Allied Academies
International Conference

New Orleans, LA
April 8-10, 2009

Academy of Educational Leadership

PROCEEDINGS

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THE ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR THE INTEGRATION OF RESEARCH AND EDUCATION IN KAZAKHSTAN

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this paper is to review the issues and challenges for the integration of research and education in post-soviet countries.

Lately the concept "integration of research and education" is being widely used in the post-soviet countries in instructions and various publications. However there is no common definition of the concept. Review of legislation and other official documents regulating research in Russia and Kazakhstan showed that the integration of research and education is a process of interaction, cooperation of research institutions and universities. A basic need for integration of research and education is primarily to create an effective system for a development of fundamental sciences through cooperation of researchers in universities and research institutions, support leading science schools, improve the quality of education, and develop new forms for training.

To achieve the research objectives, the paper applies a case-based qualitative research method and a quantitative analysis based on descriptive analysis. A wider range and a structured approach are employed in the research paradigm. Particularly, this study understands the issues and challenges for the integration of research and education through the prism of Kazakhstan.

The results showed that the essence of integration of research and education is in development of solid interrelations between research and academic activities, primarily based on project financing, management, stimulation and cooperation. The research enhances education with new knowledge, develops new, advanced methods of training, whereas education is a source to train new researchers. Solving of various problems of research and education depends on effective coordination.

In conclusion, this study suggests that, in Kazakhstan to facilitate full integration of research and universities it is anticipated to select five universities to establish and develop five laboratories for engineering research in accordance with recommended priorities. These national and university laboratories will provide for development of business incubators, aimed at implementation and commercialization of small engineering projects.

Keywords
Research, education, research institution, education institutions, business incubator, post-soviet, Kazakhstan

INTRODUCTION

Lately the concept "integration of research and education" is being widely used in the post-soviet countries in the instructions and various publications. However there is no common definition of the concept. Review of legislation and other official documents regulating research in Russia and Kazakhstan showed that research and education integration is a process of interaction, cooperation of research institutions and universities. Basic need for integration of research and education, is primarily to create an effective system for development of fundamental science through cooperation of researchers in the universities and research institutions, support leading science schools, improving the quality of education, development of new forms for training process.

In Kazakhstan positive change in integration of research and education outlined in the President's Decree dated 11 March, 1996 #2895 "Regarding strengthening the system of national control of science" [1], Government's resolution dated 14 February, 2000 #236 "Regarding some measures for integration of education and research in the Republic of Kazakhstan" [2]. President's Decree opened the transition path to relatively effective integration by contractual program and purpose oriented financing and management of research and development (R&D), carried out by research groups outside of particular department and location. It includes on one hand selection and approval of priority research directions, and on the other hand setting up head institutes for each research direction and developing research programs.

Kazakhstan Law dated 9 July, 2001 #225 – II «Regarding science and research» to integrate science and education in the universities provides for setting up research institutes, specific research laboratories, other departments, and within research institutions to open university faculties/departments in accordance with legislation of Kazakhstan [3].

National program for development of education in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2005-2010 establishes main directions for further development of integration of education and research as follows:

- Concentration of resources for priority research directions;
- Creation of research institutes and laboratories in the universities, and university branches in the research centers and technopolises (industrial parks);
- Performing integrated research between universities and scientific centers administrating scientific programs [4].

Modern status of integration of research and education in the Republic of Kazakhstan is characterized by various forms of cooperation of universities and research institutes. In most of the cases these are cooperation agreements for fundamental and applied research, development and implementation of research projects and programs; academic and work practice in the laboratories and pilot plants of Research Institutes (NII); attraction of the leading researchers of NII to teaching, to supervision of internship and thesis writing, co-education of post-graduate students; lecturing at leading universities.

International practice of the developed countries shows that there is no division of scientist to only researchers or only instructors/professors. Normally, both of these groups do research and teach, working in the one research and education centers, which is a university with a network of research institutes. In Kazakhstan university NII operate for several decades, and it is one of the

forms for integration of research and education. In 1980-s there were approximately 60 such NIIs, and their main objective was to carry out fundamental, exploration and applied research; implementation of research results in the production; training of highly qualified professionals; taking active part in training process of the university using the latest technologies and research results; attracting teachers, post-graduate and undergraduate students to research [5].

PRACTICES OF RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT IN KAZAKHSTAN

Analysis showed further integration of science and university education in Kazakhstan is strongly supported by the Government. Thus, portion of budgetary funds in the total amount of domestic expenditures in 2007 made 50,9 % compared to 40,4 % in 2000. For the period 2000-2007 volume of GDP in Kazakhstan in real terms increased 2,2fold. For the same period internal input for research and development increased 3 times, as the result one of major indicators of scientific and technical potential of the country – share of cost for research and development in GDP – in 2007 made 0,21 % compared to 0,18 % in 2000. For comparison, financing of research (share of research and development costs in GDP) in Sweden makes 3,7 %, in Japan – 3,01, the USA – 2,63, Germany – 2,38 % [6]. In the USA input to education over 8 % of GNP, Japan – 6,5 %, UK – 5% [7].

Distribution of domestic R&D costs by the source of financing shows that three out of five sources (budgetary funds, clients and internal funds) in 2007 made 98,2%, foreign funds made 1,7%. In 2000-2007 the budgetary funds made a major rise (3,7 fold), which proves the noticeable increase of the government's role in financing the science.

In 2007 84,5% of budgetary funds addressed for NII and Universities financing. International practice shows that company funds make the major part in research and development financing. For the analyzed period there were noticeable changes in the distribution of amount of R&D by the type of organizations. Thus, if in 2000 91,2 % of research and technical works implemented by the NII and Universities, in 2007 this ratio made 86,8 % due to reduced number of R&D, implemented by NII for 2,7 % and by Universities for 1,7 %.

Among the R&D in Kazakhstan fundamental research in 2007 made 13,1 %, applied research made 57,7 %, research and development (design and development, technology development, pilot samples and set production, design works for construction) - 29,2 %. Compared to year 2000 (15:55:30) structural ratio of research in Kazakhstan did not change.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND DISCUSSION

In the developed countries ratio of fundamental and applied research and R&D is 15:25:60. As shown above, in Kazakhstan there is still certain deformation in the distribution of the volume of R&D by types: the part of performed R&D at the stage of mastering the market of science intensive products twice as low then in the worldwide practice. As the result performed researches are not brought to producing completed scientific products, ready to be introduced in production. Such state is conditioned by first of all poor state of industrial research – the core unit of research potential, and of the design and development institutions in the country.

Analysis shows that R&D financing in the country is structured similar to market economy, especially for R&D performed by universities, which are mainly financed as follows:

- combination of budgetary and non-budgetary sources, including grants (research scholarships);
- applied research financing (repayable);
- financing from non-governmental sources in order to commercialize the technology;
- increased financing of the research and development by private companies;
- private financing of R&D, development of venture and leasing of technological projects.

Rather new element of university research financing is a system of grants (scholarships), which is now considered as a basis for target support of smaller, but efficient research teams and individual researchers. It also allows researchers and the projects to obtain public and scientific recognition, provides for independence in selecting research topics, promotes further research for fundamental problems. Grant system proved its effectiveness and being used by the Science Fund of the Republic of Kazakhstan.

Ultimate aim of integration of research and education in Kazakhstan should be to provide professionals for national innovation system and national economy in general. Key directions to achieve that aim are as follows:

- Improve the quality of education and training of scientific and engineering professionals with modern skills and knowledge of latest scientific and technological achievements as well as research experience, accumulated during the training period;
- Attract and encouragement of talented young researchers in science and education;
- Efficient distribution of budgetary funds, human, information, material and equipment resources of research institutions and universities for fundamental and applied research and for training researchers;
- Facilitate interrelation of private sector with corporate science, processes of commercialization of research findings and development and transfer of technology to real economy.

National support of integration of research and education should focus on the following directions:
1. Development of legal regulations to provide for generation and effective functioning of various forms of integration of research and education.
2. Support institutional development of research and education centers, including:
    - further priority support of leading research universities being major research and education centers by the government based on increased financing, to cover also research work performed by faculty members, renewal of instrument and information resources, personnel development;
    - development of research and education associations to implement academic programs and researches;
    - use of academic potential of leading research institutions by opening Master programs, key faculties, and joint research laboratories;
    - setting up innovation consortiums of universities, research centers, enterprises and, possibly, financing institutions, to further develop it into sustainable innovation clusters;

- facilitate joint participation of research institutes and universities in grant programs and awards for R&D, joint research publications, scholarships and etc.;
- establishment of joint academic councils by research directions, specialized councils to award academic degrees based in research centers and universities.

3. Introduction of new tools of budgetary funding to support integration processes in the field of science and education in relation with number of required measures to increase efficiency of budgetary funds distribution for research, including:

- competitive financing of network projects (consortium), aimed at creation of firm interrelations between universities and research centers and development of innovation clusters involving business sector;
- focused financing of medium-term (3-5 years) programs to develop research and education institutions (research universities, research and education centers, advanced research centers, core faculties and laboratories), to support development of academic research, material, instrument and information resources, advanced training and academic mobility of researchers and professors, in the form of institutional grants with proper legal regulations.

4. Development of human resources, including:

- providing large grants to young researchers and instructors to organize research, acquire research equipment, development and implementation of innovative academic programs, set up of small pilot companies for up to 5 years, as well as preferential loans;
- development of special programs to support young research teams and student design offices within universities;
- implementation of personnel mobility (exchange) between research centers, universities and companies.

5. Infrastructure organization for integration processes in the field of science and education, including:

- transfer of restructured premises, equipment and other property to research centers;
- set up centers for joint use of research equipment, telecommunication network, common centers of information, research and development centers, testing area and etc.;
- development of standard invocative infrastructure within universities and national research institutions (technology transfer center, research and development parks, consulting firms, business incubators and etc.), supporting of set up of small pilot companies;
- implementation of academic programs in the field of innovation management.

CONCLUSIONS

The analysis showed that the essence of integration of research and education is in development of solid interrelations between research and academic activities, primarily based on project financing, management, stimulation and cooperation. The research enhances education with new knowledge, develops new, advanced methods of training, whereas education is a source to train

new researchers. Solving of various problems of research and education depends on effective coordination.

In the developed countries research is performed by universities, national research centers, private non-profit research centers and private research institutions owned by business structures. At that universities traditionally take important role in research and perform fundamental studies and training of research professional. Thus, in EU the share of universities involved in research in 2003 made 21,4 %, where, in Greece - 44 %, Slovakia - 13 %. National and private non-profit research institutions, with some exceptions, focus primarily on applied research. Private companies focus on experimental development investing into applied research.

In Kazakhstan to facilitate full integration of research and universities it is anticipated to select five universities to establish and develop five laboratories for engineering research in accordance with recommended priorities. These national and university laboratories will provide for development of business incubators, aimed at implementation and commercialization of small engineering projects.

Major objective of current stage of integration of research and education in Kazakhstan, in my opinion, should be training of professionals for research and high tech, encouragement of research in leading universities, focusing academic and university research on priority directions, joint access to and use of expensive equipment.

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A PHILOSOPHICAL AND STRATEGIC APPROACH FOR RESTRUCTURING AN UNDERGRADUATE MARKETING CURRICULUM: A PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF BOYER COMMISSION REPORT DIRECTIVES

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ABSTRACT

This paper uses the directives of the Boyer Commission Report (1998) entitled, "Reinventing Undergraduate Education: A Blueprint for America's Research Universities" to create a curriculum assessment tool. As an auditing framework, this tool will assist the undergraduate curriculum planner to determine (in)adequacies in current marketing programs. As a planning framework, this tool will assist in formulating the strategic planning for the marketing curriculum.

The author first reviews the history and content of the Boyer Commission Report (1998), a result of a three-year investigation by the National Commission on Educating Undergraduates in the Research University. Boyer's ten directives along with associated guiding statements form the basis for the development of an auditing and planning framework. Then, specific curriculum recommendations are identified for each area and included in the framework as well as a section for tracking the areas of strengths and weakness in current programming. Other curriculum re-design models or tools are compared and contrasted to the approach provided.

EVALUATING THE LEVEL OF CRITICAL THINKING IN INTRODUCTORY INVESTMENTS COURSES

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ABSTRACT

One challenge of teaching an investments course is raising the level of learning from lower levels of the cognitive domain such as remembering and understanding to higher levels such as evaluating and creating. This paper addresses the development of test questions and tasks based upon the updated version of Bloom's taxonomy (1956) as presented by Anderson and Krathwohl, et al (2001). For each cognitive level, we provide example questions or tasks specifically suited for an investments course. This approach fosters measurement of all the cognitive skill levels needed in today's global financial marketplace.

STUDENTS' RIGHTS: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR POSTSECONDARY STUDENT ACADEMIC FREEDOM

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ABSTRACT

Student rights have become a growing concern for institutions ever since the court case, Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education (1961) rejected the idea of in loco parentis. More recently students and stakeholders have been promoting students' rights for academic freedom. This paper examines student academic freedom in light of a shift from in loco parentis to the "age of majority" doctrine based on the twenty-sixth amendment of the US Constitution. Furthermore, it lays the groundwork for contractual relationships between students and postsecondary institutions. These concepts resulted in the development of the Student Academic Freedom Conceptual Model. It demonstrates the contractual nature of student academic freedom based on institutional, state, and federal standards as an extension because of the "age of majority" doctrine.

THE EXECUTIVE MBA: IS THE HIGH-PRICED EDUCATION A TOUGH SELL IN TODAY'S ECONOMY?

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ABSTRACT

Executive MBA (EMBA) programs have become a big business for universities. Given the state of today's economy, can sponsoring firms and potential students justify participating in an expensive EMBA program? While popular publications may present general information about EMBA programs, they do not present a statistical analysis of the programs. To fill the void, I analyze variations across EMBA programs

SCHOOL ACCOUNTABILITY STATUS, STUDENT CORE GPA AND ACT AS PREDICTORS FOR FIRST YEAR COLLEGE RETENTION

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Wade Smith, Louisiana State University
Anthony Guarino, Alabama State University

ABSTRACT

Because of mandates imposed by No Child Left Behind, schools across America are being ranked for their effectiveness on a number of student criteria. Additionally, a common expectation for high schools today is the preparation of students for a successful college experience. With these issues in mind, this study investigates the relationships between several school and school/student variables: School accountability status, student core GPA, and student ACT. The student variables are included in the study because of their historic association with expected college success. School accountability rankings are a recent phenomenon, and therefore they provide an intriguing proxy for school effects upon student first year college retention. The study utilizes a predictive model and looks at both the collective and individual contributions of the variables to first year college retention. The full paper provides complete analyses, discussions, and implications for the results.

WAYS EXECUTIVES INTERPRET AND ACT ON COMMON WORKPLACE EVENTS: IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ENTREPRENEURIAL EXECUTIVE

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ABSTRACT

Entrepreneurial executives actively seek opportunities for their companies. Their efforts to identify these opportunities and commercially exploit them can be greatly enhanced by executives that actively seek information that leads to opportunity recognition and constructively collaborate with their peers to aid in the exploitation of those opportunities. This study assesses the effect of the Need for Closure (NFC) on the degree credit union executives rely on their own experiences and coworkers of equal hierarchical rank in interpreting common workplace events. The patterns of behavior they exhibited in interpreting and acting on these events should also be reflective of how these individuals would pursue entrepreneurial activities. Respondents were classified into two equal size groups based on their NFC (Webster & Kruglanski, 1994; Kruglanski, Webster & Klem, 1993) scale scores. The high and low NFC group scores on the Event Management Questionnaire (Smith, Peterson & Schwartz, 2002) reflecting their reliance on their own experiences and coworkers of equal hierarchical rank were then compared. The results supported the hypothesis that NFC would be negatively related to the reliance on coworkers but did not support the hypothesis that NFC would be positively related to reliance on the executives' prior experience. Post hoc analysis revealed that the relationship between NFC and reliance on coworkers was only significant in the case of female respondents.

A CROSS-FUNCTIONAL TEAM APPROACH TO LEARNING PRINCIPLES OF MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

This article is intended to address a common challenge experienced by teachers in higher education -- how to blend theory into practice in the classroom? It is premised on the development of a semester-long business simulation project that emphasizes learning business knowledge and skills. More specifically, the project is designed to help students develop all business aspects in an effort to help revitalize New Orleans by building a first-class hotel and convention center in the wake of Hurricane Katrina. In addition to applying the principles of management learned throughout the semester, students are expected to develop cross-functional teams and establish systems of sharing information to guide the project's success. The assignment reflects the challenges and rewards of applying the learning organization model to the 21st century workplace, and culminates with an oral presentation to local business executives who help with the final grading.

STRATEGICALLY PLANNING CAMPUSES FOR THE "NEWER STUDENT" IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

The "traditional" 18 – 22 year old, residential college student makes up only 16% of the students enrolled in public and private two- and four-year institutions. More than half of today's students are older and are taking classes part-time. Over a million attend for-profit institutions and millions more participate in postsecondary education experiences offered by corporate universities. Most work full or part-time, have little interest in out-of-class activities, and are very savvy about computer-based technologies. These are the "newer students" of higher education and represent the largest market segment of those who will attend college in the foreseeable future. It would seem the drastic shift in market characteristics would be accompanied by strategic shifts by universities as they plan for the future. This paper considers how changes in college student body characteristics over the years have (or should have) prompted college leaders to alter their thinking about many aspects of campus offerings, facilities, operations, services, and pricing. We examined strategic plans of many universities and conclude, while many recognize the changing characteristics of the potential student population, most are pursuing strategies that may be strategically planning their downfalls.

DOES PHYSICAL CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT AFFECT STUDENT PERFORMANCE, STUDENT SATISFACTION, AND STUDENT EVALUATION OF TEACHING IN THE COLLEGE ENVIRONMENT?

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ABSTRACT

While several studies have examined the impact of the physical classroom setting on student learning and student outcomes in K-12 educational levels, there have been relatively few attempts to determine the extent to which classroom environment impacts learning and satisfaction in the college setting. Yet, many colleges and universities have recently invested significant resources into the upgrade of learning environments and the building of new classrooms with upgraded features.

The purpose of this research is twofold. First, we review the literature to determine those features of upgraded learning environments that are likely to impact student outcomes and student satisfaction in the college setting. Second, we conduct a survey of two-hundred thirty-seven undergraduate business students in order to identify the salient environmental characteristics that impact performance, satisfaction, and student evaluation of teaching. Implications of the research findings for administrative decision-makers are also discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Researchers have examined several features of classroom learning environments and the impact of various features at the K-12 education level (Earthman 2002, Young et al 2003). These studies find that building conditions such as wall color, lighting, temperature, cleanliness, student comfort, and classroom technology are significantly positively related to student outcomes both with respect to performance and attitude (Fisher 2001, Hurst 2005). However, there have been relatively few studies that have examined the impact of classroom environment at institutions of higher learning (Siegel 2003). As business schools spend millions of dollars on facilities, it is important to analyze the impact of different environmental features so that students, faculty and universities get the most benefit from the spending. Further, additions and upgrades to existing facilities can create large disparities in classroom environments sometimes even within the same building. These disparities may provide an unfair advantage to students enrolled in sections that happen to be in the upgraded classrooms. Finally, physical characteristics of rooms may affect student evaluation of teaching. Extensive prior research exists on student satisfaction and the student evaluation of teaching in the university environment (Barth 2008, Merritt 2008). Prior research has shown significant relationships between student evaluation of teaching and factors such as instruction quality, course difficulty, and grades (Zabaleta 2007). Additionally, student satisfaction has been significantly linked with the values congruence between instructor and student and with the extent

to which the overall course structure aligns with student expectations and preferences (Westerman et al 2002). However, researchers have not thoroughly examined the impact of the physical classroom environment on student satisfaction measures and student evaluations of teaching. The classroom disparities that can exist within one university highlight the importance of determining the impact of physical classroom environment on both student satisfaction and the student evaluation of teaching.

The purpose of this research is twofold. First, we review the literature to determine those features of upgraded learning environments that are likely to impact student outcomes and student satisfaction in the college setting. Second, we conduct a survey of two-hundred thirty-seven undergraduate business students in order to identify the salient environmental characteristics that impact performance, satisfaction, and student evaluation of teaching. Implications of the research findings for administrative decision-makers are also discussed.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Two streams of prior research are relevant to this study: research on classroom environment and research on student satisfaction and evaluation of teaching. While prior research has defined environment in numerous ways, including both tangible and intangible factors in a classroom, this study addresses only the physical characteristics of classrooms. The research related to physical classroom environment has examined such factors as classroom lighting, climate control, classroom technology, desk comfort, and seating arrangements (Conway 2000). Prior literature related to the student satisfaction and the student evaluation of teaching has primarily examined the relationship between such ratings and factors including subject matter interest, course design, and teacher performance. Little research exists that relates physical classroom environment and overall student satisfaction or student evaluation of teaching.

The literature related to physical classroom environment has primarily focused on the impact of environment on student attitudes and student achievement on the K-12 education level (Fisher 2001). Young et al (2003) stress the importance of the physical environment and note that student achievement is impacted by such factors as lighting, noise, and climate control. The authors also describe student perception of physical environment, noting that students as young as elementary school age are aware of the physical attributes of their learning environment and have a sense of whether the environment is appropriately updated and conducive to learning.

In the university setting, researchers have recently examined the components of upgraded, or “smart”, classrooms that may impact student learning. Griffin (1990) uses person-environment interaction theory to describe the potential impact of physical design, visual factors, aural factors, and physical stimulation on college students. Banning (1993) notes that the physical environment of the college classroom can impact student learning by signaling desirable instructional behavior and by communicating the level of formality that is expected in classroom interaction. Vartabedian (2003) details the computer technology, audio visual components, and network structures that are typically included in classroom upgrades. These classrooms differ from traditional classrooms by providing a wide range of computer, media, projection, and communication equipment. Fundamentally, upgraded (smart) classrooms should reach more learners as instructors have more communication options and therefore can reach more learning styles (Conway 2000).

The tendency of colleges and universities to upgrade or remodel single classrooms as funds become available can create significant differences in the classroom environments available to students within an individual institution. It is important to determine the extent to which students perceive and value quality differences in classroom environments, as the ability of upgraded classrooms to enhance student learning my provide an unfair advantage to students who are enrolled in course sections that are delivered in upgraded environments.

Given amount of money institutions expect to spend on facility upgrades as opposed to the basic purpose of a classroom, which is simply to communicate information to students, (Valenti 2002), it is vital to understand the value placed on physical classroom environment by college and university students. While extensive research has found that primary and high school students are affected by their physical environment, those effects may not transfer to college level students because college students are older and typically spend less time in an individual classroom facility. The research questions to be explored in this study are as follows:

RQ1: Do university students perceive significant differences in the physical environment of their classrooms?

RQ2: Which physical classroom environment factors do university students react to most strongly?

RQ3: Are students expected grades related to the physical characteristics of the classroom?

RQ4: Do physical classroom environment factors impact student satisfaction and the student evaluation of teaching?

METHODOLOGY

Two accounting instructors, one teaching intermediate accounting the other accounting information systems (AIS), taught two sections of the same class during the same semester. Each taught one section in an updated classroom and one section in a "standard" classroom. The classes were of approximately equal size. The instructors taught each section of the same class using the same syllabus, the same exams, the same homework, the same books, projects, lecture notes, and lecture styles. One instructor taught in the updated room first, while the other taught in the standard room first. The Instructors both taught one afternoon section (either 2:00 PM or 3:30 PM) and one evening section (5:00PM). The instructors made every effort to treat the courses and students in both rooms equally.

Some of the characteristics that differentiated the classrooms were the seating, room capacity, lighting, entry, and computing equipment. In the updated room the seating was tiered with tables in fixed rows and rolling cushioned chairs, while the standard classroom had one-armed movable desks on a level floor. The updated classroom had larger capacity; it held 85 while the standard classroom sat 60. The updated classroom had flexible lighting (lights could be on or off in different zones of the room) while the standard classroom had fixed lighting (all on or all off).

The updated classroom was rear entry from the left and right, while the updated classroom had side entry at the front and back of the room. Finally, the updated classroom had computer workstations at each desk.

FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Results of the analysis indicate that students are able to perceive differences between standard and upgraded classroom settings in the college setting. The summed responses to Likert style questions were used to categorize the areas in which noted differences were salient. The strongest results were for seating, overall classroom features, technology, aural differences, and lighting.

Performance in the survey was measured with responses related to expected grade in the course. No relationship was found between expected grade and physical classroom characteristics, when controlled for grade point average and age of student. Student satisfaction, measured by two questions in the survey, was significantly higher in upgraded classrooms. Similarly, students in upgraded classrooms evaluated certain teacher evaluation measures higher in the upgraded classroom.

The implications of the findings of this research are significant in a number of ways. First, the finding that college students are aware of differences between upgraded and standard classrooms is important for decision-makers who seek to upgrade existing facilities based on student needs. Additionally, the categorization of the areas in which students note preferences for classroom upgrades is beneficial to those who impact decisions regarding classroom design. The unexpected finding that students notice differences regarding classroom technology, yet classroom technology upgrades do not impact measures of student satisfaction, is important because scarce resources should perhaps be allocated to areas that impact satisfaction. An interesting implication of the results related to classroom technology concerns the purchase and installation of individual computers for each desk in upgraded classrooms. Further research should examine whether this expenditure is justified when student satisfaction is not impacted by the presence of the computers.

The finding that certain measures of the student evaluation of teaching are impacted by the physical classroom environment is significant. The possibility of such evaluations being biased by the physical learning environment is an important implication for faculty members and college administrators who make performance decisions based on the results of student evaluations of teaching. The inclusion of the physical classroom environment in studies examining the factors impacting student evaluation of teaching is warranted.

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UNDERSTANDING MULTIMEDIA POTENTIALS IN TIMES OF BUDGET UNCERTAINTY

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this paper is to present some of the experiences and insights I have gained using different multimedia techniques to augment or replace traditional classroom space. During the 2008-2009 academic year, many institutions have experienced unprecedented budget cuts, faculty position losses and program elimination. These budget issues have caused many administrators to rethink the way technology is utilized in the traditional classroom. The concept of being able to service more students at one time is not a new one. Many lectures are offered with several hundred students. Existing technology offers many opportunities to faculty to supplement their courses or move them entirely on-line. Knowing the economic climate of 2009, it is essential to reexamine exactly how courses are delivered. Understanding what is possible, along with the costs associated with each technique, is key to being effective in these radical financial times. Topics addressed include the use of on-line synchronous courseware, as well as, asynchronous learning with the use of on-line videos that anyone can generate for any topic and the costs associated with each of these strategies.

INTRODUCTION

Administrators are constantly faced with choices of how to maximize resources in all phases of academia. Regardless of the level of the administrator, each of them needs to understand this facet of cost cutting. By integrating various methods of multi-media technology into their course offerings, they can reduce the stress on their space and time needs. The various types of technology require different levels of sophistication in terms of administrative overhead, faculty time to implement and budget to utilize. All of those factors must be considered before implementation. In today's environment, it is important to realize the student's view of the world in terms the way they communicate. Young adults don't use the telephone the way that previous generations did. They live in a world that involves text messaging, digital video recorders and digital media players and video games. It takes a little perspective to understand what they take for granted.

In 2001, Marc Prensky coined the terms digital native and digital immigrant. He refers to the demographics of our students that have never lived without digital information. I have lived through the birth of the personal computer, which makes me a digital immigrant. Even though I am an early adopter, I still remember the "dark ages" before we had computers everywhere. Today's students don't know what it is like to have to write letters to communicate and wait several days for it to be delivered. They don't know what it is like to buy a cassette tape or have to watch the President on television because he was on every channel. Today's students have never known life without call waiting or caller ID.

The basic concept to understand is the difference between an asynchronous delivery model and a synchronous one. Almost any class could be converted to an online synchronous one. This would include utilizing a Collaborative Communication Framework like Elluminate. In an Elluminate class, students would meet at a time just as they would during a regular classroom meeting. Class would have a traditional beginning and end and everyone would be at the same point in the course material. Some classes are well suited for students to work somewhat at their own pace. The use of streaming media, created from a wide variety of sources will allow for this model to be used. An asynchronous class would be available to students and allow them to work on their own. Some students might be finishing chapter 2 and others might be all the way to chapter 5 at the same time. Some classes work well in an asynchronous format others do not. It is easier to describe the type of class that doesn't work well in an asynchronous format than one that does. Classes that are centered around group work or strive for some type of community building, typically work poorly in this format. Classes that might use tools or techniques that require strict supervision, either for precision or safety will have difficulty in utilizing this technique. For example, how competent would a nurse be that had only learned about inserting the needle for an IV from a web site. In the same tone, imagine the competency of a woodworker who only learned about dovetails from an online lesson. In short, there is not a one size fits all solution to the problems we all face.

ELLUMINATE

Using a Collaborative Communication Framework in the classroom is a new and exciting way to impart knowledge to students. The basic premise is to utilize an on line environment as a meeting space. Place is no longer an important factor in scheduling classes. The Elluminate interface is a simple but powerful one. The instructor can utilize both voice and video as well as text chatting. The interface also includes a whiteboard area with a full complement of paint tools. The whiteboard area can be used to display PowerPoint slides. The slides must be converted from the native format. That is, the slide show must be changed from a complete slide show to a series of still images. Elluminate manages the conversion of the files with minimal effort. Each session can be recorded and replayed for students to review or for students who might have missed the live session. The interface is very intuitive and students take to it right away. They have the ability to raise their hand to get the attention of the instructor enable their camera and microphone. Their video is never live without their knowledge. They must enable it for others to see it. Students are always concerned about their privacy.

The real power of the Collaborative Communication Framework method of on line classes is the ability to provide the structure of a traditional classroom with a normal meeting time and space in an online format. This format gives the one-to-one, face-to-face feeling of a regular class, while eliminating the administrative issues of space allocation. Most academic programs do not have an excess of space. At my institution, classrooms are booked all day every day from 8 am until after 7 pm. Being able to offer the class in the Collaborative Communication Framework allows instructors to offer the classes at the times students want to take them. Most students at my institution want to take class between 10 am and 2 pm. Obviously, no college in the world wants to have empty classrooms twenty hours a day. At the same time, administrators need to understand

what students want. This format gives students what they need in terms of scheduling flexibility and convenience.

The weaknesses of this method are the obvious technological ones. Do students have an available computer? The vast majority of college students have computers at home. However, does the computer they have meet the minimum requirements to join the class. Does their computer allow them to join the class in a full and complete way. One frustration students exhibit, is the lack of camera and microphone to fully engage in the class. It is important to realize fragile nature of this type of instruction. If a student has a poor initial experience with the technology they may dismiss any further interaction as pointless. In such a situation, the instructor then has much more work to rehabilitate that student's perception of the class.

Many instructors who don't utilize any on line material mistakenly think that it is a time saver. The time commitment is much expanded in the best case and is expanded even further in extreme situations. The preparation time for each class is much larger than for a traditional classroom. Most instructors, on a bad day, have gone to lecture less than fully prepared and leaned on their expertise to get them through the lecture. In the Collaborative Communication Framework method, this is not really feasible. Due to the increase in the level of complexity in just getting information to students, the lack of preparation will almost always show through. There is minimal administrative overhead involved with Elluminate. The service is hosted at the corporate site. An administrator is needed to set up the sessions and manage the number of seats allocated at particular times. The total cost is flexible, ranging from free for 3 seats to $1500.00 for 20 seats to a negotiated price for larger numbers. There is considerable excitement surrounding this technology. It should continue to increase in use and acceptance.

STREAMING MEDIA CREATION

Teaching complex or not so complex topics can effectively be supplemented or replaced with streaming media. The discussion here will focus on three tools to generate the media content. Camtasia, Jing and Captivate are all competitors in the market. The concept here is to record a lecture from the computer with a software demonstration, PowerPoint presentation, or whiteboard demo. Then disseminate it to students to either supplement an existing face to face class or replace it altogether.

Camtasia is the most feature laden of the group. Camtasia includes a recorder, editor, and renderer. The core of the package is the recorder. It allows the end user to record the entire screen or any portion thereof for broadcast. The interface is simple and very intuitive. Once the screen proportions are selected, the user clicks the record button and watches for a three second countdown for the recording to begin. The user may pause the recording with the F9 key or end recording with the F10 key. The key combinations are fully customizable for users who have preprogrammed function key applications. The best practice is to record the video in small two or three minute segments and assemble them in the producer after the project is complete. It is far easier to manage content for a short segment as opposed to long segments. Imagine recording a 45-minute segment without making any verbal faux pas. It is much preferable to spend time rerecording a two-minute segment than to work in the editor to remove a sneeze, inadvertent telephone ringing or mistake in the software demonstration.

Production is a simple task as well. The producer is used to insert the individual video clips into the proper order. Individual segments may be edited to remove any unwanted items. Audio levels may also be adjusted at this point and any picture in picture segments inserted. The last step in the production is the render. This step involves the conversion of the raw video files into a file format that conforms to the need for the intended audience. Camtasia has a wide variety of output formats including Flash, Quicktime, Real Media and AVI. It also has the capability to create output for mobile devices such as the Sony PSP, Apple IPod and Microsoft Zune player.

The render time will vary greatly according to the speed of the computer and quality level of the final product. Typical render times will range from less than one second per second of video to more than five second per second. It is easy to see that a moderate speed computer with a high quality product might take five hours or more to generate a single hour of video. Luckily, Camtasia has a batch renderer to process several projects in order, overnight or over a weekend.

The last element to consider is the host of the processed video file. Camtasia offers a hosting service for a fee or the files may be hosted on any web server. Special consideration must be used in the selection of file types for use on specific server types. For example; a standard flash file (SWF) may be used on any web server, while a real media file (RM) must be located on a real server.

Jing is another software package similar to Camtasia. Techsmith produces both Jing and Camtasia. Jing is a more bare bones recording package as compared to its more expensive cousin. There are a few advantages to using Jing. First is the price. Jing is free. Techsmith does offer an upgraded version called Jing Pro for $15.00 per year. The pro version offers expanded output file types including mpeg4 video intended for uploading to Youtube.com. The standard version only creates swf files. The second advantage to using Jing is the speed. Jing encodes the file in the swf file format during the record phase. This means there is no render phase to the production process. In plain language, when you record the video the file is immediately ready to send to the web server for sharing. Additionally, Jing allows for one button uploading of files to Techsmith's web server called Screencast.com. The hosting of Jing files is free, however a Techsmith banner appears at the beginning of the video. When a video is uploaded a link is automatically emailed to the account owner to facilitate posting to a content management system such as WebCT, Blackboard, or Moodle. The link can also be distributed as an email link. Another unique feature of Jing the ability to run on Window and Mac. The interface is almost identical on both operating systems.

Adobe Captivate is another capable product in the same category as Camtasia and Jing. It works on the same principal in recording the screen. It records in a different manner than Captivate or Jing. The files are more like a series of still images that allow the placement of other video files to illustrate specific concepts. As the most expensive of the three ($799.00), Captivate is loaded with features. One wonderful feature is the automatic captioning of mouse events within the video. For example, if the end user clicks the mouse on "file" and then "print" the dialog box will be displayed on the screen with a callout that says "click file and print". All of this is done without any work from the end user. Another unique feature is the use of variable items. A dialog box can be created to ask the user for their name and then their name can be placed in strategic places in the file to get users attention. It also incorporates a text to speech function for using that user input as well. Captivate produces output files as flash file.

All of these products have great strengths. They all create extraordinary content for learners. Camtasia has a simple interface to capture video and can quickly create quick demos or examples of "best practice" It is also capable of creating output in a wide variety of formats. This will accommodate almost every server infrastructure. Jing has several huge strengths in its free price, speed and simple upload method. It is also the only one that will run on the Mac platform. Captivate offers more possibilities in terms of interaction within the presentation. It can also create quick videos for immediate viewing.

All of these screen recording products have their own weaknesses. Camtasia has several steps and options to manage in order to create the finished files. It seems to require a more technically savvy user to be really productive. Jing does not easily allow users to edit the raw files to clean up any mistakes or grammatical problems. It is more of a "what you see is what you get" product. It is definitely worth ever penny you pay for it. Captivate has some limitations in using quick moving screen items. It doesn't display some items from 3D packages at all. It also requires more thought and planning of exactly what the production will look like. The last weakness with Captivate is its hefty price tag.

All of these packages will create wonderful educational pieces. It is impossible to say that one is the best. Best is a loaded term. What does best mean? Is the cheapest one the best? Is the one that creates output in the widest variety of file formats? Os is it the one that creates the smallest file sizes and therefore uses the least bandwidth? They are all competent in their own way. The best one is the one that fits your needs most closely.

CONCLUSIONS

Knowing the economic climate in 2009 it is imperative that Educational Leaders reexamine the way courses are delivered. The examples here give concepts that can make delivery more efficient. If course material can be delivered in a format that removes place from the equation as a limitation and provides a meaningful experience for learners, it must be considered as a viable option for instruction. It is also necessary to take some perspective in knowing your customers. The traditional age students in 2009 are digital natives and the structure of our system is governed by digital immigrants. Education is a business and the students are our customers. Drucker, quoted in Chriest (2009) comments "the product of a business is a satisfied customer". Knowing the perspective of their daily life should offer us some insight into what it takes to satisfy their needs.

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TESTING THE MULTI-DIMENSIONAL NATURE OF "NEW LEADERSHIP" IN A NON-WESTERN CONTEXT: THE CASE OF MALAYSIA

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ABSTRACT

Past researchers in leadership studies have observed a shift in the dimensions of new leadership behavior such as transformational and transactional styles. For the past few decades, leadership styles continue to be one of the most exciting issues for organizations. Many studies have attempted to explore its effect on work outcomes such as employee's commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and performances. Leadership styles exhibited by the managers have often been known as the essence of leaders' behavior which is the major driving force behind this continuous recognition of employees' behavior in the management literatures. Hence, a better understanding of the dimensionality of leadership styles is needed to facilitate further theoretical development and practical measurement of the construct. The purpose of the research reported here was to test empirically and to validate a conceptualization of two forms of leadership styles known as transformational and transactional, that consists of four and five dimensions, respectively. Data was gathered through a survey using a structured questionnaire to employees in Malaysia with a total of 146 respondents. A series of tests such as factor analysis, correlation, and reliability analysis was conducted to confirm that the instrument is valid (content, construct, convergent, discriminant and nomological) as well as reliable. Implications regarding the value of conducting validity and reliability test for practitioners and researchers are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Leadership can be practiced by any organization members regardless of their status in the organizations, and leadership is generally understood as the ability to exert influence over others (Peabody, 1962). Past studies (Ansari, 1990; Farrell & Schroder, 1999; Rajan & Krishnan, 2002) have conceptualized leadership as a social influence process from an organizationally designated superior to his or her subordinates.

In view of the fact that Malaysia's colonial heritage, coupled with more recent foreign direct investments by Japanese and Westerners, the traditional patterns of leadership and business management have been modified (Sin, 1991). It is evidenced that Malaysians' management styles and practices are being westernized especially in those working in manufacturing companies that reported directly to their foreign partners and/or bosses. In spite of the above statement, it has been found that Malaysian leaders are not expected to be self-serving such as placing their own interest ahead of the group, as they are still governed by their key cultural and religious values which

underpin their behavior, beliefs, and attitude (Kennedy & Mansor, 2000). As revealed by Abdullah (1996), Malaysian managers are only familiar with one level of interaction; hence, it is time to learn through exposure to different work settings, social interaction, and observation of work related practices not only in intracultural levels, but at the intercultural levels, and cross-cultural levels.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Leadership Styles

Past studies on leadership have not found conclusive evidence on Malaysian leadership style. For example, Gill (1998) suggested that Malaysian managers are found to be more direct, less delegate, and are more transactional. However, Govindan (2000) reported that Malaysian leaders lean more towards participative and consultative styles. This is in line with the assertion of Abdullah (1992) that the use of stronger tactics in Malaysian context is not likable as Malaysians generally are not in favor of overt display of anger and aggressive behavior. Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) have pioneered the study of leadership where an experiment study was designed to examine the relative effectiveness of democratic, laissez-faire, and authoritarian leadership styles. Later, trait, behavior, leader-member exchange, charismatic, transactional, transformational, and power-influence approach came into existence. Major researches in leadership can be classified into four approaches, namely, (i) trait approach, (ii) behavior approach, (iii) power influence approach, and (iv) situational approach (Yukl, 2005). In view of the complex nature of leadership effectiveness, researchers in the past have defined leadership based on their researched frame of reference. It is generally agreed that, leadership begins with trait approach, which emphasized on the personal attributes of leaders, followed by behavior approach, which examined leadership in terms of content categories, such as managerial roles, functions, and responsibilities (Yukl, 2005).

Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) discussed leadership as transforming in which the leaders and the followers are often transformed or changed in performance and outlook. Further, the leader-follower interaction is known as the transformational influence process and it is also referred as transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Past studies have constantly reported that transformational leadership is more effective, productive, innovative, and satisfying to followers as both parties work towards the good of organization propelled by shared visions and values as well as mutual trust and respect (Avolio & Bass, 1991; Fairholm, 1991; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubrahmaniam, 1996; Stevens, D'Intino, & Victor, 1995). This implies that transformational leaders believed in sharing of formalized power and more often practice the use of personal power. In the same vein, other study has drawn a distinction between authentic transformational leadership and pseudo-transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). It was found that pseudo-transformational leaders would seek power and position even at the expense of their followers' achievements, thus their behaviors are inconsistent and unreliable (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). The next section presents power and influence in terms of transactional leadership.

Transactional Leadership

Another type of leadership which has been widely used to describe power and influence is transactional leadership. Burns (1978) who pioneered the study of transactional leadership indicated that transactional leaders are those who sought to motivate followers by appealing to their self-interests. Transactional leadership involves contingent reinforcement where followers are motivated by their leaders' promises, rewards, and praises. At the same time, the leaders react to whether the followers carry out what the leaders and followers have "transacted" to do (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). This implies that subordinates who work under transactional leaders would have a greater power and the ability to affect the strength of a leader's influence, style of behavior, and the performance of the group (Hollander, 1993).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The main focus of this paper is to assess the goodness of measure (validity and reliability) of the leadership styles, namely transformational and transactional measurement. Data was collected through survey questionnaires from targeted lecturers working in public universities in Malaysia using judgemental sampling method. 500 questionnaires were distributed to selected public universities. However, only 146 lecturers responded to the survey.

There are two main sections in this research. Section 1 requires the respondents to rate a total of 33 items on their superiors' leadership style using a 7-point Likert Scale as proposed by several researchers (e.g., Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997; Hinkin & Tracey, 1999) were used in this study as it still appears to be fairly representative and popular in application. Finally, Section 2 is used to collect the personal profile and demographic data of respondents.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

A total of 146 respondents cooperated with an equal number of male and females. In terms of position, most were lecturers with a small percentage of associate professors and professors. They are attached to both the Arts and Science faculties.

Testing the Goodness of Measure for the Leadership Structure Construct

Content Validity

Content validity refers to the extent to which an instrument covers the meanings included in the concept (Babbie, 1992). In a similar vein, Rubio, Berg-Weger, Tebb, Lee, and Rauch (2003) refer to content validity as to the extent to which the items on a measure assess the same content or how well the content material was sampled in the measure. Essentially, the goals of content validity are to clarify the domain of a concept and judge whether the measure adequately represents the domain (Bollen, 1989). Content validation results in a theoretical definition that explains the meaning of the variable in question (Bollen, 1989) and is guaranteed by the literature overview (Gomez, Lorente, & Cabrera, 2004).

Construct Validity

To validate the goodness of the proposed measurement we used the factor analysis and reliability analysis. Factor analysis can be defined as the process of identifying the underlying structure in a data matrix; analyze the structure of interrelationships among a large number of variables by defining a set of common underlying dimensions called factors (Hair et al. 2006). Researchers often use factor analytic techniques to assess construct validity of the scores obtained from an instrument (McCoach, 2002). In this study, an exploratory factor analysis with an orthogonal rotation of varimax was used to evaluate the construct validity of the instrument. In turn, to evaluate the construct validity, we performed a principal components analysis on the set of 33 items of the scale.

The analysis extracted only a 3 factor solutions each for transformational and transactional, each with eigenvalues above one, which explain 67% and 65% respectively of the total variance. The KMO was 0.89 and 0.88 for transformational and transactional respectively, indicating a meritorious level based on Kaiser and Rice (1974) and the Bartlett's test for sphericity was significant with $\chi 2 = 3498.25$, $p < 0.00$ for transactional leadership style, and $\chi 2 = 1736.83$, $p < 0.00$ for transformational leadership style.

For transformational styles, Factor 1 consists of a combination of Idealized influence and Individualized consideration was named as Idealized Consideration based on the common premise of the items, whereas Factor II was named as Inspirational Motivation. Factor III was renamed as Intellectual Stimulation. Based on the rotated component matrix, out of the 20 items, only 1 item was dropped either due to loadings less than 0.50 suggested by Hair et al. (2006) or cross loading in another component.

For transactional leadership styles the analysis also yielded a 3 factor solution. Factor 1 was named as Contingent reward, Factor II is known as Passive Management by Exception, and Factor III was named as Active Management by Exception

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which measures of 2 different constructs are relatively distinctive, that their correlation values are neither an absolute value of 0 nor 1 (Campbell and Fiske, 1959). A correlation analysis was done on the 4 factors generated and the result is presented. As can be seen all the factors are not perfectly correlated where their correlation coefficients range between 0 or 1. Hence, we can conclude that discriminant validity has been established.

Nomological Validity

Nomological validity which is another form of construct validity is the degree to which a construct behaves as it should within a system of related constructs called a nomological set (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). Cronbach and Meehl (1955) posited that in order to provide evidence that a measure has construct validity, a nomological network has to be developed for its measure. In essence what this means is that we have to develop a nomological link between the variable we would like to validate and another variable which has been proven theoretically to be related to this particular variable. For example, previous researchers (e.g., Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003) have found a meaningful relationship between the 2 types of

leadership styles and organizational commitment to change. So when we validate the construct validity of a power measure, we will use commitment to change to test the nomological validity. As organizational commitment to change has been shown to be related to leadership styles, we used the Capacity Beliefs dimension of organizational commitment to change to be correlated with the 3 dimensions of transactional and transformational styles, respectively. As theorized, the 2 dimensions were significantly related to organizational commitment to change thus confirming nomological validity.

Reliability

Reliability measures the degree to which the test score indicates the status of an individual item on the factors defined by the test, as well as the degree to which the test score demonstrates individual differences in these traits (Cronbach, 1947 as cited in McCoach, 2002). "A reliability coefficient demonstrates whether the test designer was correct in expecting a certain collection of items to yield interpretable statements about individual differences" (Cronbach, 1951, p. 297 as cited in McCoach, 2002). The reliability coefficient was 0.86 for Contingent Rewards, 0.87 for Passive Management by Exception, 0.50 for Active Management by Exception, 0.93 for Idealized Consideration, 0.81 for Inspirational Motivation, and 0.86 for Intellectual Stimulation. Hence, it can be concluded that these measures posses sufficient reliability for except Active Management by Exception as it consists only 2 items.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study has chosen universities' employees in Malaysia as respondents. It is believed that exploring the phenomenon of transformational and transactional leadership styles among higher education learning in Malaysia has certainly broaden the understanding of these two leadership styles. Without a doubt the research on these two leadership styles are still limited in its ability to provide an unequivocal guideline and to advise on the best way to exercise their power. However, by drawing upon the diverse literatures, this study has inevitably developed some guidelines for scholars as well as leaders on the effective use of new leadership styles.

It has been propounded that, the progress of researches on leadership styles have been slow but steady (Bruins, 1999). Over the past few years, there has been a strong increased interest in these matters both in terms of theoretical thinking as well as empirical research. It is believed that an appropriate time to address the extent to which the progress about transformational and transactional leadership styles thus far could be applied to a variety of social issues.

Hence, it is timely to understand the importance of the dimensionality of leadership styles as it can be extremely useful for organizational behavior studies. Although the dimensionality of leadership styles has been studied in previous researches, no known researches have been found to empirically study the dimensionality of leadership styles in the Malaysia context. Hence, this study has added to the growing body of research in power by using a series of tests to test for validity and reliability of the constructs. Preliminary results demonstrated a valid (content, construct, convergent, disriminant and nomological) as well as reliable six dimension scale for measuring both transactional and transformational leadership styles.

It was found that only three dimensions each of transactional and transformational namely, Contingent Rewards, Passive Management by Exception, Active Management by Exception, Idealized Consideration, Inspirational Motivation, and Intellectual Stimulation. are capable of explaining sufficient variation in the construct being measured in Malaysia context. Hence, the results of this study show some interesting similarities and differences concerning the dimensionality of leadership construct between western context and eastern context. Thus, having a guide like the present study to follow can be very helpful to researchers in leadership structure related areas.

Limitations and Future Research

This research triggers the need for more research in power bases literatures as individuals holding powerful positions would normally act and present themselves in more idiosyncratic and variable ways (Guinote, Judd, & Brauer, 2002). Perhaps future researches should look at the consequences of various leadership styles and to investigate when the right time to exercise the right type of leadership.

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TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, CAMPUS CLIMATE AND IT'S IMPACT ON STUDENT RETENTION

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ABSTRACT

Higher education institutions are looking for ways to increase minority representation and retention. This article focuses on transformational leadership, campus climate, and its overall impact on student retention of African American college attending predominantly White Institutions (PWIs). African American students at PWIs were surveyed and results concluded a strong correlation between campus climate and student retention. African American students seek to be a part of a diverse body and through lens of transformational leadership and systematic approaches as it relates to campus climate graduation rates gaps can decrease among African American students at PWIs.

INTRODUCTION

Transformational leadership fosters a collaborative approach to problem solving. Hallenger's transformational leadership focused on increasing the organizational or institutional capacity to develop collaborative approaches in student leadership. Rather than focusing on the pitfalls in academia, direct coordination control, and supervision of curriculum and instruction, transformational leaders increased the institutional capacity to select its purposes and to support changes in teaching and learning. Hallenger found that through innovative practices, the framework improved retention and academic success for minority groups at PWIs through shared vision and commitment to school change.

The transformational leadership model promoted a shared fluidity (Louis & Marks, 1998). The behavioral components, such as individualized support, intellectual stimulation, and personal vision, conceptualized change and focused on modeling change in understanding the needs of the learning community rather than in controlling institutional change (Louis & Marks, 1998; Ogawa & Bossert, 1995). The model persuaded people by building from the bottom-up rather than from the top down. Therefore, the educational change created a supportive college environment.

Transformational leadership theory could only be effective by including African-American students and getting them involved (Hallenger, 2003). Minority student enrollment increased by nearly 10% since 2000 (Wilds, 2000); however, gains for African-American in higher education enrollment showed the smallest increase among the nation's four leading minority groups (Terenzini, Yeager, Bohr, Pascarella, & Amaury, 1997). Research indicated that African-American students,

who were not successful at PWIs, attributed one of the factors to campus climate (Lewis et al., 2000; Mow & Nettles, 1990).

CAMPUS CLIMATE

The exclusion from mainstream activities, access to academic networks, financial support, and isolation were several themes that continued to be problematic for African-American students. African-American students expressed their lack of access to campus networks that were available to their White peers. White students rarely associated with them or attempted to include them in study groups, in class activities, and other social networks. Ancis et al. (2000) concluded that African-American students viewed themselves as invisible and not a part of the broader culture.

African-American Awareness and Consciousness

Schwitzer et al. (1999) noted that African-American students at PWIs felt their race or ethnicity gained intensity on college campuses. African-American consciousness became the norm for African-Americans at PWIs. Their skin color, vernacular speech, nonverbal communication, and appearance produced negative or positive reactions (Douglass, 2000). Their cultural values gained acceptance only if their character, language, and outer appearance reflected a Eurocentric, conservative norm. The reflection mirrored a negative when their appearance appeared Afro centric (Sedlacek, 1998). These students faced many hidden presumptions due to their skin color, creating an overly conscious view of what it meant to be an African-American student in a predominantly White environment (Lewis et al., 2000).

Residence Halls

Sedlacek (1999) indicated that campus life in residence halls and fraternities was a problem for African-American students at PWIs. Studies indicated that African-American students experienced African-American consciousness in dormitories through racial microaggressions and through only pairing with other African-American students. Research revealed that a significant number of African-American students felt unconnected to the learning and living environment because the campus climate was unwelcoming to African-American and other minority students (Bristow, 2002; Gloria, Kurpius, Hamilton, & Wilson, 1999).

Acculturation

The assimilation and acculturation into the broader culture of the institution could be difficult for African-American students in White settings due to the long history of race relations (Holmes et al., 2000). African-American students felt pressured to conform to the dominant culture. They sacrificed their cultural values and accepted the dominant culture to fit into their respective institutional setting. Minority students expressed difficulty adjusting to White campus environments, while trying to remain true to their identity and cultural values. Students often conformed to survive and build social networks to progress through the college experience.

Assimilation

African-American students find it difficult to assimilate on predominantly White campuses due to cultural differences and learning styles. The American educational system mirrored the thoughts, attitudes, and beliefs of a European Anglo-Saxon culture. The dominant Anglo-Saxon culture used one primary method of delivery for teaching and learning, characterized as individualistic and competitive (Holmes et al., 2001). "Some minority groups, on the other hand, are characterized as noncompetitive collaborative learners" (Holmes et al., p. 45). Anderson (1988) noted there were cognitive learning style differences within minority groups that did not reflect traditional teaching methodologies, the primary instructional practice said to benefit all students. There was a distinct difference in the ways in which majority and minority students communicated and made meaning. Therefore, categorizing or developing one primary methodology or pedagogy to fit all cultural norms was impossible without considering all minority groups to benefit the entire learning community.

Holmes et al. (2001) reported the low retention of African-American students at PWIs "is a result or function of inadequate planning when combining people with difference cultures, values, and learning styles" (p. 46). The learning community became intolerable for African-American students when members of the dominant culture did not consider their culture or prepared to interact with others besides their dominant culture. Communication is critical for African-American and minority students. Holmes et al. found that these students wanted to be among a scholarly body that embraced diversity and personified an inclusive learning environment.

Adaptation

African-American students at PWIs have not reached the full intentions of Brown v. Board of Education related to student retention and student success. The academic and social learning networks pushed African-American students into isolation or creation of a homogenous culture (Fries-Britt & Turner, 2001). For many African-American students attending PWIs, simply being a part of campus life created comfort (Austin, 1996). Many African-American students expressed feelings of alienation and isolation due to a lack of critical mass of African-American students, faculty, and administration (Allen et al., 1991). African-American students became comfortable and easily connected to the learning environment if they participated in programs designed with their needs in mind (Fries-Britt & Turner, 2001). Austin's (1999) theory of student involvement hypothesized that students, who devoted their time and energy to campus life, were more likely to develop and grow with the institution and succeed in their undergraduate programs (Holmes et al., 2001).

Identifiable triggers highlighted the intrinsic self-concept of African-American students who endured colorblind ideologies of race and ethnicity on college campuses. Assimilation and adaptation might, at times, create hostile environments, which led to higher dropout rates among African-American students attending PWIs. Wilds (2000) noted in American Council on Education statistics, the graduation rate for African-American students was 40%, while Asian American was 65% and Caucasian was 58% (Fries-Britt & Turner, 2001). The findings within this research study yielded significant findings linking student retention to campus climate.

Table 9
Overall Regression Coefficients for Student Retention to Predictor Variables

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*P*
Campus Climate	1.382	.389	.485	3.526	.001
Racial Stereotypes	.348	.158	-.301	-2.207	.032
Faculty Relationships	3.900	.275	.192	1.419	.162
GPA	.033	.277	-.016	-.118	.907

Specifically, campus climate (t (54) = 3.526) was significant and positively related to student retention; racial stereotypes (t (54) = -2.207) was significantly and negatively associated with student retention.

Table 11 demonstrates there is a significant relationship between student retention and the perceptions of African-American students at an HBCU and PWI regarding campus climate, racial stereotypes, and faculty relationships.

The significant levels for African-American students at PWI fell under the $p < .05$ significance level for campus climate ($p = .028$) and racial stereotypes ($p = .042$). Faculty relationships were not significant ($p = .200$). On the other hand, racial stereotypes ($p = .939$) and faculty relationships ($p = .633$) were not significant predictors for HBCU students. Campus climate approached significance ($p = .056$). Although there was evidence of significant relationships between student retention and the perceptions of African-American students, the significant predictor variables differed for students at the PWI compared to students at the HBCU.

Table 11
HBCU and PWI Regression Coefficient for Student Retention and Predictor Variables

	B	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*P*
HBCU					
Campus Climate	1.329	.643	.649	2.069	.056
Racial Stereotypes	-.033	.421	-.023	-.078	.939
Faculty Relationships	-.221	.454	-.121	-.488	.633
PWI					
Campus Climate	1.533	.665	.348	2.306	.028
Racial Stereotypes	-.424	.199	-.328	-2.129	.042
Faculty Relationships	.847	.346	.391	2.448	.200

CONCLUSION

Campus climate has been identified as a contributing factor as to why African-American students are unsuccessful at PWIs. African-American students want to be a part of the broader cultural climate on campus. Daily, African-Americans strive for equality at PWIs (Davis et al., 2004). The educational experience should be inclusive in nature and not exclude persons from the

general body. Often, students lost their locus of control and internal motivation because their Afrocentric heritage was poorly received rather than being embraced.

The cornerstone of education is diversity and the equality of all involved in the educational process (Hallenger, 2003) and change builds through transformational leadership. Transformational leadership permits educational institutions to enact institutional change through a shared and authentic vision; it creates a learning environment that engages a shared community.

Institutional leaders, campus policy makers, and teachers can better understand how to develop and implement initiatives by looking at current and past research as well as taking active measures such as semiannual meetings, open forums, and student and faculty surveys regarding the academic and racial climate on college campuses. These types of ongoing dialogues and surveys explore possibilities and solutions to create harmonious learning communities. Open dialogue and ongoing evaluations provide awareness was the hallmark of Luhmann's social systems theory, which allowed educational leaders and institutions to craft training, educational programs and forums to create an educational ethos that is conducive, equitable, and fair for all minority students. Policymaking is about creating effective change for all minorities at PWIs who feel their campus climate is unwelcoming, who endure racial stereotypes, and feel a lack of satisfactory faculty relationships.

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STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF A TEAM PROJECT IN A REQUIRED CROSS-DISCIPLINARY MANAGEMENT COURSE: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

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ABSTRACT

This study employs a pre-project and a post-project survey to examine students' perceptions of a team project as a requirement in an undergraduate Principles of Management course. Business professionals and management literature assert the necessity and benefits of teamwork, yet students and faculty question whether or not those benefits are worth the effort. At the authors' university the College of Business curriculum requires that all students take a Principles of Management course and, for the purpose of AACSB International accreditation, the faculty has determined that teamwork be assessed in this course. For those reasons a team project is mandatory, and the authors were motivated to research their students' perceptions regarding the team project assigned in the course.

The survey asked the students to state their level of agreement with twenty-two statements about the value of team projects, which courses should require them, the types of team projects that should be assigned, the skills to be gained by requiring them, and the resources necessary to complete the projects successfully. Both the pre- and post-project surveys were given to 151 students in a Principles of Management course taught by the same professor over three consecutive semesters.

To analyze the survey responses, two types of analysis were conducted. First, pre- and post-project responses were compared to determine if there were any changes in the level of agreement with the statements. This analysis revealed increases in the students' perception of the project's value, its placement in the curriculum, the skills it could improve, and the resources necessary to complete it successfully. However, the students' expectation for the amount of time they would need to work on the project outside of class decreased.

Second, the difference between pre- and post-survey responses was analyzed based on each student's gender, major, and prior experience with team projects. This second analysis revealed that the perception of the project's value was affected by a student's level of previous experience with team projects. In addition male and female students or male and female students representing various majors differed in their perception as to which type of course was best suited to require team projects. Furthermore, the second analysis revealed that a student's expectation for being able to work on the project during class time varied by major.

PODCASTS IN EDUCATION: WHAT, WHY AND HOW?

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ABSTRACT

Podcasting is one of the newest uses of Internet technology. The term "podcast" is a combination of the words iPod and broadcast, with " iPod" being the name given to a family of portable MP3 players from Apple Inc. "MP3" is a common file format for electronic audio files. Audio files, or in particular, MP3 files, can contain verbal speech, music, or a combination of both. MP3 files can be played or listened to using MP3 players, which can be portable devices such as the Apple iPod or Microsoft Zune, or an MP3 player can simply be software that is installed and used on a computer. The basic concept of "broadcast" is the ability to send out, and in terms of podcasting, broadcasting is the ability to share MP3 files in such a way that the files are delivered to the user. Therefore, a podcast is simply an MP3 file that can be played on an MP3 player, and an MP3 player is a device that stores digital files (not unlike CDs) and plays them back for the listener. Students can therefore listen to MP3 files on their computers, but are not necessarily tied to them since MP3 files can be played or listened to using portable MP3 players as well.

The uses of podcasts from an educational perspective are limitless. Since creating podcasts is relatively easy and inexpensive, instructors can easily use them for distribution of supplemental information or review of previously covered material. Podcasts can also be used for acquiring new and supplemental knowledge from expert sources on the web. Listening to podcasts provides learners with alternative learning activities in addition to readings and lectures thus reaching a wider audience and supporting a broader range of learning styles. This paper will focus on the questions of what podcasts are, why they are useful in higher education, and, most importantly, how faculty and students can use podcasts to enhance learning experiences.

INTRODUCTION

Podcasting is one of the newest uses of internet technology. Through the use of audio files, instructors can create opportunities for distribution of supplemental information or review of previously covered material. A basic web search using the search term "educational podcast" produced over 47 million hits on one search engine. The implication is that there are many resources on the Internet that somehow involve podcasts with an educational focus (as opposed to entertainment). This paper provides an introduction to podcasting by explains what podcasts are, why they are useful in education, and how instructors and students can make podcasts for educational purposes.

WHAT ARE PODCASTS?

At their simplest, podcasts are digital audio files just as songs can be digital audio files, often in the MP3 format. The term "podcast" is a combination of the words iPod and broadcast, with " iPod" being the name given to a family of portable MP3 players from Apple Inc. Audio files, or in particular, MP3 files, can contain verbal speech, music, or a combination of both. MP3 files can be played or listened to using MP3 players, which can be portable devices such as the Apple iPod or Microsoft Zune, or an MP3 player can simply be software that is installed and used on a computer. The basic concept of "broadcast" is the ability to send out, and in terms of podcasting, broadcasting is the ability to share MP3 files in such a way that the files are delivered to the user. Therefore, a podcast is simply an MP3 file that can be played on an MP3 player, and an MP3 player is a device that stores digital files (not unlike CDs) and plays them back for the listener.

In contrast to streaming video or audio, entire podcasts and vodcasts (video podcasts) can be downloaded and transferred to computers or mobile storage devices just as entire songs can be downloaded. Students can therefore listen to files on their computers, but are not necessarily tied to them. Through the use of free software such as iTunes, subscribers sign up one time and then receive new podcasts as they are released. Udell (in Campbell 2005, p. 38) contends that the reason podcasting and other forms of "rich media authoring" have become so popular is that the Internet has become pervasive, and broadband access, along with fast personal computers, allow people to "consume large media objects." Once downloaded, people place these objects on their MP3 players, which have become "the new transistor radio." In fact, acccording to the 2008 Statistical Abstract of the United States, factory sales of MP3 players increased 1400% between 2003 and 2007 (United States Census Bureau, 2007).

At a minimum level, finding podcasts that others have already created requires only an Internet connection and a web browser. As stated before, a basic web search for the term "podcast" resulted in numerous sites. Performing a basic web search, however, may provide a user with only limited search capabilities. Although Brittain, Glowacki, Ittersum and Johnson (2006) contend that the difference between podcasts and other audio and video files accessed via the Internet is that podcasts are created on a regular basis and then distributed automatically through a subscription, not all podcasts follow this organized system. Instructors can create podcasts relevant to class as needed or desired. Students may create one-time podcasts to demonstrate their learning of particular material.

However, the ability to systematically acquire podcasts is indeed an advantage of MP3 aggregator programs. An MP3 aggregator is a program that can facilitate the process of finding, subscribing to and downloading podcasts. A commonly known aggregator is Apple Inc.'s iTunes, which is a free program available as a download from apple.com. (While iTunes is common, keep in mind that it is not the only program of this type.) Using a program such as iTunes gives one the ability to search for and download podcasts based on many criteria including category, author, and title. Many podcasts are free, but others require payment. Instructors may also place podcasts for students on online course management systems such as Blackboard, WebCT, Angel, etc.

Podcasts can be downloaded manually or a listener can "subscribe" to a podcast offered through an aggregator (such as iTunes). In the case of a subscription, the podcast will automatically and regularly be delivered the listener's computer (providing the subscriber's computer is connected

to the internet) when a new podcast in a given series is available, such as when a teacher posts a new podcast for a particular course. Once saved onto a computer, the podcast file can be listened to or transferred to a portable device to be listened to elsewhere. In this way, podcasts can provide students with audio material from both public sources (podcasts already available on the internet) and private sources (instructors and students who make podcasts for the class).

WHY USE PODCASTS?

Current students of traditional university age were born in the 1980s. They have been labeled the Net Generation or Digital Natives because these people, unlike previous generations, cannot remember a time when the Internet did not exist. They have grown up being both entertained and educated through the use of TV, video games, and the Internet (Prensky, 2001). In contrast, those of previous generations are categorized as Digital Immigrants. Regardless of whether they embrace new technology, they were not raised on it and have had to learn about it as it entered their lives. However, non-traditional students have been found to be as interested (or more so) in podcasts as younger students and to use them at least as much and even more than traditional aged students (Robinson, 2007b).

Podcasts have many uses in education. Informal learning can take place when a student listens to podcasts. Listening to or creating podcasts may be a formal class assignment providing new ways to interact with course material with the side benefit of exposing learners to new uses of technology. Short discussions of what is new in the field may appear as podcasts on the Internet, in particular on news and research sites. Students who learn best by listening can access material in a way that suits them better than using visual media such as books. Learners may take advantage of the portability of MP3 players to take learning on the road. Commuters as well as walkers and joggers are often seen listening to MP3 players. Although reading a book or watching a film is difficult and dangerous to do while driving (and not always easy when exercising or in other situations), listening to a podcast is as easy as listening to music. In addition, like songs, podcasts can be listened to repeatedly if desired.

Since creating podcasts is relatively easy and inexpensive, these files can be produced by students to review material or self-assess their ability to discuss topics. The uses of podcasts from an educational perspective are limitless. Drawing on personal experience in radio broadcasting, Campbell (2005, p. 44) states that podcasting is like radio in that it is like a hub and spokes. A central speaker talks to a single listener as "the connection is essentially one-to-one." This individual-to-individual feeling can help instructors maintain a bond with students even when out of class. This can be especially beneficial in distance or hybrid courses with reduced face-to-face contact.

A common use of podcasts in education involves recording lectures as they are delivered in classroom settings. One concern in making such material available after class is that it may encourage students to rely solely on recordings rather than attending class. White (2009), however, reports that lecture podcasts are used by students as they prepare for upcoming lectures, review material immediately after a lecture, and/or prepare for exams. He found that students use lecture podcasts to solidify their understanding of material after a classroom lecture.

In response to student requests, the University of Michigan School of Dentistry experimented with a variety of media to capture and distribute class lectures (Brittain et al. 2006). Although video and slide presentations with the accompanying audio were made available online, the majority of students preferred simple audio podcasts. Most listened to the files while at home, in the gym or commuting. While others contend that audio is not a good method for conveying information because listeners cannot control the pace and must follow the speaker, Campbell (2005) believes learning to be a good listener is in itself a worthy exercise. Given the dental school students' preference for the audio-only format, listening is not a lost art.

HOW TO MAKE PODCASTS

As with most technology solutions, there are typically hardware and software requirements. The hardware for recording a podcast can vary, but the basics include a microphone and recording software. In a stationary setup, a microphone (including the headphone-type frequently used for online conference with, for example, Skype) can be connected to a desktop or laptop computer. Stand-alone audio recorders can also record podcasts and some MP3 players have built-in recorders, allowing podcasters to record material "in the field" rather than while connected to a computer. Free recording software is available for most computer platforms. An example of such software is Audacity, with which sound can be recorded and edited, and Lame, which converts the audio file to an MP3 file. Mikat, Martinez, and Jorstad (2007) provide an extensive summary of hardware and software options and specifications.

Recording a podcast with Audacity software is as simple as pressing "record," speaking into the microphone, and pressing "stop." The audio file is then easily edited by highlighting and cutting undesired file segments, such as coughs, misspoken words, long pauses, etc., because the audio is displayed visually. (With practice, "you know," "I mean," and other phrases that are often used repeatedly in conversation, but are not always desirable in a podcast, can be edited by visually recognizing the pattern in addition to hearing the phrases.) While it may be more advantageous to distribute podcasts of lectures that were recorded live in the classroom in their unedited form, other podcasts are likely to benefit from editing. However, it should be noted that a "judicious" use of verbal place fillers ("you know," "I mean," "uh," etc.) can make the podcast seem more real and less "canned" (Robinson, 2007a). Both practice and recording a given podcast more than once can benefit the final product. Elements of the best versions can be edited together in a complete whole without noticeable breaks. Instructors who are initially reluctant to record themselves may find that the ability to edit out undesired parts gives them confidence to continue making podcasts. This editing can also be performed by someone other than the speaker if desired, especially when time is an issue. As with editing a written document, editing an audio file is recommended, but can easily take more time than it took to originally record the podcast.

While podcasts of lectures may be quite long, shorter, focused, podcasts of around five minutes tend to work well. Students can then more easily choose the podcasts in which they are most interested, especially when targeting review topics. Shorter podcasts are also practical in that they take less time to complete in both recording and editing (Robinson, 2007a). A review of the most popular podcasts on the internet shows that shorter podcasts that are released frequently (at least weekly) are becoming the accepted practice. From the instructor's point of view, shorter, focused

podcasts can provide a library from which the instructor can select podcasts for a given class in the future. Although the mix of topics in an hour-long lecture may change from year to year, instructors can use the same shorter podcasts repeatedly by selecting the appropriate topics in the desired order.

Once completed, the file is converted to MP3 format with Lame (which is an automatic process once connected to Audacity) and uploaded to a website for distribution. This is roughly the same as posting a document file. Podcasts can be stored on web servers and class management system websites and can also be shared via tools such as iTunes. A common area within iTunes is iTunesU, where educational institutions are able to host podcasts. The podcast is then downloaded either manually or automatically if the listener has subscribed to the podcast. There may be times when a podcast is created for the sole use of the creator. But more often, a podcast is created with the intention of being shared and listened to by others, again returning to the concept of broadcasting.

CONCLUSION

Listening to podcasts provides learners with another tool for acquiring and reviewing information in addition to readings and lectures thus reaching a wider audience with varying learning styles. Because of the portable nature of many MP3 players, listeners can take their learning with them "on the road," thus providing great opportunities for learning. Since podcast-creation is simple and inexpensive, podcasts are an ideal way to generate and disseminate knowledge. Given the increase in the number of MP3 players sold in the past few years, and, in addition, the trend of MP3 players being integrated into cell phones, it is likely that podcasting will also grow as the world becomes increasing digital and mobile.

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USE OF NON-TENURE TRACK FACULTY BY DOCTORATE-GRANTING ACCOUNTING PROGRAMS

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ABSTRACT

A shortage of doctorally-qualified accounting faculty exists in the United States. Recent research shows that this shortage is likely to become more severe in the next five to ten years if no new action is taken. This paper identifies one strategy that business schools might use to alleviate the shortage, the use of non-tenure-track (NTT) faculty, and then reports the results of two studies that assess the extent to which that strategy is being undertaken by business schools that have doctoral programs in accounting. The paper concludes with a summary of the implications of this research.

INTRODUCTION

An increasing shortage of doctorally qualified accounting faculty has been documented in recent years. This shortage is due to both supply and demand issues; specifically, the supply of PhDs in accounting is near an all time low, while the demand is near an all time high.

In the research reported here, we establish the existence of the accounting faculty shortage, outline the AACSB guidelines that restrict the range of solutions to the shortage by hiring faculty from pools other than the traditional source, accounting doctoral programs, and examine how some business schools have attempted to reduce the impact of the shortage on their operations by hiring NTT faculty. In the empirical part of the research, we conduct one study of archival data on faculty employment published in the Hasselback (1988, 2006) directories and a second study of archival data published by universities on their Web sites.

Our analysis of these data show that some business schools; in particular, those with doctoral programs in accounting; have responded to the increasing shortage of doctorally qualified accounting faculty by hiring more NTT faculty.

THE SHORTAGE OF DOCTORALLY-QUALIFIED ACCOUNTING FACULTY

The shortage of accounting faculty, like all such conditions in a market, results from an imbalance of demand and supply. In the market for accounting faculty, the demand is driven by the number of students majoring in accounting in business schools and, to a lesser extent by the number of students enrolled in other business school majors.

Most of the accounting faculty supply is provided by doctorate-granting accounting programs (Ruff, et al., 2009). Professional services firms are increasing their demand for accounting graduates. The passage of the Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002 increased demand for accountants to new highs (Reigle, Bunning, and Grant, 2008).

The American Accounting Association (AAA) is the primary professional organization that sponsors job placement activities for U.S. faculty positions in accounting. In recent years, the job placement area at annual AAA meetings has been a place where frustrated faculty members hoping to recruit faculty are mixed with the few bright faces of doctoral students nearing their dissertation defenses. The recruiters are frustrated by the dearth of candidates and the candidates are excited by their prospects for negotiating excellent salary and benefit offers. The AAA has posted data regarding its placement activities in the job placement area in recent years. Data posted at the 2008 annual meeting includes the number of schools who had positions available and the number of candidates who submitted a resume to the placement center in advance of the meeting. These data show a fairly steady increase in the demand for accounting faculty and a steady decrease in the supply of accounting faculty over the 17 years from 1992 through 2008.

According to the 2008-2009 edition of the *Accounting Faculty Directory* (Hasselback, 2008), only 123 persons earned a doctorate in accounting in 2006 (the most recent number reported) and average numbers for the most recent five years (2002-2006) and ten years (1997-2006) of 117.6 and 124.6, respectively. These moving average calculations, especially when compared to the average of 156.6 for the 19 years of individually reported totals (1988-2006) suggests that doctoral accounting graduate production is decreasing over the long term. Hasselback (2008) reports 90 active doctoral programs in the United States with a total of 722 students currently enrolled. This enrollment number might be cause for optimism, however, most doctoral programs have an average completion time of four to five years and experience dropout rates of 20 to 40 percent. Using a 30 percent dropout rate and a completion time of 4.5 years, those 722 doctoral students turn into faculty members at an annual rate of 112.3, which is not a very encouraging number. Other sources report significant concerns regarding the imbalance between supply and demand for accounting faculty. Plumlee et al. (2006) conclude that less than half of the demand for new doctorates in accounting will be met, with acute shortages occurring in the areas of auditing and tax.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE FACULTY SHORTAGE

The shortage has already had a significant impact on starting salaries for accounting faculty. Leslie (2008) reports that between 1993 and 2004, base salary as well as total annual compensation has more than doubled for doctorally qualified faculty younger than 45. According to the *2007-2008 U.S. Salary Survey Report* conducted by the AACSB (2007), the average starting nine-month salary for new doctorates in accounting was $124,600. The AACSB (2007) reports that this starting salary is increasing at approximately ten percent every year. At this rate, nine-month salaries for new doctorates are projected to climb above $165,000 for new faculty starting in Fall 2010.

This rapid rise in starting salaries for new doctorates is leading to salary compression and even inversion at a number of business schools, with new Assistant Professors earning significantly more than more experienced faculty at Associate Professor and Professor ranks (Samavati, et al., 2007). Leslie (2008) reports that accounting faculty members under the age of 41 earn, on average, higher pay than faculty over the age of 41.

POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS TO THE SHORTAGE

Two options exist for alleviating a shortage in any market. First, the demand can be reduced. Second, the supply can be increased. One possibility is to increase admissions to existing doctoral programs or to increase the retention rates in those programs. Most doctoral programs are small by design and would need changes in their structures to double their enrollments. And retention alone will not produce sufficient numbers of new doctoral graduates. Dropout rates are estimated to be between 20 and 40 percent; if every single one of those students were retained, their numbers would provide less than half of the increase needed.

Another possibility is to add new doctoral programs at business schools that do not currently offer them. Doctoral programs have been decreasing and a spontaneous reversal of this downward trend is unlikely. In 2007, the AACSB introduced an initiative that will prepare doctoral faculty from academic disciplines outside of business to qualify for faculty positions in business disciplines (Ruff, et al., 2009), however, it is unlikely that these programs will develop more than a few faculty candidates for accounting positions.

We have identified one possible solution to the shortage that does not require an increase in doctorate-holding faculty. That solution is for accounting departments to employ more NTT faculty. NTT faculty typically do not hold a doctoral degree. They might not even hold a masters degree.

TWO STUDIES

In our first study, we set out to determine whether the use of NTT faculty has increased over a relatively long time frame. We examined Hasselback (2006) to identify the percentage of accounting faculty that were employed as NTT faculty at the 94 doctorate-granting schools listed. We classified faculty holding the rank of assistant professor, associate professor, or professor as TT faculty. We classified faculty not holding doctoral degrees, faculty with the rank of instructor, or faculty with titles including the word "clinical" as NTT faculty.We compared the percentage calculated for the 2006-2007 data (Hasselback, 2006) to the same percentage for the same schools calculated for 1988 (Hasselback, 1988) to determine the long run change in this percentage. We find that the mean percentage of NTT accounting faculty employed at doctoral granting institutions increased from 10.6 percent in 1988 to 14.8 percent in 2006-2007. Using a paired *t*-test on the means indicates that the increase in the percentage was significant (t=2.52, p=0.013). This result is consistent with Fogarty and Markarian (2007) who found that doctoral granting accounting programs increased their use of NTT faculty from 13.3 percent in 1982 to 17.5 percent in 2002. When divided into private and public schools, we see that the overall result is driven by a steep rise in the use of NTT faculty at public doctorate-granting schools. NTT faculty were 10.6 percent of total faculty in 1988 at these schools, but the proportion rose to 17.2 percent by 2006-2007. Again using a paired *t*-test, we found that the increase in the proportion was highly significant (t=3.56, p=0.0007). The private schools' NTT faculty percentage did not increase in this time period, going from 10.7 to 10.1 percent, but the decrease we observed was not significant (t=0.19, p=0.848). The way we gathered data in this first study could be biased against finding NTT faculty because it is possible that schools do not submit information about their NTT faculty to the Hasselback Directory.

This bias could cause our estimates to be understated, so we undertook a second study to confirm the results we observed in this first study.

Instead of gathering the faculty data from the Hasselback Directory, we turned to the Web sites of the schools. Our sampling identified 93 schools and yielded 1,820 faculty profiles, which we categorized as TT (n=1,297) and NTT (n=522). The overall percentage of NTT faculty was 28.7 percent, with public schools averaging 30.7 percent NTT faculty and private schools averaging 22.8 percent NTT faculty. The difference between these proportions for public and private schools was significant (t=3.01, p=0.0017).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

We undertook these two studies to determine whether accounting programs were using NTT faculty in any substantial way to cope with the shortage of accounting faculty. We concluded that there is significant use of NTT faculty by doctorate-granting accounting programs. This use has increased overall since 1988 and the use of NTT faculty is consistently greater by accounting doctoral programs at public schools than it is by programs at private schools.

Our finding that, overall, 28.7 percent of the faculty at these prestigious accounting programs were NTT faculty suggests that the shortage has had a serious impact on the quality of education at even the best schools. Having almost one-third of a school's faculty not tenured or on a tenure track suggests that some schools have adopted a two-tier model for faculty appointments. If this is an intentional strategy, there might be arguments that could support such a strategy, but if it is a result forced by the tight market for accounting faculty, then the effect on faculty sufficiency is cause for concern.

As fewer and fewer retiring accounting faculty are replaced in the next few years, universities at all levels are likely to hire more and more NTT faculty to replace the retiring faculty. These replacements could raise faculty sufficiency issues when the school is up for accreditation, especially for schools without doctoral programs. The teaching quality could also suffer as an increasing number of students are taught by NTT faculty (Ehrenberg and Zhang, 2005; Liu and Zhang, 2007). Not only does the future for accounting as an academic discipline look bleak, but problems in hiring doctorally qualified accounting faculty are increasingly going to translate into accreditation problems.

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ACTIONS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS

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ABSTRACT

Throughout the history of the American educational system, the principal has always played an integral role in student education and teacher development. Over the past few years, with the advent of the No Child Left Behind legislation, it has become imperative that the principal be viewed as the instructional leader of their school, especially with this mandate's focus on student achievement through higher levels of teacher training. This article reviews the role of the principal in instructional programs and provides specific actions that will aid them in their instructional leadership efforts.

IMPROVING ETHICAL EDUCATION IN THE ACCOUNTING PROGRAM: A CONCEPTUAL COURSE

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ABSTRACT

The call for increased coverage of ethics in the accounting curriculum remains a topic of discussion and debate. While there is agreement among students, educators and administrators that ethics is important and needed in the accounting curriculum, actions to increase such coverage remain dubious. The adoption of 150- hour requirement by most states to sit for the CPA exam provides the necessary space to incorporate a stand-alone accounting ethics course in the accounting curriculum. Some scholars believe that if students are not taking a stand alone accounting ethics class they are not adequately prepared for the demands and expectations of the workplace, or of society. This paper provides a framework that educators can use in developing a stand-alone ethics course to address the demand for more ethical coverage in the accounting curriculum. We discuss the rationale for an accounting ethics course, its placement in the accounting curriculum, and topics to be included in this course.

INTRODUCTION

The role of accountants is critical to society. Accountants serve as financial reporters and intermediaries in the capital markets and owe their primary obligation to the public interest. The information they provide is crucial in aiding managers, investors and others in making critical economic decisions. Accordingly, ethical improprieties by accountants can be detrimental to society, resulting in distrust by the public and disruption of efficient capital market operations.

The numerous incidents of unethical behavior in the accounting profession stress the need for increased ethics in accounting education. Students are graduating with accounting degrees who are not familiar with professional codes of ethics, and who do not have the ability to detect nor address ethical accounting dilemmas. Lam & Samson (2005) noted that cleverness and creativity have replaced the traditional honesty and integrity which have characterized accountants of the past. Employers are no longer satisfied with just hiring competent accountants, but are looking for those who know the importance of, and are equipped with skills necessary to make ethical decisions. Therefore, in order for professional accountants to fulfill their role in society, they must not only have intellectual and technical expertise but also moral expertise (Mintz, 1995). This, however, may be a challenge since accounting curricula may be focusing mostly on the technical aspect of the profession and pushing instruction in ethical behavior by the wayside (Madison, 2002).

In the past, a common argument for not including an accounting ethics course involved not having room in an already crammed accounting curriculum. This, however, is no longer a valid argument with the adoption of the 150-hour rule by all but four states. The 150-hour rule provides an opportunity to improve weaknesses in accounting education and better prepare students for

careers in the accounting profession. As such, and in an attempt to restore the reputation of the accounting profession, the National Association of State Boards of Accountancy ("NASBA") proposed that CPA candidates be required to not only take a business ethics course but also an accounting ethics course. However, as a result of numerous responses against mandating a separate ethics accounting course, this proposal was not adopted.

While the AACSB only requires that ethics be incorporated into accounting courses, students and administrators agree that there should be more ethics in the accounting curriculum. Kerr & Smith (1995) reported that accounting students are seeking ethical and moral direction and that a lack of ethics can be damaging to the accounting profession and society. The numerous accounting scandals in the early 2000s are evidence of this prophecy and the need for increased ethics in the accounting curriculum. The current mortgage and financial meltdown may eventually also be attributed to accounting and ethical failures.

Bernardi & Bean's (2006) survey of advanced accounting students reported that the accounting students were in favor of NASBA's proposal for a separate accounting ethics course by a two-to-one ratio. Furthermore, a survey of 122 accounting administrators from the largest accounting programs in North America reveals that while ethics education has increased substantially in the accounting curriculum over the last twenty years, department chairs would like to see more time allotted to ethics (Madison & Schmidt, 2006).

The state of Texas has taken the lead in recognizing the importance and necessity of ethics in the accounting profession. Effective July 1, 2005, those applying to take the CPA exam in Texas must have completed a pre-approved 3-hour accounting or business ethics course. The state of Maryland has also more recently adopted an ethics requirement. Effective, January 1, 2008, those applying to take the CPA exam in Maryland must have completed a 3-hour course in business or accounting ethics, the philosophy of ethics, or a course that examines the framework of ethical decision-making. Although these are positive steps, they only relate to two states. The majority of other states mandate a stated number of continuing professional education hours to qualify for license renewal. Fisher et al. (2007) noted that the effectiveness of such CPE courses, however, are limited when accounting graduates do not have a foundation in ethics, and accounting educators are not providing the leadership to address the lag.

This paper provides a framework that educators can use in developing a stand-alone ethics course to address the demand of students and administrators who desire more ethical coverage in the accounting curriculum. It also seeks to address the lack of adequate materials for teaching ethics as noted in Blanthorne et al. (2007). We further discuss the rationale for an accounting ethics course, its placement in the accounting curriculum, and topics to be included in the course.

THE ACCOUNTING ETHICS COURSE

Course Rationale

Accounting curricula must prepare students for their professional careers in accounting. This includes the importance of ethics, especially since educating technically proficient but shallow graduates is a disservice to society (Low et al., 2008). Jackling et al. (2007) support this view by

noting that members of professional accounting bodies worldwide acknowledged that ethics should be part of the accounting curriculum, just like any other technical accounting skills.

Furthermore, the Blanthorne et al. (2007) study of accounting professors and their teaching of ethics reported that 98.1% favor its inclusion in at least some accounting courses. Although the favored approach was integration into other accounting courses, the time spent covering ethics was not optimal since it equated to less than one three-credit hour course (48 hours).

The only way to address these deficiencies is the introduction of an accounting ethics course into the curriculum. If students are not taking a stand alone accounting ethics class they are not adequately prepared for the demands and expectations of the workplace (Jackling et al., 2007), or of society (Low et al., 2008). Integrating ethics in accounting courses, at the very best, only exposes students to the fact that ethical issues occur in the accounting profession. It does not equip students with the skills necessary to handle such situations. Students need to be taught how to recognize issues in accounting that have ethical implications and how to perform ethical decision making when confronted with such issues.

Most accounting courses deal with the structured ethical problem where there is usually a single correct answer. In the work environment, however, students will be faced with unstructured problems and information overload. Some unethical behavior may be the actual result of one not being able to recognize the ethical dilemma in an unstructured environment (Bok, 1976). Therefore, if students are pre-exposed to ethical dilemmas that they may face in their careers and taught moral reasoning skills to help them address the dilemmas, they will be better prepared to handle these situations in their future careers. According to Grumet (2002), many ethics violations result from ignorance rather than deliberate action, which points to a great need for ethics education.

Ethics education should involve more than just exposing students to a series of ethical accounting cases (Armstrong, 1993). It should be organized, challenging and interdisciplinary (Holt et al., 1998). The objectives of ethics education should include teaching students to recognize issues in accounting that have ethical implications, developing the moral reasoning skills students need to address ethical dilemmas, and developing a sense of moral responsibility in accounting students (Armstrong, 1993; Callahan, 1980; Loeb, 1988). Ethics education should be effective in making better citizens and, therefore, a better profession and society.

In order to effectively meet the objectives of ethics education, students should be taught ethical theory (Armstrong, 1993; Loeb, 1988). This means substantial time should be allocated to teaching accounting ethics. It is not possible to meet the required ethics objectives by covering ethics in already existing courses. This requires more than just dedicating a class period to teaching ethics, or dedicating a week to teaching ethics. Students need to learn underlying ethical theory, professional codes of ethics, moral reasoning, and moral obligations. Monsour's (2007) ethical response model might also be used as a framework for teaching ethics to accounting majors. The model ask students to identify ethical issues and potential dilemmas in a situation, to create 2-3 feasible course of actions, and to evaluate the choices using the ethical concepts of universalism, utilitarianism and social norms.

Time is not available in existing courses since educators are already under pressure to complete course content. Therefore, ethics is usually just touched on or left to be covered at the end of the semester, if time allows. The only way the objectives of ethics education can be met is by teaching ethics as a separate course.

Placement in the Curriculum

A course in accounting ethics would be most beneficial as a three credit hour senior-level undergraduate elective course. Educators could encourage students to enroll in the course through the advising process. An example of a syllabus for this course is shown in Appendix A.

While the 150-hour rule only applies to those students interested in becoming certified public accountants, ethical dilemmas are present in all areas of the accounting profession. Students who are interested in working in private industry, government, non-profit and academia will all face ethical dilemmas in their careers. Therefore, all accounting students should be prepared to detect and address ethical issues.

The placement of this course in the accounting curriculum would ensure that accounting students are familiar with the various areas of accounting that would be covered in this course. Also, any exposure to the accounting environment through internships or work experience would enhance the students' comprehension and discussion of issues. These experiences would also provide a basis for students to apply theory and ethical dilemmas to practical experiences.

The ideal curriculum for this accounting ethics course would provide a 'sandwich' approach (Armstrong, 1993). Students would continue to take an introduction to ethics course or business ethics course. Throughout the curriculum, ethics would continue to be covered in existing accounting courses in order to develop decision-making skills. Finally, this capstone course would serve as a comprehensive course that would include applying ethical theory and the professional codes of conduct and ethics to decision-making skills in order to develop and promote moral reasoning. Emphasis would also be placed on discussing current accounting ethics issues and sensitizing students to ethical issues that they may encounter in their professional lives.

Course Content and Instruction

We suggest that the course be taught using a team teaching approach which would involve a philosophy and an accounting professor. A philosophy professor would teach the first section of the course involving the ethical theories from the field of philosophy. An alternative approach is to use guest speakers with a philosophy background if a philosophy professor is not available. This section, as noted in Appendix A, is adopted from Armstrong's (1993) Ethics and Professionalism course. The researcher suggests that traditional ethical theories, theories of moral development and the sociology of professions should be the theoretical basis for a separate course in accounting ethics. These topics will establish the foundation necessary to help students understand the intricacies of moral reasoning and the application of them in all aspects of their lives (personal and professional).

The second section of the course would be taught by an accounting professor. This section involves discussion of the codes of ethics established by accounting governing bodies such as the AICPA, the Institute of Internal Auditors, the Institute of Management Accountants, and the Association of Government Accountants. Students entering a new profession should be knowledgeable of the codes of ethics in which they are subject. This section would expose students to the responsibilities that accountants have to the profession, public and clients. Emphasis would be placed on the importance and need for these codes.

The third section includes discussions on current ethical issues in accounting, such as independence, conflicts of interests, earnings management, whistle-blowing, insider trading, fraud, etc. Attention might be placed on codes that were disregarded, the impact of unethical actions and the accountants' responsibility even if specific codes do not exist. Sanctions and punishments for unethical actions would also be discussed.

The fourth and last section of the course involves exposing students to real-life situations that they may face in their accounting careers. Students could read and analyze case studies relating to ethical issues. Student analysis of these cases should involve detecting ethical issues, specifying ethical codes violated, and discussing moral reasoning and the decision-making process. In most instances, it would be beneficial for the philosophy professor and the accounting professor to be present for the students' discussions and presentations due to the multi-disciplinary issues involved in analyzing the cases.

Furthermore, since this section deals with all aspects of accounting, different accounting professors could be used to teach different accounting topics. For example, an auditing professor would be used to discuss the auditing cases, while an accounting information systems professor would be used to discuss the accounting information systems cases. This is consistent with Blanthorne et al. (2007) who reported that accounting professors prefer to focus on their own areas of technical expertise in teaching ethics, and employ content from practice as opposed to classical ethics theories in teaching ethics. Monetary incentives should be provided to professors who are willing to engage in team teaching or participate in the case analysis section of the course.

PLEASE CONTACT THE AUTHORS IF YOU ARE INTERESTED IN THIS PAPER

IMPACT OF ON-LINE AND ON-GROUND COURSE CHARACTERISTICS BY UNDERGRADUATE STUDENT PERSONALITY TRAITS

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ABSTRACT

With the increasing popularity of distance education, a growing body of research is emerging which investigates personality characteristics, the types of students that are successful on-line courses and the differences between on-line students and traditional students. This analytical study supports a university initiative (Quality Enhancement Plan-QEP) to improve the quality of student learning. It is one of the outcomes of a multidisciplinary, collaborative effort of faculty from Management, Marketing, Math, and Engineering who have been teaching courses on-line and on-ground using the Desire-to-Learn (D2L) platform. The Five Factor Model of personality was used to analyze personality differences. The most important correlates of achievement for all QEP objectives for both students of on-ground and on-line courses were discussed.