**Allied Academies
International Conference**

**Tunica, MS
April 2-4, 2008**

Academy of Educational Leadership

PROCEEDINGS

Table of Contents

MORE "PRIVATE" THAN PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS: PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

Olin L. Adams III, Auburn University
adamsol@auburn.edu
Rebecca R. Robichaux, Mississippi State University
A.J. Guarino, Auburn University

ABSTRACT

This research compares the status of managerial accounting practices in public four-year colleges and universities and in private four-year colleges and universities. The investigators surveyed a national sample of chief financial officers (CFOs) at two points in time, 1998-99 and 2003-04. In 1998-99 CFOs representing private institutions reported adoption of managerial accounting practices at a rate significantly higher than CFOs representing public institutions in pricing and performance measurement. In 2003-04 CFOs representing public institutions reported adoption of managerial accounting practices at a rate significantly higher than CFOs representing private institutions in budgeting, performance measurement, organization behavior, and outsourcing.

ACADEMIC DISHONESTY AND INTENTION TO CHEAT: A MODEL ON 'ACTIVE' VERSUS 'PASSIVE' ACADEMIC DISHONESTY AS PERCEIVED BY BUSINESS STUDENTS

Dr. Ismet Anitsal, Tennessee Tech University
ianitsal@tntech.edu
Dr. M. Meral Anitsal, Tennessee Tech University
manitsal@tntech.edu
Dr. Robert Elmore, Tennessee Tech University
relmore@tntech.edu

ABSTRACT

Academic dishonesty seems to be an increasing problem in colleges. There seems to be a positive correlation between academic dishonesty in college and unethical behavior in work environment as well. Therefore, for a more ethical business environment and a better world in that sense, universities need to train tomorrow's leaders with higher ethical standards. What is academic dishonesty or academic cheating? It does not seem to be quite black or white, one way to another, right or wrong. Student perceptions as well as others seem to be getting quite different, depending on the basis, opinion, or interpretation. The purpose of this research is to understand whether passive and active academic dishonesty as perceived by students are two separate constructs. If they are separate constructs, how each type of academic dishonesty influences intentions to cheat was also be studied. Structural equation modeling has been utilized to test the hypotheses. All hypotheses were supported, and results have been discussed.

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF GRADING PRACTICES BY DISCIPLINE WITHIN A COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

Michael M. Barth, The Military College of South Carolina
mike.barth@citadel.edu
Jun Liu, Georgia Southern University
William H. Wells, Georgia Southern University

ABSTRACT

This research tests for differences in average grades awarded across six business disciplines in the business college at a southern regional university. Although complaints about college grade inflation have existed for over one hundred years, there has been increasing interest in recent years in grade inflation within the U.S. higher education system. Most published research on grade inflation has focused on systematic inflation at the institutional level, but relatively little has been published relative to cross-disciplinary grade inflation and deflation within a particular institution.

Differences in grading standards between disciplines may reflect better teaching, but they may also reflect lax standards. Lenient grading practices can have unintended negative consequences and are a cause for concern. On the other hand, relatively higher grades for a particular discipline that reflect better teaching should be encouraged and emulated. It is important to identify and evaluate differences in grading practices because unwarranted inconsistencies in grading practices have potential adverse effects upon faculty, students and the institution as a whole.

Using regression analysis and controlling for a number of potential causal factors such as student GPA, withdrawal rates and instructor experience, we compare average grades for nearly 400 classes in six business subdisciplines. We find that the average grades given out in three of the six subdisciplines within this college of business were systematically higher than in the other three, even after controlling for these other explanatory factors. While not offering any conclusions as to why these particular differences exist, there is a general discussion of factors that can explain higher (or lower) average grades from one discipline to the next. Although this research does not attempt to reach conclusions as to the reason for inconsistencies between disciplines at this university, it does provide a framework that other institutions can use to begin to at least identify systematic differences between grading practices within their own academic programs.

TEACHING AND ASSESSING BASIC CONCEPTS TO ADVANCED APPLICATIONS: USING BLOOM'S TAXONOMY TO INFORM GRADUATE COURSE DESIGN

Stephen C. Betts, William Paterson University

ABSTRACT

Graduate students expect to draw on their experience and expertise to participate in high level discussions and engage in advanced applications of the course material. However the varied backgrounds of the students frequently necessitate a review of the basic concepts in order for the class to have a common understanding and vocabulary. The instructor's challenge is to design a course that can progress from basic concepts to advanced applications within a single semester. In this paper, Bloom's Taxonomy of educational objectives is utilized to guide course design and assessment considerations. The development of a core MBA level organizational behavior course will serve as an example.

INTRODUCTION

Graduate programs are an important part of our universities mix of offerings. The lead graduate program associated with business education is the MBA degree. Typical MBA programs have a number of core courses that are part of every student's curriculum regardless of concentration. Although some courses can be waived for some students, many students cannot meet the criteria to be waived and most programs have 'upper core' courses that cannot be waived. Given the wide range of knowledge, skills and abilities of students taking these courses it is necessary to start with the basics in core courses. The primary challenge for the instructor is to move from delivery of basic knowledge to sophisticated meaningful discussion in the time span of a single semester, and the secondary challenge is to assess the steps along the way. This paper starts with a brief discussion of these challenges. Next will be a description of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, which is used as a guide for the next section – an approach to designing a course. A graduate level organizational behavior course will be used as an example. The paper concludes with a suggestion that this approach can be used for designing other college courses and perhaps entire curricula.

THE CHALLENGE OF TEACHING AT MANY LEVELS

Some graduate programs require students to have a significant background in the discipline before being accepted into the program. Other programs including many MBA programs, accept students that do not have a significant prior background in the discipline. When the student body

has mixed knowledge, skills, abilities and experience, the challenge to the course/curriculum designer is to play 'catch-up' and bring the deficient students through a range of information and skills, while keeping the course worthwhile and meaningful to better prepared students.

There are several ways to deal with this challenge. One way is to avoid the situation by either requiring a requisite amount of basic business knowledge before acceptance or limiting basic knowledge to lower core courses that can be waived by students with the knowledge, skills, abilities and/or experience. Another approach is to simplify things and omit potentially important issues. A third approach is to carefully design the course this challenge in mind. Such an approach will be explained shortly, but first we need to review the learning concepts that will form the basis of our design approach.

BLOOM'S TAXONOMY

In 1956, a group headed by Benjamin S. Bloom, after working on a project since 1949, finally published what is now known as 'Bloom's Taxonomy' (Bloom, 1956). It was originally intended to help instructors measure learning by providing guidelines as to what can be expected from instruction. The taxonomy (see Appendix 1) has six levels - Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis and Evaluation. The typology was originally meant to help develop rubrics and measure learning (Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl, 2002). It is still used in its original form, however there are occasional modifications (ie. Christopher, Thomas & Tallent-Runnels, 2004), revisions (ie. Krathwohl, 2002) and alternative typologies proposed (ie. Lytras & Pouloudi, 2006). The typology is still used in evaluation (Bissell & Lemons, 2006; Lipscomb, 1985; Barker & Hapkiewicz, 1979; Athanassiou, McNett & Harvey, 2003), however it has found great use in course and curriculum development and design (Christopher, Thomas & Tallent-Runnels, 2004; Foote, 1998; Noble, 2004; Chyung, & Stepich, 2003). Bloom's typology has even found use in supervision (Granello), graduate work (Granello, 2001) and with such contemporary methods as discussion boards (Christopher, Thomas & Tallent-Runnels, 2004) and online instruction (Chyung & Stepich, 2003).

DESIGN APPROACH USING BLOOM'S TAXONOMY

Our approach to course design uses a modification of Bloom's Taxonomy (Christopher, Thomas & Tallent-Runnels, 2004). We reduced the taxonomy to three levels (Appendix 1). The basic approach involves three ideas. First, class time should be used primarily for the middle level. Second, course elements need to correspond to and address course learning outcomes and the third consideration is that the course elements (and learning outcomes) can be assessed. Many techniques or 'course elements' can be used in designing a course. Table 1 shows the course elements used in a graduate level organizational behavior course. The same table shows the degree to which each element addresses topics at the three levels of learning. For example, online multiple choice questions deal with basic material, therefore are rated 'high' on the first level of learning. Some questions do beyond the basic material, so a rating of 'medium' is given for the second level of learning. Synthesis and evaluation is not possible in online multiple choice quizzes, therefore 'low' is indicated. Online quizzes are not a teaching/learning method. The more complete description is

'online quizzes of book material', whereas reading and studying the textbook is the learning activity and the quiz itself is a grading and assessment vehicle. Table 1 shows a variety of course elements and how they correspond to Bloom's taxonomy.

Optimal use of class time was part of the primary challenge. The prescription was to use time outside of class for lower level and higher level learning. Presenting basic material in class is a poor use of the limited resource of class time. Textbooks provide adequate coverage of basic material and can be read and studied outside of class. Students with weaker backgrounds will spend more time learning the basics and knowledgeable students can breeze through it. Minimal class time is devoted to basic knowledge. The exception is the occasional supplemental lecture in class to address materials inadequately addressed in the text. At the level of synthesis and evaluation, the activities rated high are also primarily conducted outside of class – the individual and group project and management portfolio. Research, writing and individualized feedback is done outside of class. Only project presentations take up class time.

Table 1 Course Element Correspondence to Bloom's Taxonomy			
Course Element	Knowledge/Understanding	Application/Analysis	Synthesis/Evaluation
Online Text Quizzes	high	medium	low
Supplemental Lectures	high	medium	medium
In-Class Discussions	medium	medium	medium
In-Class Exercises	medium	medium	medium
Discussion Board	medium	high	medium
Essay Quizzes	medium	high	medium
Individual Project	low	medium	high
Group Project	low	medium	high
Management Portfolio	low	high	high

Covering learning outcomes is very important in course design. The mix of course elements should adequately address the learning outcomes. If learning outcomes are not adequately covered, then the specific elements need to be adjusted, new elements added and/or ineffective elements removed. Appendix 2 contains the learning outcomes for our example course. Table 2 illustrates an evaluation of coverage of the learning outcomes. In this particular course there is a wide variety of course elements. Some were added because of deficiencies in coverage of one or more learning outcomes. For example the management portfolio was added to provide higher level learning and to address the 'personal stances' and 'written communications' outcomes. Discussion boards were added to facilitate development of personal stances on organizational issues; however other outcomes are also being met such as clarification of basic concepts and development of written

communication. Discussion boards also span from basic knowledge and understanding to synthesis and evaluation, although most of the discussion is at the application and analysis level.

Table 2 Course Element Coverage of Learning Outcomes				
Course Element	Basic Theories/ Facts	Personal Stances	Real Life Applications	Communication
Online Text Quizzes	high	low	low	low
Supplemental Lectures	high	low	low	low
In-Class Discussions	medium	medium	medium	medium
In-Class Exercises	medium	medium	medium	medium
Discussion Board	medium	high	medium	medium
Essay Quizzes	medium	high	high	medium
Individual Project	low	medium	high	high
Group Project	low	low	medium	high
Management Portfolio	low	high	high	high

Course level assessment of learning outcomes is essential in establishing, maintaining and developing high quality programs of study. Table 2 provides a basis for conducting the evaluation of learning outcomes. It evaluates how each outcome is covered in the course. A discussion of the difference between grading student work and assessing class performance, is beyond the scope of this paper, however graded elements can be uses for course level assessment. Evaluation of student performance in the specific course elements are then used to evaluate the effectiveness of coverage of course learning outcomes.

CONCLUSIONS

In this paper I propose a simple approach to designing a graduate course. The approach allows for various levels of learning and the different knowledge, skills, abilities and experience that students bring to the course. It also addresses the coverage and assessment of learning outcomes, which are essential for high quality programs. The key ideas are to use a variety of methods and techniques, use the classroom for analysis and application level learning, have basic knowledge and understanding (low level learning), and synthesis and evaluation (high level learning) covered outside of class, and to develop tables such as those presented to help in the development and assessment processes.

(References available on request)

Appendix 1 – Bloom's Taxonomy – Original and Adapted

Bloom's Taxonomy
- Knowledge
- Understanding (or Comprehension)
- Application
- Analysis
- Synthesis
- Evaluation

Levels of Thinking – Three Level Adaptation of Bloom's Taxonomy
- Low level - Knowledge/Understanding - Behaviors that emphasize recall or memory or indicate a literal understanding
- Medium level – Application/Analysis - Behaviors that require students to use what they have learned in a new way or that break down knowledge into its component parts
- High level – Synthesis/Evaluation - Behaviors that combine elements of learning into a new whole or that assess the value of particular ideas or solutions

(adapted from Christopher, Thomas & Tallent-Runnels, 2004)

Appendix 2 - Student Learning Outcomes for MGT 616 – Organizational Behavior and Communication

Upon completing the course, students will be able to:
- Explain the theoretical foundations and basic facts of organizational behavior, including those associated with motivation, job satisfaction, power, leadership, communication, stress, and organizational structure.
- Articulate well-justified personal stances regarding organizational behavior issues such as ethical behavior and cultural diversity in organizations.
- Be able to apply knowledge of organizational phenomena to various real-life organizational situations.
- Show progress in developing skills in presenting ideas to others, both orally and in writing.

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE UNIVERSITY SELECTION OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS: DO STUDENTS UNDERSTAND AND CONSIDER AACSB ACCREDITATION?

Cynthia Daily, University of Arkansas at Little Rock
cadaily@ualr.edu
Stephanie Farewell, University of Arkansas at Little Rock
smfarewell@ualr.edu
Gaurav Kumar, University of Arkansas at Little Rock
gkumar@ualr.edu

ABSTRACT

The number of international students pursuing secondary education at United States (U.S.) universities has been increasing over the past 25 years, and is expected to continue into the foreseeable future. However, these students have a plethora of choices among universities in the U.S. and foreign countries. Universities must distinguish themselves if they hope to obtain the most desirable students from around the world. Previous research by Agarwal and Winkler (1985), Lee and Tan (1984), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), and McMahon (1992 has identified a number of factors that influence the choice of educational programs. This paper builds on existing research by examining the role of accreditation by The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB). Moreover, we examine the understanding of the meaning of AACSB accreditation and its effect on the university choice of international students pursuing business degrees in a cross-section of public universities in the southeastern region of the U.S. This study finds that respondents misunderstand the meaning of AACSB accreditation. Additionally, however, AACSB accreditation is a factor that students report as significant in the choice of an educational institution.

ARE STUDENTS REALLY LEARNING?

Barbara Dalby, University of Mary Hardin Baylor
bdalby@umhb.edu
Chrisann Merriman, University of Mary Hardin Baylor
chrisann.merriman@umhb.edu

ABSTRACT

With the increased emphasis on the assurance of learning by students, it is critical to understand not only how learning occurs, but the best ways to make sure that students leave the classroom with this new knowledge. How then do we know that learning has actually occurred or was information not just memorized for the exam? (Hansen, L., Salemi, K., and Siegfreind, J, 2002; White, C., 2007). This paper explores learning in a junior-level business team management course in a small private school. Learning will be defined in this paper as the retention of information and knowledge of core concepts across the 15-week semester. Thirty-two students (100%) participated. A comprehensive final exam was administered. Since taking the final exam was optional and no student had elected to take it, it is assumed that no additional studying had been done for this exam. It was also not announced prior to the students coming to the final exam time. The final exam used the exact questions that had been previously asked on the three exams given during the course. The results of the final are compared with the like-sections from each exam. This paper will present the findings of this study and the implications this has on how courses are taught and assessed.

BODY ADORNMENT: A COMPARISON OF THE ATTITUDES OF BUSINESSPEOPLE AND STUDENTS IN THREE STATES

Larry R. Dale, Arkansas State University
dalex@astate.edu
Sandra Bevill, Arkansas State University
sbevill@astate.edu
Terry Roach, Arkansas State University
tdroach@astate.edu
Susan Glasgow, Arkansas State University
sglasgow@astate.edu
Courtney Bracy, Arkansas State University
cbracy@astate.edu

ABSTRACT

This study explored the perceptions of 1,412 students and 581 business persons from Arkansas, Ohio and California, regarding visible tattoos and body piercings, called body adornment, in order to develop recommendations for faculty and students. Using a correlation, the dependent variables that proved significant and positive at the .01 level of testing for both students and businesses included: whether the respondent had visible tattoos or body piercings, whether the respondent would cover up a visible tattoo or piercings for a job interview, the extent to which the respondent used drugs and alcohol, and dealings with the public. The factors that were not significant for students were their gender, school, race, major, GPA, and age. Among business people, minorities and men, particularly older men, tended to be significantly less favorable to body adornment than Caucasians, women and younger business people even though all were negative. Students need to understand that business perceptions about such adornment could hurt their chances of getting a good job. Recommendations are provided for students as well as faculty who are interested in helping students prepare for their careers.

A COMPARISON OF LIQUIDITY AND CASH FLOW RATIOS OF HEALTHY AND UNHEALTHY OTC FIRMS: A HELPFUL TOOL FOR THE INSTRUCTORS OF INTRODUCTORY FINANCE COURSES

Ravindra Kamath, Cleveland State University
Yihong He, Monmouth University
r.kamath@csuohio.edu

ABSTRACT

The objective of this empirical study is to provide the instructors of introductory financial management courses a pedagogical tool to supplement their lectures on ratio analysis. To accomplish this goal, the study focuses on the liquidity and cash flow ratios of a sample of 170 small OTC firms which declared bankruptcy in the 1990s along with those of 170 matching firms which did not. The ratios are computed one, two and three years before bankruptcy. The findings of the investigation are presented in a tabulated as well as in a graphic form. The findings vividly show that the selected liquidity and cash flow ratios exhibit significantly different patterns between the non-bankrupt firms and the firms which were approaching bankruptcy. It is believed that the exhibits of this paper can help in reinforcing the notion that financial ratios can help in detecting deteriorating financial condition of a firm.

STUDENT READING STRATEGIES AND TEXTBOOK USE: AN INQUIRY INTO ECONOMICS AND ACCOUNTING COURSES

Laura E. Fitzpatrick, Rockhurst University
Laura.Fitzpatrick@rockhurst.edu
Cheryl McConnell, Rockhurst University
Cheryl.McConnell@rockhurst.edu

ABSTRACT

Faculty members take great care in selecting textbooks that present material in a meaningful way that promotes student learning. However, faculty members often express frustrations that students don't use the textbooks to their full potential, and that some students rely solely on faculty lectures or presentations. After providing an extensive literature review into why textbook selection is important, how students use textbooks, what types of reading strategies are used by students in various disciplines, and instructor strategies for increasing textbook reading, the authors used reading journals to investigate how students were utilizing assigned textbooks in their own courses. The resulting investigation revealed insights into how students are currently reading and using textbooks, allows for the development of focused strategies to improve student textbook use, and provides suggestions for further research and potential research designs that will move the body of literature forward.

A MODEL SELF-EMPLOYMENT POLICY PROGRAM FOR PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES

William P. Galle, Jr, The University of New Orleans
Kenneth J. Lacho, The University of New Orleans

ABSTRACT

Entrepreneurship and small business have received considerable attention in recent years. As a result, new business start-ups have been rapidly increasing. There are many forces driving the expansion, including higher levels of participation from all demographic segments of the population. One sector of the population which has experienced significant increases in support is the segment of people with disabilities. Several studies have suggested a need for systematic outreach programs to this segment of the economy. One research group at the University of Montana's Research and Training Center on Rural Rehabilitation (RTC) has proffered a policy model which would serve as the basis for such outreach efforts. However, the researchers report that only a relative handful of agencies currently offer such a program. This paper describes in some detail a program that fully satisfies the recommended components of the policy model recommended by the RTC.

A CURRICULAR--CO-CURRICULAR APPROACH TO STUDENT LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Neil D. Gilchrist, Truman State University
ndg@truman.edu
Lou Ann Gilchrist, Truman State University
lcg@truman.edu

ABSTRACT

Truman State University is a small (5700 students), public, highly selective, state-designated liberal arts and sciences university located in Kirksville, Missouri (population 17,300). As the public liberal arts and sciences university for the state of Missouri, one part of its mission is to cultivate in students the "willingness and ability to exercise personal and intellectual leadership in his or her chosen field of endeavor" (Truman State University Mission Statement). The Truman Leadership Scholars Program is designed to attract high ability students with leadership experience to the university through a "full-ride" scholarship with the opportunity to participate in a four-year leadership development program that incorporates curricular and co-curricular components. Participating students receive minimal credit for two required classes, volunteer for a minimum of fifty hours in the community under the direction of a community mentor, and develop and complete a personal development project and a public leadership project. During this process, students demonstrate personal development and leadership skills and contribute to the Kirksville community as well as to the Truman State University community. This model holds potential for universities to incorporate curricular and co-curricular leadership training for students.

DIFFERENTIAL EFFECTS OF STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS ON PERFORMANCE: ONLINE VIS-À-VIS OFFLINE ACCOUNTING COURSES

Sungkyoo Huh, California State University-San Bernardino
huh@csusb.edu
Jongdae Jin, University of Maryland-Eastern Shore
jongdaejin@hotmail.com
Kyung Joo Lee, University of Maryland-Eastern Shore
syoo@umes.edu

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine if there exist any systematic differences in the effects of student characteristics on student performances as measured by test scores between online courses and offline courses. Student characteristics variables include grade point average (GPA), age, commuting distance, working hours, gender and marital status. Academic and demographic data of 91 students who took undergraduate accounting courses offered through online as well as offline at California State University-San Bernardino during a three-year period extending from fall 2003 to spring 2005 are examined using univariate analyses as well as regression models. Overall, empirical results suggest that while there is no significant difference in student performances, some characteristics variables have differential effects on performances between online and offline learners. Specifically, the effects of GPA and gender on performances are significantly higher for offline students than for online students. These results are robust across different testing methodologies.

A PROFILE OF FINANCE EDUCATORS IN THE U.S.

Ravindra Kamath, Cleveland State University
Yi Wang, Cleveland State University
r.kamath@csuohio.edu

ABSTRACT

The body of academic finance literature is large, rich and diverse. A well known website of Professor Dan Chance contains a wide bibliography of papers which address "the issues that arise when academic finance is one's profession." However, very few papers can be found which focus on finance educators themselves. This void provides the impetus for the present study. The objective of this investigation is to develop a characteristic profile of the finance professorate in the U.S. This task is met by examining the data on 14 attributes of 2,802 randomly selected finance faculty members over the 12-year span of 1994 to 2005.

Finance Faculty Directories compiled by James Hasselback for the academic years 1994-1995, 1996-1997, 1998-1999, 2000-2001, 2002-2003 and 2004-2005 are the primary sources of the relevant data for this study. These directories include a considerable amount of information on faculty from over 800 U.S. colleges and universities. In addition to these directories, this study also utilizes the data from the AACSB International, the Carnegie Foundation as well as websites of scores of universities and finance departments. The findings are presented with the help of six detailed exhibits containing sub-panels. Statistical tests are utilized to ascertain if the proportions noted in the last year of the study (2004-2005) are significantly different from those noted for the first year of study (1994-1995). The attributes examined include the teaching and research interests, the gender, the academic rank distributions, teaching experience, educational backgrounds, various characteristics of the institutions which employed the sampled professors as well those which granted them their highest degrees, the administrative duty components, among others. The emerging profile of the finance faculty should be of interest to not only those who are engaged in finance education but also to college of business administrators, finance students and to those who are contemplating entering the profession.

A PROFILE OF FINANCE EDUCATORS IN THE U.S.

Ravindra Kamath, Cleveland State University
Yi Wang, Cleveland State University
r.kamath@csuohio.edu

ABSTRACT

The body of academic finance literature is large, rich and diverse. A well known website of Professor Dan Chance contains a wide bibliography of papers which address "the issues that arise when academic finance is one's profession." However, very few papers can be found which focus on finance educators themselves. This void provides the impetus for the present study. The objective of this investigation is to develop a characteristic profile of the finance professorate in the U.S. This task is met by examining the data on 14 attributes of 2,802 randomly selected finance faculty members over the 12-year span of 1994 to 2005.

Finance Faculty Directories compiled by James Hasselback for the academic years 1994-1995, 1996-1997, 1998-1999, 2000-2001, 2002-2003 and 2004-2005 are the primary sources of the relevant data for this study. These directories include a considerable amount of information on faculty from over 800 U.S. colleges and universities. In addition to these directories, this study also utilizes the data from the AACSB International, the Carnegie Foundation as well as websites of scores of universities and finance departments. The findings are presented with the help of six detailed exhibits containing sub-panels. Statistical tests are utilized to ascertain if the proportions noted in the last year of the study (2004-2005) are significantly different from those noted for the first year of study (1994-1995). The attributes examined include the teaching and research interests, the gender, the academic rank distributions, teaching experience, educational backgrounds, various characteristics of the institutions which employed the sampled professors as well those which granted them their highest degrees, the administrative duty components, among others. The emerging profile of the finance faculty should be of interest to not only those who are engaged in finance education but also to college of business administrators, finance students and to those who are contemplating entering the profession.

AN INITIAL STUDY INTO THE PERSONALITY TYPES OF UNDERGRADUATE BUSINESS STUDENTS

Amber Morgan, Lander University
amorgan@lander.edu
Karie Barbour, Lander University
kbarbour@lander.edu

ABSTRACT

This study investigates the relationship between a student's academic major and Myers-Briggs (MBTI) personality type. The personality type distribution of 116 Business Administration majors was analyzed to determine if a difference existed between students who chose to concentrate their studies in management/marketing compared to students who chose other areas of business such as accounting, healthcare management, or economics/finance. The analysis concluded that significant differences do exist between these two groups. This paper examines how these personality type differences relate to the students' selection of majors and occupations as well as learning style preferences.

INTRODUCTION

The MBTI is a 126-question force-choiced assessment instrument based on the theories of psychologist Carl Jung and developed by Katherine Cook Briggs and Isabel Briggs Myers. The MBTI is widely used in education to help identify and understand students' learning styles and to assist instructors in developing a broad range of instructional strategies to accommodate learner variances. It is frequently used in career counseling to assist students in identifying occupations that capitalize on personality strengths and provide supportive work environments. It is also popular in organizational development to assist with team building, diversity training, and group dynamics. The assessment identifies preferences based on the following four dichotomies, E-I; S-N; T-F; J-P, which are outlined below. A detailed explanation can be found in the MBTI Manual, A Guide to Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, and Hammer, 1998).

The E-I (Extraversion-Introversion) function identifies where an individual prefers to focus energy. Individuals who prefer Extraversion focus on the outer world and like to communicate through discussion. Individuals who prefer Introversion are more focused on inner reflection, thinking through ideas, and written communication.

The S-N (Sensing-Intuition) function identifies how an individual gathers information. Individuals with a sensing preference learn best using their five senses (look, sound, feel, taste, smell). These individuals are most comfortable with detailed instructions, concrete information, and have a preference for systematic, process oriented activities. Intuitive learners are more focused on

creating patterns and examining possibilities. Individuals who have a preference for Intuition tend to be creative and imaginative.

The T-F (Thinking-Feeling) function identifies how individuals make decisions. Individuals with a Thinking preference tend to be logical, objective decision makers. These individuals enjoy problem-solving and have a propensity to rely on cause and effect relationships. Individuals with a Feeling preference are harmonizers who make decisions subjectively based on personal feelings and values.

The J-P (Judging-Perceiving) function identifies how individuals deal with the world. Individuals with a Judging preference are organized, structured, and systematic. Individuals who prefer the Perceiving function enjoy spontaneity and keeping options open as long as possible.

Type theory and supporting research indicate that the S-N functions are most compatible with a student's learning style, and it is the combination of the middle letters or temperament pairs, ST, SF, NF, NT, that are most important in helping to identify occupational matches (Myers et al., 1998). Tobacyk and Cieslicka (2000) refer to this relationship as the compatibility hypothesis explaining that it "is the idea that individual personality dispositions are compatible with academic major and with occupational affiliations/interests". Working within this framework, the objective of this study is to determine if a relationship exists between a student's personality type and chosen academic emphasis within a Business Administration program. This information could then be used by faculty and administrators to help identify why students gravitate toward specific academic programs and to develop curriculum and instructional methods in those programs. It can also be used by faculty advisors, admissions representatives, and career counselors in helping students understand various occupational requirements and identify work environments best suited for their personality preferences. It is important to acknowledge that almost all of the sixteen types can be found in all occupations, and this should be supported as diverse personalities bring in new perspectives and innovative ideas (Myers et al., 1998). However, most occupations have a dominant type as "type theory assumes people differ in the ways they like to use their minds, and these differences influence the ways people like to work, what motivates them, and what satisfies them" (Myers et al.,1998).

METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

During the fall 2002, 2003, and 2004 semesters, Lander University's incoming freshmen (n=1,652) voluntarily took the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) as a component of the freshman orientation program. Students were provided feedback in a small group setting (approximately 30 students) by a certified MBTI administrator. The purpose of the assessment was to provide freshmen students with information on how understanding one's personality type can assist with college transition issues such as time management, roommate conflicts, learning styles, instructional strategies, major and career exploration, and a better self understanding. The MBTI instrument was chosen for its relevant application to many areas within the University as well as its proven reliability and validity (Myers et al., 1998).

Of the 1,652 MBTI assessments, 607 students have been identified (three to five years later) as either a graduate or in the process of completing a degree program. This study specifically focused on the MBTI assessments of 116 students who have completed or who are nearing

completion of a degree in Business Administration. In this Business program, students are required to select an emphasis in one of the following areas: management/marketing, healthcare management, accounting, or economics/finance. An analysis of the data was conducted using StataSE version 8 to determine whether the distribution of personality traits and temperament pairs differed for students who chose the management/marketing emphasis (n=57) compared to students who chose one of the other emphasis areas (n=58). The analysis included separate two-proportion z-tests for independent samples. The null hypothesis for each test was that the students in both groups exhibited the same personality type preferences. Therefore in cases where the null hypothesis is rejected, the data suggests that there is a statistically significant difference between the percentage of management/marketing students with that personality type preference or temperament pair and the percentage of other business students with the same characteristic.

The results, as shown in Table 1, indicate that a significant difference (p < .001) exists between the S and N functions. Students who chose the management/marketing emphasis have a stronger preference (35.09%) for the Intuitive function compared to other business majors (13.56%). These functions represent how students prefer to gather information and are most compatible in understanding one's learning style. The results in Table 2 indicate that a higher percentage of management/marketing students prefer the NT temperament pair (14.04%) compared to other business majors (1.69%). These results are even more significant when considering that only 17.56% of the total population (n=232,557) in the Center for Applications of Psychological Type (CAPT) Atlas of Type Tables Databank preferred the NT temperament pair (Macdaid, McCaulley, and Kainz, 1986). It is important to note that the analysis showed significant differences in other functions and temperament pairs; however, this study specifically focused on the functions and temperaments pairs most closely associated with learning styles and occupational selection.

In comparing temperament pairs with occupational selection, individuals with an NT preference are typically found in occupations where creative problem solving and new idea generation can be utilized. Tobacyk and Cieslicka (2000) point out that NTs tend to focus on "possibilities (N), which they evaluate logically (T) sometimes constructing novel theoretical models, product ideas, organizational systems, and production methods." The Atlas of Type Tables (Macdaid et al., 1986) show that individuals with an Intuitive preference make up more than fifty percent of the sample in the following occupations: Marketing Personnel (60.24%), Employment Development Specialists (60%), Management Consultants (57.75%), and Credit Investigators and Mortgage Brokers (52.94%).

The other business majors in this study possess a stronger preference for the ST temperament (42.37%) compared to the management/marketing students (26.32%). The ST temperament represents the practical and matter-of-fact types found in occupations such as economics, law, surgery, business, accounting, and production (Boreham and Watts, 1998). Tobacyk and Cieslicka (2000) report that ST function pairs "tend to prefer measures of internal efficiency –e.g., units produced per time interval, cost per unit produced, etc.". The Type Table for Accountants (n=427) indicates a high percentage of individuals with a preference for the S function (62.3%) and ST temperament (39.34%) compared to the N function (37.70%) and NT temperament (19.91%) (Macdaid et al., 1986). Laribee's study into the psychological types of college accounting students (Laribee, 1994) provides further evidence that accounting students have a stronger preference for

the ST temperament. In his study 41.6% of the female accounting students (n=173) and 57.1% of the male accounting students (n=147) had a preference for the ST temperament (Laribee, 1994).

The results of this study can also provide instructors in Business Administration programs with insight into the learning styles of students who select specific areas of concentration. Students who prefer the N function can be described as "holistic learners" who are "field independent", but whose work can lack attention to details. These types prefer to start with a general topic and then focus on specifics and learn best when "their imaginations are first allowed to roam free, without impediment or excessive rules"(Myers et al., 1998). These students enjoy using their imaginations, creating processes and systems, and seek opportunities for independent thinking (Ditiberio and Hammer, 1993). In contrast, students who prefer Sensing enjoy "sequential learning and in general favor both collaborative and dependent learning styles" (Myers et al., 1998). These students are skilled at memorizing facts, enjoy data analysis, and seek detailed instructions (Ditiberio and Hammer, 1993). This study also found a significant difference ($p<.05$) between the E and I functions. The Extraversion function is more dominant in the marketing/management students, which indicates that these individuals prefer to communicate verbally and learn best through class discussions and group work. In contrast, the other business students had a stronger preference for the Introversion function which indicates a desire to think through ideas and communicate in writing.

CONCLUSION AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The results of this study are consistent with previous research findings and clearly indicate that differences exist between the personality types and associated learning styles of students in the management/marketing emphasis compared to students in the other business programs. This evidence supports the need for different instructional approaches and methods in these programs. An understanding of students' personality types and learning styles should "enhance the educational environment, thus providing a key to more effective teaching and learning"(Boreham and Watts, 1998).

Possible avenues for future research include investigating whether students are gravitating toward an emphasis area due to interest and compatibility with coursework or compatibility with an instructor's teaching styles (Boreham and Watts, 1998). In Laribee's study on the personality types of accounting students, he points out that further research may provide information on whether it's the course material or the teaching style of the accounting faculty related to the failure of certain personality types to complete the program (Laribee, 1994). Results of this future research could have a direct impact on departmental recruiting strategies and student retention.

REFERENCES

Bayne, R. (1995). *The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, A Critical Review and Practical Guide.* London, U.K.: Chapman & Hall.

Boreham, B. W., & Watts, J.D. (1998). Personality type in undergraduate education and physics students. *Journal of Psychological Type,* 44, 26-31.

Ditiberio, J. K., & Hammer, A. L. (1993). *Introduction to type in college.* Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press, Inc.

Laribee, S. F. (1994). The psychological type of college accounting students. *Journal of Psychological Type,* 28, 37-42.

Macdaid, G. P., McCaulley, M. H., Kainz, R. I. (1986). *Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Atlas of Type Tables* (First Edition). Gainesville, FL: Center for Applications of Psychological Type, Inc.

Myers, I. B., McCaulley, M. H., Quenk, N.L., & Hammer, A. L. (1998). *MBTI Manual, A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator* (Third Edition). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press, Inc.

Tharp, G. D. (1993). The connection between personality type and achievement in college biology. *Journal of College Science Teaching,* March/April, 276-278.

Tobacyk, J. & Cieslicka, A. (2000). Compatibility between the psychological type and academic major in Polish university students. *Journal of Psychological Type,* 54, 22-30.

Table 1. Distribution of Students Across Personality Traits			
	MGMT/MKT (%)	**Other Business (%)**	**P-value**
Extraversion	71.93	55.93	**0.0365**
Introversion	28.07	44.07	
Sensing	64.91	86.44	**0.0068**
Intuition	35.09	13.56	
Thinking	40.35	44.07	0.6854
Feeling	59.65	55.93	
Judging	42.11	47.46	0.5623
Perceiving	57.89	52.54	

* P-values in bold type indicate that the distributions are statistically different at the 5% level or better.

Table 2. Distribution of Students Across Temperament Pairs			
	MGMT/MKT (%)	**Other Business (%)**	**P-value**
IJ	15.79	20.34	0.5247
IP	12.28	23.73	**0.0547**
EP	45.61	28.81	**0.0305**
EJ	26.32	27.12	0.9222
ST	26.32	42.37	**0.0345**
SF	38.6	44.07	0.5497
NF	21.05	11.86	**0.0906**
NT	14.04	1.69	**0.0130**
SJ	31.58	44.07	**0.0829**
SP	33.33	42.37	0.3158
NP	24.56	10.17	**0.0402**
NJ	10.53	3.39	**0.0647**
TJ	17.54	20.34	0.7011
TP	22.81	23.73	0.9065
FP	35.09	28.81	0.4686
FJ	24.56	27.12	0.7532
IN	12.28	5.08	**0.0837**
EN	22.81	8.47	**0.0331**
IS	15.79	38.98	**0.0052**
ES	49.12	47.46	0.8576
ET	33.33	18.64	**0.0354**
EF	38.6	37.29	0.8846
IF	21.05	18.64	0.745
IT	7.02	25.42	**0.0074**
* P-values in bold type indicate that the distributions are statistically different at the 10% level or better.			

PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

Barry L. Padgett, Bellarmine University

ABSTRACT

Recent scholarship on the works of Adam Smith unveil philosophical foundations in business education which support the notion that consideration of ethics is central – not tangential – to the corporate environment. Mission statements and codes of ethics are not sufficient as substitutes for understanding moral sentiments at the basis of business ethics. Educational leadership entails encouragement to grasp reasons why one holds particular beliefs. Ethics education can focus on these philosophical foundations as means to greater employee self-understanding, better management and increased effectiveness of ethical values in business.

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is not just knowing what you believe, but understanding why you believe it. This involves being able to give a rational account, a philosophical defense, of one's beliefs and values. Educational leadership would thus appear to be as much about teaching students to critically reflect on the foundations of their beliefs as it is about communicating information. In this light, education in ethics, as in leadership, is neither indoctrination nor mere rhetorical persuasion; rather, it involves rigorous analysis and critical justification of one's beliefs. Ethics education, especially in the business environment, would entail the same stance toward a specific set of values: the goal should not be to indoctrinate nor merely rhetorically persuade, but to equip and encourage students to critically reflect on why they believe in the particular values that they hold. This would include their responses to specific issues and to case studies. Hence it seems justifiable and even preferable for business education curricula (beyond the foundations of business) to discuss philosophical foundations in – that is, as an integral part of – business ethics.

A PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATION OF CAPITALISM AND BUSINESS ETHICS

Concern about the ethical conduct of business is actually as old as capitalism itself. Some scholars have asserted that social ethics was indeed the foremost concern of Adam Smith – who is often credited as articulating the philosophical foundations of capitalism – and that his vision of political economy and the system of economics which he later developed were merely means to better achieve those social goals (Bassiry and Jones 1993). Prior to his publication of Wealth of Nations in 1776, which gives the philosophical justifications for maximization of social goods based on pursuit of self-interests, he had already expressed the view that self-control and sympathy are virtuous in his Theory of Moral Sentiments published in 1759. Tension between Smith's presentation of morality in the Theory of Moral Sentiments and the notable absence of any articulation of ethics

in his Wealth of Nations has become known in academic circles as the "Adam Smith Problem." Most recently, Otteson (2002) takes up the issue of how to reconcile this apparent paradox in his work, Adam Smith's Marketplace of Life, forcefully arguing that:

> Smith writes [in Wealth of Nations] that an exact administration of justice is necessary if the market is to yield the benefits it makes possible. Though he mentions it only a few times, he nevertheless makes the importance of this requirement clear. . . . Smith states not only the importance of justice but also what he means by the term. . . comprising chiefly two things: the protection of private property and the sanctity and obligation of voluntary contractual agreements. Unless there is public protection for these two things, Smith thinks independent producers, merchants, and consumers would not have enough trust in the security of their belongings and goods to risk making more than what their needs require or to risk making good-faith efforts to exchange their goods with those of others.

Hence for Smith, it was the combination of an individual's self-interest and that person's recognition of an inherent connection to society (obligations and trust) that both made a free market possible and also tempered any tendency of an individual to push the boundaries of moral acceptability. In short, many people believe there is a normative social responsibility perspective which precedes, even grounds, Smith's economic considerations. Woller (1996) has asserted:

> When Smith's Theory of Moral Sentiments is considered together with his Wealth of Nations, it becomes clear that Smith never advocated the mercenary society he described in the Wealth of Nations. Rather, Smith believed that all individuals possessed a moral sense as well as a self-interested side.

Thus from the Smithian foundation of capitalism, business ethics should not be an afterthought but is central to the success of a capitalistic society and the individuals who comprise it. Here we encounter the importance of leadership, the desirability that one not only know what one believes but also understand why one believes it: Smith not only articulates justifications for a free-market economy but also provides philosophical foundations for ethical conduct in business.

Nevertheless a sort of "mercenary society" as Woller calls it is often identified as the dominant paradigm for the development of capitalism in the United States during the 19th and 20th centuries, setting the context of commerce, marketing, management, and business relationships. Evidence of and support for that paradigm reaches one of its high points in the arguments of Friedman (1970), who claims that the only responsibility of business is to make profits, "moral sentiments" notwithstanding. Friedman's view radicalizes the self-interest side of Smith's ideas and minimizes the recognition of social responsibility (DesJardins and McCall, 2004). For Friedman, at most there is only an indirect social responsibility of business, which might be reflected by better products and jobs. Friedman's essay is cited frequently in academic business literature, sometimes as providing contemporary justifications for a free market.

But the history of capitalism cannot be written without recognition of the development of the other side of Smith's concerns, moral sentiments, in business relationships. The many responses to Friedman's arguments, from the 1970s to the present, put "business ethics" into the social mainstream and into the academy as well. Even though Harvard Business School, one of the early business schools in the country, first offered a class on "social factors in business" in 1915 (The Economist, 1992), the first textbooks devoted to business ethics did not appear until the 1970s: Ethical Issues in Business was one of only three textbooks on business ethics in 1979; it is now in its eighth edition (Donaldson, Van Zandt, Werhane, 2007). It would appear that, rather than exploring Smithian foundations of business ethics – perhaps due, in part, to difficulties of the "Adam Smith problem" – corporations and organizations opted instead toward the development of mission statements and codes of ethics to articulate and defend moral values in business. As we shall see, this approach may not have been wholly successful, and there are philosophical as well as practical reasons why this may be the case.

MISSION STATEMENTS AND CODES OF ETHICS

Whereas Adam Smith may have seen a common ethic as imprinted on human consciousness, corporations have traditionally sought to articulate their values independently, in the forms of mission statements, codes of conduct, and codes of ethics. During the middle decades of the 20th century, prior to the advent of business ethics as an academic enterprise, corporations developed mission statements and codes of conduct to state their business philosophy. These statements and codes were presumed to articulate the goals and values of their organizations. For example, the J.C. Penney Company adopted a "credo" in 1914 which stated the firm's basic ethical values; Johnson & Johnson in the 1940s developed a similar statement.

Mission statements were generally not intended to guide the behavior of employees but were statements about the purpose of the organization and its contribution of goods and services to society. On the other hand, codes of conduct often articulated an all-purpose set of values and described how a company reflected the values of society in general. Often codes of conduct were short statements (sometimes 300 words or less) and varied widely on the degree of moral emphasis or specificity. Thus a code of conduct was more likely to highlight attitudes or conduct aimed simply at promoting a healthy business, rather than outlining normative constraints on specific behaviors (Cooper, 1998).

From the 1980s to the present, however, businesses developed formal codes of ethics, separate from their mission statements or company codes of conduct. The recent trend of some businesses, in the wake of Sarbanes-Oxley legislation, is to go beyond formal codes of ethics to the hiring of ethics officers; these persons are responsible for monitoring the ethical codes and conducting training for their compliance. Additionally, there are now a number of independent ethics management companies and consultants, helping organizations to develop and implement corporate codes of ethics. Contemporary codes of ethics, now mandated, differ strikingly from the earlier mission statements and codes of conduct of many companies. A business code of ethics characteristically addresses relationships and situations that occur both internal and external to the organization. Honesty and openness are typically stressed, especially internally; then external concerns are addressed, such as conflicts of interest, the handling of company resources, privacy and

confidentiality, and relations to competitors. Internally, a code of ethics is intended to assist the individual in aligning his or her personal values to the values of the business. A code of ethics may even have the internal benefits of building teamwork and pride of performance, raising productivity and overall job satisfaction (Brandl and Maquire, 2002). Externally, the code of ethics of many businesses seek to address relations between the company and society by guiding or restricting interactions between employees and other legal entities, including business to business relationships. The rise of "stakeholder theory" in business ethics – the view, contrary to Friedman, that business has a responsibility to others (both internally and externally) who are significantly affected by the conduct of those within the corporation – has certainly contributed great strength to justifications for ethical principles governing business relationships (Beauchamp and Bowie, 2008).

MANAGEMENT AND VALUES

The recognition, however, that codes of ethics do not ensure ethical behavior is supported by the evidence of numerous scandals that have recently made media headlines. A number of recent highly publicized market failures, due in large part to moral failures, have occurred in organizations boasting codes of ethics. Less publicized infractions come to light almost daily and impact even the most highly regarded businesses. These market failures, precipitated on contributing moral failures, can nevertheless enlighten current practices and policies concerning business relationships. According to Paine (2003), businesses can "profit" from the mistakes of others by recognizing intuitive wisdom which is borne out by contemporary experiences: First, the support and implementation of a business code of ethics must come from the top down. The development and enforcement of an ethics code should not originate in, nor be the sole responsibility of, the legal, risk management or human resources departments. Business ethics begins with the executives of a corporation, whether or not they recognize it and even if they desire it to be otherwise; and there can be no mistake that it must find support in the board room. For example, the argument could be made that Enron opened the door to ethical mistakes when its board suspended its code of conduct – at the very least, this was an initial signal of the impending downward moral slide of the corporation (Ethics Resource Center, 2002). So neither the mere development of a code nor the hiring of a "values management" team will suffice; rather, senior management must promote the values of the code in order for it to be genuinely efficacious. Second, it must be realized that much of the burden for interpreting a code of ethics falls to middle management. Badaracco and Webb (1995) demonstrate that much of the inducement to behave unethically falls on middle management and young professionals; the managers whom they interviewed cited strong organizational pressures and situational demands to perform unethically. These pressures are especially difficult for newcomers to a profession.

Of course, having a corporate code of ethics is no guarantee of ethical behavior, neither on the part of employees nor management. One of the foremost issues regarding codes of ethics is compliance. Despite company mission statements, credos or codes of ethics, the "right thing to do" is too often identified as, or confused with, loyalty to the organization or one's superiors. Paine (2003) has argued that, if a business is serious about supporting ethical conduct the organization should promote a sense of integrity, responsibility and leadership by implementing policies and practices which integrate moral behavior into the ethos of the company. Paine distinguishes between a

"compliance" approach, based on risk management guidance and litigation concerns, and an "integrity" approach, based on the ideal of self-governance of individuals and recognition of virtuous ethical principles and ideals. Managers who define ethics narrowly as mere legal compliance are implicitly endorsing a code of moral mediocrity for their organizations. Paine argues that, even in the best cases, legal compliance is unlikely to unleash much moral imagination or commitment: the law does not seek to inspire human excellence or virtue. An integrity-based approach is a richer, more robust standard which can be seen as empowering managers to critically reflect on their values to find the right thing to do in complex situations.

LEADERSHIP, ETHICS AND EDUCATION

Recognition of these two alternative views of business ethics reinforces a point that is perhaps too often overlooked, especially in the academic setting of business education: trying to "do the right thing" (particularly as a middle manager) takes place in the context of career pressures, marriage and family concerns, financial worries and personal struggles. It is clear from these two approaches, however, that the latter is consistent with the Smithian view. From this perspective ethical leadership in management can be seen, not as founded on mission statements and codes of ethics, but as rooted in the very foundation of capitalist economy: a concern for "moral sentiments" which underlie and inform the boundaries of self-interest in the business environment. Limiting business ethics to compliance with codes is confining and unproductive; as authors of a recent article on corporate governance state, "...the traditional interpretation of Smith is too narrow and potentially harmful to society" (Stovall, Neill and Perkins, 2004).

Thus it becomes clear that it is up to organizations to foster ethical decision-making, not only through a code of ethics but from ethical leadership that starts at the top levels of the company, through middle management to every employee (Freiberg, 1998). Otherwise, companies run the risk that their codes of ethics are literally not worth the paper on which they are written. Organizational support for middle management, the level at which many ethical dilemmas arise, must be in place and tangible, since it is extremely difficult for these managers to simply walk away when ethical values clash with other interests. Moreover, education of future business leaders would seem to entail a thorough analysis and discussion of the ethical foundations in business, particularly implications from Smith's insight that moral sentiments should inform one's decision-making. This orientation to education will demonstrate the importance of understanding and being able to articulate why one believes in certain values.

REFERENCES

Badaracco, J.L. Jr., & A.P. Webb (1995). Business ethics: a view from the trenches. *California Management Review,* 37, 8-29.

Bassiry, G.R., & M. Jones (1993). Adam Smith and the ethics of contemporary capitalism. *Journal of Business Ethics,* 12, 621-627.

Beauchamp T., D. Arnold & N. Bowie (2008). *Ethical Theory and Business,* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Brandl, P., & M. Maguire (2002). Codes of ethics: a primer on their purpose, development and use. *Journal for Quality and Participation,* (Winter), 9-12.

Cooper, T., (1998). *The responsible administrator: An approach to ethics for the administrative role,* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. 151-156.

DesJardins, J.R., & J.J. McCall (2004). *Contemporary Issues in Business Ethics,* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Donaldson, T., J. Van Zandt & P. Werhane (2007). *Ethical Issues in Business: A Philosophical Approach,* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

The Economist (1992, May 16). Who Cares, Wins, 19-21.

Ethics Resource Center (2002), Why Wasn't Enron's Code of Conduct Enough? Retrieved August 28, 2005 from http://www.ethics.org/releases/nr_20020318_enron.html

Freiberg, K. (1998). Leaders as Value Shapers. *Executive Excellence,* November, 7-8.

Friedman, M. (1970, September 13). The social responsibility of business is to increase its profits. *New York Times Magazine.*

Otteson, J. (2002). *Adam Smith's Marketplace of Life,* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 170-198.

Paine, L.S. (2003). Managing for organizational integrity. In *Harvard Business Review: On Corporate Ethics* (pp. 85-112). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Stovall, O.S., J.D. Neill & D. Perkins (2004). Corporate governance, internal decision making, and the invisible hand. *Journal of Business Ethics,* 51, 221-227.

Woller, G. (1996). Business ethics, society, and Adam Smith: some observations on the liberal business ethos. *Journal of Socio-Economics,* 25, 311-332.

STUDENT EVALUATIONS OF TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS: A MARKETING RESEARCH PERSPECTIVE

Wayne A. Roberts, Jr., Southern Utah University

ABSTRACT

Despite hundreds of studies regarding student evaluations of teaching effectiveness, questions remain regarding their validity and reliability and their use in evaluating faculty. The purpose of this paper to be briefly review the literature on student evaluations, and to take a step back and revisit the whole process from a marketing, and particularly a marketing research, process. From a marketing research perspective universities and colleges need to identify the research purpose and objectives, and then devise methods and instruments to gather the necessary information. From the still broader marketing perspective, students are only one of several publics relevant to a university, and focusing undue attention on student evaluations may detract from meeting the needs of other important groups, such as graduate schools, faculty, employers, legislators and others. Indeed, different groups of students may be seeking to meet different needs, and this alone may suggest that answers to different types of questions to assess programs may be needed. Fundamentally, different groups have different needs that must be met, and these must be taken into consideration in devising information collection methods for decision-making, and in how this information is to be used.

THE ROLE AND CONTRIBUTIONS OF ACADEMIC RESEARCH AND PUBLISHING: AN ATTITUDINAL STUDY OF AACSB ACCREDITED BUSINESS SCHOOL FACULTY

Robert L. Taylor, Radford University
Angela D'Auria Stanton, Radford University
rtaylor@radford.edu

ABSTRACT

A study of AACSB accredited business school faculty(N=136) was conducted in order to understand their attitudes toward research and publishing and its role in and contributions to teaching effectiveness and student learning.

Historically the role of academic publishing in the academy has been to provide a venue for academic discourse and the dissemination of newly created knowledge. There is however a new paradigm emerging in business schools that is changing what should be the legitimate purpose and contribution of academic research. This shift is especially evident in schools which are accredited by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) and AACSB candidacy schools.

The new standards adopted by AACSB in 2003, specifically AACSB Standards 10 and 2, which address defining faculty as academically qualified (AQ) and professionally qualified (PQ), have caused academic publishing to become even more highly prioritized. Under the new standards the most important component for business faculty achieving and or maintaining AQ status is the number of referred journal publications. The new standards have, in many cases, caused AACSB accredited schools and candidacy schools to require a higher percentage of their faculty to actively engage in research, and more specifically publish their research in peer reviewed journals. This increased emphasis on the quantity of publications has the potential to shift the focus of research, to a degree greater than it has been, to publishing purely for the sake of publishing. The primary rationale provided for this increased emphasis on publications is that faculty who are actively engaged in research and publishing will be also be more effective teachers, and thus student learning will be enhanced.

Twenty years of published studies which have tested, theorized and analyzed the role of research and publishing and its relationship to teaching effectiveness were examined. The literature review shows that there appears to be no clear empirical evidence to support the value of research and publishing and the presumed role it plays in enhancing teaching effectiveness. The majority of past studies have concluded that there is, at best, little or no correlation between the quantity and/or quality of journal articles published and teaching success or effectiveness.

This study included a total of 25 attitude variables related to the research and publishing role of business faculty. Attitudinal differences were analyzed by gender, rank, tenure status, classification of students taught, academic discipline, university size and administrative faculty versus non-administrative faculty.

THE CAREER PORTFOLIO – TEACHING STUDENTS TO MARKET THEMSELVES

Denise Woodbury, Southern Utah University
email woodbury@suu.edu
William Neal, Brigham Young University– Hawaii
Dr. Lon Addams, Weber State University

Special acknowledgment:

ABSTRACT

Business communication courses are ideal for teaching practical job search tools. We typically teach college students how to write a resume and a cover letter. To assist upcoming graduates in their job search skills, some instructors do even more by providing tips for interviews and requiring mock interview practice. Is this the total package? Various professionals involved in job search research think otherwise.

In the typical business curricula, students are taught to communicate and market goods and services. However, researchers believe business educators are less diligent in teaching them to market themselves. McCorkle, Alexander, Reardon & Kling (2003) job search research led them to the position that marketing educators have the responsibility to teach students self-marketing/job search skill development; otherwise, good students can get bad jobs, which reflects not only on the students but also on colleges and universities providing business education. Campbell (2002 and 2006), McPherson (1998), and Powell & Jankovich (1998) also suggest that students need to be more engaged in marketing their own skills, knowledge, and abilities.

This article answers questions that arise when students are preparing a career portfolio. In this article, we suggest responses to common student questions:

What is a career portfolio?
Why should I create a career portfolio?
In what situation is a career portfolio valuable?
What should I include in my career portfolio?
What is a good format for my career portfolio?
Why should I consider an electronic portfolio?

What is a career portfolio?

Generally, your career portfolio is a visual representation of your abilities, knowledge, and potential. In an article on portfolio development, Heath (2005) describes the professional portfolio as an organized collection of self-selected artifacts and self-generated reflections, developed for a specific purpose and audience, which demonstrate the writer's professional knowledge, skills, dispositions, and growth over time.

Creating a career portfolio generates a process and a product. You communicate your accomplishments and skills to others–on paper. As you compile your portfolio, you will find yourself focusing on your values, interests, goals, and strategies, which will help in constructing a marketing package that conveys information about you.

Why should I create a career portfolio?

This is a lot of work! Why should I bother to prepare a portfolio?

Compiling a portfolio is an excellent way to prepare for an interview. You should showcase your skills and abilities in the portfolio. Start documenting accomplishments and examples of your work. Store them in a portfolio binder. As you gain skills through your career, reexamine and update your portfolio.

A further benefit of creating your portfolio is the potential realization of areas in your background that need improvement or that lack substance. Borgen, Amundson, and Reuter (2004) point out that when weak areas are identified, appropriate actions can be taken to gain needed expertise in a specific area.

In what situation is a career portfolio valuable?

Your career portfolio will be valuable as documentation of the abilities you have developed. Two common uses for your portfolio would be your (1) employment and internship interviews and (2) job performance appraisals.

Employment or Internship Interview

By assembling a career portfolio, you present eye-catching evidence that enhances your "selling" process. You need to catch the interviewer's interest to increase your chance for a job offer. You can communicate your preparation, professionalism, thoroughness, and commitment through your career portfolio.

Internships provide additional expertise in a specific area. Your career portfolio may make you more attractive as an applicant for an internship. Presenting your work to enhance your credibility makes good business sense. Your well-designed and documented career portfolio may be the edge you need to secure that prized internship.

Performance Appraisals

Once the job is yours, you should continue to update your career portfolio. This way, you will have examples of your effectiveness when your supervisor reviews your performance. Your manager will appreciate documented evidence. Rather than asking the manager to recall your specific piece of work, you can say, "Here is the latest issue of our newsletter that my staff and I produced." In this situation, the manager can be reminded of your high quality work; you can let the evidence speak for itself.

Most employees go into a performance appraisal with fear and trepidation. Will I be able to articulate my case so that I can receive a strong evaluation? Will I get a raise? Will I be able to explain past projects so that my manager will remember my ability? How can I possibly sell myself on my past five projects in less than15 minutes? The answer is to "show" and briefly "remind" the manager of your value. Your portfolio will generate additional respect and reinforce his/her perception that you are a "sharp employee."

What should I include in my career portfolio?

Naturally, your career portfolio will be different than other career portfolios. You have different skills and experiences that you want to emphasize. Further, you will need to tailor your portfolio to emphasize the skills and abilities for a particular situation. You may want to include:

Title Page ("Career Portfolio" and "Your Name")
Contents Page (items/documents listed in order of appearance)
Cover Letter and Resume (tailored to the job opening)
Academic Plan of Study (relevant courses titles / descriptions—not course numbers)
Professional Goals (short term and long term)
Personal mission statement
Written and Visual Documents that showcase your skills and abilities (for example, a ratio analysis, an analysis of payroll benefits, a marketing plan for a new product)
Leadership Experiences
Community Involvement
Performance Appraisals
Awards/Certificates/Honors
Letters of Commendation
Other Evidence of Professionalism
List of References
Solicited Letters of Recommendation

These exhibits make you more credible, but the letters of recommendation are particularly valuable. These letters provide an objective assessment of your skills, knowledge, and work ethic. When you solicit these letters, ask the writers to focus on your specific skills and attributes that will transfer to your new job.

What is a good format for my career portfolio?

Remember that you are marketing yourself; accentuate the positive. Accordingly, invest in an attractive, leather-look, binder. Organize your material to emphasize your abilities, education, and experience. Use sheet protectors throughout the binder to emphasize your high-quality work. Your portfolio will be valuable throughout your career. Add or replace exhibits as you develop your skills. Tailor your portfolio to your situation. Don't send this portfolio in lieu of a resume or application. Instead, carry your portfolio with you to the interview to demonstrate your skills.

Why should I consider an electronic portfolio?

For recruitment professionals, electronic portfolios are quickly becoming a popular tool in helping select candidates for interviews. A portfolio is a portable tool which you can build upon after graduation as you gain valuable work experiences.

Electronic portfolios may have some advantages. According to Heath (2005), electronic portfolios are much easier to reproduce, distribute, and access. Whereas the portfolio in a binder is limited to physically handing it off to other managers in a selection process, the electronic portfolio can be duplicated quickly and easily. The use of hyperlinks allows the writer to organize the portfolio to show relationships between major headings. Supporting artifacts can be linked to more than one heading and to each other to indicate more complex relationships. A side benefit in building an electronic portfolio is the evidence itself of the technology skills of the writer, which may be quite useful to the interviewer's organization. Most importantly, though, the electronic portfolio helps to market yourself.

The most frequently visited part of your portfolio will be your work experience. The employer is looking for evidence that you are a person who understands customer service, teamwork, productivity, and efficiency.

CONCLUSION

As professors, we help students prepare for their future careers. Now, we can provide our students with one more tool for their toolboxes: the career portfolio. In a career-building sense, this tool may be the hammer that nails down a successful interview.

REFERENCES

Borgen, W., Amundson, N. & Reuter, J. (2004). Using portfolios to enhance career resilience. *Journal of Employment Counseling,* 41(2), 50-59.

Campbell, N. (2006). Communicating visually: incorporating document design in writing tasks. *Business Communication Quarterly,* 69(4), 399-403.

Campbell, N. (2002). Getting rid of the yawn factor: Using a portfolio assignment to motivate students in a professional writing class. *Business Communication Quarterly,* 65(3), 42-54.

Heath, M. (2005). Rubric for electronic portfolio development. *Library Media Connection,* 24(3), 11.

Heath, M. (2005). Are your ready to go digital? The pros and cons of electronic portfolio development. *Library Media Connection,* 23(7), 66-70.

McCorkle, D., Alexander, J., Reardon, J. & Kling, N. "Developing self-marketing skills: Are marketing students prepared for the job search?", *Journal of Marketing Education,* 25(3), 196-207.

McPherson, W. (1998). Student perception about business communication in their careers. *Business Communication Quarterly,* 61(2), 68-79.

Moody, J., Stewart, B. & Bolt-Lee, C. Showcasing the Skilled Business Graduate: Expanding the Tool Kit. *Business Communication Quarterly,* 65(4), 21-36.

Occupational Outlook Quarterly (2006). Career portfolios: Jobseekers show their competencies. 50(2), 26.

Powell, K. S., & Jankovich, J. L. (1998). Student portfolio: A tool to enhance the traditional job search. *Business Communication Quarterly,* 61(4), 72-82.