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# The characteristics of Portuguese management academics and their fit with teaching accreditation standards

Characteristics of Portuguese management academics

533

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## Abstract

**Purpose** – The purpose of this paper is to contribute to the debate on the quality and accreditation of management education by examining the fit between the characteristics of current management academics in Portugal and recognised accreditation standards. For purposes of comparison, the authors use both general Portuguese teaching accreditation standards and specific international standards for management education.

**Design/methodology/approach** – The authors analyse indicators of staff career positioning, tenure status, full time vs part-time, age, degree qualifications, field of training, level of academic inbreeding, internationalisation, research activity, professional activity, and the number of hours taught per week. The authors also examine the relationship between them, in light of accreditation standards, for all academic staff teaching in management degrees submitted for compulsory accreditation by the Portuguese accreditation agency.

**Findings** – The reality found in this study shows gaps between the actual attributes of management academics and what can be considered appropriate attributes, according to the general consensus found in the literature and which is duly mirrored in common “qualified faculties” accreditation standards by Portuguese and international standards (AACSB, AMBA and EQUIS).

**Research limitations/implications** – The findings relate to the Portuguese situation and the analysis developed should be extended to other contexts. Also, while the data, which were collected through a census, has a wide national scope, it only covers one academic year.

**Practical implications** – This work has policy setting implications for degree accreditation and for developing capacity during the transitional periods when universities implement the mandatory minimum standards. It can also help universities to benchmark themselves against their peers as a diagnostic tool for elaborating improvement plans.

**Social implications** – The massification of higher education has led to legitimate concerns about the quality of the services provided, and consequently accreditation procedures were devised to restore trust. However, policy makers must be aware of the impacts of their actions, namely the effects of degree accreditation, as their goals need to be achieved with the minimum negative impact on academic work.

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**Originality/value** – The authors work sheds light on the characteristics of those who teach management and how they align with the current accreditation policies that affect academia globally and, in the process, presents empirical evidence from Portugal, which is at a relatively early stage in the accreditation process.

**Keywords** Teaching, Accreditation, Faculty, Management, Education, Academics

**Paper type** Research paper

## Introduction

Despite being at an emergent stage, higher education policy in Portugal follows global developments, namely regarding quality review and accreditation (Rosa and Sarrico, 2012). This paper examines the fit between the characteristics of current management academics in Portugal and recognised accreditation standards. For purposes of comparison, we use both general Portuguese teaching accreditation standards and specific international standards for management education. We do not necessarily want to categorise business academics, as cowboys, chameleons, or quislings, as Piercy (1999) has done in his tongue-in-cheek simplistic matrix, stereotyping them with regard to their performance (high or low) and primary motivation (money or academic achievement). Our idea is to present the characteristics of management educators in Portugal and to reflect on how they align with accreditation standards.

The paper first presents an account of the evolution, standards and effects of accreditation programmes that have affected academia globally in the context of new public management reforms and new performance regimes (Rosa and Amaral, 2012; Sarrico, 2010). It then makes an empirical contribution, based on the case of Portugal, which is relatively new to these developments.

It concludes by critically analysing the empirical findings, in the light of the literature, on the effects of accreditation on academic work and academics, and discusses their implications for higher education policy.

## The emergence of accreditation in higher education

“Twenty-five years ago it was rare to find European higher education systems that used formal quality assurance instruments. Today, it is hard to find even one [...] that has not established a national system for quality assurance” (Westerheijden *et al.*, 2014). Despite this state of affairs and the pervasiveness of external quality reviews, it is often hard to find a link between quality assurance systems and the improvement of teaching quality (Rosa and Amaral, 2012). The emergence of quality assurance in higher education is traditionally viewed as a response, to restore trust in the system following its massification (Trow, 1973) and the resulting concerns about declining standards (Barnett, 1992).

The quality movement in higher education transitioned from teaching quality audits that were “in the hands” of universities, often via their representative bodies, to accreditation regimes controlled by external agencies (Rosa and Sarrico, 2012). The effects of these accreditation regimes on academic work and identities have been discussed as part of the arrival of the audit culture to higher education (Strathern, 2000). This has often resulted in the phenomenon of proletarianisation, i.e. a shift from professional work with high levels of trust and autonomy, to work with less discretion, more routinised, and subject to stronger hierarchies of management control, or McDonaldization of academic work (Hayes, 2003; Parker and Jary, 1995; Willmott, 1995; Wilson, 1991). More recently, the increasing global competition in the higher education “industry” and the accompanying emergence of ranking exercises, have caused not

only frustration with the proletarianisation, but also the anxiety of trying to restore pre-massification “elite” status, conferred by the top positions in those rankings (Sarrico and Melo, 2012). These conflicting pressures have put added strain on academic lives and contextualise the search for “qualified faculties”. The notion of qualified faculty is a common criterion among accreditation standards, including the general Portuguese standards for higher education institutions (A3ES, 2013), inspired by the Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area – ESG (ENQA, 2009), and various specific management education standards (AACSB, 2012; AMBA, 2013; EFMD, 2014).

In Portugal, the first law regarding quality assessment of higher education was introduced in 1994, and was followed by two cycles of assessment that were very much controlled by organisations representing higher education. In the end, however, not even one degree had been forced to close because of poor assessments. In 2006, the Portuguese government requested a review of its higher education system by the OECD (2007) and also of its quality assurance system by the European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA, 2006). In the wake of these reviews, an Agency for Assessment and Evaluation of Higher Education (A3ES) was created in legislation published in late 2007, in close alignment with the Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (ENQA, 2005). A3ES was charged with assessing each degree and only accrediting those complying with the minimum standards established by law.

The Agency began its activity in 2009, and during 2010 and 2011 it undertook three main activities. The first regarded the preliminary accreditation of all study cycles in operation when the agency was created, focusing on compliance with minimum legal requirements laid down for this period, especially regarding the qualification of the academic staff, and the quality of research in the case of postgraduate provision. This mainly involved documentary analysis of information provided by institutions via an electronic platform and reviewed by panels of assessors. The second activity concerned the development of prior approval for new study programmes. The third involved the preparation of an audit process of the internal systems of quality assurance in higher education institutions.

The first regular period of accreditation for all study programmes started in 2012, including site visits for each study programme, rather than a simple documentary analysis. This period was also used to pilot the auditing process of the internal systems of quality assurance on a sample of voluntary institutions. This auditing process is meant to promote the implementation and certification of institutional internal quality assurance systems, underlying a new phase of accreditation based on the principle that the main responsibility for the quality of education primarily lies with the institution itself. The new regime of institutional accreditation (as opposed to study programme accreditation) is due to start in 2016, after all existing study programmes have been reviewed.

### **Characteristics of management academics and academic accreditation**

Regardless of the frenzy for accreditation and quality reviews in recent times, concern about the quality of management education is almost as old as management education itself. The American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) was founded in 1916, and by 1926 it had already established standards for business schools (Engwall and Zamagni, 1998, p. 9). It was followed by The Association of MBAs (AMBA), established in 1967, and the European Foundation for Management Development (EFMD), which was founded in 1972, launching its Quality Improvement

System (EQUIS) accreditation programme in 1998. Common to all accreditation regimes seems to be the requirement for “qualified faculties”. This seems to be the case in all management accreditation programmes, ranging from AACSB, AMBA to EQUIS, and more general standards, such as the ESG, which inspired the formation of A3ES. The following dimensions emerge when analysing the content of the standards pertaining directly to the characteristics of staff or indirectly where staff features have a bearing upon: staff qualifications; staff sufficiency; research productivity and impact; disciplinary balance; diversity; international orientation; and engagement with society and industry. Different dimensions have different emphases in different systems; some are less about characteristics pertaining to individuals, and more about the body of individuals as a whole teaching in the institution. The particular dimensions used in the standards can be thought of as reflecting the interaction that exists between the four basic activities of management – practice, research, education, and consulting (Engwall and Zamagni, 1998, p. 16), and are underpinned by discussions in the literature reviewed below.

The multidimensionality of management is reflected in the discussion on management education in the literature, where there has been the allusion that management has always suffered from an identity crisis. Carneiro (2004) says as much when he states that “Managing an organisation is not a scientific activity and it does not have the true characteristics of an art”, and he contends that academics should have workplace exposure and ideally work as consultants as well. Engwall and Zamagni (1998, p. 10) also point out that especially in the most prestigious schools faculty are hired and promoted based on their research record, which has led to the critique that the competence of professors becomes too specialised and often “too remote from actual business practice”.

Several authors establish the benefits of management education in relation to economic development (Blenkinsopp and Stalker, 2004; Carneiro, 2004; Holian, 2004; Lejeune, 2011), and they call for a further improvement in the relationship between business schools and companies, i.e. reinforcing engagement with society and industry. Elmuti (2004) points out that an “effective management education program can help organizations create competitive advantage”. Others, such as Adcroft *et al.* (2004), show more scepticism, particularly with regards to entrepreneurship education and its effectiveness to date.

Elmuti (2004) distinguishes between two types of management educators: the career academic, academically qualified, who mostly progresses as a result of research performance, often with little contact with the workplace; and the former manager, professionally qualified, who becomes an academic later in life and focuses on teaching activities. Blenkinsopp and Stalker (2004) welcome the emergence of these latter type of management educators, but argue that, at times, there is a difficult transition from practice to academia, where management experience may be valued less than academic research. Nonetheless, management experience seems to be a welcome addition to a faculty’s portfolio of management academics. It brings a perspective of the real world, and thus a different type of credibility, in addition to the traditional credibility of academic research; and it is a source of competitive advantage which is difficult to replicate (Blenkinsopp and Stalker, 2004), reinforcing the economic development goals of management education (Carneiro, 2004).

Holian (2004), when discussing the case of Australia, shows that management academics may not necessarily have formal qualifications in management, formal qualifications in education or training, or be required to be a member of a professional association. This situation may not be tenable in the long term. She does highlight the

necessary balance between theory and practice in management education, as management is a science, as well as an art.

Carneiro (2004) additionally distinguishes management from other subjects, as it is the “confluence of several sciences (understanding) and actions (doing)”, which stresses not only the balance between theory and practice, but also the necessary balance between different academic disciplines that contribute to this field. In point of fact, there has always been discussion on the coherence of management education, where often academics from different disciplines end up teaching management courses, such as economists teaching finance, or psychologists teaching human resources management (Engwall and Zamagni, 1998, p. 8). Amdam *et al.* (2003) also show that different national traditions have contributed to different disciplinary orientations for management studies degrees, and also that more recently the internationalisation of management education has made degrees more similar in their subject content. In the first place, this was due to the Americanisation of business education after the Second World War, but it was also more recently a result of both American and European schools moving away from Americanisation towards the internationalisation of business education (McGlade, 1998, p. 64).

Van der Colff (2004) makes the case for the internationalisation of management education, urging “management educators to incorporate a global perspective in all aspects of their curriculum”. Along the same lines, Elmuti (2004) argues that “international exposure of some sort is a must in all management education programs”, and the idea is further corroborated by others (Holian, 2004; Lejeune, 2011). Internationalisation may also combat the perverse effect of academic inbreeding, which is known to decrease diversity among faculty, and stifle research productivity (Horta *et al.*, 2010).

### Management education in Portugal

German *Handelshochschulen*, i.e. technical, or trade, schools, are considered to be the precursors of schools of management in Europe. They first offered technical, practical and scientific training and then developed academic ambitions from the 1890s onwards, eventually becoming integrated in universities in the 1930s (Meyer, 1998). France offers a similar tradition, in the form of *Grandes Écoles*, the first of which was founded in 1881, which was also a trade school, i.e. “de commerce”, supported by chambers of commerce and municipalities. It was practice-oriented and the academic staff were predominantly part-time teachers, whose main employment was outside the school. In most of Europe during the 1980s and 1990s, the old trade schools were upgraded and research became an objective in itself, leading to the origin of the modern business school. This culminates a process of American influence on management education that had started during the post-war period of the Marshall Plan. During this process, business education programmes have become considerably more similar and more successful. A testimony to this, is the fact that business graduates replaced engineers as managers in the 1980s and 1990s in Europe (Amdam *et al.*, 2003).

Meanwhile, in spite of the tendency for the predominance of the American model, Üsdiken (2010) presents evidence that some changes have occurred in Europe that have led to the development of “alternatives” to this model, at least in the particular case of Organisation Studies within business schools. Nevertheless, he points out that changes have not occurred in a uniform manner, on account of the varying degrees of influence the USA has had in different parts of Europe. Against this background it seems interesting to analyse a country-specific case study of the state of the academic management workforce, such as Portugal.

Portuguese management education mirrors developments in other European countries to some extent. A School of Commerce (*Aula de Comércio*), i.e. a trade school, was set up by the Portuguese government in 1756, following the massive Lisbon earthquake of 1755, and is considered by some to be one of the oldest business schools in the world (Vidal, 1990). In 1884, for the first time, it offered a higher education degree in commerce (*Curso Superior de Comércio*), and in 1911 it was incorporated into the Technical University of Lisbon, along with other higher education institutes, under the denomination of the Higher Institute of Commerce (*Instituto Superior de Comércio*). In 1926, for the first time, it included in its syllabus a course in Business Organisation and Administration (*Organização e Administração de Empresas*). In 1931, the doctorate in Economics and Finance (*Ciências Económicas e Financeiras*) was created, along with the first academic journal in the subject, followed by the foundation of a Centre for the Study of Applied Mathematics for Economics.

After the Second World War, as part of a reform of 1949, there was a significant increase in the number of Economics courses provided by the Institute, and Business Organisation and Administration, as such, disappeared from the syllabus. Two new degrees were created: Economics and Finance. The latter was very much designed for business administration and the former was created for the economic analysis of public organisations and large private companies. At this time, the course in Business Economics (*Economia da Empresa*) was also launched, which introduced case studies and business games as part of the study plan.

The monopoly of the Lisbon School was finally broken in 1953, with the foundation of the Faculty of Economics at the University of Porto; although the latter only offered degrees in Economics.

It was only as a result of the reforms of 1970, that the degree in Finance saw a major increase in the number of specialised management courses in its syllabus, such as commercial management, financial management, production and procurement management, personnel management, in addition to other management courses that were introduced in 1967, mainly in the area of operational research. Significantly, it is at this time that the word “management” (*gestão*) became the predominant term (as opposed to “organisation” or “administration”), and finally an autonomous degree in Business Organisation and Management was offered as from 1972. In 1977, the doctorate in Business Organisation and Management was created, and in 1982 the first master’s degree in Business Organisation and Management was launched. It was also during this decade that the bachelor degree became entitled simply Management, with Business Organisation dropping from its name. In 1993, the first academic journal in the field of Management was created, under the title “Studies in Management” (*Estudos de Gestão*), changing its name in 1999 to the *Portuguese Journal of Management Studies* (in English in the original).

The reforms of 1970 opened the way for the creation throughout Portugal of more schools and degrees in management, with the following two decades characterised by growth both in the public, as well as the private higher education sectors, at university and polytechnic level. This was a period of massification for Portuguese higher education (Neave and Amaral, 2012), which eventually led to calls for the quality assurance of higher education.

The first cycle of accreditation of degree programmes in Portugal during 2010 and 2011, as discussed above, focused on compliance with minimum legal requirements laid down for this period, with an emphasis on the qualification of the academic staff. As such, A3ES asked institutions to submit a form with information for each individual academic. Based on the information provided, a panel of assessors would pass judgement on whether the set of individuals teaching a degree programme as a whole was deemed



qualified to teach the programme. In the following section we analyse the information provided in the Portuguese staff forms in light of the dimensions that have emerged from our content analysis of the different accreditation standards relevant to management education in characteristics of management academics and academic accreditation.

## Empirical analysis

### *Research question, data and methods*

The empirical research sought to answer the question: to what extent are the characteristics of management academics aligned with qualified faculties' standards? The main results are presented below.

As part of the degree accreditation process, universities in Portugal are required to submit information on each member of the academic teaching staff. From the corresponding information that had been submitted to A3ES, we built a database consisting of the academic staff that teaches 1st, 2nd and 3rd cycle level degrees with the word "management" (*Gestão* in Portuguese) in their designation, i.e. encompassing the broad area of "business studies". The sample comprises 1,024 academics teaching 45 degrees (17 bachelor degrees – 9,152 students, 18 master's degrees – 2,355 students, 11 doctoral degrees – 249 students), from a total of 15 universities (see Table I). The data refers to the 2009/2010 academic year.

Each member of staff submits a form to A3ES with the following information: name, institution, unit, category, employment regime, academic training, research (up to five references), professional experience, and annual academic service allocation. Following the structure of the A3ES form, the analysis looked at indicators that could be produced with the information provided and that might shed light on how well Portuguese management academics fit with the dimensions that emerge from accreditation standards, namely: sex, professional category, tenure-track, employment regime, graduation year, highest degree, scientific field, academic inbreeding, internationalisation, research, professional experience, and average teaching load per week. All indicators were derived from the information on the staff forms, which is the information that is used by the assessors to pass judgements on whether as a whole each institution has the necessary staff, with the necessary "quality", to teach at bachelor, master's and doctorate levels. The information provided by

	Frequency	%
UAc – Universidade dos Açores	34	3.3
UBI – Universidade da Beira Interior	33	3.2
UCP – Universidade Católica	166	16.2
UM – Universidade do Minho	43	4.2
UP – Universidade do Porto	64	6.3
UTAD – Universidade de Trás-os-Montes e Alto Douro	24	2.3
UA – Universidade de Aveiro	60	5.9
UC – Universidade de Coimbra	74	7.2
UE – Universidade de Évora	68	6.6
ISCTE – Instituto Universitário de Lisboa	111	10.8
UAlg – Universidade do Algarve	54	5.3
UMa – Universidade da Madeira	19	1.9
UNL – Universidade Nova de Lisboa	137	13.4
UTL – Universidade Técnica de Lisboa	121	11.8
UAb – Universidade Aberta	16	1.6
Total	1,024	100.0

**Table I.**  
Distribution of  
academics by  
institution

the indicators will, to some extent, shed light on how Portuguese management academics comply with the dimensions emergent from the accreditation standards reviewed in characteristics of management academics and academic accreditation. Table II presents a feasible mapping of indicators to dimensions.

The data available were coded as in Table III. Most of the data were easily coded from the information available, however some variables had to be constructed.

The coding of the scientific field was constructed from the information on the form filled out by each academic, namely regarding: academic education, research production and subjects taught. It thus implies a judgement on the part of the authors as to how this information fits with the proposed classification. The authors used the classification of the Frascati Manual to categorise all academics whose specialisation field was not business and management (OECD, 2002). The remaining academics were classified using five emergent categories:

- accounting/finance;
- organisational behaviour/human resources management;
- information systems/technology and operations management/ operational research;
- marketing/strategy; and
- general management.

More challenging was the task of coding the research intensity of each academic. Research production in the respective scientific field is a necessary condition for the accreditation of postgraduate degrees by A3ES. For a master's degree, it is necessary to show evidence of "some research production in the field", while for a doctoral degree, a more demanding test is required, that of evidence of "relevant" research (A3ES, 2009). There is no definition of standards in this respect, and it is up to academic peers sitting in the panel of assessors nominated by A3ES to make a judgement on research relevance. Thus the authors had to make an informed judgement when coding this variable, based on the information available in the forms. It was decided that to conform with the criterion of "some research", research outputs in the form of published articles, chapters or books needed to exist. To achieve the criterion of "relevant research", evidence of having written five articles in internationally refereed journals was required in the five references given in the form. This last criterion was based on the demands of recent advertisements for positions of associate professor (the equivalent of obtaining tenure at a university).

**Table II.**  
Indicators of  
emergent dimensions  
from accreditation  
standards

Dimensions from accreditations standards	Indicators
(i) Staff qualifications	Highest degree Professional category
(ii) Staff sufficiency	Tenure-track Employment regime Average teaching load
(iii) Research productivity and impact	Research
(iv) Disciplinary balance	Scientific field
(v) Diversity	Sex Graduation year Academic inbreeding
(vi) International orientation	Internationalisation
(vii) Engagement with society and industry	Professional experience

Variable	Categories	Observations
Name	Name	
Institution	Institution	
Unit	Unit	
Sex	Female Male	Coded from the name of the person
Professional category	Assistant Assistant Professor Associate Professor Full Professor	
Tenure-track	Non-tenure track Tenure/tenure-track	
Employment regime	Full time with exclusivity Full time without exclusivity Part time	
Graduation year	Year of first-degree awarded	Considered as a proxy for age
Highest degree	Bachelor level Master's level Doctoral level Habilitation	Habilitation is a degree which is a prerequisite to become a full professor
Scientific field	Classification according to the Frascati Manual for non-management academics and emergent classification for management academics	Categorised by the researchers from the information contained in the form
Academic inbreeding	No inbreeding (no degree, from the current institution) Weak inbreeding (one degree, but not the highest, is from the current institution) Strong inbreeding (the highest degree awarded is from the current institution)	Excluding habilitation, as it is normally awarded by the employing institution
Internationalisation	Last degree awarded in Portugal Last degree not awarded in Portugal	Idem
Research	No research Some research Relevant research	Categorised by the researchers from the information contained in the form
Professional experience	No professional experience outside academia Professional experience outside academia	
Teaching load	Average number of hours per week	

**Table III.**  
Variables and coding

The authors followed the lead of Hajnal (2003), and worked independently to classify each individual's research intensity. In an ensuing phase, cases that had been rated differently were jointly reviewed to assure consistency in the application of pre-defined criteria.

Once the variables were constructed, descriptive statistics were used to characterise management academics. Since the data are mostly composed of categorical variables, we further analysed relationships between all the variables using contingency tables and Pearson's  $\chi^2$  test to measure the degree of association between variables, as well as measuring their strength with Cramer's  $V$  (Field, 2005). To increase the power of the test, any residual categories, named "other", were ignored. Thus, in all instances, the expected frequencies in each category are greater than five.

**The fit of Portuguese management academics with accreditation standards***Sex*

From the results in Table III it can be seen that males are generally over represented in this area, despite the fact that at ISEG, the first school to offer degrees in management, women already constituted half of the student population by the end of the 1980s (Valério *et al.*, 2011). Although males are also significantly over represented in all categories, the gender difference between assistants and assistant professors is much less pronounced than in the senior categories of associate and full professors. The association between sex and category is significant,  $\chi^2(3) = 35.481$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , but not very strong, Cramer's  $V = 0.195$ .

However, the situation is changing, as women are becoming better represented in the younger generation of academics; the number of women and men who finished their first degree in the 1990s and in the 2000s is nearly the same, whereas during the previous decades, men were always in the majority. The association between sex and the decade of first degree is significant,  $\chi^2(4) = 25.259$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , but not very strong, Cramer's  $V = 0.157$ .

Men seem to have more professional experience outside academia than women. The association between sex and professional experience is significant,  $\chi^2(1) = 39.014$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , albeit not very strong, Cramer's  $V = 0.199$ .

*Professional category*

The old career statutes of university teaching staff, in place from 1979 to 2009, allowed academics to enter the profession with a bachelor, master's or doctoral degree, corresponding to the categories of "assistant trainee", "assistant", and "professor", respectively. The professorial echelons are divided into "assistant professor", "associate professor" and "full professor". Only professors could obtain tenure. Positions for associate and full professor were awarded only as a result of a nation-wide competition as and when a vacancy for a particular post became available. The habilitation degree is a pre-requisite for becoming a full professor.

The new career statutes of university teaching staff, in force since 2009, stipulate that the combined number of associate and full professors must represent between 50 and 70 per cent of the total academic staff. However at present, they only represent 16.6 per cent. It will take many years for this situation to change as these categories are paid higher salaries and funds will not be available for many years to come given the current and future financial constraints that Portugal faces. Furthermore, the new statutes established that the academic career should start at the level of assistant professor, for which a doctorate is required. However, at present, more than one-third of academic staff are not categorised as professors, and most are assistants (without a doctorate, but with a master's), or are even categorised as "other" (which normally means they do not even possess a master's degree). Thus it can be seen that the present situation is still a long way from what is required by law.

On the other hand, it is interesting to verify that it is mainly the assistants who are in non-tenure-track positions (i.e. not on permanent contracts). Professors are more likely to be tenure-track or tenured staff (i.e. on permanent contracts). The association between professional category and tenure is quite significant,  $\chi^2(3) = 216.846$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , and quite strong, Cramer's  $V = 0.485$ . Also, associate and full professors are more likely to have obtained their last degree abroad. The association between professional

Indicator		Frequency	%	Characteristics of Portuguese management academics
Sex	Male	611	59.7	
	Female	413	40.3	
Professional category	Assistant	309	32.5	
	Assistant Professor	467	49.2	
	Associate Professor	96	10.1	
	Full Professor	62	6.5	
	Other	16	1.7	
Tenure-track	Non-tenure-track	292	31.3	
	Tenure/tenure-track	641	68.7	
Employment regime	Full time with exclusivity	439	43.1	
	Full time without exclusivity	304	29.8	
	Part time	258	25.3	
	Other	18	1.8	
	Graduation year	1960-1969	88	8.6
	1970-1979	133	13.0	
	1980-1989	254	24.8	
	1990-1999	425	41.5	
	2000-2009	124	12.1	
Highest degree	Bachelor	144	14.1	
	Master's	225	22.0	
	Doctorate	575	56.2	
	Habilitation	80	7.8	
Scientific field	Accounting/finance	82	8.0	
	Organisational behaviour/human resources management	44	4.3	
	Information systems/technology and operations management/operational research	30	2.9	
	Marketing/strategy	24	2.3	
	General management	362	35.4	
	Other social sciences	296	28.9	
	Natural sciences/engineering and technology/medical and health sciences	124	12.1	
	Humanities	61	6.0	
	Academic inbreeding	No inbreeding	364	35.8
		Weak inbreeding	176	17.3
Strong inbreeding		477	46.9	
Internationalisation	Last degree awarded in Portugal	731	71.5	
	Last degree awarded not in Portugal	292	28.5	
Research	No research	320	31.3	
	Some research	568	55.5	
	Relevant research	135	13.2	
Professional experience	Without experience outside academia	281	28.6	
	With experience outside academia	703	71.4	
Average teaching load (TL) per week	TL $\leq$ 4.5 hours	207	27.9	
	4.5 < TL $\leq$ 7 hours	167	22.5	
	7 < TL $\leq$ 9 hours	180	24.2	
	TL > 9 hours	189	25.4	

**Table IV.**  
Descriptive statistics

category and internationalisation is significant,  $\chi^2(3) = 140.730$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , and of medium strength, Cramer's  $V = 0.388$ .

In the past, the accusation was often made that promotion to the higher echelons of the hierarchy was based more on seniority than merit. We have tested the association between professional category and decade of graduation (a proxy for age) and reached the conclusion that there is a significant association between category and year of graduation,  $\chi^2(12) = 308.729$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , of medium strength, Cramer's  $V = 0.332$ . However, it is also true that there is a significant association between professional category and research intensity,  $\chi^2(6) = 242.060$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , which is also of medium strength according to Cramer's  $V = 0.360$ . Thus it seems that merit does play a part in securing promotion to higher categories.

#### *Tenure-track*

Academics are either career academics (with permanent contracts, on tenure-track, or already tenured), or "invited" academics (who are not career academics and are on non-permanent contracts).

The new statutes impose a limit of one-third for non-tenure-track academics. These are supposed to have professional experience outside academia and should be on part-time contracts. These conditions are often not met at present, and employing staff on this type of non-permanent contract is common practice among many universities, as it offers more flexibility in comparison to permanent-contract, career employees. Currently 31.3 per cent of academic staff are not tenure-track, which conforms with the legally stipulated limit. There is a significant association between tenure-track and professional experience,  $\chi^2(1) = 18.824$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , but not very strong, Cramer's  $V = 0.145$ . Thus, non-tenure-track academics are more likely to have professional experience outside academia, as should be expected. Accordingly, they seem to be less likely to be involved in research. There is a significant association between tenure-track and research,  $\chi^2(2) = 101.000$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , which is of medium strength, Cramer's  $V = 0.329$ .

#### *Employment regime*

The largest group of academics, 43.1 per cent, are employed full time with exclusivity and a further 29.8 per cent, although employed full time, do not have exclusivity, i.e. they are permitted to work outside of academia, should they wish. At this point, it is worth mentioning that some academics are employed on non-exclusivity contracts, not of their own volition, but because the institution is not willing to pay them for exclusivity which is rewarded by an extra 30 per cent on the value of their base salary. This is especially true for non-tenure-track academics, who despite their contract terms would prefer to be tenure-track. The remaining academics are represented by the 25.3 per cent who work part-time and a residual 1.8 per cent who are on other contracts (typically being paid by the hour as self-employed professionals). There is an association between employment regime and tenure,  $\chi^2(2) = 346.559$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , which is strong, Cramer's  $V = 0.616$ . Those in part-time employment are more likely not to be in tenure-track positions, as should be expected.

Also, those with exclusivity, as expected, seem to be more involved in research. The association between employment regime and research is significant,  $\chi^2(4) = 165.275$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , and of medium strength, Cramer's  $V = 0.287$ .

#### *Year of graduation*

We do not have a variable for the age of academics, but we can consider the year of graduation (first degree), as a proxy for age, as most staff graduated in their early 20s.

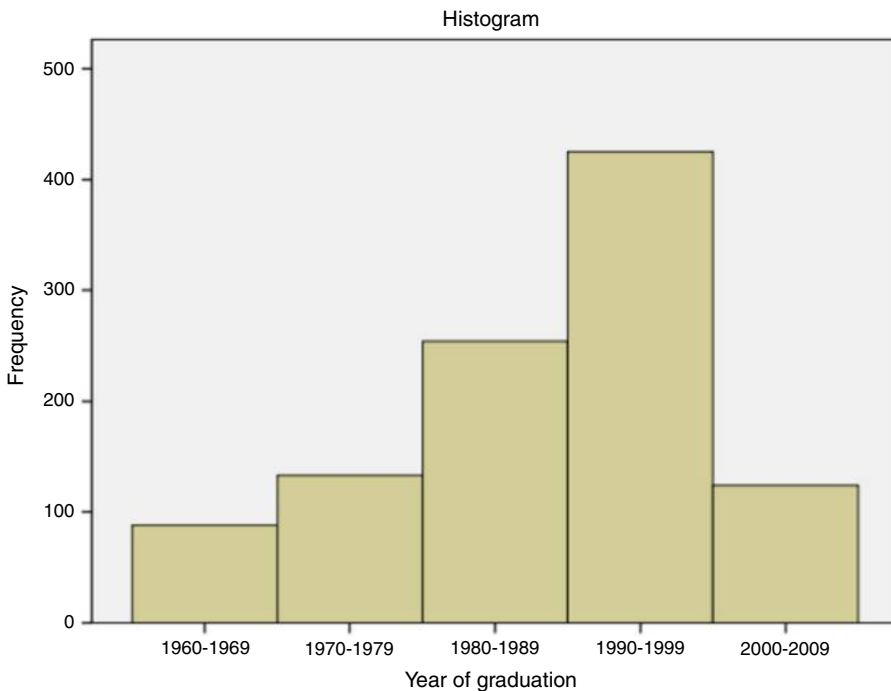
The distribution of decade of graduation is negatively skewed, which seems to indicate a relatively recent year of graduation and, consequently, a relatively young body of academics (see Figure 1). This fact is evidence of the increased level of massification in Portuguese higher education from the 1990s onwards.

*Highest degree*

Entry into the academic profession requires a doctoral degree under the new career statutes. However, at present, only 56.2 per cent of academics in management possess a doctorate, and 14.1 per cent do not even possess a master’s degree. Therefore, as 65.8 per cent of academics are professors, this means that a significant proportion of academics do not possess a doctorate, even in the case of professors. However, those professors that do not hold a doctorate can only be “invited” professors, i.e. they cannot be in tenure-track positions, for which a doctorate is required. The statistics show that there is some way to go before the new standards are complied with. The association between those with a doctoral degree and their decade of initial graduation is significant,  $\chi^2(12) = 258.920$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , and of medium strength, Cramer’s  $V = 0.290$ . Thus it seems that younger academics tend to be more qualified than their older peers.

*Scientific field*

A number of scientific fields seem to contribute to management education in Portugal. Just over half (53 per cent) of academics teaching management degrees are from business/management fields such as accounting and finance; organisational behaviour and human resources management; information systems, technology and operations management, and operational research; marketing and strategy; or other unidentified



**Figure 1.**  
Year of graduation of  
academics

fields of general management. A significant number, 29 per cent, come from other social sciences, such as economics, and political science; 12 per cent come from hard sciences, such as natural sciences, engineering and technology, and medical and health sciences; and 6 per cent come from humanities. These findings may encompass positive and negative aspects. On the one hand, it may confirm that management education is a confluence of several areas of study. On the other hand, it may represent an area which is still not well-established in academia, which needed to borrow human resources from other fields of study to be able to meet the expansion of management studies in recent decades.

A finer analysis points to imbalances in the distribution of academics of different areas between Portuguese institutions:

- management disciplines seem to be evenly distributed at Instituto Universitário de Lisboa, Universidade Aberta, Universidade da Beira Interior, Universidade de Évora, Universidade do Algarve, Universidade do Minho, Universidade dos Açores and Universidade Técnica de Lisboa;
- economics, political science and other social sciences seem to be over-represented at Universidade Católica, Universidade da Madeira, Universidade de Coimbra, Universidade de Trás-os-Montes, Universidade do Porto and Universidade Nova de Lisboa; and
- natural sciences/ engineering and technology/ medical and health sciences seem to be dominant at Universidade de Aveiro.

This characterisation is most likely due to the particularities of the units that host the degrees and academics in question, as well as the history of those units. It again raises the question as to whether the diversity of academic backgrounds of management academics exists by design, i.e. an acknowledgement of the interdisciplinarity of management studies, or it merely represents the usage of existing academics at the respective institutions, regardless of their suitability for teaching in management programmes.

#### *Academic inbreeding*

Only 35.8 per cent of academics work in an institution of which they are not alumni. For those alumni who work for one of their alma maters, 73.0 per cent were awarded their last degree there (excluding habilitation), which seems to represent a staggering level of academic inbreeding in the sector. As expected, a degree abroad seems to combat inbreeding, to some extent. The association between inbreeding and internationalisation is significant,  $\chi^2(2) = 391.793$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , and strong, Cramer's  $V = 0.621$ . In fact, 65.3 per cent of those who studied for their last degree in Portugal work for the very same university. However, a significant 70.5 per cent of those who studied for their last degree abroad, returned to a university where they had studied previously. It seems that inbreeding is thus still quite strong, despite the effect of internationalisation.

#### *Internationalisation*

The Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology has funded doctoral studies abroad for Portuguese academics. From the data, it can be seen that more than a quarter of academics were awarded their last degree (excluding habilitation) from an institution outside Portugal. Internationalisation seems to contribute to research intensity. The association between the two variables is significant,  $\chi^2(2) = 68.679$ ,  $p = 0.000$ , and of medium strength, Cramer's  $V = 0.259$ . This result questions Portugal's policy in this area, as the proportion of academics that obtain a doctorate



from abroad has been decreasing over time (62 per cent in the 1970s, 40 per cent in the 1980s, 26 per cent in the 1990s, and 15 per cent in the 2000s (GPEAR, 2011)). Discussion is needed as to whether Portugal has the necessary research capacity to produce high quality doctoral level education in some areas, namely management.

### *Research*

Regarding research, only 13.2 per cent of academics gained a “relevant research” accolade, and 31.3 per cent do not declare any research output. This calls into question the established capacity for doctoral degrees in management in Portugal. With 36.1 per cent of academics in this area yet to obtain a doctorate, many people are being pressed to obtain the qualification, in order to access the professoriate, as a result of the implementation of the new statutes’ requirement. Debate is needed as to the type of doctoral education in management studies that can be realistically delivered to such academics in Portugal.

Even though it is expected that having professional experience outside academia hinders research productivity, we found no evidence that this is so. In fact, we could not discern a significant association between research and professional experience at the 5 per cent level of significance ( $\chi^2(2) = 4.690$ ,  $p = 0.096$ , Cramer’s  $V = 0.069$ ).

### *Professional experience*

As might be expected for a field concerned with a professional arena, 71.4 per cent of academics do have experience outside academia. As only 31.3 per cent are not tenure-track academics, and thus are supposed to have professional activity outside academia, this means that more than half of those that do have tenure, or are tenure-track academics, must also have professional experience, either before (for those with exclusivity contracts), or alongside their academic careers (for those without exclusivity contracts).

### *Teaching load*

The old statutes stipulated between six and 12 hours of teaching per week on average per semester, while the new statutes narrowed this to between six and nine hours. Table V shows the total number of average teaching hours per week, for those not on part-time contracts, where the median point is around six hours per week. Those that teach nine hours or less per week per semester account for 75 per cent of academics. This indicates that for the vast majority of academics, teaching load is already in line with the new statutes. In that respect, it does not seem that teaching load is a great impediment to research productivity.

## **Findings**

The majority of management academics in Portugal are still men, but the gender balance is correcting itself in younger generations of academics, which reflects the same evolution that had previously occurred in the student body. Moreover, management educators in Portugal are relatively young, the majority being in their 40s, or younger. The proportion of academics at the level of associate and full professor is still very far removed from that which is considered ideal; it is not realistic to assume that this situation will change very much in the near future, given the continuing poor economic outlook of the country. More problematic may be the fact that one-third of academics still do not possess a doctorate (although proportionally more younger academics are so qualified) and that research intensity is very low, which calls into

question the sustainability of offering so many doctoral programmes and the recent trend of less people going abroad to study for their doctorate. One of the main criticisms of management education is the fact that often only a few academics have been exposed to workplace experience. However, this does not seem to be a general problem in Portugal, where the majority of academics do have professional experience outside university, even in the case of career academics. This situation does not necessarily seem to conflict with research intensity, and, in turn, teaching load cannot be given as an excuse for the low level of research performance, as most academics have a reasonable teaching load.

Another interesting finding relates to the fact that the original degrees of a significant number of academics are not from the area of general management, especially in some universities. This should be studied further, as it is important to understand if this is due to the design of the programme, or more worryingly, it is a supply side imposition, or even simply the inertia of the faculty composition. Academic inbreeding is shown to be pervasive, which raises the question as to whether the most suitable candidates are being recruited, or in-house candidates are merely being appointed.

### Discussion and conclusions

Clearly, there is still some gap between current staff characteristics and composition (as measured by indicators derived from information submitted for the accreditation of degrees in Portugal) and prevailing quality dimensions emergent from accreditation standards for management education. This state of affairs demands capacity development. However, developing capacity is not trivial, and both staff development and career support involve different dimensions that need to be addressed holistically (Adcroft and Taylor, 2013).

In Portugal academics tend to agree with the principles behind external quality assurance (Rosa *et al.*, 2012), but do acknowledge some tensions regarding quality governance and management at institutional level (Sarrico *et al.*, 2013). These tensions relate very much to different accountabilities: in addition to the traditional professional accountability, academics face increasing managerial accountability (Melo *et al.*, 2010). A balance between the two may not always be achieved (Hallinger, 2010; Ryan and Guthrie, 2009). However, Sarrico (2010) offers a more optimistic view, where balanced governance arrangements help deal with conflicting tensions between different stakeholders in higher education institutions; this perspective allies with Sousa *et al.* (2010), who put forward the notion of “resilient compliance” to describe the power of “academics” to deal with potentially adverse situations which are imposed by managerialism. Räsänen (2012) also describes practices of “autonomous development work” as a type of activism which emphasises local agency by academics, rather than them just being victims of hard managerialism.

<i>n</i>	Valid	1,016
	Missing	0
Mean		6.2522
Median		6.0000
Mode		4.50
Percentiles	25	3.6100
	50	6.0000
	75	8.5000

**Table V.**  
Distribution of  
teaching load

In making the improvements necessary to meet with compliance standards, Portuguese higher education institutions and regulatory agencies, in general, and management education institutions, in particular, could all learn from more established systems (Halligan *et al.*, 2012). Hopefully, this will help performance measurement regimes in Portuguese higher education avoid suffering the same stress as that experienced by other public sector organisations (Adcroft and Willis, 2005), as they move towards improving performance.

Our work sheds light on the characteristics of those who teach management and how they align with the current accreditation policies that affect academia globally. It presents empirical evidence from Portugal, a relatively nascent case. It refers to a specific field of study, and offers a snapshot in time. In future, we would like to compare the situation of management studies with the general situation of all study subjects, and also, should more studies become available, compare the Portuguese situation with that of other countries.

Our work also has a policy setting implication for degree accreditation and for capacity development in institutions, especially those teaching management. There are legitimate concerns about the quality of education, and accreditation procedures were devised, to some extent, to restore trust in the system. However, policy makers need to be aware of the effects of accreditation, as their goals need to be achieved with the minimum negative impact on academic work.

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