content including prerecorded lectures, students were asked to indicate what they liked best and least about their online course. Student responses to the question "What did you like best about the course" were numerous but had two main themes: (1) convenience and (2) flexibility and effectiveness. Overwhelmingly, students indicated a preference for being able to watch lectures at times that were convenient to their schedules. Exemplary comments included "I can watch the lectures anytime I want to, the course is very convenient," "since I commute I don't have to drive to campus for the class," "I like the ability of watching lectures whenever I have time, doing the work on my own schedule," "the ability to review and complete work per my own schedule. There were definitely nights I listened to an Acct A lecture at midnight. This really helps me because I do have a full time job outside of class."

The other major positive theme indicated by student comments suggested that the online format was effective in delivery of content and offered greater flexibility of learning, compared with a course offered in a traditional classroom setting. Students wrote, "I'm able to repeat watching lectures," "the professor can go over the material in more depth," "I like the ability to watch repeatedly," "I like the flexibility...I can watch certain parts of a lecture over again," "I can watch lectures at my own pace," "I can...pause videos."

Student responses to the question "What did you like least about the course" were almost all related to two themes; inability to interact with the professor and fellow students in real-time and technical problems with computer, network, and/or software. For example, one student wrote, "If you have any questions about the information in the lecture, you can't ask a question at that time. You have to make an appointment and go see the professor." Other comments included "I dislike not being able to interact with the professor," and "I dislike not being able to ask questions." With respect to technical problems, exemplary student comments included, "Technical difficulties," "I did not like that the videos were hard to access and choppy when I viewed them," "ERROR (unable to view videos)," "Sometimes didn't play," "Sometimes the sound wouldn't come through." It is interesting to note that most of the comments regarding technical difficulties were made by students in the introductory course. Some of these problems were on the university's side (e.g., server down) and others were on the students' side (web browser down or dial-up Internet connection access). The difficulty of use was usually related to hardware downtime or the attempted use of AOL or Netscape as the browser since Tegrity runs most consistently with the MS Internet Explorer browser.

Student responses to the question "In the future, would you prefer taking an online course using Tegrity compared with a traditional course?" were mixed. All of the graduate students indicated that they would prefer an online course compared with a traditional course. Only 52% of students in the upper-division course and 41% of students in the introductory course indicated that they would definitely select an online course using Tegrity over a traditional course. One possible conclusion that may be made in consideration of the students' comments is that the graduate students possessed greater technical computer skills compared with students in the introductory course thereby resulting in greater satisfaction with online delivery. Another possible inference is that students in the introductory course, possessing less academic experience and confidence than the graduate students, placed more value upon, and needed more, face-to-face time with their instructor. Another possibility is that a greater percentage of students the graduate course lived off-campus and commuted to campus compared with the undergraduate students therefore the graduate students placed a greater premium on the convenience of not having to come to campus to attend class. Additionally, in an

asynchronous environment it may be argued that is more difficult for the professor to stimulate intellectual interest in the subject. One of the benefits often seen in a traditional classroom setting is that the educator may interact and illicit responses from students that will further stimulate their interest in a given subject matter. It is possible that students at lower levels placed a greater emphasis on this factor compared with other factors such as convenience and flexibility and thus would prefer to take a traditional versus online course. Another possible explanation of the mixed results could possibly be related to the roles we have as educators to stimulate and assist our students to assume personal and professional responsibility. Perhaps the lack of direct faculty/student contact in the online course was viewed by the undergraduate students as a lapse of such responsibility on the instructor's part, or perhaps the undergraduate students in the study placed a greater value on this factor compared with the graduate students.

CONCLUSION

Generally, results indicate that students surveyed in this case study, whether undergraduate or graduate, appear to believe that online teaching using prerecorded lectures is an effective alternative to traditional live classroom lectures. Overall, the students in the graduate course assessed the online delivery more positively than did the undergraduate students. Student performance on exams in the online course did not stand out as unusual, compared with results in traditional courses, but, it is important to note that, in this case, the authors were only able to get an overall "feel" for student performance in the online courses. Again, the main question in this study was related to how online delivery is perceived by students at different academic levels. Still, one limitation of the study is that it provides only anecdotal information about the students in the study.

The authors believe, based on results of the current study and their experiences over the past several years in teaching traditional, partially online, and fully online courses, that for the introductory course, the students would have benefited from some regularly scheduled, face-to-face time with the professor. The authors believe that the differences in student "satisfaction" (perceived course effectiveness) noted in the undergraduate and graduate courses may be a function of several factors including educational attainment, age and maturity, motivation, learning experience, learning style, and prior exposure to online teaching. One possible overall conclusion is that the graduate students were more mature, confident, and motivated with significant prior educational attainment compared with the other students in the study and therefore were better suited for the online delivery of the course. With respect to online course offerings, administrators and faculty may want to consider limiting enrollment in online course to only those students that are believed to have a significant potential for success, such as graduate students and undergraduate students with superior GPA's.

REFERENCES

- Aycock, A., C. Garnham & R. Kaleta (2002). Lessons learned from the hybrid course project. *Teaching with Technology Today*, Vol. 8, Number 6: March 20.
- Bernard, R. M., P.C. Abrami, Y. Lou & E. Borokhovski (2004). How does distance education compare with classroom instruction. *Review of Educational Research*, Fall 2004.

-
- Bonner, S.E. & P.L. Walker (1994). The effects of instruction and experience on the acquisition of auditing knowledge. *The Accounting Review*, 69(1), 157-178.
- Bryant, S.M. (2005). Distance education: A review of contemporary literature. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 20(3), 255-273.
- Drucker, P. (1997). *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 43(32), B7.
- Ewell, P.T. (1994). A policy guide for assessment: Making good use of tasks of critical thinking. Educational Testing Service.
- Foster, A.L. (2007). *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 53(34), A50.
- Geary, W.T., and C.J. Rooney (1993). Designing accounting education to achieve balanced intellectual development. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 8(1), 60-70.
- Gilbert, S. (1995). Higher education and the use of computer technology. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 10.
- Robertson, P.J., and R.K. Clark (2007). On-line versus blended accounting principles courses: A descriptive study of student perceptions and performance, *Proceedings of the American Accounting Association*.
- U.S. News & World Report (2004). *E-learning: Online graduate degrees in business, regionally and professionally accredited (AACSB)*. Retrieved from <http://www.usnews.com/usnews/edu/elearning/.htm>
- Waddoups, G. & S. Howell (2002). Bringing Online Learning to Campus: The Hybridization of Teaching and Learning at Brigham Young University. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, January.
- Young, J. (2002). 'Hybrid' teaching seeks to end the divide between traditional and online instruction. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, March 22.

CURRICULUM ADVICE FROM YOUR ADVISORY BOARD: A SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Kevin L. Hammond, The University of Tennessee at Martin
Ernest Moser, The University of Tennessee at Martin

ABSTRACT

A number of forces (rapid changes in the global business climate, accreditation requirements, and expectations by external governing bodies) have combined to force business schools and their faculty to assess on a regular basis the strengths and weaknesses of their curricula. In order to have an effective curriculum faculty must seek information from a variety of stakeholders—current and former students, employers, graduate schools, etc. The advice of external stakeholders is especially important since, as employers of our students, they know firsthand the strengths and weaknesses of a school's graduates.

This manuscript reports the development of a survey instrument designed to solicit feedback from advisory board members regarding curriculum requirements. Though developed toward a particular case, the authors anticipate that the survey could be used by any other university (with minor modifications) to survey its own advisory board members regarding curriculum issues. Seven specific research questions to be addressed by the survey are provided along with some possible implications of the responses. The complete (five-page) survey is included as Attachment A.

INTRODUCTION

One of the most important aspects of a business program is its curriculum. Traditionally, however, the curriculum has been one of the most challenging items for a business school to change. Faculty members are often content to teach what they have always taught in their courses. Moreover, when a curriculum has been changed, too often the impetus for change was the arrival of a new faculty member who wanted his or her pet course included in the curriculum. Indeed, one of the authors of this paper remembers a period of eight years at a school during which not a single part of the undergraduate business curriculum was changed. While a business school in the past might have been able to survive with an outmoded curriculum, that is no longer the case. Indeed, rapid changes in the global business climate over the past ten years and corresponding changes in the skills and attributes demanded by employers of business graduates have forced business schools to establish processes that ensure periodic curriculum review.

Simultaneously, many external governing boards across the country have recently mandated that universities hold the semester hours needed for graduation in a four-year degree program to 120. Over the years, many universities have allowed the hours needed for graduation to creep upward beyond the traditional 120 as a way of placing additional courses in the curriculum without eliminating any courses that were previously included. Reducing a current curriculum from 126 – 132 hours down to 120 hours fosters a lively discussion among faculty concerning what is truly necessary for a bachelor's degree in business.

Further, AACSB International, the major accrediting organization for collegiate schools of business, has embraced periodic curriculum review as one of the processes necessary for a school to show continuous improvement in its efforts to achieve the school's mission ("Achieving Quality and Continuous Improvement Through Self Evaluation and Peer Review: Standards for Accreditation – Business Administration and Accounting," 2007). Thus, a number of forces have combined to force business schools and their faculty to assess on a regular basis the strengths and weaknesses of their curricula.

In order to have an effective curriculum faculty must seek information from a variety of stakeholders—current and former students, employers, graduate schools, etc. The advice of external stakeholders is especially important since, as employers of our students, they know firsthand the strengths and weaknesses of a school's graduates. Thus, in an effort to provide information needed by faculty to make curricular choices, business schools have sought the advice of external stakeholders, such as employers of business school graduates and members of external advisory boards (Ireland, Ramsower, Raegan, and Carini 1994). Since a school's external advisory board normally consists of representatives of local/regional firms with a vested interest in the success of the business school, the advisory board is an excellent starting point for input concerning the school's curriculum.

THE SITUATION

A curriculum review was initiated for the AACSB-accredited bachelor of science in business administration at this medium sized university. The common core of general education classes to be taken by all undergraduate students within the university had recently been established (to be effective in one year - the following academic year) and adjustments were made and implemented regarding other general education requirements for business majors. However, an additional decision was made to convert from a 127 hour business administration degree to 120 hours (effective in two years). A part of that decision was a commitment by the College to continue the curriculum review, adjusting the general education requirement to 60 hours, the business administration core curriculum to 30 hours, and the courses specified for the major to 30 hours.

Several questions surfaced in the curriculum review process, some due to the new constraints outlined above and some as a natural part of the review process; the business core and other portions of the curriculum had not been changed significantly in the recent past. Coursework not previously required (contract law, business communications, research methodology, international business) were discussed for possible inclusion. Certain courses currently required, alternatively, were considered for possible elimination from the business core requirements. Also, with the oncoming reduction of credit hours in the degree and several of the general education courses specifically required for all students, many alternatives were considered regarding requirements for the math/statistics component of the general education courses for business majors. With several questions identified, the decision was made to gather input from members of the College of Business and Public Affairs Advisory Board.

OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of this manuscript is to report the development of a survey instrument designed to solicit feedback from advisory board members regarding curriculum requirements for the Bachelor of

Science in Business Administration. The survey developed within the study is geared toward a particular case. The authors, however, anticipate that the survey is generic enough that other universities could use it with minor modifications to survey advisory board members regarding curriculum issues.

In the process of curriculum review and survey development, we identified several research questions to be addressed by the respondents and attempted to design the survey in such a way as to gather separate, objective responses from each advisory board member. In an effort to assure face validity, early versions of the questions were shared with selected faculty and advisory board members. Their feedback was considered in preparing the final version of the survey instrument. In conducting the survey, we attached a cover letter to each survey thanking the member for their time and attention and assuring them that we are interested in their opinion concerning the general business knowledge and skills that each business graduate (regardless of major) should bring to his or her job. Though we provided a brief review of our curriculum constraints, we did not indicate current requirements or any particular preferences that faculty or administration might have for future requirements.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The completed survey instrument appears as Appendix A. The specific research questions identified and mentioned below are listed below along with references to the sections of the survey addressing them.

Within the given constraints, . . .

Should business calculus and/or an advanced statistics class be required (in addition to college algebra and statistics) for all business majors? See Section 1 of the survey instrument.

If not required for all business majors, for which specific business majors and concentrations should business calculus and/or an advanced statistics class be required? See Sections 2 and 3 of the survey instrument.

Should business electives be restricted to business courses outside the major (thus forcing more breadth), or have no restrictions (allowing more depth if the student chooses). See Section 4, Question 1 of the survey instrument.

What percentage of the business core should each curricular area (accounting, business communication, business information systems, business law, business / marketing research methodology, advanced economics, finance, international business, management, marketing, interdisciplinary capstone course(s), business elective(s), other) account for? See Section 5 of the survey instrument.

What relative weight should be placed on the subject matter within each major discipline (accounting, business law, advanced economics, finance, management, marketing)

represented in the business core? See Section 4, Questions 2 through 7 of the survey instrument.

How important is the inclusion in the business core of each of the areas indicated in questions 4 and 5 above? In other words, how strongly do the respondents feel that the curricular areas and the subject matter within each discipline should be included in the business core? See Section 6 of the survey instrument.

Generally, how much breadth should be included in the business core? Though there may be some disagreement as to the exact courses to be included, does the advisory board generally feel that the subject matter should be spread between relatively few (five to seven) curricular areas, a broad set (ten or more) of curricular areas, or somewhere in between? Indicated by the number of responses (above zero) to Section 5.

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Tabulated responses to the survey can provide the college with considerable information indicating, individually and collectively, how the advisory board feels about the required curriculum for the undergraduate business administration degree. Obviously, the gaps between current practices and the collective advisory board recommendations could be easily calculated. The suggestions / recommendations could prove invaluable in helping to shape future actions regarding the curriculum. A concern, or “risk,” of course, would be that the mix of required coursework recommended by the advisory board would vary from the current format, would contradict certain beliefs of at least some faculty, or would guide curriculum development in a direction that the college had previously been unprepared for. However, these are not necessarily bad things. Advisory boards are familiar with the mission and potential capabilities of the colleges that they help guide, and they are familiar with the breadth and depth of general business knowledge and skills that each graduate should bring to his or her job. Feedback from the advisory board could end concerns as to the most appropriate inclusion or exclusion of certain courses and could provide a wake-up call if the college does need to change its curriculum requirements in order to better prepare its graduates. Several authors (Heinfeldt and Wolf 1998; Dudley, Dudley, Clark and Payne 1995; Ryan 1999; Walker and Black 2000; Walker and Ainsworth 2001) have addressed these and other issues surrounding changing or integrating undergraduate core curriculum.

Mean responses to the five scenarios outlined in Section 1 of the survey would indicate the “favorite” approach to the math requirement by the advisory board. Any solution above the midpoint (4) would be at least generally agreeable; any scenario with a mean response below the midpoint would indicate general disagreement as to the appropriateness of the approach.

Mean responses to Sections 2 and 3 indicate whether or not advisory board members collectively feel that calculus or advanced statistics, respectively, should be required for certain majors and concentrations, assuming no requirement for all business majors. Coding positive responses as “1” and blanks as “0,” mean responses above .5 would indicate at least generally that the course should be required for that major / concentration and mean responses below .5 would indicate that the course should not be required. Obviously,

a closer mean response to “1” or “0” indicates more unanimous agreement as to inclusion or exclusion of the requirement.

Mean responses to the two alternatives outlined in the first question of Section 4 indicate the collective preference of advisory members for either restricting or not restricting business electives to courses outside the major. With “Yes” coded as “1” and “No” coded as “0,” collective responses closer to “1” would indicate preference for that particular policy.

The remainder of Section 4 requests feedback as to the relative weight (percentages) that should be placed on subject matter within several of the disciplines. Mean responses reflect the collective opinions of the advisory board members.

Similarly, responses to Section 5 indicate the percentage of the business core that the respondents feel each particular area of study should account for. The assumption given was that course format is completely flexible and the business core could be designed to match their suggestions (classes not necessarily forced into the “three-credit-hour” format).

Section 6 asks how strongly the respondents feel as to the inclusion of the curricular areas that they commented on in Sections 4 and 5. Mean responses could be used to rank the subject matter. Also, this ranking could be combined with the responses to Sections 4 and 5 to determine the amount of coursework within each area (subject, discipline, etc.) that the advisory board collectively feels should most appropriately be included in the business core as a requirement for all business majors.

Reactions by the college to this portion of the survey results might take several forms. One possibility is that the results might be used to confirm which of the existing core courses should continue to be included in the core, which ones should be dropped, and/or to suggest courses to be added from existing noncore courses. Alternatively, or in addition to the first possibility, information provided by the results could be used to match core coursework more closely to the breadth and depth of subject matter suggested by the advisory board (addressing first the areas judged most important by the respondents). Depending on format flexibility and resources of the college, several options might exist for accomplishing this. For example, courses could be developed or reformatted into 1, 2, or 4 credit hour formats, subject matter could be shifted somewhat within existing courses, and/or a new interdisciplinary course (or courses) addressing a mix of subjects could be developed, adding breadth or depth as needed to existing core courses.

One reaction of the college might be to place certain additional constraints on the final decision as to curriculum format, prior to or during the process of making the recommended changes. In fact, colleges might react by rejecting the recommendations of the advisory board entirely. To completely ignore or reject the suggestions / recommendations of the advisory board would seem to be a very bad reaction, since the college has chosen to have an advisory board and has chosen to ask the questions.

APPLICATION OF THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT: ONE CASE

The survey instrument described in this manuscript was used to gather input regarding the curriculum from 14 members of our College of Business and Public Affairs advisory board. Survey results were presented to the advisory board and were discussed with them. Results were also shared with the faculty. We now share with readers the results of this one particular application of the survey.

In Section 1 of the survey (Appendix A), which dealt with math requirements, respondents were in most agreement (2.29 mean response on the “1” to “7” scale) with the second scenario. They indicated that

nine credit hours of math should be required, with specific requirements for the third math course determined within the major. Mean responses indicated slight disagreement with a six-hour math requirement, a twelve-hour math requirement, or a nine-hour requirement that includes calculus. Though not preferred over the second scenario, as noted above, respondents indicated slight agreement with the nine-hour requirement that includes advanced statistics.

Results from Section 2 indicate that half of the respondents felt that calculus should be required for finance majors and international business majors. None of the respondents felt that calculus should be required for marketing majors, for general management majors, or for human resource management majors. A few respondents (less than half) indicated that calculus should be required for the other majors.

Section 3 results indicated that more than half of the respondents felt that advanced statistics should be required for economics, finance, international business, and operations management. Half of the respondents indicated appropriateness of the requirement for accounting and entrepreneurship, and a few respondents suggested that advanced statistics should be required for the other majors.

Responses to the first question of Section 4 revealed no clear insight regarding breadth or depth within the business core. Responses to other questions within Section 4 suggested that equal weight should be given to financial and managerial accounting within the required accounting coursework, and equal weight should be given to microeconomics and macroeconomics within the required economics coursework. Somewhat surprisingly (to the authors), responses suggested 40% weight to contract law versus legal environment of business (Question 3). Other responses included 46%, 21%, 18%, and 13% weights, respectively, to financial analysis, investments, banking, and real estate (Question 5); 28%, 27%, 24%, and 19%, respectively, to general management theory, human relations, production/operations, and entrepreneurship (Question 6); and 38%, 22%, 21%, and 16% to marketing strategy, business to business marketing, consumer marketing, and logistics (Question 7).

The mean number of entries in the responses to Section 5 was 10.14 (indicating that ten is the suggested number of curricular areas that should be included in the 30-hour core?). Responses to Section 5 suggested relatively heavy (greater than 10%, indicating about four credit hours of coursework), approximately equal coverage of four disciplines: accounting, finance, management, and marketing. The responses yielded some surprises. The highest percentage (12.50%) was for finance; our current core includes only three credit hours for finance, compared to six hours of accounting and six hours of management. The lowest percentage (2.86%) was for the interdisciplinary capstone course which we include as the three hour policy class in the current core. Further, the results suggested that we give serious consideration to the addition of business communication, international business, and research methodology to the core.

Responses to Section 6, which indicated level of importance of the curricular areas to be included in the business core, served to emphasize some of the above findings. Respondents indicated, for example, that business communications and international business should be included in the core, and that human resources management is perhaps the most important component within the required management course(s).

Responses to the survey were considered by the faculty, along with recent changes to the general education core and other factors, as a part of the subsequent curriculum review process at our university. We made a few changes, adding a business communications class to the business core, allowing a contract law class as an option to the legal environment class, and eliminating the requirement for a calculus class. Due to changes in the university core that eliminated a global requirement and a social sciences requirement, we added a global course requirement (providing a list of business and non-business courses that provide a global

perspective) for business majors and changed one of the required management courses to add more of a social sciences (psychology, sociology) perspective.

CONCLUSION

Colleges of business are challenged to conduct meaningful, continuous reviews of their curriculum. As mentioned earlier, the authors anticipate that this survey, with slight modifications, could be used by any college of business to communicate with its advisory board, soliciting objective responses as to the most appropriate coursework for all business students, regardless of major. The complete survey (other than the cover letter and the review of curriculum constraints) appears as Appendix A of this manuscript.

Input from the advisory board, obviously, provides only one component of the information that must be considered by faculty within a curriculum review. However, this advisory board input could be a very important component of the review, signaling changes in the external environment that some faculty may be otherwise slow to realize. As noted earlier, faculty may be tempted to take the more comfortable route by keeping the curriculum the same. Relative importance within business of various knowledge or skill sets change over time, creating a need for adjusting the curriculum requirements within the business core and also, possibly, within specific majors. These adjustments might involve simple “tweaking” of existing classes, the creation of new classes, elimination of classes, or major restructuring of the core for curriculum coverage that does not fit easily into the traditional three-credit-hour framework. Though (or maybe because) an ongoing curriculum review could suggest changes that are a challenge to adopt and implement, the review is important, helping to insure that the curriculum remains current and strong, providing students with valuable knowledge and skills.

LIMITATIONS

Some limitations exist for the use of this survey of advisory board members. One limitation is that reliability and validity of the results may be reduced by a limited number of advisory board respondents. Though the responses may provide valuable information, the number providing input overall and especially from within a particular industry may be low.

One remedy for the problem could be to work with other universities, gathering and sharing input from several advisory boards. Another solution could be to extend the survey beyond the advisory board to other employers of the university’s business graduates.

An additional limitation could be the level of knowledge or biases of specific advisory board members regarding the current workplace. The advisory boards should, as a whole, have considerable knowledge of the general workplace that current graduates are hired into. However, steps should be taken to identify the demographics of the respondents and then apply the demographics in interpreting the results. Some advisory board members, for example, may be further from the current workplace (retired business persons, retired faculty), or may have opinions that are biased by their particular industry. Due to possible industry biases, efforts should be made to insure that specific industries are not underrepresented or overrepresented. Care should be taken to gather responses from a variety of industries. Many of the responses (from a variety of industries) should be similar, though, since the survey elicits opinions regarding general

business knowledge and skills required for all graduates, going into any industry. Efforts to take these factors into consideration, again, should help to assure the results are valid and reliable.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Future application of the survey could address the limitations noted above, seeking input perhaps from a variety of sources. Additionally, the survey could be repeated periodically. This effort would provide an update to original responses along with first-time responses from new board members. Any results that remain consistent over time, with repeated applications of the survey, should be given greater attention by faculty during the curriculum review.

Curriculum adjustments that may be “suggested” by the survey results could be compared to curriculum at other universities. Peer institutions and benchmark institutions could be identified, and the curriculum at those universities could be reviewed. Flagship universities and others may be “ahead of the curve,” and (if the survey results are indeed correct) may have already identified and reacted to changes indicated by the survey, if any, in workplace requirements. The review might contradict the survey results. Alternatively, however, affirmative results of the review could provide faculty and administrators with an additional level of validation that may be necessary if changes are to be made to a curriculum that, perhaps, faculty and administrators are very comfortable with.

REFERENCES

- Achieving Quality and Continuous Improvement Through Self Evaluation and Peer Review: Standards for Accreditation – Business Administration and Accounting (2007). AACSB International, Tampa, FL.
- Dudley, Sid C., Dudley, Lola W., Clark, Frank L., and Stephen Payne (1995). New directions for business curriculum. *Journal of Education for Business*, 70 (5), 305-310.
- Heinfeldt, Jeff and Fran Wolf (1998). Re-engineering the business curriculum: a stakeholder paradigm. *Journal of Education for Business*, 73 (2), 198-201.
- Ireland, R. Duane, Ramsower, Raegan M., and Gary R. Carini (1994). Critical business trends: views from a business school’s advisory board. *Journal of Education for Business*, 69(4), 190-193.
- Ryan, Cathy (1999). Trends in business curricula: The view from AACSB. *Business Communication Quarterly*, 62(1), 91-95.
- Walker, Kenton B. and Penne L. Ainsworth (2001). Developing a process approach in the business core curriculum. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 16 (1), 41-66.
- Walker, Kenton B. and Ervin L. Black (2000). Reengineering the undergraduate business core curriculum: aligning business schools with business for improved performance. *Business Process Management Journal*, 6 (3), 194-211.

APPENDIX A**Section 1:**

INSTRUCTIONS: Assume that, staying within our constraints, a math requirement of six hours allows 13 hours of nonbusiness electives. Nine hours of math, then, would allow ten hours of nonbusiness electives and twelve hours of math requirement would allow seven hours of nonbusiness electives. The following five scenarios describe alternatives that we are considering regarding math requirements and the corresponding tradeoff with nonbusiness electives. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement as to the appropriateness of each alternative. In answering, use the following response scale and place the most appropriate number in the blank space to the left of each scenario. Please read all five alternative scenarios before beginning and respond to each statement.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 = Strongly Agree | 5 = Somewhat Disagree |
| 2 = Agree | 6 = Disagree |
| 3 = Somewhat Agree | 7 = Strongly Disagree |
| 4 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree | |

- ___ 1. College algebra and introductory statistics are sufficient for business graduates in general. Other than specific requirements for certain major(s), business students should only be required to take these two 3-hour math courses.
(Total math requirement six hours; nonbusiness electives 13 hours)
- ___ 2. In addition to college algebra and introductory statistics, business students should also be required to take an additional math course (probably a second statistics course or introductory calculus). The choice for the third math course could be made by the student and/or faculty within the major.
(Total math requirement nine hours; nonbusiness electives ten hours)
- ___ 3. In addition to college algebra and introductory statistics, business students should also take an introductory 3-hour calculus course. Other than specific requirements for certain major(s), business students should, however, not be required to take a second, more advanced statistics course.
(Total math requirement nine hours; nonbusiness electives ten hours)
- ___ 4. In addition to college algebra and introductory statistics, business students should also take a second, more advanced statistics course. Other than specific requirements for certain major(s), business students should, however, not be required to take a calculus class.
(Total math requirement nine hours; nonbusiness electives ten hours)
- ___ 5. In addition to college algebra and introductory statistics, business students should also take a second, more advanced statistics course and an introductory 3-hour calculus course.
(Total math requirement twelve hours; nonbusiness electives seven hours)

Section 2:

INSTRUCTIONS: Assuming that we go with one of the above options that does not require the introductory calculus class, please indicate with a check mark in the blank space to the left of any of the majors listed below that you feel should include the calculus class as a requirement specifically for that major.

<input type="checkbox"/>	Accounting	<input type="checkbox"/>	Information Systems
<input type="checkbox"/>	Economics	<input type="checkbox"/>	Management - General
<input type="checkbox"/>	Economics - Finance Concentration	<input type="checkbox"/>	Management-Human Resource Concentration
<input type="checkbox"/>	Economics - International Business Concentration	<input type="checkbox"/>	Management - Production Operations Mgmt. Concentration.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Marketing	<input type="checkbox"/>	Management-Entrepreneurship Concentration

Section 3:

INSTRUCTIONS: Assuming that we go with one of the above options that does not require the second statistics class, please indicate with a check mark in the blank space to the left of any of the majors listed below that you feel should include the second statistics class as a requirement specifically for that major.

<input type="checkbox"/>	Accounting	<input type="checkbox"/>	Information Systems
<input type="checkbox"/>	Economics	<input type="checkbox"/>	Management - General
<input type="checkbox"/>	Economics-Finance Concentration	<input type="checkbox"/>	Management-Human Resource Concentration
<input type="checkbox"/>	Economics - International Business Concentration	<input type="checkbox"/>	Management - Production Operations Mgmt. Concentration.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Marketing	<input type="checkbox"/>	Management-Entrepreneurship Concentration

Section 4:

INSTRUCTIONS: As stated earlier, the required "business core" courses would apply to all business majors and, of course, would be in addition to nonbusiness courses and course requirements specified for the major.

- If we were to include three to six credit hours of business electives in the business core, would you prefer . . .

. . . that the business elective(s) be restricted to courses outside the major discipline, thus encouraging more general business breadth? YES NO

OR

. . . that the business elective(s) have no restrictions, thus allowing students to add further depth within their major if they choose? YES NO
- For business core courses in accounting, please indicate the relative weight you would put on the following subject matter.

Financial Accounting	<input type="text"/>	%
Managerial/Cost Accounting	<input type="text"/>	%
Other <input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	%
		100%

-
3. For business core courses in business law, please indicate the relative weight you would put on the following subject matter.
- | | | |
|-------------------------------|-------|---|
| Legal Environment of Business | _____ | % |
| Contract Law | _____ | % |
| Other _____ | _____ | % |
| | 100% | |
4. For business core courses in advanced economics, please indicate the relative weight you would put on the following subject matter.
- | | | |
|----------------|-------|---|
| Macroeconomics | _____ | % |
| Microeconomics | _____ | % |
| Other _____ | _____ | % |
| | 100% | |
5. For business core courses in finance, please indicate the relative weight you would put on the following subject matter.
- | | | |
|--------------------|-------|---|
| Banking | _____ | % |
| Financial Analysis | _____ | % |
| Investments | _____ | % |
| Real Estate | _____ | % |
| Other _____ | _____ | % |
| | 100% | |
6. For business core courses in management, please indicate the relative weight you would put on the following subject matter.
- | | | |
|------------------------------|-------|---|
| General Theory / Strategy | _____ | % |
| Human Relations | _____ | % |
| Production / Operations Mgmt | _____ | % |
| Entrepreneurship | _____ | % |
| Other _____ | _____ | % |
| | 100% | |
7. For business core courses in marketing, please indicate the relative weight you would put on the following subject matter.
- | | | |
|--------------------------------|-------|---|
| General Marketing Strategy | _____ | % |
| Consumer Marketing | _____ | % |
| Business to Business Marketing | _____ | % |
| Logistics | _____ | % |
| Other _____ | _____ | % |
| | 100% | |

Section 5:

INSTRUCTIONS: The business core should consist of a cross-section of courses from many areas within business. The exact mix of courses is flexible, though, and we are requesting your input in determining the best combination that would benefit our graduates and their employers. Note that the first two economics courses (microeconomics and macroeconomics) are required but, per AACSB, can be considered in the nonbusiness group of courses and are not a part of the business core.

Following is a list of curricular areas that might be included as a part of the 30-hour business core. Assume for now that course format (one hour, two hour, three hour, four hour, etc.) is completely flexible and we could design the business core to match your suggestions. Keeping in mind the subject matter you indicated in Section 4 above, please indicate in the blank space to the left of each of the following areas the percentage of the business core that you feel that particular area of study should account for. If you feel any area should not be included in the core as a distinct course or major part of a course, enter 0% for that area. This, of course, would place more emphasis on the remaining subjects. Please read the entire list before completing this section and please be sure that the percentages total to 100%.

- ___ % Accounting
- ___ % Business Communications (In addition to six hours of English and three hours of
Speech Communications nonbusiness course requirements)
- ___ % Business Information Systems (In addition to three hours of Computer Science
nonbusiness course requirements)
- ___ % Business Law
- ___ % Business/Marketing Research Methodology
- ___ % Advanced Economics (beyond the first two courses)
- ___ % Finance
- ___ % International Business (Could be selected from General Business, Economics, Finance, or Marketing)
- ___ % Management
- ___ % Marketing
- ___ % Interdisciplinary Capstone Course(s)
- ___ % Business Elective(s)
- ___ % Other _____
- 100 %

Section 6:

INSTRUCTIONS: Finally, we are interested in knowing how strongly you feel about each of the areas you indicated should be included in the core. Please indicate your feelings about the inclusion of the subject matter in the business core. In answering, use the following response scale and place the most appropriate number in the blank space to the left of each item.

- 1 = Definitely Include
2 = Include If Possible
3 = Good, But Not Necessary for Inclusion

_____ ACCOUNTING
_____ Financial Accounting
_____ Managerial/Cost Accounting
_____ Other _____

_____ BUSINESS COMMUNICATIONS

_____ BUSINESS INFORMATION SYSTEMS

_____ BUSINESS LAW
_____ Legal Environment of Business
_____ Contract Law
_____ Other _____

_____ BUSINESS/MARKETING RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

_____ ADVANCED ECONOMICS
_____ Macroeconomics
_____ Microeconomics
_____ Other _____

_____ FINANCE
_____ Banking
_____ Financial Analysis
_____ Investments
_____ Real Estate
_____ Other _____

_____ INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

MANAGEMENT

_____ General Theory / Strategy

_____ Human Relations

_____ Production / Operations Mgmt

_____ Entrepreneurship

_____ Other _____

MARKETING

_____ General Marketing Strategy

_____ Consumer Marketing

_____ Business to Business Marketing

_____ Logistics

_____ Other _____

_____ INTERDISCIPLINARY CAPSTONE COURSE(S)

_____ BUSINESS ELECTIVE(S)

_____ OTHER _____

Your Name: _____

Your Undergraduate / Graduate Degree(s): _____

Please use the back of this page if you have any further comments.

THANK YOU

INTERNATIONALIZING BUSINESS CURRICULA: INTRODUCING THE STUDY OF CANADA INTO INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS PROGRAMS

Richard D. Parker, High Point University

Kirk C. Heriot, Columbus State University

ABSTRACT

Recent debates about American jobs lost to Mexico, illegal Mexican immigrants, plant closings and machiladora plants on the border of Mexico and the U.S. would suggest to the uninformed reader that NAFTA is a bilateral trade agreement. Forgotten amongst the hoopla about Mexican-American trade relations is the fact that Canada remains the largest single trading partner of the U.S. Ironically, in spite of its importance to the American economy, very few studies have addressed Canada as a relevant topic in undergraduate or graduate business programs.

Using the extant literature on internationalizing the business curriculum, this paper uses a number of sources of research data to argue for the introduction of the study of Canada into the international business curricula of American business schools and colleges. Attention is given to specific reasons the study of Canada, called Canadian Studies, should be included in international business curricula. This research suggests a variety of options for incorporating Canadian Studies into international business programs.

INTRODUCTION

Since the inception of NAFTA, trade between the U.S. and its southern and northern trading partners has grown immensely. Much of the debate about NAFTA has focused on Mexico and the phenomenal growth of its trade with the U.S. Lost somewhere among the debates on American jobs lost to Mexico, illegal Mexican immigrants, trade deficits, plant closings and *machiladora* plants on the border of Mexico and the U.S., is the fact that Canada remains the largest single trading partner of the U.S. In fact, the Canadian government reports growth in bilateral trade between Canada and the U.S of almost six percent over the last 10 years (Government of Canada, 2007). Ironically, in spite of its importance to the American economy, very few studies have addressed Canada as a relevant topic in undergraduate or graduate business programs.

Using the extant literature on internationalizing the business curriculum, this paper uses a number of sources of research data to argue for the introduction of the study of Canada into the business curricula of American business schools and colleges. Attention is given to specific reasons the study of Canada, called Canadian Studies, should be included in business curricula. This research suggests a variety of options for incorporating Canadian Studies into business programs. The study concludes with a brief discussion of the option that would require the highest level of commitment, sending students to Canada to learn about Canada. The Laval University Summer Business School is used as an example of an effective way to immerse

American students in Canadian Studies, an option that is far more affordable and practical than trips to Spain, Japan, or Brazil.

In this study, we (1) briefly review the extant literature on internationalization of American business education, (b) discuss the significance of Canada as a topic of study in international business, (c) discuss four ways American schools and colleges of business can incorporate the study of Canada into their business programs, and (d) offer our concluding comments on this important topic.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the following section, we briefly discuss the extant literature on internationalizing American business education. After perusing the literature it becomes quite clear that a very large number of studies have been conducted that examine “various aspects of business school internationalization” (Kwok, Arpan, & Folks, 1994, p. 606). These studies have ranged in both their depth and breadth of coverage in subjects such as, but not limited to, characteristics of international education (Trevino and Melton, 2002), ways both AACSB and non-AACSB schools and colleges have tried to internationalize their curriculums, and student motives for study abroad (Albers-Miller, Sigerstad, and Straughan, 1999).

We generally tell our undergraduate students in business in the United States that we live in a global economy. In our efforts to support this assertion, we often times point out interesting facts, such as Japanese firms manufacturing automobiles in the United States, the sale of American products overseas, and the reliance of Americans and American businesses on foreign oil, to name a few. The war stories we tell our students are simply one example of attempts to internationalize the business curriculum. In fact, the emphasis on international business among business programs in the U.S. has been due to not only the real increase in international trade among nations in the world, but also in response to the accreditation standards adopted by AACSB International (AACSB website, 2006).

AACSB has two standards listed under the heading ‘Assurance of Learning Standards.’ The first standard indicates that an undergraduate degree program will include “learning experiences in such general knowledge and skills areas as: multicultural and diversity understanding. . . .” (AACSB International, 2006, p. 18 of 80). The second standard indicates that the curriculum will “include learning experiences such as management-specific knowledge and skills areas such as: Domestic and global environments of organizations. . . .” (AACSB International, 2006, p. 19 of 80). The supporting material for Eligibility Criteria D also notes the following:

“...At a minimum, the school must show that within this context its business programs include diverse viewpoints among participants and prepare graduates for careers in the global context.”

This material goes on to say:

“...Every graduate should be prepared to pursue a business or management career in a global context. That is, students should be exposed to cultural practices different from their own.”

These ‘international’ AACSB standards have been modified at least twice since 1990. However, the expectation that global issues would be a part of the business curriculum has been part of the standards throughout that time period. Thus, business educators at AACSB schools have faced this challenge for the better part of two decades.

The simple conclusion that anyone may draw from a review of the contemporary literature is that American business schools and colleges have a responsibility to continue to find ways to expand our students’ understanding of international business. Yet, this rather obvious statement hides a rather ironic truth which is inconsistent with another AACSB standard that is seldom discussed in the literature on management or business education. This standard is the requirement by AACSB International that all accredited programs continuously improve their programs through assessment and modifications of the processes. In effect, we wonder how attempts to continuously improve our knowledge of global issues has not led to an increased emphasis on the unique relationship between the U.S. and Canada. Simply put, why isn’t Canada more explicitly incorporated into the curriculum of American business programs?”

RESEARCH DESIGN

Several sources of both primary and secondary data are used in this study. First, we evaluated existing secondary statistics about Canada. Two critical documents available from the Government of Canada are valuable starting points for business academics seeking to incorporate Canadian Studies into their curricula. *Canada’s International Policy Statement: Commerce* and the *Canada-United States Trade and Security Partnership Map* are available from the embassy and most Canadian consulates around the country. The *Trade and Security Partnership Map*, is actually a map of the United States with relevant information about Canadian trade for each state. *Canada’s International Policy Statement: Commerce* provides information about Canada’s interest in international trade. We complemented this information with the *Canada-United States Trade and Security Partnership Map*. A good overview of the Canada-United States trade relationship is also found in the *International Policy Statement on Commerce*.

Second, we discuss how Canada is treated in textbooks used to teach International Business. We assess the depth and breadth of discussion about Canada in five textbooks. Each book was closely scrutinized by evaluating each chapter using “Canada” and “NAFTA” as search terms using an electronic search of the instructor’s manual via the publisher’s website. The fourth book and fifth book were evaluated by reviewing the Table of Contents, References, Subject Index, and text in several chapters.

Third, we evaluate the acumen of American business students about Canada. The same quiz was administered to students at two southeastern universities. Both colleges of business are accredited by AACSB International. The students were asked to try their best. In exchange for their participation, the student at each school with the highest score was given a chance to win a twenty-dollar gift certificate to Barnes and Noble. The scores on the Canada Quiz were evaluated using simple descriptive statistics to evaluate each class at each school.

Fourth, we supplement our initial literature review with an additional examination of the contemporary literature to evaluate how Canadian Studies can be incorporated into business programs in the U.S. Our initial process involved the use of a World Wide Web-based virtual library. Participating institutions may access over 100 databases, such as *ProQuest* and *Business Source Premier*, indexing thousands of periodicals and scholarly journals. Over 2000 journal titles are provided in full-text. Other

resources include encyclopedias, business directories, and government publications. We used a variety of search terms such as, but not limited to, “Canada”, “Canadian Studies”, “Business Education”, “Study Abroad”, and “International Business”, as well as combinations of two or more search terms to identify the relevant literature. This information was important toward understanding the various ways that Canada and Canadian Studies could be added to the international business programs at colleges and schools of business.

Lastly, we use qualitative analysis (Yin, 1994) to describe the Laval University Summer Business School. The Summer Business School exemplifies a hands-on (Tyagi, 2001) approach to international business. Other hands-on techniques include internships overseas or in the home country with a foreign company. One of the authors has participated in the Laval program as a faculty lecturer for the past three summers. This author is conversant in French and has traveled extensively throughout French Canada. He will return to Laval University for the fourth Summer Business School in 2008.

RESULTS

The results of our analysis are discussed in the following subsections. We start with a summary of Canada and conclude with a discussion of study abroad options exemplified by The Laval University Summer Business School.

Descriptive Statistics about Canada

Why should U.S. business schools incorporate Canadian Studies into their curricula? The answer is simple: commerce. Canada and the United States share the largest bilateral trade relationship on the planet. At the time of this writing almost US\$2 billion in daily trade crosses the US-Canada border. And the numbers continue to increase. In most states people, particularly those in business schools, fail to recognize that Canada is the nation’s largest trading partner. Many think first of Mexico or China, yet Canada plays a key role in the heart of U.S. economic affairs.

In 2003, trade between Canada and the United States totaled more than US\$441 billion. Over five million U.S. jobs are supported by trade with Canada. Canada is the leading source of foreign energy imports to the United States, *including* crude oil! Canada has the second largest proven petroleum reserves on earth. Vancouver is becoming the Hollywood of the North, with highly rated shows choosing the western Canadian metropolis over many “choice” U.S. locations in large part because of lower production costs, talented actors, variable outdoor settings and first-rate studio technology. The entertainment dimension is particularly important given that the BBC’s nation profile website on the USA (http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/americas/country_profiles/1217752.stm) lists as the three most important things about the USA as its economic power, its military might and its production of most of the world’s movies and television shows.

Trade Statistics

As mentioned previously *Canada’s International Policy Statement: Commerce and the Canada-United States Trade and Security Partnership Map*, available from the embassy and most Canadian consulates around the U.S., are valuable starting points for business academics seeking to incorporate Canadian Studies

into their curricula. These documents reach beyond information regarding the Canadian view of trade with the United States, but also include Canadian interests in trade with the European Union, China, Mexico and other nations of importance to Ottawa. Additionally the *Policy Statement* provides an overview of current trade-related political issues such as the softwood lumber dispute as well as government policies on business assistance.

The incorporation of information from this material to courses should be an easy matter. Educators in different states can draw information from the *Canada-United States Trade and Security Partnership Map* and tailor the data to their states or regions. For example a business professor in Tennessee can find that in 2003 trade with Canada supported 108,000 jobs in the state, ranking 15th nationally. Total trade between Canada and Tennessee for the time period was \$8.4 billion, with \$3.6 billion of goods and services exported to Canada and \$4.8 billion of goods and services imported from Canada. The exports to Canada ranked 13th in the United States and the imports from Canada ranked 12th in the United States. Furthermore the top Canadian import to Tennessee was \$2.1 billion of natural gas and the leading export to Canada from Tennessee was \$691 million in automobile parts.

The *Canada-United States Trade and Security Partnership Map* further breaks down the trade relationship between states and specific provinces. Say the hypothetical business professor in the above example wanted to know the total trade between Tennessee and Alberta; the map provides additional information. In 2003 Tennessee exported \$132 million of goods and services to Alberta, ranked 12th in the USA and imported \$151 million of goods and services, ranked 23rd in the nation. Many people would not guess that the leading importer of goods and services from Alberta was Ohio at \$1.58 billion, but given the oil industry some may guess that Texas was the leading exporter of goods to Alberta at \$1.2 billion.

The *Canada-United States Trade and Security Partnership Map* tailors the data to states or regions. A good overview of the Canada-United States trade relationship is found in the *International Policy Statement on Commerce*. Business professors can find references to statistical information on the nature of “the largest trading relationship in history” (*Canada’s International Policy Statement: Commerce*, p.2). Most business professors are unaware that “Canada and the United States exchange some \$1.8 billion in goods and services every day of the year – well over \$1 million a minute; a truck crosses the border every two seconds; on average about 300,000 people cross the border each day; the U.S. is the largest source of direct foreign investment for Canada, responsible for over 65% of total FDI in Canada; the U.S. is the principle destination of Canadian direct investment abroad, accounting for over 43% of the total; the [Canadian] Government assists more than 16,000 companies annually in the U.S. marketplace, the vast majority of them small and medium-sized firms” (*Canada’s International Policy Statement: Commerce*, p.2).

Textbooks

In an effort to assess the depth and breadth of discussion about Canada in textbooks, five International Business textbooks were identified and evaluated for content. The index and each chapter were evaluated using “Canada” and “NAFTA” as search terms. Table 1 summarizes the results of this analysis. Essentially, Canada is only briefly mentioned in any of the textbooks as part of discussions about NAFTA or cultural dimensions. Only one textbook mentions the level of trade that exists between the U.S. and Canada.

**Table 1: Comparison of Three International Business Textbooks
– The Extent to Which Canada is Discussed**

Authors	Evaluation Categories				
	Introduction	Culture	NAFTA	Trade Theory	Market Choice
Griffin & Postay, 2007			X		
Daniels, Radebough & Sullivan, 2007		X	X		
Wild, Wild & Han, 2006			X		
Hill, 2007			X		
Czinkota, Ronkainen & Moffett, 2005		X	X		

An "X" in a cell indicates that Canada is discussed in this section of the textbook.

The obvious concern after reviewing each of these textbooks is that Canada, our largest trading partner, is not discussed to any extent. It certainly begs the question, "How can American business students learn international business when they do not learn much about our largest trading partner?"

Canada Quiz

The results of the Canada quiz confirmed that American business students in the samples from the two universities that participated in this study have very little knowledge about Canada. One hundred fifty three students in five sections of business courses at two universities took the twenty-five question quiz. A sample of the quiz is shown in Appendix A.

The average score on the quiz was 47.87%. These results are not surprising, but they are clearly disappointing when one considers that Canada is our largest trading partner and is our immediate cross border neighbor with which we largely share a common language.

Table 2: Results of Canada Quiz for All Groups of Students

Class Instructor	Sample Size	Average Score (%)	Highest (%)	Lowest (%)
AJ – School #1	22 ¹	49.3	64	32
JF1 – School #1	35	45.6	80	0
JF2 – School #2	30	49.6	80	32
RD – School #2	40	45.1	64	12
JC – School #2	26	51.6	84	0
Totals	153	47.87	84	0

¹ One student's Scantron form was completed in pen. So, it was discarded from the sample.

Supplemental Literature Review

We conducted a search about Canada using ABI/INFORM, a fairly complete business and economics database available through ProQuest and Business Source Premier, another fairly complete business and economics database available through EBSCO Host. Very few articles were available about Canada as a topic of interest when combined with other search terms such as “business education.” In fact, the extant literature was largely devoid of research about Canada as an international business topic, except when a Canadian researcher or Canadian sample was specifically part of the study.

Study Abroad

Tyagi (2001) says that study abroad and internships are a way for schools to internationalize the curriculum. One of the authors has participated as a facilitator in a study abroad program since 2005 at Quebec’s Laval University, Canada’s oldest institution of higher learning. Laval University hosts its offering of a Summer Business School through the auspices its Faculty of Administrative Sciences. This three-week study intensive program was designed to familiarize business students with Canadian business practices within a North American framework. The Summer Business School was designed to be an international program attracting students from the United States primarily, but business students of other nationalities are becoming familiar with the program.

In 2005, eleven students from three nations, Canada, the United States and the People’s Republic of China, received certificates upon completion of the program. The students received classroom instruction in all areas of business relevant to North American commerce during each weekday morning, followed by afternoon field trips to business, government and cultural sites of interest.

The goals of the program were to promote a greater understanding of the role Canada plays in North American commerce, to enhance the business education of students enrolled in the program and allow students to build relationships that will provide the foundation for future business dealings on both sides of the border. The model offered by the Laval University Summer Business School is useful in providing the foundation for better understanding and incorporation of Canada in business curricula. The Summer Business School was again offered in the summers of 2006 and 2007. Unfortunately participation by American college students continued to be minimal in both years, which offers possible anecdotal evidence of the low interest Americans may have in Canada, in spite of its importance as a trading partner.

It is important to note that Canadian schools are very interested in exchange programs. The Government of Canada’s national website highlight opportunities for students and instructors to visit Canada in a variety of ways including study abroad programs. Study abroad programs are located throughout Canada and almost all of them are within 100 miles of the U.S.-Canada border.

Study abroad in Canada has some special advantages. Language is generally not a barrier as would most likely be experienced by American students (Walton and Basciano, 2006) seeking to go to Brazil, Japan, or Germany. Financial barriers are also not as much a factor as reasonable airfare is available to most Canadian cities and the cost of living and exchange rate are not overwhelming as one might expect when traveling to more exotic locales. Albers-Miller, Prenshaw, and Straughan (1999) point out that cost is a big factor for students making a decision to participate in a study abroad program. Thus, going to Canada has

a unique advantage over a trip to any other nearby country except Mexico where language barriers may exist for most American students (Adler, 2002).

RECOMMENDATIONS

Rather than simply making a single suggestion, we suggest that schools and colleges of business consider multiple approaches to include Canada in their existing IB programs or to incorporate Canada into future IB programs or classes. Our multiple method approach is consistent with the received literature. Many ways exist for students to learn international business; hence, many ways exist for students to learn about Canada. Tyagi (2001) argues that the ways to internationalize a business curriculum “can be broken down into four major categories” (p. 76). These four ways include integration, focus, specialization, and hands-on techniques. In the following paragraphs, we use these four major categories as the basis for recommending how schools and colleges in the U.S. can incorporate Canadian Studies into their business programs.

Integration

Given the information from government, media and financial sources available to business academics regarding Canada-USA trade, questions arise as to where Canadian Studies fits into a business curriculum. The most obvious placement is in international business courses. Yet many colleges and schools of business may not feel that Canada is “international enough” given it is a border nation of the United States. This notion is completely off-base as Mexico is very often included as a focus of international business study. For academics facing administrative resistance for the inclusion of Canada in pure international business courses there are alternatives.

Canadian Studies can find justifiable placement in courses beyond international business foci for subjects such as finance, management, marketing, economics and accounting. Business law courses will need to examine the provisions of the North American Free Trade Agreement; this is a logical placement for Canada. Management courses that are beginning to address the need for cultural understanding could also accommodate Canada in examining the differences not only between the U.S. and Canada but also the differences specific to Quebec. Small business and entrepreneurship courses could also lend a focus to Canada given Canadian Government support of the aforementioned 16,000 companies receiving assistance in the U.S. marketplace. For schools specializing in agri-business, the free-trade relationship with Canada and the dispute over softwood lumber are natural topics for discussion and inclusion within those courses. Finance courses dealing with insurance and banking systems have an “in” to Canada given that TD (Toronto Dominion) Waterhouse and RBC (Royal Bank of Canada) Financial Group are now a major players in US financial markets. Courses in logistics, transportation and supply chain management need to consider the Canadian role in US operations given the extensive trade relationship. Marketing courses could easily incorporate the differences in the way Canada allows marketing and advertising practices as a basis for comparison in principles and advanced classes. Retailing, economics and accounting courses could very well examine the impact that dual federal and provincial sales taxes have on consumer spending.

If instructors can impart some of the basic historic and political differences between the United States and Canada, then students will gain an appreciation that Canada is a different nation and not merely an extension of the United States. This information can be combined with instruction on commercial

relationships to prepare students to successfully engage in commercial practices necessary for the continued prosperity of both nations.

Focus

An additional way to ensure students learn more about Canada is to simply incorporate Canadian Studies into the core international business course that many colleges and schools of business are requiring students to take when completing a major within those academic units. Our evaluation of five international business textbooks showed that schools that take that approach currently will not find much information about Canada in them. Thus, if one agrees that Canada's role in American business is an important, yet missing topic in international business, this option may not be fruitful, unless the professor is willing to supplement the textbook with additional information or assignments. For professors seeking to incorporate Canada more fully into business courses we suggest another option in the next section.

Specialization

One option that has become quite popular in the U.S. is to offer a major or minor in International Business. This option suggests a substantial increase in the depth and breadth of analysis on culture, international trade, balance of payments, international market entry, and international strategies. It shows great promise to the reader who believes Canada's importance as a trade partner should be increased in IB curricula. Very simply, this option provides multiple chances to help students learn about Canada and its important relationship with the U.S. Specialized courses represent an opportunity to discuss Canada beyond a core IB course. Examples of courses include, but are not limited to, Accounting Practices in International Business, Agriculture and Free Trade, or International Marketing.

Hands On Approach

The hands-on approach is clearly the most extensive way to incorporate Canada into the IB curriculum. However, as pointed out by Albers-Miller et al (1999), it represents a unique chance to prepare students for the global marketplace that is viewed favorably by the students. Student internships in Canada, internships with Canadian firms in America, and study abroad all exemplify this approach. We emphasize study abroad in this discussion based upon the participation of one of the authors in study abroad programs over a five year timeframe.

DISCUSSION

Canada and its business relationships with the U.S. are simply too important to be ignored or taken for granted. This paper illuminates the importance of studying Canada in schools and colleges of business in the U.S. This is particularly true for American business schools and colleges. The results of the simple quiz discussed in this study demonstrate the limited knowledge that business students have about Canada. Further examination of textbooks used in a typical International Business course demonstrate that authors spend little time on our largest trading partner. Many opportunities exist for the inclusion of Canada in a wide

range of business disciplines. The challenge for advocates of Canadian Studies is to persuade administrators that Canada should be included in the curricula and to generate enthusiasm for Canada among faculty members at these institutions. The largest trade relationship in the world will not stop tomorrow. The sooner students, professors and administrators of US business schools and colleges acknowledge the importance and significance of Canada and incorporate Canada into curricula the sooner our college students will gain an appreciation of the importance of the Canadian-American relationship.

LIMITATIONS

This study used both primary and secondary data to support the recommendation that Canadian Studies become a regular part of the curricula for American business programs. The Canada quiz was conducted at two AACSB schools and did not evaluate how well students at non-AACSB schools would know Canada. Thus, the test results that were reported are clearly not generalizable to other American colleges and universities from a purely statistical perspective. Nonetheless, the low scores these students had showed a profoundly poor level of knowledge about Canada, the largest trading partner of the U.S. Future studies should consider how much students at other colleges know about Canada.

The evaluation of textbooks was limited to only five books. However, these books ranged from a book in its sixth edition to a book in its third edition. More importantly, these books did not appear to be especially different than other International Business textbooks. In fact, they had very similar, almost identical, chapter names and sequences of topics, when compared to other textbooks in International Business.

CONCLUSIONS

Canada, O Canada. It is the second largest country in the world. It is the largest trading partner of the U.S. In fact, the U.S. and Canada share the largest bilateral trading partnership in the world. Yet, Canada is a stranger to many Americans. We share a common language with most Canadians. The U.S. and Canada share the longest undefended border in the world. Yet, American college students are not taught very much about Canada other than a few comments related to NAFTA. This research suggests that responsible U.S. business educators, particularly in the spirit of continuous improvement espoused by AACSB International, should incorporate Canadian Studies into their curricula. We offer suggestions for how schools can do so through integration into existing courses, such as Principles of Management, a focus on a core IB course, specialization through a major in IB with multiple courses, and/or hands-on methods such as Study Abroad programs in one of Canada's 90 universities and 150 colleges.

REFERENCES

Albers-Miller, Nancy D., Penelope J. Prenshaw, and Robert D. Straughan (1999). "Study Abroad Programs: An Exploratory Study of Student Perceptions." *American Marketing Association. Conference Proceedings, 10*, 65 – 72.

Adler, N.J. (2002). *International Dimensions of Organizational Behavior*, 4th edi. Canada, South-Western.

-
- Ball, D. A. and W.H. McCulloch, Jr. (1992). "The views of American multinational CEOs on internationalized business education for prospective employees," *Journal of International Business Studies*, 24(2), pp. 383-392.
- BBC News – Americas – Country Profile – United States of America website http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/americas/country_profiles/1217752.stm
- Canada Business website <http://canadabusiness.gc.ca/gol/cbec/site.nsf/en/bg00341.html>
- Storer, Tina (2007). Canada Quiz. *O Canada! The True North Strong and Free*. (<http://www.k12studycanada.wvu.edu>). Retrieved January 18, 2007.
- Canada's International Policy Statement: Commerce. 2005. Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade, Ottawa.
- Canada-United States Trade and Security Partnership Map*. 2004. Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade, Ottawa.
- Canadian Commercial Corporation website <http://www.ccc.ca/index.html>
- Cant, A.G. (2004). Internationalizing the Business Curriculum: Developing Intercultural Competence." *Journal of American Academy of Business*. 5 (1/2), 177 -182.
- Central Intelligence Agency (2007). Country Studies. Canada. <http://www.cia.gov> Retrieved January 21, 2007.
- Class Outlines. 2005. Universite Laval Summer Business School, Faculty of Administrative Sciences, Department of Management, P.L. Grenon (contact).
- Czinkota, Michael R., Illka A. Ronkainen, and Michael H. Moffett (2005). *International Business*, 6th Edition. South-West Learning.
- Daniels, John, Lee Radebaugh, and Daniel Sullivan (2007). *International Business: Environments and Operations*, 4/E. Prentice-Hall Publishing.
- Fugate, D.L. and R.W. Jefferson (2001). "Preparing for Globalization – Do We Need Structural Change for Academic Programs?" *Journal of Education for Business*, 76(3), 160-167.
- Government of Canada, (2007). Trade and Investment: The Canada-U.S. trade and investment partnership: (http://geo.international.gc.ca/can-am/atlanta/trade_and_investment/default_228-en.asp). Retrieved January 31, 2007.
- Griffin, Ricky and Mike Postay (2007). *International Business*, 5/E. Prentice-Hall Publishing.
- Hill, Charles W. L. (2007). *International Business*, 6/E. McGraw-Hill/Iwrin Publishing.
- International Trade Canada website <http://www.itcan-cican.gc.ca/>. Retrieved March 14, 2007.

- Kwok, C.C.Y, J. Arpan, and W. R. Folks, Jr. (1994). "A global survey of international business education in the 1990s." *Journal of International Business Studies*, 25(3), 605-623.
- NAFTA Revisited: The Role of Business Educators (1998). *Journal of Education for Business*. 73(6), 336-343.
- Pfeffer, Jeffrey (2007). "What's Right – and Still Wrong- with Business Schools." *BizEd*. January/February, 42-48.
- Sanchez, Carol M., Marianella Fornerino, Mengxia Zhang (2006). Motivations and the Intent to Study Abroad Among U.S., French, and Chinese Students." *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, Vol., 18(1) 2006.
- Statistics Canada website <http://www.statcan.ca/start.html>. Retrieved November 6, 2006.
- Trapnell, Jerry E. (2007). AACSB International Accreditation: The value proposition and a look to the future. *The Journal of Management Development*, 26 (1), 67-72.
- Trevino, L.J. and M. Melton (2002). Institutional Characteristics and Preconditions for International Business Education: An Empirical Investigation." *Journal of Education for Business*, 77(4), 230-236.
- Tyagi, Pradeep. (2001). Internationalization of Marketing Education: Current Status and Future Challenges. *Marketing Education Review*. 11(1), pp. 75-84.
- Walton, James and Peter Basciano (2006). Internationalization of American Business Education: Are U.S Business Students Less Ethnocentric? *The Business Review*, 5(1), 282 – 286.
- Wild, John, Kenneth L. Wild, and Jerry C. Y. Han, (2006). *International Business*, 3/E. Prentice-Hall Publishing.

Appendix A: CANADA QUIZ

Objective

To evaluate student understanding of Canada

Materials

Canada Quiz

Procedure

1. Each student was provided a Scantron form and a quiz. They were instructed to attempt to do their very best on the quiz.
2. The student with the highest score at each university would win a \$20 gift certificate to Barnes and Noble.
3. In the event of a tie, a random drawing would determine the winner.

Sample Questions

Sample questions from the Canada Quiz are shown below due to space restrictions.

1. In relation to the American population the Canadian population is approximately
 - a. one half
 - b. one third
 - c. one fifth
 - d. one tenth
2. In land area, the largest Canadian province is:
 - a. Alberta
 - b. Quebec
 - c. British Columbia
 - d. Newfoundland
9. Most Canadians live:
 - a. within 150 miles of the U.S. Canadian border
 - b. in the province of Ontario
 - c. in the Prairie provinces
 - d. the Atlantic provinces
25. What new territory was formed in 1999?
 - a. Yukon
 - b. Nunavut
 - c. Greenland
 - d. Iqaluit

Source: http://www.k12studycanada.org/files/northern_neighbor/Activity%2015.pdf

VALUE-ADDED ASSESSMENT USING THE MAJOR FIELD TEST IN BUSINESS

Sarah P. Rook, University of South Carolina Upstate
Faruk I. Tanyel, University of South Carolina Upstate

ABSTRACT

This research uses the Educational Testing Service (ETS) Major Field Test in Business (MFTB) to assess the value-added by an AACSB-International accredited undergraduate business program. The matched-pair design shows that on average, MFTB scores rise approximately 14 points, student score percentiles improve 31 points, and student z-scores increase one standard deviation. Upper level business core grade point average is a slightly better predictor of MFTB improvement than the upper level business grade point average. There is some evidence that the business concentration affects the change in MFTB score. Difficulties of value-added assessment are highlighted.

INTRODUCTION

The Major Field Test in Business (MFTB) is sponsored by Higher Education Assessment of the Educational Testing Service (ETS) and covers foundation course content taught in a typical undergraduate business program. The MFTB multiple-choice questions cover topics in eight areas: accounting, economics, management, quantitative business analysis and information systems, finance, marketing, legal and social environment, and international issues. The ETS reports (Judy Bennett, personal communication, August 17, 2007) that 143,349 seniors at 553 different schools have taken the MFTB from 2003 to 2006. ETS (2000) does not claim that its sample proportionally represents the various types of higher education institutions. Approximately thirty percent of the participating schools are accredited by AACSB International—The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business. Approximately thirty-five percent of all U.S. AACSB accredited schools use the MFTB. Rotondo (2005) presents a thorough summary of advantages and disadvantages of the use of the MFTB for assessment.

At our university, the MFTB has been used as an assessment tool in the fall and spring semesters since 1998. The MFTB is included for assessment purposes since it offers the opportunity for the comparison of the student performance at the university with students at other universities, as well as, the comparison of our students over time. Other assessment methods are used to measure specific learning goals.

Assessment can be performance based (Does the student meet program standards?) or value-added based (Has the student gained knowledge?). Value-added assessment demonstrates the improvement in learning due to the student's program of study and generally utilizes a pre/post design to measure the change in student learning. This study focuses on the change in MFTB scores for students who took the exam as sophomores and then again as seniors. Thus, this is a matched-pair value-added study based on 68 students.

In the fall of 2000, as an additional form of assessment of the business program, we began administering the MFTB to a small sample of sophomores. Several references cited below indicate there are factors other than curriculum such as student ability, experience, gender, etc. which affect MFTB scores. We observed a few sophomores (who had not completed the business curriculum) scoring better than some seniors (who had completed the business curriculum). To reduce the influence of individual student characteristics and help isolate the impact of the curriculum on the test performance, we matched the senior score with the sophomore score for each student to create a change in score variable (matched-pair or dependent sample design). The intent was to measure the MFTB score improvement for each student and attribute the score improvement to the curriculum. By looking at the change in score for each student, we reduce the impact of student variability and are better able to isolate the impact of the curriculum. Of course, we expected student scores to improve reflecting the value-added nature of our business curriculum. We further expected the performance improvement to be related to business program performance as measured by business course grades.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There are numerous examples in the literature of business schools using the MFTB for assessment purposes. Several studies look at possible factors affecting MFTB performance, such as grade point average (GPA), specific course grade point average, SAT scores, age, gender, race, and student major. Bycio and Allen (2007) find significant correlations between MFTB scores and business GPA, university GPA, SAT-Verbal, SAT-Math, and student motivation. Bagamery, Lasik, and Nixon (2005) report gender, whether the student took the SAT, and grades as significant predictors of MFTB performance. Wathen and Nale (2003) report relatively high correlations between MFTB performance and courses in accounting, statistics, macroeconomics, finance, business law, operations, and strategy. Rook, Lancaster, Tanyel, and Word (2002) found MFTB performance was significantly related to SAT, college GPA, and gender. Novin, Arjomand, and Finlay (2004) found the highest course-specific MFTB correlations with Global Business, Strategic Management, and Principles of Marketing. They also reported high correlations with SAT-Verbal scores and college GPA. These examples of MFTB research focus on the factors which may predict MFTB performance for a variety of students.

The value-added assessment approach involves measuring student improvement over time. Mahoney (2004) argues that an accountability system for schools should be a value-added system which is based on what a student learns in one year. Thus a school system focuses on improvement--not level of performance. Conversely, Miller (1999) argues that universities should be concerned with the level of knowledge achieved not the knowledge the university adds to the individual. Miller advocates the use of course grades which only measure knowledge level at the end of the course. Osigweh (1985) describes an elaborate value-added education model for the business school at Northeast Missouri State University in the 1970s. Students were tested as freshmen, sophomores, and seniors using national tests. (MFTB was not available at that time.) Institutional survey data were collected from students, alumni, and employers. Information was used to help students improve general knowledge and specific fields of knowledge and personal development (such as, self-confidence and self-image). Greene and Zimmer (2003) present findings on the self-assessed improvement of a student's global perspective and internet research skills using a global internet research assignment in an introductory marketing course. Students answered a questionnaire to estimate the degree

of value added in seven areas, such as, familiarity with electronic information sources or knowledge of how to conduct business in a foreign market. Students also reported increased interest in further study or a possible career in international business. Jonas and Weimer (1999) report on a two-year assessment research project involving six different colleges and universities. Using the MFTB, the research compared performance of traditional and nontraditional (accelerated) undergraduate business students. In the study, the schools collected matched-pair data (same student completing the MFTB twice—pre-test and post-test) for 173 students. Traditional and nontraditional students in all colleges demonstrated a significantly higher score on the post-test compared to the pre-test. The average for the pre-test score was 145 and 155 for the post-test score. Furthermore, Jonas and Weimer report a significant positive correlation between post-test scores and overall GPA. Jonas, Weimer, and Herzer (2001) compare the MFTB performance of traditional students ($n = 24$) and nontraditional students ($n = 36$) using a pre- and post-assessment design. Both traditional and nontraditional student scores improve, but the mean for the nontraditional students increases more (15.6 points) than the mean for the traditional students (5.9 points).

MODEL

In this matched-pair study, we measure the change in MFTB scores between the sophomore testing and the senior testing experiences. It is expected that in general, the measured change would reflect an improvement (a positive change) and demonstrate the value-added by the business program. Thus we test the null hypothesis that the mean score change is less than or equal to zero using a t-test for a dependent sample (matched-pair t test). Measuring this change is complicated by different forms of the MFTB used during the testing time span. Therefore, three different measures of student score performance are included in this study: the change in the raw score (RAWSCORE Δ), the change in the percentile score (PERCENTILE Δ), and the change in the z-score (Z-SCORE Δ). For each of the three measures, we expect the mean difference to be significantly different from zero.

The form or version of the test available from ETS changed during the time span of the study. There were three different versions of the MFTB taken by students in our sample. Thus all students did not have the same form of the test for the sophomore and senior tests. Half of the students did take the same version of the test for both tests. For those students, a comparison of raw scores (RAWSCORE Δ = senior raw score – sophomore raw score) on the two exams would be appropriate. For the other half of the students, a comparison of raw scores would not be as meaningful because the mean and standard deviations of the different tests are not the same. Thus two additional forms of comparison were developed: the percentile change and the z-score change. The percentile change (PERCENTILE Δ) is the measure of the percentile score improvement (senior percentile score – sophomore percentile score). The percentile is based on data provided by ETS. The z-score change (Z-SCORE Δ) is the measure of the z-score improvement (senior z-score – sophomore z-score). The z-score is the difference between the student's raw score and the mean raw score divided by the standard deviation. The test means and standard deviations are available from ETS (2000, 2004, and Judy Bennett, personal communication, August 17, 2007).

Once it is established there is a significant difference in the performance, we are interested in trying to explain the magnitude of the difference. Many variables that might be expected to affect test performance (such as SAT) are held constant because we are measuring change in score for the same person (matched-pair). Students' scores are expected to be affected by the education experience between the two tests.

Sophomores taking the test would have completed a few 200-level business core courses, but no upper-level business courses. Seniors taking the exam would have completed the required lower-level and upper-level business core courses and would have taken a number of business courses in their chosen concentration (accounting, economics/ finance, general business, management, or marketing). One would expect the MFTB improvement to be related to the student's performance in business courses, especially upper-level business courses completed after taking the exam as a sophomore. Two variables are used to measure the upper-level business course performance: the ULCOREGPA and the ULGPA. The ULCOREGPA is the grade point average for the six upper-level business core courses which all business majors complete (Legal Environment of Business, Principles of Marketing, Business Finance, Organizational Management and Behavior, Operations Management, and Business Policy). The ULGPA is the grade point average for all upper-level business courses which includes the core and concentration courses. We use regression analysis to look at the relationship between score improvement and business GPA with a null hypothesis of the regression coefficient is less than or equal to zero.

The concentration courses differ among the students. Since the upper level concentration courses vary among the students, there may be a relationship between test improvement and concentrations. We use analysis of variance to explore this relationship with a null hypothesis that all concentrations show the same score improvement.

To summarize, it is anticipated that the change in test performance, on average, will improve and that the improvement is related to upper level business course performance as measured by GPA. Business concentration choice may also influence test performance.

DESCRIPTION OF DATA AND METHOD

Each fall and spring semester the test is administered in the required senior-level Business Policy class. The test score is counted as 20 percent of the student's course grade. All seniors taking the MFTB have completed all of the 200-level business core courses (two semesters of accounting, two semesters of economics, two semesters of statistics, and one semester of business information systems) and all of the 300-level business core courses (Legal Environment of Business, Principles of Marketing, Business Finance, Organizational Management and Behavior, Operations Management). From fall 2000 through spring 2005, 154 students in 200-level economics or statistics courses took the MFTB. To entice sophomore students to take a two-hour exam not scheduled during the regular class time, an incentive of a guaranteed 100 on 5 % of the course grade was offered. Students volunteered to take the test and then were screened to ensure that the student was a business major and that the student had not completed any 300-level business courses. The students were currently enrolled in at least one 200-level business core course and often had completed some of the other 200-level business core courses. Therefore the students had been exposed to some of the business concepts tested on the MFTB. Due to the extreme difficulty of obtaining a random sample, these results are based on a convenience sample with the inherent problems of non-random sampling.

There are 68 students included in this matched-pair study. The average age of the students when they took the senior exam is 23.7 years. There are 21 males, 47 females, 30 minority students (20 African-Americans, 8 Asians, and 2 Hispanics), 16 accounting students, 7 economics/finance students, 19 general business students, 8 management students, and 18 marketing students. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for each variable used in this study.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Variables Used (n = 68)

Variable	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Median
RAWSCORE Δ	13.84	8.69	-4	30	14.5
PERCENTILE Δ	31.07	20.85	-4	72	31.5
Z-SCORE Δ	1.064	0.636	-0.151	2.307	1.121
ULCOREGPA	2.991	0.536	2.042	4	3
ULGPA	2.995	0.507	2.054	4	2.927
Correlation Coefficients between:					
RAWSCORE Δ	PERCENTILE Δ	0.927			
RAWSCORE Δ	Z-SCORE Δ	0.994			
PERCENTILE Δ	Z-SCORE Δ	0.928			
ULCOREGPA	ULGPA	0.950			
Note: RAWSCORE Δ = senior raw score – sophomore raw score; PERCENTILE Δ = senior percentile score – sophomore percentile score; Z-SCORE Δ = senior z-score – sophomore z-score; ULCOREGPA = the grade point average (GPA) for the six upper-level business core courses; ULGPA = the GPA for all upper-level business courses which includes the core courses and the concentration courses					

On average, the raw scores improved about 14 points. The raw score for four students actually decreased (-1,-1,-2,-4) and for four students the raw score improved 29 or 30 points. On average, this score improvement caused the student's percentile to improve about 31 points. For three students the percentile decreased (-1,-3,-4) and for two students the percentile improved 72 points. On average, the z-score improved about one point--students raised the score by one standard deviation. The z-score for three students dropped (-0.15, -0.07, -0.02) while for three students the z-score improved at least 2.24 standard deviations. There are high correlation coefficients among the three measures of performance improvement.

To test the hypothesis that test performance improves from the sophomore testing to the senior testing, we used a matched pair t-test. The null hypothesis is that the difference is less than or equal to zero (H_0 : mean difference ≤ 0). We tested the performance improvement using each of the measures of test improvement.

For these 68 students, the average upper level core GPA is 2.991 (from 2.04 to 4.0) and the average upper level business GPA is 2.995 (2.05 to 4.0). There is a high correlation between the two GPA measures.

To explore the test score improvement, ordinary least squares is used to estimate the following regression models:

$$\text{RAWSCORE}\Delta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{ULCOREGPA} + \epsilon_i$$

$$\text{RAWSCORE}\Delta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{ULGPA} + \epsilon_i$$

$$\text{PERCENTILE}\Delta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{ULCOREGPA} + \epsilon_i$$

$$\text{PERCENTILE}\Delta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{ULGPA} + \epsilon_i$$

$$\text{Z-SCORE}\Delta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{ULCOREGPA} + \epsilon_i \text{ and}$$

$$\text{Z-SCORE}\Delta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{ULGPA} + \epsilon_i .$$

We expect each grade point average coefficient (β_1) to be positive (H_0 : $\beta_1 \leq 0$).

To test the relevance of business concentration to MFTB performance improvement, a single factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the concentrations as the treatments is used. The null hypothesis is there is no difference in test performance due to concentration.

RESULTS

A t-test for matched pair sampling is used to measure the significance of the change in test scores. The t statistic for the RAWSCORE Δ mean is 13.14; for the PERCENTILE Δ mean, 12.29; and for the Z-SCORE Δ mean, 13.80. Each of the t-tests is significant at less than the 0.001 level of significance. For each of the measures of test improvement, the average difference between sophomore and seniors is positive and thus shows a significant improvement in performance.

Table 2: Regression Results for the Determinants of MFTB Performance Differences (n = 68)				
Variable	Coefficient	t statistic	significance	R square
Dependent variable = RAWSCORE Δ				0.158
Intercept	-5.47	-0.98		
ULCOREGPA	6.45	3.53	****	
Dependent variable = RAWSCORE Δ				0.122
Intercept	-4.11	-0.68		
ULGPA	5.99	3.03	***	
Dependent variable = PERCENTILE Δ				0.155
Intercept	-14.82	-1.11		
ULCOREGPA	15.35	3.49	****	
Dependent variable = PERCENTILE Δ				0.111
Intercept	-9.92	-0.68		
ULGPA	13.68	2.86	***	
Dependent variable = Z-SCORE Δ				0.157
Intercept	-0.34	-0.84		
ULCOREGPA	0.47	3.50	****	
Dependent variable = Z-SCORE Δ				0.117
Intercept	-0.22	-0.50		
ULGPA	0.43	2.96	***	
Note: ***p<0.01 and ****p<0.001				

The regression results for each of the three measures of test improvement are included in Table 2. The R-square values range from 0.111 to 0.158, therefore, none of the models explain a substantial portion

of the variation in the dependent variable. For each of the regression equations, the upper level core GPA (ULCOREGPA) coefficient is significant at the 0.001 level of significance and the upper level GPA (ULGPA) is significant at the 0.01 level. Thus the upper level core GPA yields better results than using the upper level business course GPA. This result is consistent with the claim that the MFTB tests the typical business core content.

Using the upper level core GPA models to predict test improvement, we would predict that a student who has an upper level business core grade point average one point higher than another student, should expect to improve the test performance by about 6 points, 15 percentile points, or about one-half of a standard deviation compared to the student with the lower business core GPA.

The analysis of variance test of the equality of the means of Z-SCORE Δ for each of the five concentrations is significant at the 0.05 level of significance (H_0 : Z-SCORE Δ mean of each concentration is equal). The F test statistic is 2.66. We reject the null hypothesis that the concentrations show the same test score improvement. Based on this sample, upper-level concentration courses may influence the MFTB improvement.

CONCLUSIONS

We found significant improvement in MFTB performance from the testing experience as a sophomore to the testing experience as a senior, using each of the three measures of test score change. Jonas and Weimer (1999) reported an average 10 point raw score gain compared to the 14 point gain in this sample. We found that business core GPA was a slightly better predictor of test improvement than upper-level business GPA, however both measures were highly significant. Several earlier studies report a linkage between grade point average and test performance. With this relatively small sample, there appears to be a relationship between concentration (and thus the upper level business courses taken) and the MFTB performance improvement.

Value-added assessment measurement is conceptually appealing (What did the student learn?), but difficult to execute as shown by this experiment. The first difficulty was the form of the MFTB changed during the study period. Thus, the raw score change was not an entirely appropriate measure of the improvement. This forced the creation of two alternative measures to show test score improvement, percentile change and z-score change. While seniors are required to take the test as part of the business policy course, securing the serious cooperation of sophomores to take a two-hour test is another difficulty encountered. In addition, many of the sophomores tested did not retake the exam as a senior. This adds to the expense of the study because each test costs approximately 25 dollars. The length of time required for the study is also problematic—fall 2000 to fall 2006. Curriculum and instruction are not static for this length of time and therefore it would be difficult to know what particular change contributed to the improvement. For value-added assessment using the MFTB to be a viable method for business schools these difficulties would need to be addressed.

Continued research in this area should include a larger sample where the sophomore participation could be randomly selected. Ideally, students would be initially tested before completing any business courses so the contribution of 200-level core courses could be measured. Furthermore, the investigation of the contribution of particular courses to the MFTB improvement could be an interesting line of research. However, due to the expense, time, and sampling problems of this type of study, a large scale MFTB value-added experiment is unlikely to occur.

REFERENCES

- Bycio, P. & J.S. Allen (2007). Factors Associated With Performance on the Educational Testing Service (ETS) Major Field Achievement Test in Business (MFT-B). *Journal of Education for Business*, 82 (4), 196-201.
- Bagamery, B.D., J.J. Lasik, & D.R. Nixon (2005). Determinants of Success on the ETS Business Major Field Exam for Students in an Undergraduate Multisite Regional University Business Program. *Journal of Education for Business*, 81 (1), 55-63.
- Educational Testing Service. (2000). *Major Field Tests—Comparative Data Guide and Descriptions of Reports includes Academic Year 1999-2000 Data*. Princeton, NJ: Author.
- Educational Testing Service. (2004). *Comparative Data 2001-2002 Table 2A*. Retrieved May 24, 2004 from http://www.ets.org/hea/mft/compare_data.html.
- Greene, C.S. & R. Zimmer (2003). An International Internet Research Assignment—Assessment of Value Added. *Journal of Education for Business*, 78 (3), 158-163.
- Jonas, P.M. & D. Weimer (1999). Non-traditional vs. Traditional Academic Delivery Systems: Comparing ETS Scores for Undergraduate Students in Business Programs, 1996-1999. *ERIC Collection of AIR Forum Papers*, 4-23.
- Jonas, P.M., D. Weimer & K. Herzer (2001). Comparison of Traditional and Nontraditional (Adult Education) Undergraduate Business Programs. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 28 (3), 161-170.
- Mahoney, J.W. (2004). Why Add Value in Assessment? *School Administrator*, 61(11), 16-18.
- Miller, M.S. (1999). Classroom Assessment and University Accountability. *Journal of Education for Business*, (Nov/Dec), 94-98.
- Novin, A.M., L.H. Arjomand & N. Finlay (October, 2004) Investigation of Factors Affecting Students Success in ETS Major Field Test for Business. Presented to the *Southeastern Chapter of the Institute for Operations Research and the Management Sciences*, Myrtle Beach, SC.
- Osigweh, C.A.B. (1985). Measuring Performance in a Business School. *Delta Pi Epsilon Journal*, 28 (2), 130-141.
- Rook, S.P., L.M. Lancaster, F.I. Tanyel, & W.R. Word (2002). Relationships Between Student Characteristics and Performance on the Major Field Test in Business. *Journal of Business and Training Education*, 11 (fall), 41-51.
- Rotondo, D.M. (2005). Assessing Business Knowledge. In Kathryn Martell and Thomas Calderon (Eds.), *Assessment of Student Learning in Business Schools: Best Practices Each Step of the Way* (pp. 82-102). Tallahassee, FL: AIR and AACSB International.
- Wathen, S.A. & R.D. Nale (2003). On-Going Experiences and Issues Involved in Curricular Assessment using the ETS Business Major Field Test. *Proceedings of the 39th Southeast Institute for Operations Research and the Management Sciences (SEInFORMS)*, 147-151.

MATHEMATICS AND ACADEMIC SUCCESS IN THREE DISCIPLINES: ENGINEERING, BUSINESS AND THE HUMANITIES

B. Brian Lee, Prairie View A&M University

Jungsun Lee, Prairie View A&M University

ABSTRACT

This study investigates the correlation between average grades in mathematics courses and academic success at college using students in three disciplines: engineering, business, and the humanities. Since the need for mathematical skills and knowledge varies from discipline to discipline, the paper expects that the relevance of mathematical skills and knowledge is limited to only those disciplines that require quantitative skills such as engineering and business. The empirical results of this study show that grades in mathematics courses are positively associated with the academic success of students in engineering and business, while such a positive association is not observed for students in the humanities.

INTRODUCTION

Mathematics has always been considered as one of the essential skills that students need to successfully complete a college education. Prior studies investigating the influence of mathematical knowledge and skills on academic performance have therefore focused primarily on students in quantitative subjects (Smith and Schumacher 2005). Such studies reveal a positive correlation between mathematical knowledge and academic success. However, high achievement in mathematics could simply represent one dimension of a student's overall intellectual capacity, as students who do well in one subject can easily excel in other fields. Thus, the relationship between achievement in mathematics and academic success may not be a causal one, but may be determined by other factors, such as the student's general academic commitment.

Accordingly, this study aims to investigate the association between grades in mathematics courses and the academic performance of students in different disciplines—engineering, business, and the humanities—in which the requirement of mathematical knowledge and skills varies. Engineering students need a strong mathematical background to succeed in the fields of their major, which are mostly quantitative; thus, mathematical skills and knowledge are a critical factor in the success of engineering students. Business subjects deal with both quantitative and qualitative topics, depending upon specialization. For example, management courses contain mostly qualitative subjects, while finance or accounting courses require quantitative skills to deal with business problems. Thus, most business programs require students to complete multiple mathematics courses including a statistics course. In general, however, business students are not required to complete a mathematics course beyond calculus. Finally, humanities students do not feel a need to take a mathematics course; thus, they usually complete one basic mathematics course that is required at the university level.

Subjects were randomly selected among students from these three disciplines – engineering, business, and the humanities – at one university in the South. Results from both engineering and business students show a significant association between grades in mathematics courses and success in the major, as well as general academic success. Accordingly, engineering and business students with advanced skills in mathematics would have a good chance at succeeding in college. Results from humanities students, on the other hand, do not show a significant association between grades in mathematics courses and general academic success. As the humanities curricula are comprised mostly of qualitative concepts, students' performance in mathematics courses does not indicate the academic success of their college program. As a result, a grade in a mathematics course represents the level of students' mathematical knowledge and skills, but not the overall level of their intellectual ability or academic commitment.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES

The literature review focuses on how students' knowledge and skills in mathematics can influence their academic success at college. Prior studies indicate that students' mathematical backgrounds positively influence their success in college. Nonetheless, these studies do not clarify whether students' mathematical backgrounds represent their proficiency in mathematics, the level of their commitment to academic performance, or the level of their intellectual capacity. Accordingly, this study seeks to extend prior studies by examining the effect of students' mathematical backgrounds on their college education in different academic disciplines: engineering, business, and the humanities. Since the need for mathematical skills varies from discipline to discipline, this study is able to provide answers regarding precisely how students' mathematical backgrounds positively influence their college education.

The need to acquire an advanced education has increased over the years. A century ago, an eighth grade education was sufficient for most fields of work; a high school diploma became the norm during the early twentieth century. At that time, many manufacturing companies provided decent jobs to high school graduates. For example, Delphi Corp., which filed for bankruptcy protection in 2005, paid an average wage of \$27 per hour in its United States (U.S.) factories to assembly-line workers with a high school education, compared to \$3 per hour to workers in its Chinese factories (Seeing the Forest, Oct. 20, 2005). In today's global village, merchandise and jobs flow from one country to another depending upon relative productivity. In order to compete with workers overseas, therefore, U.S. workers need to acquire higher levels of skills and technological knowledge through a college education (Crow 2006). Mathematics is considered as one of the important subjects that students need to successfully continue their education at an advanced level.

Historically, the U.S. has maintained one of the highest levels of mathematics education in the world; however, its global rank in mathematics has declined in recent years. For example, Riggins-Newby (2004) indicates that the performance in mathematics of U.S. high school students was scarcely better than that in South Africa and Cyprus, and far behind those in most other industrialized countries. The government has accordingly made efforts, such as the Bush administration campaign, "No Child Left Behind", and the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills test (TAKS), to improve academic knowledge and skills in major fields, including mathematics.

More students and parents are realizing the importance of a college education; the number of college students enrolled in the U.S. has gradually increased over the past three decades (Wirt *et al.* 2002). As the successful completion of a college education becomes important for individual young students as well as for

society as a whole, several studies have investigated the influence of students' mathematical knowledge on their success at college (Adelman 1999; Trusty and Niles 2003; Smith and Schumacher 2005; Tai *et al.* 2006). Adelman (1999) conducted a national longitudinal study from 1980 to 1993 and indicated two factors that contribute to the successful completion of a college degree: a) the quality of students' high school curricula and b) the continuity of students' college enrollment. In particular, finishing intensive high school mathematics courses was noted as the most important factor for degree completion. For example, when students completed one course beyond the algebra 2 level, such as trigonometry, pre-calculus, and calculus, their chances of completing a college degree doubled.

Continuing the work of Adelman, Trusty and Niles (2003) examined the effect of different backgrounds in mathematics on college education, using the longitudinal database from the eighth grade to eight years after high school. This study used four intensive courses in mathematics - algebra 2, trigonometry, pre-calculus, and calculus - while controlling several background factors such as gender, socio-economic status, race, and ethnicity. The findings of Trusty and Niles confirmed what Adelman had reported. Students who earn credits in intense mathematics courses have an increased likelihood of completing their college education; in addition, each of these four intensive courses proved to be an important factor in overall academic success. Thus, the benefit was cumulative.

Similarly, Tai *et al.* (2006) attempted to identify the factors that determine the final course grades of college students, and found that demographic and educational factors are both particularly significant. The educational factors included high school mathematics grades, Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores in mathematics, and the completion of a high school calculus course.

Smith and Schumacher (2005) further examined the relevance of students' mathematical backgrounds to their success in college by focusing on actuarial science courses. Smith and Schumacher (2005) reported that students' grade point averages in actuarial science courses were a function of SAT scores in mathematics, verbal SAT scores, percentile rank in their high school graduating class, and percentage scores on college mathematics placement exams. In addition, they found that the relative importance of these variables varied depending on gender. Verbal SAT scores were important for males, while SAT scores in mathematics were significant for females.

Nonetheless, no previous studies had examined how students' mathematical backgrounds positively influenced their college education. In the case of Smith and Schumacher, it is intuitive that students' mathematical knowledge has a positive effect on their academic success in actuarial science, in which concepts are expressed using mathematical notation. Other studies, however, did not clarify the relevance of mathematical knowledge to college courses (Adelman 1999; Trusty and Niles 2003; Tai *et al.* 2006). For example, courses in the humanities do not require extensive knowledge and skills in mathematics; in such courses, therefore, a strong mathematical background might in fact stand in for other student attributes, such as commitment to academic performance or overall intellectual capacity, rather than demonstrating a direct correlation with success in the humanities.

Based on the review of findings reported by prior studies, this study aims to further examine the influence of students' knowledge in mathematics on the success of their college education in the different academic disciplines of engineering, business, and the humanities. In engineering, mathematical notations function directly as a tool to address concepts or theories, but these notations could hardly be found in the course material of humanities subjects. Subjects in business represent a kind of hybrid between those in engineering and the humanities, as mathematical notations are selectively incorporated into subjects in

business. For example, finance courses use mathematical concepts to a great extent, while management courses are closely similar to those in the humanities. Accordingly, three testing hypotheses are stated:

- H1 For engineering students, a positive correlation exists between an average grade in mathematics courses and academic success at college.*
- H2. For business students, a positive correlation exists between an average grade in mathematics courses and academic success at college.*
- H3. For humanities students, a positive correlation exists between an average grade in mathematics courses and academic success at college.*

TESTING MODEL DEVELOPMENT

This paper adopts a causal-comparative method to provide empirical evidence with respect to the hypotheses proposed. Gay *et al.* (2006, p. 12) define causal-comparative research as an attempt "to determine the cause, or reason, for existing differences in the behavior or status of groups of individuals." Since the purpose of this study is to investigate a correlation between students' mathematics backgrounds and their academic success at college, the causal-comparative research design should be appropriate.

In the causal-comparative research design, academic success at college is measured using overall grade point average and major course grade point average, which are dependent variables. On the other hand, an average grade in college mathematics courses is an independent variable. The effect of students' mathematical knowledge on their academic performance is subject to other factors including college year, age, and gender (Trusty and Niles 2003; Tai *et al.* 2006). Thus, these factors serve as moderating variables that control the effect of an average grade in college mathematics courses on the academic success of college students. Two multi-variable regression models can be constructed for an empirical test (Menard 1995):

$$\text{GPAM} = b_0 + b_1 * \text{GRMATH} + b_2 * \text{CYEAR} + b_3 * \text{AGE} + b_4 * \text{G} + \epsilon \quad (1)$$

$$\text{GPA} = \lambda_0 + \lambda_1 * \text{GRMATH} + \lambda_2 * \text{CYEAR} + \lambda_3 * \text{AGE} + \lambda_4 * \text{G} + \mu \quad (2)$$

Where

GPAM	= grade point averages in major courses in a college curriculum.
GPA	= grade point averages at college.
GRMATH	= an average grade in mathematics courses at college.
CYEAR	= college year.
AGE	= age of a student.
G	= gender of a student.
b_0, λ_0	= intercepts.
b_{1-4}, λ_{1-4}	= parameters.
ϵ, μ	= disturbance terms.

Parameters, b_1 and λ_1 are the key variables for this study. If they are positive and statistically significant, then hypotheses are empirically supported that a grade in a mathematics course positively influences the academic success of students in their major field as well as at college.

SAMPLE SELECTION AND RESEARCH INSTRUMENTATION

The sample includes students from three different majors – engineering, business, and the humanities – at one state university in the South. Engineering students should be familiar with mathematical concepts to understand subjects in their major. On the other hand, mathematical knowledge might not be a serious concern for students in the humanities to complete courses in their major area. Accordingly, the correlation between students' mathematical backgrounds and their academic success could vary depending upon the nature of the courses they take.

In order to identify target subjects, we reviewed the course catalog and randomly chose three classes at junior or senior levels in the three academic programs. We then communicated with the instructors of the courses identified, and explained to them the purpose of the research project. With permission from the class instructor, we visited the classroom at a prescheduled time with fifty copies of our questionnaire and pencils. In the classroom, we briefly explained to students the purpose of the survey and how the survey would be performed. Then, we asked for their voluntary participation in the survey. The survey questionnaire was distributed to students who agreed to participate in the survey.

We developed a questionnaire to collect the data necessary to test our hypotheses (Appendix A). The first section of the questionnaire included questions addressing demographic and general information about subjects. The second section of the questionnaire included questions about grades earned in mathematics courses that are required in the subjects' curriculum. All students at the institution are required to complete at least one course in mathematics; thus, College Algebra is a required mathematics course for students in the humanities and business. Business students are required to take two additional courses in mathematics and one course in statistics. Engineering students should complete several courses in mathematics, depending upon their specialization, beyond Calculus I. The last section of the questionnaire included questions about the overall academic performance of the subjects, asking them to provide their grade point average for all courses as well as their grade point average in their major courses. Prior studies often adopted the grade point average of students as a proxy for their academic success at college (Sadler and Tai 2001).

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The classroom survey produced 165 responses from engineering, business, and humanities students. The final sample includes 154 usable responses, having eliminating 11 students who did not complete the survey questionnaire. The sample was divided into three groups of students: engineering (47), business (55), and humanities (52). Table I shows descriptive statistics. To simplify the display in Table I, responses on the survey questionnaire are codified. CYEAR is set to 1 for freshmen, 2 for sophomores, 3 for juniors, and 4 for seniors. G is set to 1 for males and 2 for females. GRMATH is set to 1 for Ds, 2 for Cs, 3 for Bs, and 4 for As. Most students in the humanities completed one mathematics course, while students in business and engineering completed more than one mathematics course. Accordingly, GRMATH represents the average grade for multiple mathematics courses taken by students in business and engineering. GPAM represents

grade point averages in courses that are required in the major curriculum. GPA represents cumulative grade point average.

Variable	Disciplines		
	Humanities	Business	Engineering
Number of students	47	55	52
CYEAR	2.7	2.5	3.0
G	1.5	1.4	0.9
Credit hours	92	85	109
Age	21.6	19.7	20.9
GRMATH	2.2	2.7	3.2
GPAM	3.3	2.8	2.9
GPA	2.9	3.0	3.3

Notes:

CYEAR = college year; freshmen is set to 1, sophomores to 2, juniors to 3, and seniors with 4.
G = gender; males are set to 1 and females to 2.
GRMATH = an average grade in math courses; Ds are set to 1, Cs to 2, Bs to 3, and As to 4.
GPAM: = GPAs in courses in the major curriculum.
GPA: = cumulative GPAs at college.

The majority of students who participated in the survey are at their junior level; the codified number ranges from 2.5 to 3.00. More female students are noted in humanities and business majors, but more male students are in engineering. Engineering students completed 109 credit hours on average, while business students completed 85 credit hours. Engineering students show a higher grade in mathematics courses (3.2) than do their counterparts in the humanities (2.2) and business (2.7). GPA indicates a similar trend. Nonetheless, students in the humanities show higher GPAM than do their counterparts in business and engineering.

Table II includes parameter estimates of the model using three sub-samples: engineering, business, and the humanities. Panel A in Table II includes empirical results for the model for engineering students. A parameter estimate on GRMATH is .516, which is statistically significant at the level of .01. For engineering students, there is a positive correlation between an average grade in mathematics courses and GPAM. Also, older students earn higher grades in their major field than do younger ones. The model shows its adjusted R^2 as .406, which represents a good explanatory power.

Panel B in Table II shows results of the regression model using the sample of business students. As shown in Panel A for engineering students, GPAM has a positive association with GRMATH, which is statistically significant at the level of .01. Moreover, female business students indicate a better academic performance in major courses than do male students. The model shows its adjusted R^2 as .307.

Table 2: Results from Regressing GPAM on GRMATH and Moderating Variables for Three Samples: Engineering, Business, and Humanities Students

GPAM = $b_0 + b_1*GRMATH + b_2*CYEAR + b_3*AGE + b_4*G + \epsilon$					
Panel A. Engineering Students					
Variable	Intercept	GRMATH	GYEAR	AGE	G
Parameter Estimate	3.136	.516	-.291	.245	.151
t-statistics	3.275***	4.857***	-1.086	1.682*	.211
Number of Observations: 47; Adjusted R ² : .406					
Panel B. Business Students					
Parameter Estimate	3.169	.240	-.159	-.178	.254
t-statistics	6.784***	2.821***	-.689	-.924	1.811*
Number of Observations: 55; Adjusted R ² : .307					
Panel C. Humanities Students					
Parameter Estimate	2.556	.041	-.163	-.316	.346
t-statistics	5.801***	.537	-.940	-1.711*	3.741***
Number of Observations: 52; Adjusted R ² : .192					
Notes:					
AGE	= age of a student.				
b ₀	= intercept.				
b ₁₋₄	= parameters.				
ε	= disturbance term.				
Other variables are as defined in previous tables,					
*	Statistically significant at the level of .1.				
**	Statistically significant at the level of .05.				
***	Statistically significant at the level of .01.				

Panel C in Table II shows results from the regression model using the sample of humanities students. In contrast, GRMATH is positively associated with GPAM, but the association is not statistically significant at the conventional level. As shown in Panels A and B, AGE and G have a positive effect on grades in humanities students' major courses.

In summary, when GPAM is regressed on GRMATH and other moderating variables, results for students in both engineering and business show a positive association, which is statistically significant at the conventional level. Results for humanities students demonstrate a positive association between GPAM and GRMATH which is not, however, significantly different from zero.

Table III shows the results from regressing GPA on GRMATH and moderating variables in order to investigate how an average grade point average in mathematics courses affects the academic performance of students in the three different disciplines of engineering, business, and the humanities. In Table II, the mathematical knowledge and skills of humanities students have no association with their academic performance in major courses, which do not require quantitative skills; we therefore extend this observation

using GPA. As students are required to complete a number of core and general education courses at their freshman and sophomore levels, even humanities students should complete a number of courses that would require quantitative skills to some extent. Thus, for humanities students, GPA might reflect more quantitative components than might GPAM.

Table 3: Results from Regressing GPA on GRMATH and Moderating Variables for Three Samples: Engineering, Business, and Humanities Students					
GPA = $\lambda_0 + \lambda_1 \text{GRMATH} + \lambda_2 \text{CYEAR} + \lambda_3 \text{AGE} + \lambda_4 \text{G} + \mu$					
Panel A. Engineering Students					
Variable	Intercept	GRMATH	GYEAR	AGE	G
Parameter Estimate	2.227	.612	-.391	.255	.098
t-statistics	2.978***	3.898***	-.985	1.791*	.186
Number of Observations: 47; Adjusted R ² : .501					
Panel B. Business Students					
Parameter Estimate	3.457	.429	-.259	-.099	.199
t-statistics	5.701***	3.011***	-.899	-.322	2.556**
Number of Observations: 55; Adjusted R ² : .331					
Panel C. Humanities Students					
Parameter Estimate	3.112	.214	-.211	-.201	.249
t-statistics	3.339***	1.566	-1.019	-.554	2.951***
Number of Observations: 52; Adjusted R ² : .193					
Notes:					
AGE:	age of a student.				
λ_0	intercept.				
λ_{1-4}	parameters.				
μ	disturbance term.				
Other variables are as defined in previous tables.					
*	Statistically significant at the level of .1.				
**	Statistically significant at the level of .05.				
***	Statistically significant at the level of .01.				

Panel A in Table III shows the results from regressing GPA on GRMATH for engineering students. Consistent with the results in Table II, these two variables are positively associated with each other and the association is statistically significant at the conventional level. Panel B in Table III reveals an association between GPA and GRMATH for business students, which is statistically significant at the conventional level. Thus, both engineering and business students indicate that grades in mathematics courses are an important indicator of their academic performance at college as well as in their major field.

Panel C in Table III shows an association between GPA and GRMATH for humanities students, which is positive but not statistically significant. For humanities students, an average grade in mathematics courses is not associated with grade point average in either GPAM or GPA.

In summary, grades in mathematics courses are an important indicator of the academic performance, in the major field as well as at college in general, for engineering and business students. Hypotheses I and II are thus empirically supported. Nonetheless, grade point average in mathematics courses is not an indicator of the general academic performance of humanities students. As a result, Hypothesis III cannot be empirically supported.

CONCLUSIONS

The importance of mathematical knowledge and skills cannot be overemphasized for success in college education. Nonetheless, prior studies are not clear about whether students' enhanced preparation in mathematics can be attributed to the background knowledge and skills directly related to degree courses taken at college, or to their overall commitment to academic success. Thus, this paper investigates the association between grades in mathematics courses with grade point average in major fields, as well as in overall achievement at college, using a sample selected from three disciplines: engineering, business, and the humanities. The three disciplines are chosen as representative groups in terms of the intensity of mathematics requirements in the curriculum. Engineering courses are considered as heavily quantitative-oriented subjects, while courses in the humanities are considered as heavily qualitative-oriented subjects. Business courses deal with both quantitative and qualitative subjects.

The empirical results indicate that a grade in mathematics courses is a relevant indicator of academic success for students in both engineering and business. The academic success of humanities students in both their major field and their overall college program is not related to their grades in mathematics courses. Thus, humanities students may not perceive a strong relevance of mathematical skills and knowledge to the successful completion of their college education.

As a result, the paper concludes that a grade in a mathematics course is an indicator of students' familiarity with mathematical notations, but may not be a proxy for students' commitment to academic success. This finding provides an important counseling implication. Mathematical skills and knowledge are not a necessary condition for success at college. Rather, both students and their academic counselors need to exercise cooperative efforts to identify fields that are aligned with the students' relative strength in quantitative and qualitative skills. The choice of an appropriate course of study based on such an analysis could improve the academic success of students at college.

REFERENCES

- Adelman, C. (1999). Answers in the tool box: Academic intensity, attendance patterns, and bachelor's degree attainment. <http://www.ed.gov/pubs/toolbox/title.html>. u.s. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.
- Crow, M.M. (2006). U.S. universities and global competition. *The Globalist*. Sept. 05. <http://www.theglobalist.com/storyid.aspx?StoryId=5552>.

- Gay, L.R., Mills, G.E., and Airasian, P. (2006). *Educational Research*. NJ: Pearson.
- Mandel, M. (2006). What's really propping up the economy. *BusinessWeek*. September 25, 55-62.
- Menard, S. (1995). *Applied Logistic Regression Analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA:Sage.
- Odell, P. and Schumacher, P. (1998). Attitudes towards mathematics and predictors of college mathematics grades: gender differences in a 4-year business college. *Journal of Education for Business*, 34-38.
- Riggins-Newby, C. (2004). Playing Mathematics with the Big Boys. *Principal*, 8.
- Sadler, P.M. and Tai, R.H. (2001). Success in introductory college physics: the role of high school preparation. *Science Education*, 111-36.
- Seeing the Forest. (2005). Radical economic restructuring: less than a generation away. Oct 20. http://www.seeingtheforest.com/archives/2005/10/radical_economi.htm
- Smith, R.M. and Schumacher, P.A. (2005). Predicting success for actuarial students in undergraduate mathematics courses. *College Student Journal*. 165-177.
- Tai, R. H., Sadler, P.M., Mintzes, J. (2006). Factors influencing college science success. *Journal of College Science Teaching*. 52-56.
- Trusy, J. and Niles, S.G. (2003). High-school mathematics courses and completion of the bachelor's degree. *Professional School Counseling*. December. 99-107.
- Wirt, J., Choy, S., Gerald, D., Provasnik, S., Rooney, P., Watanabe, S. (2002). *The condition of education 2002*. (NCES 2002-025). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

APPENDIX A
COLLEGE MATH GRADES AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Please read each survey question below and circle only one response on which you agree.

Section I. Personal Attributes

- a. Your status: 1) freshman, 2) sophomore, 3) junior or 4) senior
- b. Your gender: 1) male or 2) female
- c. The credit hours you have completed at the college level up to the present are:

- d. Your age: _____
- e. Your major: _____

Section II. College Math Backgrounds

- a. The name of the first mathematics course that is required in your curriculum:

- a.1. The grade of the course in a: 1) D 2) C 3) B 4) A
- b. The name of the second mathematics course that is required in your curriculum:

- b.1. The grade of the course in b: 1) D 2) C 3) B 4) A
- c. The name of the third mathematics course that is required in your curriculum:

- c.1. The grade of the course in c: 1) D 2) C 3) B 4) A

Section III. Academic Performance at College

1. The GPA in courses required for your major _____
2. The cumulative GPA at college: _____

Thank you for your participation in the survey.

Note: if you would like to learn the findings of this research project, please provide your e-mail address: _____

ATTRIBUTES OF EFFECTIVE BUSINESS TEACHERS

Earl Simendinger, The University of Tampa
Bella Galperin, The University Of Tampa
Daniel R. LeClair, AACSB International
A.G. (Tassos) Malliaris, Loyola University

ABSTRACT

AACSB International is an educational and accrediting institution, devoted to the promotion and improvement of higher education in business administration. A new effort by AACSB is the delivery of faculty training programs to elevate teaching effectiveness. This article describes the design, development and delivery of this curriculum. The objective and what the reader can expect to learn from this work is what are the most important attributes of effective business teachers. Incorporating these attributes into course design and delivery should lead to improvements in teaching effectiveness and student's evaluation scores, which results in students better prepared for the business field.

INTRODUCTION

AACSB International, The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business is a not-for-profit corporation of educational institutions, corporations and other organizations devoted to the promotion and improvement of higher education in business administration and management (AACSB, 2006). AACSB International has for many years; in order to fulfill this mission, focused their efforts on and developing relationships at the deans' level. The principal activity at this level being the accreditation process colleges' or universities can go through to achieve AACSB member recognition.

Recently, AACSB, with the support of their deans decided to initiate programs that penetrate deeper into their members' organizations. This new effort, underway is designed to develop and support activities of interest and value to teaching faculty. The first efforts took the form of a training program provided to faculty by faculty from AACSB membership. The driving force on this program was how to better extend AACSB excellence in teaching mission into the classroom. After a year of design and development this first program was offered on March 23-24, 2006. The title, "Attributes of Effective Business Teachers", was held at their world headquarters in Tampa, Florida. The seminar sold out and is now an ongoing offering in their list of annual seminar. The planning and research that drove the delivery of this first AACSB's faculty program, "Attributes of Effective Business Teachers", is the subject of this article (AACSB, 2006).

The objective and what the reader can expect to learn from this work is what are the most important attributes that create effective business teachers. By identifying the most important attributes, teachers can then incorporate them into their course design and delivery to improve their effectiveness in the classroom and elevate their student evaluations. The more effective the teacher the better prepared the student is for the business field they are being trained in.

BACKGROUND

A faculty member from an AACSB member university known to have had an interest in this topic was asked to take the lead and develop the curriculum and design the program. Letters were sent out from AACSB to several of their member deans to nominate their top business teacher to be considered to help with the curriculum, design and delivery. Several nominations were evaluated based on information sent on the candidates and telephone interviews. Three nominees were selected composing a team of four to develop and deliver the first program.

The team had several phone meetings to design the research strategy that would support the curriculum, establish learning objective and plan the program. The literature was reviewed as a start point and unearthed a variety of relevant work. This research was evaluated and provided the foundation for this effort. (Jennings, 2002; Serva & Fuller, 2004; J. Shaftel & T. Shaftel, 2005; Sims, 2004; Smith, 2003; Young, Klemz, & Murphy, 2003) It was clear that this new training program required more recent data that the research offered with reference to what attributes' produced effective business teachers. The research data were drawn from the four universities represented by the four faculty member composing the team. Students, faculty and administration members in the colleges of business were the sites where data was drawn to obtain the latest information. The data analysis effectively drove the curriculum and design as the program began taking shape. It took several months to refine the program. After the final design was set, marketing information was produced by AACSB and sent out to its members.

RATIONALE FOR EFFORT & INVESTIGATION TARGETS

Academic organizations are undergoing a process of change similar to there business counterpart. The velocity of change is driven by multiple factors. For one, globalization issues for all colleges and universities create a significant and ever expanding challenge to curriculums to stay competitive. According to AACSB's Management Education Task Force (2002), "All business schools are touched to one degree or another by the global business environment, the global marketplace for students, and the growing number of competitors in every continent" (p. 9). Colff (2004) agrees, "To ensure that management education is able to deal with global, technological and market changes, it is imperative for business schools to use appropriate curricula, course materials and teaching models that are not only up-to-date but also internationally competitive" (p. 500).

Secondly, the increased competition between and within universities both globally and domestically. More universities internally diversifying, creating more programs and moving into more satellite locations and distance learning are additional factors driving up the pace of changes and competition in academic organizations. Zupan (2005) explains this level of internal and external and international competition. "The overall pool of full-time MBA applications also has become more crowded because of heightened competition from schools overseas. Many overseas suppliers of full-time MBA degrees have earned AACSB accreditation over the last few decades, including the Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, the United Arab Emirates University, INCAE in Costa Rica, and the Cranfield School of Management in the United Kingdom. In fact, business schools compete not only with other business schools, but also with themselves. They have added many more dimensions to management education, including EMBA, part-time, online, and accelerated

one-year full-time programs, which serve as alternatives to the traditional, full-time, two-year MBA. Many schools even offer non-degree executive education” (p. 37).

Changes in technology have also affected all aspects of life as we know it, business education not withstanding. In an article for BizEd magazine, Bisoux (2003) quotes Dr. Fred Collopy, professor and chair of Case Western Reserve University’s Weatherhead School of Management in Cleveland, Department of Information Systems, who explains, “When technology removes your limits, the students expect you to have no limits” (p. 33). The increasing popularity of e-learning programs presents new challenges to faculty and traditional teaching approaches. As quoted in BizEd magazine by Bisoux (2002), Donna Spinella, Dean of the Cross-Continent MBA program at Duke University’s Fuqua School of Business points out, “One of the challenges that I think all schools are up against in this area lies in teaching the teachers” (p. 45).

Further, as employers seek to improve the value of their companies by investing in talented and flexible management staff, companies are continually improving their human capital to advance their competitive advantage. As a result, the business world exerts a significant amount of pressure on academic institutions to meet their changing human capital needs. Vant (2004) writes, “Business looks for the same potential in their employees that young people look for in their educational institutions - meeting quality standards of education; preparing students for a future employment landscape that will be continually changing; staying ahead of the curve in technology; and offering courses that lead to promising career opportunities” (p. 18). The new and expanding workplace requirements affecting business education is further supported by Friga, Bettis, and Sullivan (2003) who wrote, “Given the relationship between management education and the business world, market forces such as globalization, technological change, and new workplace requirements may affect business education more than any other branch of academia” (p. 233).

Another reason for the increasing speed of change is that students themselves, their changing makeup, demands, and expectations require different teaching attributes to be effective in today’s business classroom. In an article entitled, “Boomers & Gen-Xers and Millennials: Understanding the new students.”, Diana Oblinger (2003) examines the challenges facing higher education in America by describing the changing student demographic landscape, their expectations, and their “information-age mindset.” She argues that these changes will and do impact colleges and universities, “As a result, colleges and universities may find that understanding-and meeting the expectations of-the “new students” is important to their competitiveness” (p. 42). Vant (2004) on students’ expectations explains, “It is a competitive world, with changing demands. Young people rely on their institutions to assess those demands and build them into a flexible curriculum. There is a clear need to prepare students with the technical, cultural and social skills they will require throughout their professional careers” (p. 18-19).

As a result, if they are to remain competitive, universities must continuously update their business model and embedded curriculum to respond to the changing and expanding academic marketplace. Certainly the extent and pace of change has a direct effect on classroom curriculum, delivery methodology and course design. The exponential growth of knowledge, widening globalization and exploding instructional technology are all factors that require educators to investigate what attributes produce an effective teacher.

Therefore, this effort is to produce data that will begin to answer the question, what attributes in today’s academic marketplace and in particular in the business classroom produce effective teachers. The theory being, the more effective the teacher the better prepared the student is for tomorrow’s challenges, not yesterdays and the more competitive the school can make itself. The goal was to identify the most important attributes that create effective business teachers and are there similarities and/or differences in perceptions

between students, faculty and administrators? After identifying the most important attributes, teachers can then incorporate them into their course design and delivery to improve their effectiveness in the classroom and elevate their student evaluations.

LITERATURE REVIEW & ANALYSIS

Post-secondary institutions frequently offer programs and services to support teaching development. These programs often benefit from the expertise of education faculties, who through internal centers will offer services to other campus faculties. These services might include consultation on teaching approaches, personal development sessions, seminars on teaching effectiveness, video taping, and general consultative services. Utilization of these centers varies considerably depending on institutional commitment.

More recently, some institutions and schools have “disaggregated” the teaching process and hired professional staff to assume responsibility for instructional development. These internal resources play a more direct role in improving teaching effectiveness by complementing faculty “knowledge” with expertise about the learning process, supporting technologies, and instructional resources.

While the majority of teaching effectiveness seminars and workshops are “in house” in that they are offered by educational institutions and restricted to their own faculty, there are some “commercial” teaching seminars and workshops available to faculty members who are interested in enhancing their teaching effectiveness. First, instructors may attend the Master Teacher Program at Georgia State University. The course is offered to business instructors who are interested in improving university-level teaching. The four-day teaching workshop, offered once a year, includes topics such as effective teacher attributes, effective lecturing, and student learning styles. The registration cost is \$995 USD (Master Teacher Program, 2006).

The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) also offers a two-day teaching effectiveness seminar to business faculty who either want to continually improve their teaching or who are struggling in the classroom; faculty who are new to the classroom; faculty who want to update their skills in teaching innovations and technology; and Ph.D. students. The learning outcomes for the seminar include: learning methods for improving instructional effectiveness and assuring overall student achievement, with an emphasis on converting scholarship to practice; learning to actively engage students in the learning process, provide feedback, and encourage collaboration and cooperation; and, understanding how personality affects student/teacher interactions and student learning (AACSB, 2006). The cost is \$695 USD for members and \$795 USD for non-members.

The University of Georgia, Institute for Leadership Advancement offers faculty a three-day workshop on teaching leadership. Unlike the other two seminar/workshops above, this workshop is more specialized because it is targeted to faculty members who are interested in increasing the leadership component within their management courses. Some of the workshop objectives include: To consider various types of pedagogy for teaching leadership; To provide recommendations on course content; and to learn theories, concepts, and frameworks for teaching leadership (University of Georgia Institute for Leadership Advancement, 2006). The cost of the workshop is \$1,100 USD.

Central and East European Management Development Association (CEEMAN), an international management development association whose mission is to improving management development in Central and Eastern Europe, also offers a faculty development program called International Management Teachers Academy (IMTA). Some of IMTA objectives include: providing business faculty with the opportunity to

improve on educational methods, teaching tools and learning materials. The cost is Euro 1,200 for regular members and Euro 2,400 for non-members.

Finally, the International Institute for Management Development (IMD) offer a faculty development program which is designed to improve the faculty members' skills and understanding of a variety of teaching techniques, styles, methods, and format. The purpose of the program is to help faculty members to develop as a teacher and institutional innovator. The ten-month program includes two intensive, six-day residential modules in January and July (IMD, 2006). The cost is Euro 11,500.

BACKGROUND, LITERATURE REVIEW & ANALYSIS

The literature on teaching effectiveness has evolved over the years. Medley (1979) describes four stages of the evolution of teaching effectiveness. In the beginning, research largely focused on identifying the successful personality traits of effective teachers. Scholars then started to investigate the various teaching methods. An interest in the role of the classroom climate created by successful teachers then became the focus of interest. Finally, teaching effectiveness was viewed as the ability to master a given set of competencies. This approach to teaching effectiveness has largely remained the dominant approach until today.

The evaluation of a set of competencies, which include a teacher's skills, abilities, and techniques, can be conducted from several stakeholders, such as students, colleagues, administrators. In particular, student evaluations have received the most attention. A study by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching found that approximately 98% of universities use systematic student evaluations of classroom teaching, 82% consider self-evaluations or personal assessments, and 58% use peer review of classroom teaching (Magner, 1997).

These findings are similar to those of business schools. According to a survey, approximately 99% of business schools used some form of student evaluation of teaching as an input to evaluate teaching effectiveness (Comm & Mathaisel, 1998). Moreover, business school deans were more likely to place greater importance on student evaluations compared to administrative or peer evaluations of teaching.

Hooper and Page (1986) state that student questionnaires have been one of the most popular techniques to gather information of teaching effectiveness because of its low cost, ease in administration during a class period, anonymity, and standardization which allows for comparisons between faculty members over time. In addition, the increasingly popular student-oriented and student as customer approach to educational delivery in colleges and educational institutions has also contributed to the reliance of student evaluations of teacher effectiveness (Simpson & Siguaw, 2000).

Despite the widespread use of student questionnaires, many scholars have critiqued the central role of the student perspective in the evaluation of teaching effectiveness. Many scholars have been concerned about the weak positive relationship between student grades and teacher ratings (DuCette & Kenney, 1982; Howard & Maxwell, 1982). Research suggests that students who receive higher grades are more likely to evaluate their teachers more favorably. While some scholars have argued that this is a potential contamination effect, others have stressed it is not a concern due to the weak relationship.

The construct validity of teaching evaluation instruments has also been questioned. Langbein (1994) argued that if student ratings are valid, they should be associated with quality teaching. The literature, however, suggests that teaching effectiveness is related to many factors, including context and method (Abrami, D'Appolonia & Cohen, 1990). Since it is unclear what teaching evaluations are really measuring,

Langbein (1994) concluded that evaluations might simply be a popularity contest as opposed to a measure of overall quality of instruction. Supporters of the student perspective have argued that student evaluations are based on reasonably valid multidimensional measures (Marsh & Roche, 1997; McKeachie, 1997) and are moderately correlated with student learning (D'Apollonia & Abrami, 1997).

In an attempt to gain a better understanding of what students' value in their education, some studies have examined the expectations of students. Anderson and Miller (1997) argue that if the teacher meets the expectation of the students, the ratings will tend to be positive. On the other hand, if the teacher does not meet the expectations, rating will more likely be negative. Chonko, Tanner and Davis (2002) found that the most important factors that freshmen business students expected of their professors were: "Interesting", "Helps students", "communicates well" and "easy to talk to". Interestingly, few students expected "wants students to learn", "challenging" and "knowledgeable" as desirable qualities of their professors.

What Are The Attributes Of An Effective Business Teacher?

There have been a number of studies that have been interested in determining the main attributes of an effective teacher (e.g. Rice, Stewart, & Hujber, 2000; see Chonko et al., 2002 for a list of teaching dimensions). Centra (1977) states that the key attributes are: communication skills and speaking ability, favorable attitudes toward students, knowledge of the subject, good organization of the course and subject, fairness in examinations and grading, flexibility, encouragement of student thought, interest in and enthusiasm for subject, and preparation for class. In particular, the two attributes, enthusiasm and preparation for class, had a larger teaching value. Similarly, Hooper and Page (1986) found the following attributes were most highly correlated to teaching effectiveness among undergraduate commerce students: material was presented in a clear and well organized manner, instructor was well prepared, stimulated to think about the subject. The attributes that were least correlated with teaching effectiveness included, the instructor's availability outside of class, a positive environment for students' questions, and whether the instructor related the subject matter to the real world. Similarly, in Faranda and Clarke's (2004) qualitative study, students found rapport, delivery, fairness, knowledge and credibility, organization, and preparation to be important factors in the teaching effectiveness of marketing instructors.

Clayson (1999) has argued that the findings relating to the attributes of an effective teacher have been contradictory. For example, while both Greenwald (1997) and McKeachie (1997) found that class size, grades, grade expectations were important, Williams and Ceci (1997) and Clayson (1999) results suggest that the warmth supportiveness and personality of the teacher were key attributes. On the other hand, Bergman and Dobie (1999) found that accessibility was the main factor contributing to teaching effectiveness.

Researchers have also examined whether gender (e.g. Rutland, 1990; Tatro, 1995) and gender roles have an influence on student perceptions of teaching effectiveness (e.g. Kierstead, D'Agostino & Dill, 1988; Wheelless & Potorti, 1989). In general, the results have been contradictory and with exception of a couple of studies (e.g. Das & Das, 2001; Tierman & Rankin-Ullock, 1985), the majority of studies have used non-business school students. In Das and Das's study, male business students were more likely than female business students to choose a male as their best professor, and female students were more likely than male students to select a female as their best professor. In addition, male professors with low femininity scores and female professors who were gender-neutral were more often chosen by students as their best professors.

In addition, studies have examined whether teaching effectiveness is a function of whether the teacher speaks English as their native language. In Jacobs and Friedman's (1988) study, mixed results were found regarding the effect of foreign/native teaching assistants on student learning. Students evaluations of teaching was significantly lower for foreign teaching assistants compared to native teaching assistants in finite math, one of the four courses. Bosshardt and Watts (2001) found instructors' preparation for class, speaking ability and enthusiasm as important attributes of teaching effectiveness for instructors who spoke English as their native language, while grading rigor was more important for instructors who spoke English as a second language.

Finally, there have been an increasing number of studies which have examined the attributes of teaching effectiveness within a global context. While the majority of studies have been conducted in North America, researchers are beginning to examine teaching effectiveness in variety of different countries. In Petridou and Sarri's (2004) case study of teaching effectiveness in Greece, expected course grade, student study hours, course difficulty, instructor grading system, student's major discipline and reason to take the course, instructor gender and employment factors had an influence on student evaluations of teaching effectiveness. Due to the increase of distance-learning MBAs in Asia and Western-type MBAs in Asia, Thompson (2002) examined the important aspects of an MBA teacher. The results suggest that Chinese MBA students believe that teaching abilities, such as abilities to stimulate new ways of thinking, stimulate questions from students, and class discussion were major factors in contributing to the effectiveness of an MBA instructor. While much of the literature above sheds light on the attributes of teaching effectiveness in general, there has been limited research on the perspective of teaching effectiveness among business students. Our research examines both quantitative and qualitative responses of business students from four universities.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY PROCESS - AACSB SEMINAR DEVELOPMENT

Focus Groups

Several focus groups were formed composed of academic administrators, faculty and students. The members in each group were asked what quality or characteristic inherent in or ascribed by a teacher were most closely associated with teaching effectiveness.

Focus Groups Data Analysis

The focus groups data were used to design a verity of questions to examine the observations of administrators, faculty and students in three categories, 1) class delivery, 2) class preparation and design, 3) instructor traits and personal characteristics.

Questionnaire

Twenty nine questions were fashioned within the three categories. Additional data categories were included to produce a more comprehensive picture. Those categories included: name of the respondent's educational institution, gender, occupation, the student's program level [undergraduate, masters, or PhD, other], and, if a student, when will they receive their business degree. Two open-ended questions were

included in the survey. The first, “please write in any attributes missing from these lists that you believe are required for effective teaching”. There were 222 responses to this question. The second, “describe in your own words the teacher who has had the most positive effect on you and why.” There were a surprising 730 responses to this question! [Appendix # 1 survey].

Distribution

The questionnaire was distributed to all business students at four Universities; Belmont University, Loyola University Chicago, Texas A&M University and The University Of Tampa.

Sample Demographics

Total survey respondents measured 1,042. Gender was split with male at 423 responses (41%) and female at 617 (59%). Students accounted for 959 of the responses (92%), faculty provided 71 answers (7%), but unfortunately only 12 administrator (1%) responded and was too small to utilize. Undergraduates composed 756 responses (79%), masters level students accounted for 199 (21%), no PhD responded, and others accounted for 7 responses (1%).

DATA PRESENTATION

Having just described the research methodology in the previous section, we now present the responses of students (both graduate and undergraduate), faculty and administrators from the four participating institutions. The data collected are organized in several tables that cannot all be included in this article because of space limitations. Recall from the discussion above that the survey collects data by several dimensions: *Categories of Teaching Effectiveness* ((a) Class Delivery, (b) Class Preparation and (c) Instructor Traits and Personal Characteristics); *Sex of Respondents* ((a) male and (b) female); *Category of Respondents* ((a) Administrators, (b) Faculty and (c) Undergraduate and Graduate students); and *Participating Institutions* ((a) Belmont University, (b) Loyola University Chicago, (c) Texas A&M University, and (d) University of Tampa). More than 50 Tables can be constructed each highlighting specific responses. The challenge in this section is to select both a concise and representative sample that will offer an unambiguous understanding of all the information collected.

The criteria for selecting the three Tables in this section are described in the two key questions driving both the survey and this paper: First, what are the most important attributes of effective business teachers? Second, are there similarities and/or differences between students, faculty and administrators, or among the four participating universities?

Table 1 ranks 29 Attributes in order of significance that all 1042 respondents identified as most important. The key insight in Table 1 is not the long list of 29 attributes but the fact that it integrates the significance of teacher, knowledge of the subject and student learning. These three dimensions form an undivided wholeness. An effective teacher is one who has mastered his or her field of expertise to the point that he or she can explain difficult concepts with clarity giving numerous examples and inviting questions and discussion because as a successful teacher he or she is interested in cultivating an enjoyable student learning environment.

Notice that the value of Table 1 comes when the attributes ranked are viewed as complementary rather than competitive. For example an effective teacher is one who both illustrates current knowledge (ranked 9) and also is well-prepared (ranked 7) rather than one who as a teacher he or she is approachable (ranked 9) but has no passion and enthusiasm about teaching (ranked 10). Observe also that as the cliché goes “we teach who we are, not just a subject matter”. Excellent teachers are fair (ranked 2), well-prepared (ranked 7), approachable (ranked 9), passionate (ranked 10), well-organized (ranked 13) and many other such as accessible, flexible, self-confident and professional.

To extract further information from Table 1, consider grouping the 29 attributes into six categories preserving the rankings as follows:

- Group 1: The first 5 most important attributes include:
- ◆ Illustrates current knowledge of the subject matter;
 - ◆ Is fair when dealing with students;
 - ◆ Creates an atmosphere where students are comfortable asking question;
 - ◆ Provides information that is worthwhile and applicable to students;
 - ◆ Provides practical examples and applications;

Teachers who want to improve their effectiveness as teachers can learn a lot from this first group of attributes. The first message is loud and clear: One needs to be current. You cannot use an outdated textbook, old notes and exams or even old cases even if they are classic. You need to take time to read the current business periodicals and use recent illustrations. You need to make the course relevant to the latest developments. But this is only part of the story. Only slightly less important is that the teacher should be fair. This usually means the teacher is neither too demanding to the point of discouraging learning nor too lenient to the point of decreasing the challenge to learn and grow.

The second group contains the following attributes:

- ◆ Communicates and presents material in a way that is easy to learn;
- ◆ Is well-prepared;
- ◆ Is sincerely interested in student learning;
- ◆ Is approachable –both in and outside the classroom;
- ◆ Is passionate and enthusiastic about teaching.

This group of attributes reinforces the first one. We can say that the first one is about the teacher who has current knowledge and is fair. The second group of attributes says that a great teacher is one who communicates his or her knowlegde well and who is excited about student learning.

We may proceed in a similar fashion to form three more groups (two groups of 5 attributes and the last group of only 4 attributes). The reflective reader will note that each group contains attributes about the subject matter, the personal traits of the instructor and the relationship between the teacher and the student. Great teachers know a lot of fresh and relevant information, demonstrate great joy in their knowledge, want to transmit such knowledge effectively to their students and take the time to communicate to their students that their learning matters to the instructor.

A second way to organize the 29 attributes listed in order in Table 1 is to bundle these attributes into 3 categories describing (a) the teacher, (b) the student and (c) the subject matter. These categories are not mutually exclusive. It is not surprising that the majority of these attributes describe the teacher. For example, a great teacher is one who creates an atmosphere where students are at ease asking questions, provides practical examples, is well-prepared, approachable, passionate, organized, accessible, flexible, self-confident, professional and is an effective researcher. The students value fairness, asking questions, effective communication, genuine teacher interest in student learning, being engaged in learning, receiving regular feedback and having a positive rapport with the teacher. The attributes describing the subject matter are fewer. The subject matter should be current, illustrated with practical examples and it meets course objectives.

In conclusion, Table 1, summarizes 29 attributes identified by 1042 respondents looking at these attributes from several different perspectives. These 29 attributes can further be summarized as: know your subject matter well and skillfully transmit it to your students with passion and enthusiasm. Remember that our students are equally impressed with both what we teach and who we are. Actually, who we are is much more important than what we know. Great teachers distinguish themselves, most often, not by knowing more than others, but by being able to communicate their knowledge effectively and by demonstrating a genuine interest in their students' learning.

Question	Frequency %	Ranking
Illustrates current knowledge of the subject matter	84	1
Is fair when dealing with students	81	2
Creates an atmosphere where students are comfortable asking questions	79	3
Provides information that is worthwhile and applicable to students	79	4
Provides practical examples and applications	76	5
Communicates and presents material in a way that is easy to learn	75	6
Is well-prepared	73	7
Is sincerely interested in student learning	72	8
Is approachable - both in and outside the classroom	70	9
Is passionate and enthusiastic about teaching	69	10
Is passionate and enthusiastic about subject matter	68	11
Keep students engaged	66	12
Is organized	62	13
Sets expectations about the grading contract up front	61	14
Is accessible - both in and outside the classroom	61	14
Regularly gives clear and constructive feedback to students	56	16
Achieves a positive rapport with students	56	16

Question	Frequency %	Ranking
Challenges students to think	53	18
Sets expectations about course content	52	19
Encourages students to excel and set high standards	50	20
Is able to teach to different levels and experiences	50	20
Is flexible	49	22
Is self-confident	44	23
Is professional	43	24
Meets course objectives	41	25
Is effective at selling the values of the class	31	26
Uses diverse teaching and delivery mechanisms	30	27
Is an effective researcher	22	28
Incorporates research into classroom learning	18	29

Table 2 collects the responses by participating institutions. One might have expected the survey participants from a large state university such as Texas A&M University to differ in their views about teaching effectiveness from those of a large private Jesuit university such as Loyola University Chicago. Furthermore, differences also might be expected to arise between larger research-oriented universities such as Texas A&M University or Loyola University Chicago and universities dedicated to teaching excellence such as the University of Tampa and Belmont University. The remarkable evidence in Table 2 is that assessing the significance of attributes of teaching effectiveness is not influenced by students, faculty and administrators who belong to different institutions.

Some minor differences emerge from a careful reading of Table 2. For example, in Texas A&M University, with much larger class sizes than say Loyola University Chicago, students are more concerned with issues of fairness. One can easily imagine concerns of fairness for an average student in a 600 student sophomore class in principles of economics or accounting at Texas A&M University where grades are assigned on the basis of multiple choice exams curved in some way. Such grading often appears unfair to students. On the other hand in much smaller classes of 25-45 students, say at Loyola University Chicago or the University of Tampa, issues of fairness are not as significant since instructors both know their students better and also do not apply strict curved grading.

Another interesting difference arises between Belmont and Loyola University Chicago vs. University of Tampa and Texas A&M University with regard to the third overall ranked attribute referring to the creation of an atmosphere that encourages asking questions. Students from both Belmont and Loyola give much higher value to this attribute (ranked second by both) than students at Tampa and Texas A&M.

Question	Overall Results 1054	Belmont 267	Loyola 304	Texas A&M 239	U of Tampa 234
Illustrates current knowledge of the subject matter	1	1	1	1	1
Is fair when dealing with students	2	3	4	1	2
Creates an atmosphere where students are comfortable asking questions	3	2	2	6	6
Provides information that is worthwhile and applicable to students	3	5	3	4	3
Provides practical examples and applications	5	7	5	5	5
Communicates and presents material in a way that is easy to learn	6	9	7	3	4
Is well-prepared	7	11	6	7	7
Is sincerely interested in student learning	8	4	9	9	8
Is approachable - both in and outside of the classroom	9	8	11	8	9
Is passionate and enthusiastic about teaching	10	6	8	10	11

In conclusion, despite some minor differences across the four universities, such differences are not sufficient to challenge the importance of the uniformity of attributes across participating institutions.

Table 3 ranks the top attributes of effective teachers as evaluated by students and faculty. We also have data from Administrators but they are similar to those of faculty and there is no reason to also report them separately. Table 3 clearly illustrates that students and faculty view attributes of teaching effectiveness differently. At least five differences are worth identifying.

Question	Students	Faculty
Illustrates current knowledge of the subject matter	1	3
Is fair when dealing with students	2	5
Provides information that is worthwhile and applicable to students	3	5
Creates an atmosphere where students are comfortable asking questions	4	5
Communicates and presents material in a way that is easy to learn	5	19
Provides practical examples and applications	6	13
Is sincerely interested in student learning	7	4
Is well-prepared	8	1

**Table 3: Comparative Ranking of Most Important Attributes
Between Students and Faculty In All Categories**

Question	Students	Faculty
Is approachable - both in and outside of the classroom	9	16
Is passionate and enthusiastic about teaching	10	10
Keep students engaged	11	18
Is passionate and enthusiastic about subject matter	12	8
Is organized	13	10
Is accessible - both in and outside of the classroom	14	22
Sets expectations about the grading contract up-front	15	15
Achieves a positive rapport with students	16	24
Regularly gives clear and constructive feedback to students	17	20
Is able to teach to different levels and experiences	18	23
Is flexible	19	25
Challenges students to think	20	2
Sets expectations about course content	21	14
Encourages students to excel and set high standards	22	8
Is self-confident	23	21
Is professional	24	17
Meets course objectives	25	12
Is effective at selling the value of the class	26	26
Uses diverse teaching and delivery mechanisms	27	28
Is an effective researcher	28	27
Incorporates research into classroom learning	29	29

First, faculty members assess being well-prepared as the most significant attribute. Students however, rank illustrating current knowledge of the subject matter as the highest ranked attribute. Knowing this comparative emphasis, teachers can easily improve their rankings by incorporating current awareness of business developments to their lecture preparation. In other words, since teachers value being well-prepared, which usually means to review the chapter, know the answers to assigned problems and cover the required topics, going one step further by keeping abreast of recent business developments and presenting them as relevant illustrations of the subject matter covered can go a long way to both instruct and impress students.

Second, students favor fairness much higher than faculty. It is safe to say that professors give higher priority often to their subject matter than their students while students take it for granted that teachers are knowledgeable and search to see if their teachers are fair and supportive. Again, if teachers know that fairness

ranks as second from the top among a long list of attributes, they can easily address it and thus raise their teaching effectiveness.

Third, it is remarkable that teachers rank as second from the top the attribute of challenging students to think. Numerous teachers attempt to follow the Socratic method by asking rhetorical questions and skillfully guiding students to self-discovery. Yet, this highly prized skill of famous teachers is not valued appropriately by students who actually ranked it at the bottom.

Fourth, students like practical examples. They rank the attribute of giving practical examples as 6th while teachers value it less and rank it as 13th. Teachers can improve their teaching rankings by taking the time to give practical examples.

Fifth, students like a teacher who is approachable – both in and outside of the classroom. Teachers, valuing their privacy do not rank this attribute very high.

Greater disparity between students and faculty highlights this contrast revealed in Table 3. The great value of Table 3 comes from the simple realizations that in the holistic approach to teaching that incorporates, students, teachers and subject matter the two key groups, that is students and teachers naturally view the teaching experience from their own perspective. Students want to learn current knowledge communicated effectively with practical examples from fair teachers while teachers want to be well-prepared and challenge their students to think. To reduce the gap between teacher and student assessments we need to be reminded of what Carl Jung, the great psychiatrist once said: “One looks back with appreciation to the brilliant teachers, but with gratitude to those who touched our human feelings. The curriculum is the necessary raw material, but warmth is the vital element for the growing plant and for the soul of the young student” (1943).

To summarize, these 3 tables present a coherent picture. The attributes of teaching effectiveness range across teachers, subject matters and students. The learning experience is integrative and requires a holistic approach. This result is not challenged by participating universities. It is not even challenged by the respondents when divided as students and teachers, although each group is partial to their own perspective. However in this holistic approach to teaching excellence the most significant component is the personality of the teacher. Teachers who have the skill to transfer knowledge effectively, who communicate easily with their students and give numerous practical examples, who keep their students engaged in the learning process and show passion for their discipline and their teaching, such teachers easily outperform their colleagues.

Peter Drucker once remarked: “Teaching is the only major occupation for which we have not yet developed tools that make an average person capable of competence and performance. In teaching we rely on the “naturals,” the ones who somehow know how to teach” (1992). Our survey and this article, clearly identify the skills needed by teachers to succeed as successful professionals).

DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

We must exercise care in applying the data. In the core study we were mainly interested in exploring perceptions about the attributes of effective teachers. The data do not tell us, for example, how to behave given the relative importance placed on each of the attributes. However, we can draw important insights along three dimensions to contribute to more effective teaching.

Which Attributes To Focus On?

It's probably rare that a teacher demonstrates all of the attributes in their teaching. What matters is for individuals to understand how the rankings map against their strengths and weaknesses as a teacher. Student rankings of attributes can provide a basis for critical self assessment and help a teacher to prioritize areas for development. By understanding the relative importance of various attributes, faculty members may evaluate their teaching philosophy and create a development plan. For example, a teaching philosophy built on the premise of fairness, application, and creating an environment in which students are comfortable asking questions may have greater value than a philosophy built on challenging students, setting high expectations, and meeting course objectives. This point should not diminish the importance of these attributes, it merely informs the development process.

Alternatively, the knowledge that diverse teaching and delivery methods are ranked near the bottom in importance by students and faculty alike may lead a faculty member to develop strengths in a particular approach rather than multiple approaches.

Understanding Differences

Effective teachers internalize the differences in how student perceptions regarding teaching differ from their own. For example, despite the importance teachers often place on challenging students to think and excel by setting high standards, such attributes are significantly lower in importance to students than other attributes. A faculty member that takes pride in incorporating their research into the classroom may be surprised to learn that students and their faculty colleagues rank the attribute significantly lower in importance. Similarly, the high importance students place on applications of theory can motivate a teacher to approach teaching in different ways.

Informing AACSB Standards And Guidelines

AACSB standards emphasize currency in evaluating the qualifications of faculty. Although further exploration is necessary, it is interesting to note that both students and faculty view the importance of incorporating research into teaching at the opposite extreme from current knowledge of the subject matter. It seems that general knowledge is most relevant and important as an attribute, while research has become narrowly focused and tends to emphasize methodology.

This study also provides insight into importance of faculty student interaction. As mentioned earlier, the complementary nature of faculty knowledge, preparation, and delivery supports a broader view of faculty qualifications in teaching undergraduate and masters level students.

RATIONALE FOR FURTHER STUDY

The current study was motivated by the desire to illuminate the topical setting for the AACSB Teaching Effectiveness Seminar. Several limitations prevent more formal conclusions. First, it does not provide information about observed behaviors that relate to the attributes. To move from understanding to practice in developing teaching effectiveness, we must more fully understand how the attributes translate into

practice and perception. What can a professor do to demonstrate current knowledge of the subject matter in a course setting? How do students generally perceive fairness in classroom context—treating everyone the same way or differently depending on individual circumstances?

Second, we must more fully understand how these attributes correlate with teaching effectiveness. It is one thing to rank attributes based on opinions and quite another to discover which attributes explain variations in effectiveness. The authors plan to conduct a more comprehensive study of business school graduates that includes ratings of overall teaching effectiveness in the programs from they graduated. Although this study won't provide a definitive answer regarding actual effectiveness, it will generate insight into role that the attributes play in understanding student perceptions regarding effectiveness.

Future studies must more carefully delineate any sources of differences across response groups. Initial evidence suggests that the characteristics of schools do not play a significant role. However, we must study the role of gender, student success, and other individual characteristics in defining the importance of various attributes.

Finally, a larger randomized sample of institutions should be surveyed to enhance the data collection. The larger study sample will allow one to apply statistical tools to see what correlations exist in the students' and faculties perceptions of attribute that produced effective business teachers. Pursuing further studies along the lines described above will help to integrate results with previous studies, as well as provide additional insights into teaching development. It will help shape the curricula of teaching development programs for business faculty.

REFERENCES

- AACSB, Management Education Task Force. (2002). *Management education at risk: Report of the management education task force to the AACSB International Board of Directors*. Retrieved September 2, 2006, from <http://www.aacsb.edu/publications/metf/METFReportFinal-August02.pdf>.
- AACSB (2006). About Us. Retrieved from <http://www.aacsb.edu/aboutus.asp> on August 29, 2006.
- AACSB (2006). Conferences and seminars: Teaching effectiveness seminar. Retrieved from <http://www.aacsb.edu/conferences/events/seminars/tes-jul-06-desc.asp> on May 22, 2006.
- Abrami, P.C., D'Appolonia, S. & Cohen, P.A. (1990). Validity of student ratings of instruction: What we know and what we do not. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 219-231.
- Anderson, K. & Miller, E.D. (1997). Gender and student evaluations of teaching. *PS*, 30, 216- 219.
- Bergman, M. & Dobie, K. (1999). The interactive video learning environment and teaching evaluations-Teachers may never have to leave their campus but they must "go the extra mile". *Marketing Education Review*, 9, 21-27.
- Bisoux, T. (2002). The e-learning equation. *BizEd*, Retrieved September 7, 2006, from <http://www.aacsb.edu/publications/Archives/July-Aug02/p40-45.pdf>
- Bisoux, T. (2003). Smarter, faster, better. *BizEd*, Retrieved September 7, 2006, from <http://www.aacsb.edu/publications/Archives/Jan03/p28-33.pdf>

-
- Bosshardt, W. & Watts, M. (2001). Comparing student and instructor evaluations of teaching. *Journal of Economic Education*, 32, 3-17.
- CEEMAN (2006). Upcoming seminars and workshops. Retrieved from <http://www.ceeman.org/Events/Seminars.html> on May 22, 2006.
- Centra, J.A. (1977). *Determining faculty effectiveness*. Jossey-Bass Inc.
- Chonko, L.B., Tanner, J.F. & Davis, R. (2002). What are they thinking? Students' expectations and self-assessments. *Journal of Education for Business*, 77, 271-281.
- Clayson, D.E. (1999). Students' evaluations of teaching effectiveness: Some implications of stability. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 21, 68-75.
- Colff, L. (2004). A new paradigm for business education: the role of the business educator and business school. *Management Decision*, 42, 499. Retrieved 9-1-06, ABI/INFORM Global database. (Document ID: 640555481).
- Comm, C.L. & Mathaisel, D. F. (1998). Evaluating teaching effectiveness in America's business schools: Implications for service marketers. *Journal of Professional Services Marketing*, 16, 163-170.
- D'Apollonia, S. & Abrami, P. (1997). Navigating student ratings of instruction. *American Psychologist*, 52, 1198-1208.
- Das, M. & Das, H. (2002). Business students' perceptions of best university professors: Does gender role matter? *Sex Roles*, 9/10, 665-676.
- Drucker, Peter. (1992). Reflections of a social ecologist. *Society*, Volume 29, Number 4 / May 57-64.
- DuCette, J. & Kenney, J. (1982). Do grading standards affect student evaluations of teaching? Some new evidence on an old question. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 308-314.
- Faranda, W.T. & Clarke, I. III. (2004). Student observations of outstanding teaching: Implications for marketing educators. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 26, 271-281.
- Friga, P. N., Bettis, R. A., & Sullivan, R. S. (2003). Changes in graduate management education and new business school strategies for the 21st century. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 2, 233. Retrieved September 1, 2006, ABI/INFORM Global database. (Document ID:431522871).
- Greenwald, A. (1997). Validity concerns and usefulness of student ratings of instructors. *American Psychologist*, 52, 1182-1186.
- Hooper, P. & Page, J. (1986). Measuring teaching effectiveness by student evaluation. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 1, 56-64.
- Howard, G.S. & Maxwell, S.E. (1982). Do grades contaminate student evaluations of instruction? *Research in Higher Education*, 175-188.

- IMD (2006). The international teachers programme: Developing high performance business educators.
- Jacobs, L.C. & Friedman, C.B. (1988). Student achievement under foreign teaching associates compared with native teaching associates. *Journal of Higher Education*, 59, 551-563.
- Jennings, D. (2002). Strategic management: An evaluation of the use of three learning methods. *Journal of Management Development*, 21 (9), 655-665. Retrieved December 13, 2005 , from PsycINFO® Database with Full Text database. (Document ID: 200208226002).
- Jung, Carl. (1943). Swiss psychiatrist. *The Gifted Child*, (1943; reproduced in *Collected Works*, Volume 17, paragraph 249, edited by William McGuire, 1954)
- Kierstead, D., D'Agostino, P. & Dill, H. (1988). Sex role stereotyping of college professors: Bias in students' ratings of instructors. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80, 342-344.
- Langbein, L.L. (1994). The validity of student evaluations of teaching. *PS*, 27, 545-553.
- Magner, D. K. (1997). Report says standards used to evaluate research should also be used for teaching and service. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 44, A18-A19.
- Marsh, H.W. & Roche, I.A. (1997). Making students' evaluations of teaching effectiveness effective. *American Psychologist*, 52, 1187-1197.
- Master Teacher Program (2006). Improving university-level teaching and learning. Retrieved from <http://www.masterteacherprogram.com/> on May 22, 2006.
- McKeachie, W.J. (1997). Student ratings: The validity of use. *American Psychologist*, 52, 1218-1225.
- Medley, D.M. (1979). The effectiveness of teachers. In P.L. and H.J. Walberg, Eds. *Research on Teaching: Concepts, Findings, and Implications* (pp. 11-27). McCutchan Publishing Corp.
- Oblinger, D. (2003). Boomers & gen-xers & millennials: understanding the new students. *EDUCAUSE Review*, 38, 36. Retrieved September 1, 2006, Retrieved September 2, 2006 from <http://www.educause.edu/ir/library/pdf/ERM0342.pdf#search=%22Boomers%20%26%20Gen-Xers%20Millennials%3A%20Understanding%20the%20new%20students%22>
- Petridou, E. & Sarri, K. (2004). Evaluation research in business schools: students' rating myth. *The International Journal of Educational Management*, 18, 152-159.
- Rice, R.E., Stewart, L.P. & Hujber, M. (2000). Extending the domain of instructional effectiveness assessment in student evaluations of communication courses. *Communications Education*, 49, 253-266.
- Rutland, P. (1990). Some considerations regarding teaching evaluation. *Political Science Teacher*, 3, 1-2.

-
- Serva, M., & Fuller, M. (2004). Aligning what we do and what we measure in business schools: incorporating active learning and effective media use in the assessment of instruction. *Journal of Management Education*, 28(1), 19-38. Retrieved December 13, 2005, from ABI/INFORM Global database. (Document ID:533426221).
- Shaftel, J., & Shaftel, T. (2005). The influence of effective teaching in accounting on student attitudes, behavior, and performance. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 20(3), 231-246. Retrieved December 13, 2005, from ABI/INFORM Global database. (Document ID: 892912921).
- Simpson, P.M. & Siguaw, J.A. (2000). Student evaluations of teaching: An exploratory study of the faculty response. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 22, 199-213.
- Sims, R. (2004). Business ethics teaching: using conversational learning to build an effective classroom learning environment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 49(2), 201-211. Retrieved December 13, 2005, from ABI/INFORM Global database. (Document ID: 576706521).
- Smith, G. F. (2003). Beyond critical thinking and decision making: teaching business students how to think. *Journal of Management Education*, 27(1), 24 (28 pp.). Retrieved December 13, 2005, from ABI/INFORM Global database. (Document ID:279144411).
- Tatro, C.N. (1995). Gender effects on student evaluations of faculty. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 28, 169-173.
- Thompson, E.R. (2002). Chinese perspectives on the important aspects of an MBA teacher. *Journal of Management Education*, 26, 229-258.
- Tierman, C. & Rankin-Ullock, B. (1985). Student evaluations of teachers: An examination of the effect of sex and field study. *Teaching Sociology*, 12, 177-191.
- University of Georgia Institute for Leadership Advancement (2006). Workshop on Teaching Leadership.
- Vant, T. R. (2004). Business: partners for smarter education. *Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. The OECD Observer*, 18-19. Retrieved 9-2-06, ABI/INFORM Global database. (Document ID:639983651).
- Wheless, V.E. & Potorti, P.E. (1989). Student assessment of teacher masculinity and femininity: A test of sex role congruency hypothesis on student attitudes toward learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81, 259-262.
- Williams, W.M. & Ceci, S.J. (1997). How'm I doing? Problems with students' ratings of instructors and courses. *Change*, 29, 12-23.
- Young, M., Klemz, B., & Murphy, J. (2003). Enhancing learning outcomes: The effects of instructional technology, learning styles, instructional methods, and student behavior. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 25(2), 130-142. Retrieved December 13, 2005, from ABI/INFORM Global database. (Document ID:382493781).
- Zupan, M. (2005). Angling for applicants. *BizEd*, Retrieved September 7, 2006, from <http://www.aacsb.edu/publications/Archives/mayjune05/p34-39.pdf>

APPENDIX

Launch Date	10/10/2005 - 12:11 PM
Modified Date	10/14/2005 - 2:01 PM
Close Date	
Email Invites	0
Visits	1180
Partials	0
Completes	920

Go to Individual Complete Responses:

Show respondent's emails.

INCLUDED RESPONSES

EXCLUDED RESPONSES

920
Included Respondents:

0
Excluded Respondents:

- [Cross Tabulate](#)
Cross reference multiple questions
- [Download Results](#)
Receive results in spreadsheet format



Responses: Completes only Partials only Completes & Partials

What is the name of the educational institution with which you are CURRENTLY affiliated?
1. Please write full and complete name.



VIEW 910 Responses

		Number of Responses	Response Ratio
2. What is your gender?			
Male		366	40%
Female		545	60%
Total		911	100%



3. Please classify yourself as ONE of the following. If multiple options apply, please choose the one that occupies most of your time.		Number of Responses	Response Ratio
--	--	---------------------	----------------

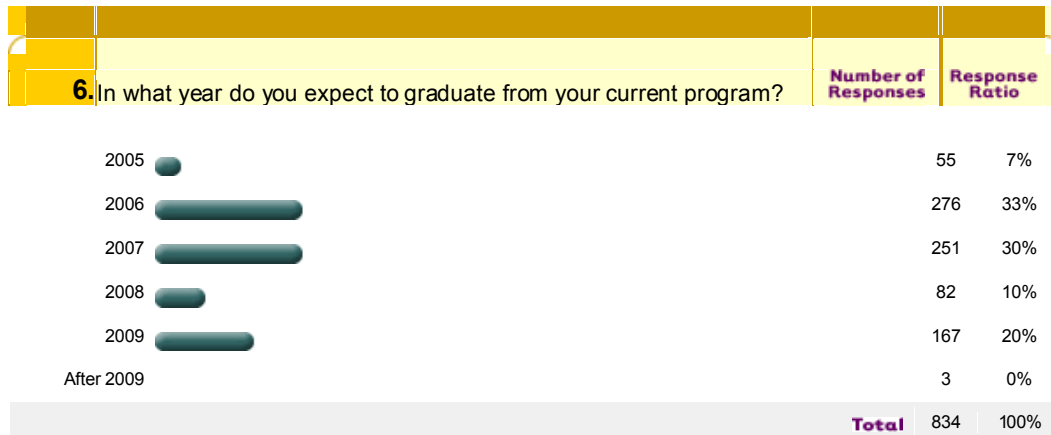
Current student		834	91%
Faculty member		66	7%
School administrator (Dean, Associate Dean, Department Chair, etc.)		12	1%
Total		912	100%

4. If you classified yourself as a CURRENT STUDENT, what is the level of the program in which you are enrolled? If you classified yourself otherwise, please go directly to question #7.		Number of Responses	Response Ratio
--	--	---------------------	----------------

Undergraduate Program		644	77%
Master's Program		187	22%
Ph.D. Program		0	0%
VIEW Other, Please Specify		6	1%
Total		837	100%

5. Will you receive a business degree at the completion of your current program?		Number of Responses	Response Ratio
--	--	---------------------	----------------

Yes		794	95%
No		39	5%
Total		833	100%
VIEW 52 Responses			



7. Please rate on a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 being the most important, the following attributes of an effective teacher. These attributes relate to CLASS PREPARATION AND DESIGN.

The top percentage indicates total respondent ratio; the bottom number represents actual number of respondents selecting the option

	1 Not important	2 Somewhat unimportant	3 Important	4 Somewhat important	5 Very important
1. Illustrates current knowledge of the subject matter	0% 1	0% 1	3% 24	13% 118	84% 769
2. Sets expectations about course content	0% 1	1% 8	12% 108	35% 318	52% 478
3. Sets expectations about the grading contract up-front	0% 3	2% 15	9% 81	29% 263	60% 548
4. Is organized	0% 3	1% 8	7% 62	28% 252	64% 584
5. Is well-prepared	0% 1	0% 1	5% 46	21% 193	74% 669
6. Provides information that is worthwhile and applicable to students	0% 1	0% 1	2% 20	19% 174	79% 716
7. Provides practical examples & applications	0% 1	0% 3	3% 30	21% 188	76% 689
8. Meets course objectives	1% 10	3% 29	18% 161	36% 330	42% 379
9. Is an effective researcher	6% 51	15% 140	31% 279	27% 244	21% 195
10. Incorporates research into classroom learning	5% 49	16% 147	33% 297	28% 254	17% 157

Please rate on a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 being the most important, the following attributes of an effective teacher. These attributes relate to CLASS DELIVERY.

The top percentage indicates total respondent ratio; the bottom number represents actual number of respondents selecting the option

	1 Not important	2 Somewhat unimportant	3 Important	4 Somewhat important	5 Very important
1. Uses diverse teaching and delivery mechanisms	2% 14	6% 59	21% 190	42% 381	29% 266
2. Communicates and presents material in a way that is easy to learn	0% 3	1% 6	5% 47	20% 182	74% 674
3. Creates an atmosphere where students are comfortable asking questions	0% 2	0% 4	4% 36	17% 158	78% 711
4. Challenges students to think	1% 5	1% 10	12% 113	33% 301	53% 481
5. Encourages students to excel and set high standards	0% 1	3% 23	11% 103	35% 323	51% 462
6. Keep students engaged	0% 2	1% 11	6% 56	27% 241	66% 599
7. Regularly gives clear and constructive feedback to students	0% 3	1% 7	9% 86	34% 307	56% 507
8. Is able to teach to different levels and experiences	1% 5	4% 34	13% 115	32% 294	51% 462
9. Is effective at selling the value of the class	2% 21	7% 61	24% 214	36% 331	31% 283

Please rate on a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 being the most important, the following attributes of an effective teacher. These attributes relate to INSTRUCTOR TRAITS AND PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS.

The top percentage indicates total respondent ratio; the bottom number represents actual number of respondents selecting the option

	1 Not important	2 Somewhat unimportant	3 Important	4 Somewhat important	5 Very important
1. Is sincerely interested in student learning	0% 1	1% 5	5% 46	23% 211	71% 648
2. Is passionate and enthusiastic about teaching	0% 0	1% 7	5% 46	26% 240	68% 620
3. Is passionate and enthusiastic about the subject matter	0% 0	1% 6	5% 45	28% 254	67% 608
4. Is professional	1% 10	4% 37	17% 152	35% 323	43% 391
5. Is self-confident	0% 2	3% 28	15% 133	38% 350	44% 399
6. Is flexible	1% 8	2% 17	13% 122	35% 320	49% 443
7. Is fair when dealing with students	0% 2	0% 2	3% 29	15% 133	82% 746
8. Is accessible – both in and outside of classroom	0% 4	1% 10	7% 63	31% 277	61% 550
9. Is approachable – both in and outside of the classroom	0% 2	1% 5	5% 44	25% 228	69% 630
10. Achieves a positive rapport with students	1% 8	2% 16	9% 80	32% 292	56% 509

10. Please write in any attributes missing from these lists that you believe are required for effective teaching.

[VIEW](#) 198 Responses

11. With "1" being most important, rank the three CATEGORIES of teaching attributes above in order of their importance to you.

The top percentage indicates total respondent ratio; the bottom number represents actual number of respondents selecting the option

	1	2	3
1. Class Preparation and Design	34% 292	30% 263	36% 316
2. Class Delivery	40% 359	40% 354	20% 175
3. Instructor Traits and Personal Characteristics	27% 247	31% 276	42% 379

12. Describe in your own words the teacher who has had the most positive effect on you and why. PLEASE HIT THE SUBMIT BUTTON WHEN YOU ARE FINISHED WITH THIS QUESTION.

[VIEW](#) 633 Responses

Allied Academies

invites you to check our website at

www.alliedacademies.org

for information concerning

conferences and submission instructions

Allied Academies

invites you to check our website at

www.alliedacademies.org

for information concerning

conferences and submission instructions