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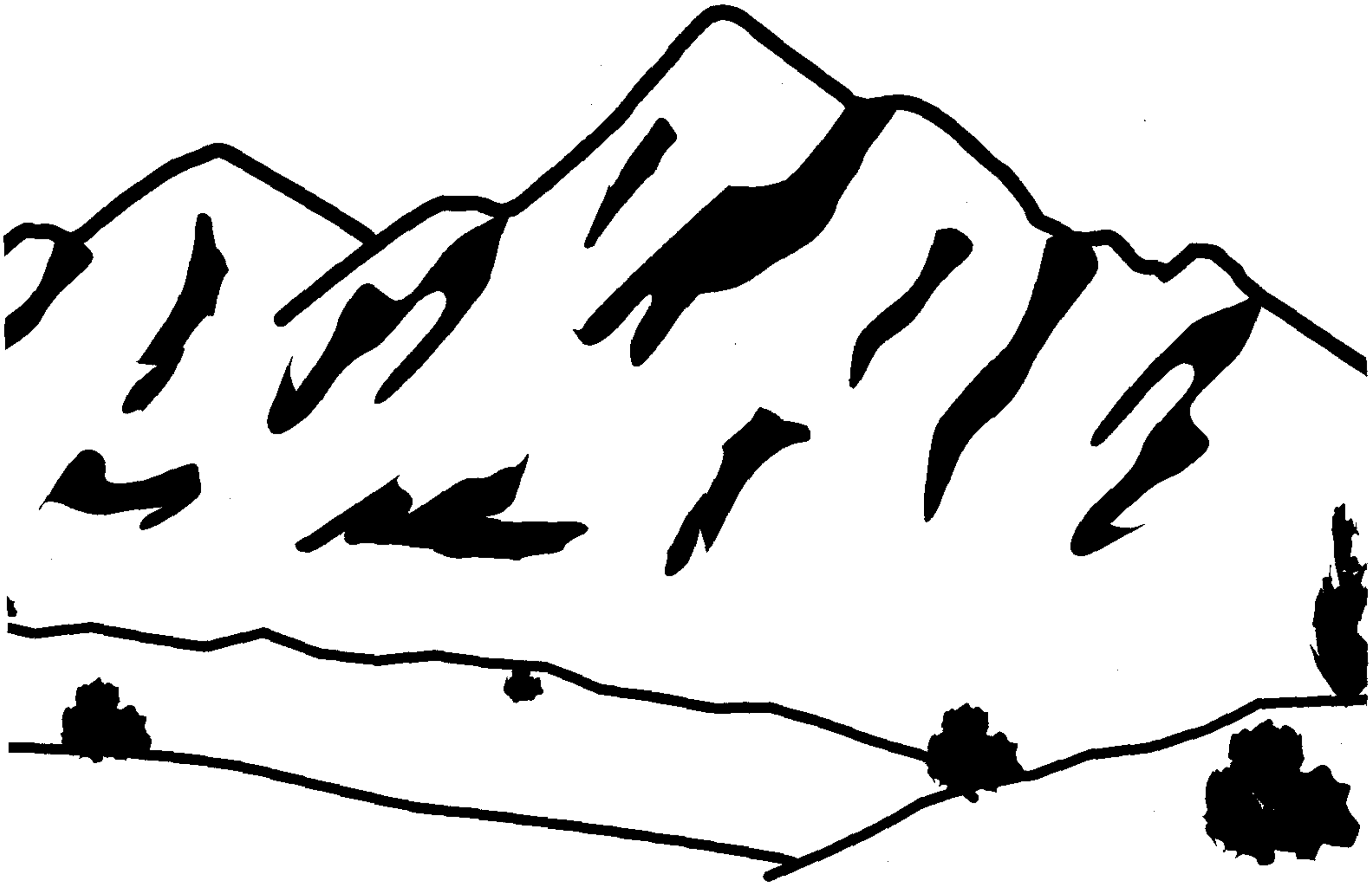
Marketing Educators' Association Conference Proceedings



Minds Wide Open:
Continuous Improvement in Marketing Education

Las Vegas, Nevada

Beverlee B. Anderson and Deborah Cours, Editors

Minds Wide Open: Continuous Improvement in Marketing Education

Edited by

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Marketing Educators' Association (MEA), est. 1978.

PREFACE

This volume contains the proceedings of the 28th Annual Conference of the Marketing Educators' Association (MEA) held in Las Vegas, Nevada, April 15-17, 2004.

The conference theme, **Minds Wide Open: Continuous Improvement in Marketing Education**, reflects our purpose and goal in meeting to exchange knowledge. This program includes competitive papers, special sessions, and contemporary roundtable discussions. Each competitive paper was double-blind revised. Authors of competitive papers were given the option of publishing the entire paper or an abstract. Special sessions were evaluated by an editorial board. Chairs of special sessions were invited to include up to a two-page abstract. Contemporary topics roundtables were selected to provide engaging discussion among the membership. Coordinators of roundtable discussions were asked to submit a one-page abstract of the discussion topic.

The papers and abstracts are presented here in the same chronological order as their respective sessions in the conference program. The titles of sessions on the program included:

- Measuring Teaching Effectiveness
- From Online Shopping to Online Gambling
- Business Ethics Issues
- Are We Preparing Students for the New Age:
- The Disconnect Between Employers Needs, Undergraduate Programs and Advanced Degree Preparation
- Issues in Managing Client-Based Projects
- Understanding Students'
- Lessons Learned in the Use of Business Simulations
- Issues of Teaching Abroad
- The Experience Economy and Experiential Marketing
- Student Perceptions of Program Quality
- Consumer Sentiments
- Meet the Editors
- Special Problems of the MBA Thesis
- What Do Students Know and How Can We Motivate Them to Learn More?
- Improvements and Updates for Marketing Course Content
- Developing Students Skills of Critical Thinking
- Communication and Creativity: Project Based Pedagogical Examples
- Instructors and Students in the Evaluation Process:
- Are Experts Better than Novices?
- Career Development Opportunities in the Curriculum
- Distance Education: The Big Picture
- Creating Better Group Experiences for Students
- New Approaches to Marketing Education
- Student Characteristics
- Methodology, Measurement, and Analysis
- Technological and Pedagogy Impacts on the Future of Basic Marketing Courses and Textbooks
- Assessing Learning Outcomes (aka Can you say AACSB?)
- Evaluating Teaching: What, How, and the Impact of Evaluation
- Using Online Elements in a Course's Design

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The successful publication of these proceedings and the organization of the conference are only possible as the result of the efforts of many individuals. We would like ot thank the authors who submitted papers for review, those colleagues who helped in the review process, and those of you who volunteered to serve as session chairs or discussants.

We are most appreciative of the support and input provided by those who made the conference possible. Special acknowledgement goes to our President, Jack Schibrowsky, whose energy and excitement were contagious. Our immediate past-president, Regina Schlee, provided gentle counsel and support. Heartfelt gratitude is extended to MEA Secretary-Treasurer, Robert Lupton, whose maintenance and upgrading of the website kept members advised of the most current developments and whose processing of data enabled us to accurately plan for the conference. Colleagues Mary Curren, Judith Hennessey, Tina Kiesler and Kristen Walker provided crucial support to the competitive paper track. "Thanks" doesn't do justice to the support provided.

Sponsors enable MEA to deliver the extra special touch that make this conference so special. We gratefully acknowledge the support of: Direct Selling Education Foundation, McGraw-Hill/Irwin, South-Western, The Thompson Corporation, Prentice-Hall, Atomic Dog, the UNLV College of Business, Journal of Marketing Education, Central Washington University, Department of Information Technology and Administrative Management.

In addition the program would not be possible without the work of our many volunteers, who as reviewers, session chairs, and discussants, make our job pleasurable.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contemporary Table Topics Discussions

Measuring Teaching Effectiveness
John Shaw, Providence College
Sak Onkvisit, San Jose State University 1

From Online Shopping to Online Gambling
Chuck Patti , Queensland University of Technology
Simon Moore, Queensland University of Technology 2

Business Ethics Issues
Debbie Thorne McAlister, Southwest State University 3

Are We Preparing Students for the New Age: The Disconnect Between Employers Needs, Undergraduate Programs and Advanced Degree Preparation
Patricia M. Hopkins, Cal Poly, Pomona 131

Issues in Managing Client-Based Projects
Deborah D. Heisley, California State University, Northridge
Judith Hennessey, California State University, Northridge
Mary Curren, California State University, Northridge
Deborah Cours, California State University, Northridge 4

Understanding Students' Needs

Do Students Trust Us?
Dennis Clayson, University of Northern Iowa
Debra Haley, Southeastern Oklahoma State University 5

Not on a School Night: Using Creative Scheduling as a Strategic Advantage in an Increasingly Complex Educational Marketplace
Glen H. Brodowsky, California State University, San Marcos
Beverlee B. Anderson, California State University, San Marcos
Michael W.Pass, California State University, San Marcos 6

Student Coping Strategies and Attributions: A Cognitive Emotive Approach
Sumbul F. Navqi, University of Arizona
Zhong Wan, University of Arizona
John P.Eaton, University of Arizona 10

Lessons Learned in the Use of Business Simulations

Solving the Problem of Problem-Solving: The Case of Live Cases vs. Computer Simulation
Mick Jackowski, Metropolitan State College of Denver
Clayton Daughtrey, Metropolitan State College of Denver 11

Student Perspectives of Business Simulations: Realistic Experience or Contrived Fantasy?
Rajul Patel, University of the Pacific
Joel Hersche, University of the Pacific
Michael J. Swenson, Brigham Young University
Casey Donoho, Northern Arizona University 18

Explicit Norm Structuring with Marketing Simulation Teams: An Exploratory Study
Sandra Mottner, Western Washington University
Ken Keleman, Western Washington University 19

Issues of Teaching Abroad

Gary McKinnon, Chair, Brigham Young University
Victoria Seitz, CSU San Bernardino
Harold Kassarjian, UCLA & California State University, Northridge
Tina Kiesler, California State University, Northridge 20

The Experience Economy and Experiential Marketing

John A. Schibrowsky, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
Gillian Naylor, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
Michael Mejza, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
Alexander Nill, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
James W. Peltier, University of Wisconsin, Whitewater
Wen Yu Dou, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
Ruby Lee, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
Micol Maughan, Fort Hayes State University
Gail Ball, Management Consultant 21

Student Perceptions of Program Quality

Can Good Choices Be Bad? Measurement of the Effect of Level of Choice and Interest of Course Selection on Perceived Quality of a Business Option
David S.Ackerman, Cal State University
Barbara L Gross, Cal State University 23

MBA's Who Concentrate in Marketing: Skills/Abilities Improvement and Retrospective Educational Needs
Rachel A.Edgington, Graduate Management Admission Council
Grady D. Bruce, California State University Fullerton 24

Perceptions of Marketing Majors: Views from Different Perspectives
Regina P. Schlee, Seattle Pacific University
Katrin R. Harich, California State University Fullerton
Mary Curren, California State University, Northridge 25

Consumer Sentiments

An Investigation of the Irritation of Website Atmospherics
Craig A. Kelley, California State University, Sacramento
Joseph Richards, California State University, Sacramento
Dong Shen, California State University, Sacramento 26

Consumer Sentiment on Retailing Among University Business and Marketing Students in Post-Socialist Slovakia
Robert A. Lupton, Central Washington University
Lori A. Braunstein, Central Washington University 30

Does Brand Rejection Exist?
Dennis Vredenburg, Southern Utah University
Wayne Roberts, Southern Utah University 35

Special Problems of the MBA Thesis

Robert W. Schaffer, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona
Beverlee B. Anderson, Cal State University San Marcos
Glen Brodowsky, Cal State University San Marcos
Andrew Troung, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona .... N/A

What Do Students Know and How Can We Motivate Them to Learn More?

Student Grade Misperception: Ignorance or Grade Inflation?
Dennis Clayson, University of Northern Iowa 132

An Application of Critical Thinking Principles to Marketing Education: The Student Driven Syllabus
Nancy T. Frontczak, Metropolitan State College of Denver
Clayton L. Daughtrey, Metropolitan State College of Denver 36

Correctness and Confidence: Two Dimensions for Measuring Usable Knowledge
Kent Byus, Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi 43

Improvements and Updates for Marketing Course Content

Integrating Advertising Research into Advertising Units
Gayle Kerr, Queensland University of Technology 47

The "Other Half of Marketing": Redux
Russell W. Jones, University of Central Oklahoma
Ralph W. Parrish, University of Central Oklahoma
Nancy Ryan McClure, University of Central Oklahoma 53

Single Instances and Decision-Making: Implications for Teaching International Marketing
Shekhar Misra, California State University, Chico 56

Developing Students Skills of Critical Thinking, Communication and Creativity: Project Based Pedagogical Examples

Dolores Barsellotti, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona,
Susan Peters, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona,
Debbora Whitson, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona,
Juanita Roxas, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona,
Helena Czepiec, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona,
A. Andrew Truong, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona 57

Instructors and Students in the Evaluation Process: Are Experts Better than Novices

David Ackerman, California State University, Northridge
Barbara Gross, California State University, Northridge
Franck Vigneron, California State University, Northridge 59

Career Development Opportunities in the Curriculum

The Value of Company Supported Internships in Undergraduate Business Education
Janis Dietz, The University of LaVerne 61

Integrating Career Development Skills into the Marketing Curriculum
Craig A. Kelley, Cal State Sacramento
Claudia Bridges, Cal State Sacramento 66

Creating Career Opportunities: An Assessment of the Marketing Honors Networking Program
Robert Jones, Cal State Fullerton
Katrin Harich, Cal State Fullerton
Neil Granitz, Cal State Fullerton 67

Distance Education: The Big Picture

A Strategic and Theoretical Approach to Evaluating Marketing Distance Education
Linda M. Horton Foley, University of Mississippi
Richard T. Foley, Penn State Beaver 68

Critical Issues of Online Learning Facing Marketing Administrators
Natalie A. Lupton, University of Nebraska
Robert A.Lupton, Central Washington University 69

Implementing and Assessing Distance Education: A Five-Year Case Study
Candice R. Hollenbeck, Piedmont College
George Zinkhan, University of Georgia
Warren French, University of Georgia 133

Creating Better Group Experiences for Students

Redefining 'the Group' in Client-Based Projects Using Computer Mediated Communication (CMC)
Elizabeth L. Macpherson, Queensland University of Technology 73

Student Satisfaction with Cohort Groups: Expectations vs. Reality
Kathleen A. Krentler, San Diego State University
Sara Appleton-Knapp, San Diego State University 80

Can't We Pick Our Own Groups? The Influence of Group Selection Method on Group Dynamics and Outcomes
Kenneth J. Chapman, California State University Chico
Matthew Meuter, California State University Chico
Dan Toy, California State University Chico
Lauren Wright, California State University Chico 85

New Approaches to Marketing Education

The Internet, Strategy and Marketing Education
John McDonnell, Queensland University of Technology 86

On the Job Approach in Marketing Educators Approach in Marketing Education in Selected Schools in the Phils: Profile, Problems and Prospects
Danilo R. Merais, De La Salle University- Dasmarinas
Wilhilmina V. Rubio, De La Salle University- Dasmarinas 90

Student Characteristics

Delayed Male: Faculty Gender and Student Completion of Early Class Requirements
Therese A. Louie, San Jose State University
Gail Tom, California State Universtiy Sacramento 93

Applying the Color Code Personality Profile to Slovakian Marketing and Business Students: An Exploratory Study
Robert A. Lupton, Central Washignton University
Lori A. Braunstein, Central Washignton University
Drahmomir Chochol, Vysoká škola Manažmentu 94

A Theoretical Framework for Understanding Supersitious Beliefs and Superstitious Behaviors Among Business Students
Praveen Aggarwal, Universtiy of Minneosta Duluth
Rajiv Vaidyanathan, Universtiy of Minneosta Duluth 95

Methodology, Measurement, and Analysis

Hemispheric Assymetrics and Cognitive Processing: A Critical Evaluation of the SOP Scale
James Reardon, Universiteit Antwerpen/University of Northern Colorado
Chip Miller, Drake University
Nathan D. Kling, University of Northern Colorado
Irena Vida, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia
Liza Rybina, University of Northern Colorado 96

Comparing Variances Using a Single Level of Variance Analysis
Ted Mitchell, University of Nevada, Reno
Howard Olsen, University of Nevada, Reno 97

Teaching Nonlinearity in Marketing Research Classes: A Case Example
Joe Orsini, California State University, Sacramento 99

Technological and Pedagogy Impacts on the Future of Basic Marketing Courses and Textbooks

James Cross, Chair, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
William Rudelius, University of Minnesota
Bruce Walker, University of Missouri
Greg Bowman, Irwin/McGraw Hill
Steve Hartley, University of Denver
Paul Hugstad, California State University, Fullerton 104

Assessing Learning Outcomes (aka Can you say AACSB?)

A Review of the Learning Outcomes of Student Developed Marketing Plans
Gary Karns, Seattle Pacific University
Craig Kelley, California State University, Sacramento
Steve Corbin, University of Northern Iowa 105

Effectiveness of Service-Learning in Marketing: A Two-Year Study
Skip Sherwood, California State University, Fresno
Susan Geringer, California State University, Fresno 106

On the Efficacy of General Versus Specific Attitudinal Measures Toward an MBA Program
Stuart Van Auken, Florida Gulf Coast University
Earl Chrysler, Black Hills State University 107

Evaluating Teaching: What, How, and the Impact of Evaluation

Excellence in the Teaching of Marketing: Edutainment not Entertainment
Doug Lincoln, Boise State University 111

Improving Instructor Evaluation Programs: Integrating Importance and Expectations Dimensions
Michael W. Pass, California State University 114

Course Selection Decisions by Business Students on Campuses With and Without Published Teaching Evaluations
Wendy Bryce Wilhelm, Western Washington University
Charles Comegys, Merrimack College 118

Using Online Elements in a Course's Design

Challenges Facing the Integration of Online Tutorials in the Classroom
Edwina M. Luck,Queensland University of Technology
Kate Whiteley-DeGraaf, Queensland University of Technology 119

It's Not the Clicks that Count: Pedagogical Implications for Online Discussion Groups
Michael Nastanski, Saint Leo University
Stephen Baglione, Saint Leo University
Randall Bowden, Saint Leo University 125

Human Interaction and Perceived Learning in Online Versus In-Class Teaching Modalities
Robert E. Sibley, San Jose State Universtity
Mary F. Fortune, San Jose State Universtity
Howard W.Combs, San Jose State Universtity 126

MEASURING TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS

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SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDENT RATINGS

Universities routinely utilize student opinions of teaching effectiveness (SOTE) to assess instructors' classroom performance even though most faculty members perceive them to be "problematic assessment instruments" (Simpson and Siguaw 2000). SOTE can be both beneficial and harmful since it has inherent limitations that stem from a failure to adhere to measurement theories.

CONCEPTUAL AND OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

The SOTE instruments vary from university to university, and there are thousands of versions whose degree of comparability or correlation is unknown. All these versions *operationalize*--in different ways--the construct of teaching effectiveness. In theory, an operational definition should be derived from a conceptual definition. In practice, universities usually do not conceptually define and differentiate "teaching effectiveness" from the other similar but distinct constructs. For example, "teaching effectiveness" and "instructor popularity" are two different but overlapping constructs. Research has shown that personality variables account for 50 to 80 percent of the total variance of the student evaluations (Clayson and Haley 1990; Clayson 1999).

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

To enhance reliability, measurement conditions need to be standardized. In practice, **administration variation** is the norm. Instructors differ greatly in terms of the amount of time given to the administration of SOTE. Moreover, some (probably not many) instructors use the beginning of a class for this purpose so that students can base their judgments on the teaching performance for the whole semester. But many professors do the teaching evaluation at the end of the class on the day that they have taught well, thus relying on the recency effect. Some will administer the instrument on the day of a relatively full class, while others will choose to do it when many students (presumably less serious students) are absent.

SOTE, as a means to an end, must ultimately show some reasonable degree of **predictive validity.** Unfortunately, it is difficult to determine the proper **criterion variables**. Theoretically, teaching effectiveness and student success should be correlated. But what should be an indicator of student success: course grade, overall GPA, income after graduation, etc.? One recent report has made a headline by demonstrating clear evidence of grade and evaluation inflation at U.S. universities (Rosovsky and Hartley 2002). Also perceptions of grading fairness have a large impact on ratings of teaching ability (Marks 2000).

OTHER ISSUES

Because SOTE purports to measure the different and independent aspects of teaching performance, it is supposed to contain a number of **distinct dimensions or factors**. However, many SOTE instruments have been found to be unidimensional rather than multidimensional.

SOTE, usually a 5-point scale, is more **stable** but less **sensitive** than, say, a 7-point scale. Should stability be obtained at the expense of sensitivity? Also should the scale be **balanced** or symmetrical? Should there be more "agree" choices than "disagree" categories when people have a tendency to agree? Another question is whether the items should be **randomly** arranged. Furthermore, SOTE items are almost always positive statements by describing some positive teaching experiences. Will it matter if some scales are **reversed**?

CONCLUSION

Courts do not allow the results of polygraph tests to be admitted as evidence because of concerns over their reliability and validity. Arguably, polygraph tests may be more reliable than SOTE instruments. Yet the use of SOTE is almost always mandatory, widespread, and unopposed. Universities need to make better use of measurement theories when developing SOTE. They also need to adopt a more comprehensive perspective. Given the impact of SOTE on both faculty and students, a healthy discussion of the theoretical issues and practices is necessary.

INTERNET ABANDONED CART SYNDROME
AND THE APPLICATION OF RISK THEORY TO ONLINE GAMBLING: RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS AND DIRECTIONS

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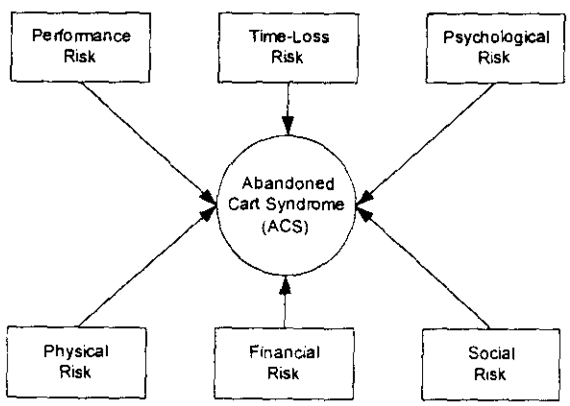
ABSTRACT

The advent of Internet gambling in 1996 has provided a rich source of study for marketing practitioners and researchers. Within just a few years, Internet casino owners and marketers have used a variety of marketing activities to entice nearly 10 million people to gamble with real money online. For marketing researchers, a range of interesting marketing issues have emerged within Internet gambling; however, we suggest that the most fundamental marketing question is why so many prospective buyers fail to execute a transaction on Internet gambling sites. Known as Abandoned Cart Syndrome (ACS), this failure to complete an online transaction is particularly acute in the Internet gambling environment. This paper suggests that ACS can be associated with risk perception, a concept that has been applied to various shopping behaviors, but to date, its potential application to ACS—and specifically to Internet gambling—has been overlooked. The paper proposes a model of risk perceptions as it applies to ACS in Internet gambling; a set of research propositions; and alternative research methods for generating a better understanding of the process and causality of ACS.

The model used to conceptualise the relevance to ACS is shown in Exhibit 1.

EXHIBIT 1

Proposed Model of Relevance of Perceived Risk to ACS



Research Propositions and Approaches

To advance our understanding of ACS within the Internet gambling environment within the context of the literature on perceived risk theory, we suggest the following research propositions:

1. A negative evaluation of the *physical risks* associated with a transaction is likely to heighten the consumer's level of perceived risk increasing the likelihood of ACS.
2. A negative evaluation of the *performance risks* associated with a transaction is likely to heighten the consumer's level of perceived risk increasing the likelihood of ACS.
3. A negative evaluation of the *financial risks* associated with a transaction is likely to heighten the consumer's level of perceived risk increasing the likelihood of ACS.
4. A negative evaluation of the *time-loss risks* associated with a transaction is likely to heighten the consumer's level of perceived risk increasing the likelihood of ACS.
5. A negative evaluation of the *social risks* associated with a transaction is likely to heighten the consumer's level of perceived risk increasing the likelihood of ACS.
6. A negative evaluation of the *psychological risks* associated with a transaction is likely to heighten the consumer's level of perceived risk increasing the likelihood of ACS

TEACHING MARKETING AND BUSINESS ETHICS

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ABSTRACT

While some people believe that obeying the law and being ethical are common sense behaviors, the complexity of expectations and relationships between business and society requires a more strategic approach. Only through the leadership of business schools and professors can business and marketing ethics become a meaningful component of business education. This leadership should involve teaching and learning approaches that take students into the world of business by addressing relevant, current, and dynamic ethical dilemmas and solutions. Students should be provided with skills and experiences that allow them to practice and contemplate real-world decision-making. Students also need knowledge about the challenges and opportunities presented by organizational approaches to social responsibility and ethics. This roundtable discussion will explore the various methods for teaching marketing and business ethics.

Issues in Managing Client-Based Projects
Roundtable Discussion

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ABSTRACT

Research has clearly demonstrated the value of experiential learning. As evidenced by the number of presentations at MEA and publications in JME about marketing plan projects, simulations, and the use of hands-on projects, the use of real-life projects is a serious concern for marketing faculty. We have compiled literature on the use of experiential projects, with particular emphasis on those involving actual organizations or entrepreneurs as clients. Through literature review, participant observation, and case analysis, we have created a typology of client-based projects that can be used to improve project selection (given course and faculty objectives) and project management.

We use this typology as a base for discussion about the predictors for successful and appropriate use of client-based projects. Participation will additionally serve as a validity check against the typological model. We encourage participants to provide their "best" and "worst" practices, and to challenge the generalizability of the typology.

DO STUDENTS TRUST US?

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ABSTRACT

A certain percentage of students indicate a relative lack of trust in their instructors. The major areas of concern seem to be related to the assignment of grades and the difficulty/rigor of courses. Findings indicate that female students exhibited less trust than males about receiving the grades they believed they "deserved." Finally, this study examines the implication of lack of trust in the classroom and the impact this has on students successfully entering the workplace.

This exploratory study attempted to begin a systematic study of relationship regarding student/instructor trust. Three questions were addressed. 1) Can the difference between expected and deserved grades be replicated? 2) Do students trust instructors? 3) What are some characteristics of classes that students trust more than others? 4) Are class peers trusted more than instructors?

DISCUSSION

Almost two thirds of the students said they deserved to get a grade they did not expect to get. About half of the students indicated that they would get a grade lower than they deserved. Almost 50% of the students indicated that they would trust a former student more than the instructor if told by each that they would get a fair grade in a class. Only about a quarter of the students indicated that they would clearly trust the instructor more than a former student if told the same thing. The data indicates that a large percent of students perceive a disconnection between their own grade expectations and the scores given to them by their instructors. It appears that about half of the students don't expect to receive a "fair" grade from their instructors, if "fair" is defined by deserved expectations and trust. The reason for this is unknown, but it may be related to student expectations that are evolving faster than those of the instructors. The most plausible explanation would be grade inflation. Although 46% of the students are getting a lower grade than they "deserve," only 10% of the students thought that instructors were purposely giving them lower grades.

There is considerable evidence that students expect inflated grades for average work (see Edwards 2000, Gose 1997, and Kamber and Biggs 2002 for a short review of grade inflation). Students who identified their own academic work as average, still expected to receive a grade of B or A (Landrum and Dillinger 2000). Large proportions of students doing B and C work expect As, and almost half of students report doing average C work, still expect to receive a B (Landrum 1999). At the same time the number of hours students spend studying has been declining rapidly (Young 2002). No studies of the effect of grade inflation could be found in the marketing education literature, except for one warning about the inflated grades given by teaching assistants (Sonner and Sharland 1993).

The general level of trust appears to be quite high with only about a quarter of the students indicating a neutral or negative amount of trust when asked directly. Specifically, however, trust begins to decline in the areas of grades and class difficulty. About three quarters of the students would trust a student more than the instructor with any statement regarding the difficulty of the course.

If students enter the workforce expecting greater rewards than they have earned, their experience is likely to be negative. They would be expected to become disenchanted with the business world, and experience difficulty with retention and advancement. In addition, as employers require increasingly greater flexibility and accountability from their new hires, they are unlikely to be "understanding" when instructions are initially ignored and employees ask for additional time to resubmit their work.

The question of the relationship of trust between students and faculty is more than an academic one as it likely will reflect the student's ability to successfully navigate the workplace. It is an issue that is deserving of our time and study.

NOT ON A SCHOOL NIGHT: USING CREATIVE SCHEDULING AS A STRATEGIC ADVANTAGE IN AN INCREASINGLY COMPLEX EDUCTIONAL MARKETPLACE

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ABSTRACT

Changing from traditional timing and duration of instruction has helped spawn new types of universities. This paper investigates whether traditional 4-year colleges might become more competitive in the changing higher education environment by rethinking traditional notions of academic time.

INTRODUCTION

It was the best of times it was the best of times. The 1990s economic boom held forth promises of unprecedented opportunity and wealth. High-paying jobs were abundant for those with the right skills. Many non-traditional students recognized that education would be a key to their success in a knowledge- based economy. They returned to colleges and universities to continue or complete their educations in order to sharpen their competitive edges. While the potential payoffs of higher education were attractive, the immediate allure of higher-paying jobs in an expanding economy increased the opportunity cost of pursuing traditional full-time academic programs.

The University of Phoenix and National University recognized an attractive opportunity and rose to the marketing challenge of targeting fully-employed professionals with attractive part-time programs. Smartly, they positioned themselves against traditional universities on a critical dimension – time. These institutions recognized that by offering courses at times that would not interfere with key money-earning hours, they could attract a student body willing to trade more money (a relatively abundant commodity) for more scheduling convenience. They positioned themselves as offering convenient schedules, modular courses not stretched over long semesters, and a relatively shorter time to degree. The price tag was relatively high compared with traditional state-supported institutions.

These traditional institutions, such as the California State University system, began to see these newer universities as potential competitive rivals. CSU offered a traditional college experience at a significantly lower price. However they could not compete with the Phoenixes and Nationals' capacity to mint new MBAs and credentialed teachers to meet the seemingly unending demand for building California's workforce. In an effort to increase accessibility and meet enrollment targets, the system began an initiative to implement year round operations (YRO), increase evening and weekend classes, and decrease the time to degree.

What a difference a decade makes. California now faces staggering budget deficits, the fallout of a high tech bust, the exodus of jobs to lower-cost markets, and the belt tightening challenges of a new governor chosen in an historical recall election. The CSU faces massive funding cuts in the face of increasing demands on its higher education system from a growing population with more time than money on its hands. This paper investigates whether or not moving beyond traditional academic schedules can help the CSU overcome many of these obstacles and help it remain a strong player in a competitive educational market.

THE STUDY

The two-phased study was conducted at Cal State San Marcos. The qualitative first phase involved a series of nine focus groups. The focus groups included faculty, students, administrators, and staff – all constituencies that might be affected by changing academic schedules. The goal was to define the main scheduling concerns of each constituency. Focus group transcripts were analyzed and used to define questionnaire items to include in the second, quantitative phase of the study. A survey instrument was developed and distributed to students, faculty, administrators, and staff.

With ten members in each of the groups, a total of 100 members of the university community participated. There was roughly even participation from among the faculty, staff, administration, and student body. Participants were asked some broad questions about flexible scheduling, whether or not they had experienced schedules other than the traditional semester system, and perceived advantages or drawbacks to offering courses in blocks other than 16 week semesters. They were also asked which type(s) of scheduling they would find most or least beneficial to them. There were four different moderators trained to follow a set questionnaire protocol.

The discussions touched on all five dimensions of time – timing, periodicity, frequency, duration, and tempo (Lauer 1981). However, comments on only two of these dimensions were translated into o survey questions for the second phase of the study. These are timing and duration. Timing refers to scheduling of events, such as class sessions. Duration describes how long individual class sessions, courses, semesters, and degree programs last. This was done for two reasons. The first was keep the survey instrument short and the response task as simple as possible. The second was because timing and duration of sessions are the most easily-changed elements of the schedule. The population for the survey included all faculty and staff and students. Completed surveys were collected from 99 students, 34 faculty.

RESULTS

Although the focus groups were structured around the five general questions listed above, Lauer's (1981) five dimensions of social time provide convenient taxonomy for summarizing the discussions. These dimensions include periodicity, duration, tempo, timing, and sequence. These five themes were woven throughout the discussions of the advantages and disadvantages of traditional versus non-traditional academic schedules. In the following analyses, the word traditional refers to the semester-based academic year that includes a fall semester, winter break, spring semester, and summer vacation. Semesters last 15-16 weeks and sessions run weekdays and evenings.

Periodicity and *duration* are two closely related dimensions of social time. In the context of this study, periodicity refers to the frequency with which sessions begin and end and duration refers to how long courses, classes, or semesters last. The discussion focused on the tradeoff between duration and frequency. For example, the tradeoff might be shorter more intensive 4-week course that begin and end four times during the semester, or longer semester long courses that begin only in the fall and spring semesters.

The shorter, more intensive courses seem to be quite appealing to students and faculty. Some noted that dragging out a course over a full semester, followed by a long vacation, adversely affects students' academic engagement. Not only do they get bored with the subject during the semester, but they risk forgetting material over the long breaks. This necessitates spending as good part of each new semester reviewing old material. This leads to another dimension of social time that is critical to academic scheduling: *sequencing*. The pedagogical reason necessitating course sequencing is self evident; introductory courses must precede advanced topics.

One instructor noted that he enjoyed the intensity and momentum of the shorter modules where he met his students every day for a four week period. Others who are more accustomed to traditional semesters were blown away by the intensity of the short courses. It is clear that the tradeoff is between cramming a semester's worth of material into a week, and dragging a week's worth of material over a semester. Some noted the diminished returns of classes lasting more than two or three hours. While it might be convenient for students to attend class once a week for eight hours, there is a limit to their attention spans and ability to absorb material.

Too much flexibility also may lead to confusion and logistic difficulties for students. If a wide variety of course formats were offered, students might be enrolled simultaneously four, six, eight, and sixteen week modules, for example. One student expressed it best: "it is difficult to keep up when constantly switching gears between sprints and marathons."

More frequent starting and stopping of new courses, might be more pedagogically appealing to faculty and students, but might be terribly challenging for administrative staff. Whereas there are only two peak busy times for enrollment and registration, and grade recording in a traditional semester year, offering short modules that start up frequently requires more administrative effort, offering staff little or no downtime to manage operations. Federal regulations governing financial are tied to the traditional semester calendar. Processing student financial aid according to an alternative calendar would become much more complicated, according to the administrative staff.

The duration and periodicity of academic scheduling affect the *Tempo* of teaching, learning, and running an academic institution. Tempo refers to the speed or pace of activities. Many of the participants agreed that sixteen week semesters are too long and ten-week quarters (a popular variant in higher education) might be too short. However, one faculty member noted that in the shorter courses, it seems like as soon as midterms are graded, it's time for final exams. One participant described the quarter system as "in and out" learning.

Timing of classes is perhaps the most immediately changeable element of the academic calendar. Without changing the duration and periodicity of courses, it is possible to change the timing of classes. Traditional college courses are offered in Monday/Wednesday or Tuesday/Thursday daytime schedules. This makes for crowded conditions during the week, but excess capacity on Fridays, weekends, as well as late evening and early mornings. While it is easy enough to schedule faculty to come in to teach during these traditionally low demand hours and while working students or those with children might find it convenient, administrative staff noted that the issue is not so simple. A full range of services – from advising to financial aid and registration, among other functions, would need to expand their working hours from the typical 9-5 Monday-Friday schedule to a more comprehensive schedule. Unlike students and faculty, whose academic schedules are flexible by the standards of the working public, staffers typically work regular business hours. .

The focus groups indicated that the most immediate changes to the university's academic time schedule would be timing. Since there is excess capacity on weekends and, to some extent, in the evenings, changes to the timing of instruction (absent the cost for non-instructional services) seemed the most reasonable place for more in-depth study. The survey instrument concentrated upon the timing of instruction in terms of hours of the day and days of the week. Students, faculty, and staff were asked which times and days would be most and least conducive for student learning and access.

TIMING AND STUDENT LEARNING

Faculty, staff and students tended to agree that classes scheduled earlier than 8 a.m. or past 10 p.m. would not be desirable. Three-quarters of the faculty and approximately two-thirds of students and staff believe that instruction would be compromised by holding classes too late into the evening. In contrast, fewer than half of all those surveyed believed that instructional quality would suffer from early morning classes on weekdays. Most students surveyed agreed that classes should be held between 8 a.m. and 10 p.m. Few expressed interest in attending classes any earlier in the morning or later in the evening. Most of the students agreed that it would be difficult to maintain focus and concentration if classes were held at dawn or much after 10 p.m. Most believed that neither students nor instructors would be at peak mental performance levels during these times.

TIMING AND ACCESS

A major campus initiative has been to increase access to a broader variety of students. A significant proportion of the university's students work full time. Many are first generation college students. A large number of students are older than traditional college-aged (18-22), are married, and have children of their own. Increasing access to California's diverse population was a major catalyst behind the decision to change the academic calendar from the agrarian-based tradition to the year-round model.

The results indicate that, given the choice of the extreme ends of the day, students, staff, and faculty all view the adding earlier classes as providing more access than adding more classes after 10 p.m. In a separate item, more than three quarters of the faculty and staff viewed adding more evening courses between 7p.m. and 10p.m. as a good way to increase student access.

These logistical obstacles that extremely early morning classes or late evening classes present to students fell into two general categories: conflicts with family time or conflicts with work schedules. Many of the students surveyed are parents of young children. These students indicated that it would be impossible to attend classes that conflicted with getting their children ready for school or spending time with their families in the evenings. Others noted that their full time day jobs limited their availability to attending classes in the evening. Even so, most felt that sitting in a lecture hall much beyond 10p.m. after a long day of work would not yield many benefits. Another common theme among the students at this commuter campus was traffic.

Like students, staff members also worried about maintaining security on campus at night. However, they also mentioned that increased night time security would pose an additional resource demand on the campus. Expanding services beyond the 9-5 Monday-Friday schedule would impinge on staff members' personal family time.

Faculty concerns seemed to bridge those of both students and staff. The strongest agreement among the three groups surveyed was the increased access that would result from offering more classes between 8 a.m. and noon on Saturdays. Among staff, 91% recognized Saturday mornings and 69% saw Saturday evenings as opportunities for increased access. Saturday mornings appealed to 65% of faculty and 44% of students, and more than half of the faculty saw Saturday afternoons as possible options. The numbers fell off markedly for time slots on Saturday evenings

DISCUSSION

This study was undertaken during relatively flush times for the state of California. With a robust economy, budget deficits, and growing demand for instruction among upwardly-mobile working adults, the Cal State system needed to remain competitive with institutions like National and Phoenix. The system could not build facilities and hire faculty fast enough to keep up with the growing demand of the new tidal wave of incoming students. Flexible scheduling would help maximize the use of existing facilities and bolster the ever increasing growth in full-time equivalent students (FTES). The system was attempting to position itself as offering a more traditional, academically sound education at a lower price, yet still offering flexible schedules like National and Phoenix.

Now, with a stagnating economy, growing unemployment, and budget cuts, the Cal State University finds itself with an embarrassment of riches, in terms of available FTES. For the first time in it brief history, Cal State San Marcos is being asked to cap admissions and, for some programs, declare impaction status. During the boom years, non-traditional students return to the university in droves to upgrade their skills and earn degrees, many took fewer courses over longer periods of time than normal 4-year baccalaureate course of study.

In meeting the demands of a new economic reality of little if any growth in personnel programs, the central administration is beginning a new effort to decrease time to degree. This would enable more students to get through there programs more quickly and possibly, in the long run, provide more access to more students through leaner, more efficient operations. This seems to make sense, in light of the changing economic landscape of the state. While tuition and fees rose for the first time in decades, the opportunity cost for pursuing full time study has fallen in light of decreased demand for middle managers, high tech specialists, and credentialed teachers. Even though tuition has increased by a significant percentage (some fees have tripled), the price of a state-supported education is far less than the price tags of private education or the quick convenient programs offered at Phoenix and National.

The allure of quick learn-as-you-work programs might wane in light of the slowing economy. However, this not the time for traditional colleges and universities should not adapt an 'I –told-you-it-would-not-work' retrenchment attitude toward academic time. Indeed, the jobs lost in the high-tech and service sectors have not disappeared: they have relocated offshore to countries like India, Bangladesh, China, and Pakistan. Working (or unemployed) adults will look towards state-assisted educational programs to remain competitive in a shrinking marketplace. While they may have lost their jobs, these individuals have not lost their families and the challenges of managing busy schedules and busy lives may, indeed, become more intense. The trade-off between money and time may now favor institutions like the Cal State system over more costly private or non-traditional institutions.

Faculty, staff, and students approach the question of the appropriateness of instructional times from a variety of perspectives. Each of these constituencies brings different talents and needs to the institution. Nonetheless, these three groups are made up of adult individuals, all of whom have lives beyond the walls of the ivory tower. This is especially true on the campus upon which the study was conducted. As a commuter campus located in the suburbs of a major metropolitan area, the vast majority of these individuals must drive to school. Driving distances vary from a mile to over sixty miles in some cases. There is a strong sense, among all surveyed, that there are times when the campus is "closed" while school is in session between the hours of 8 a.m. and 10 p.m. Monday through Friday, and perhaps on Saturday.

As they fit the traditional academic year into their year-round lives, faculty, students and staff share many common concerns. Several respondents in each group noted that Sunday classes would conflict with religious beliefs and the need for at least a two-day- a- week sabbatical. Somehow, going to school (or work) on Sunday conflicts with most people's sensibilities - whether religious or not, Sunday, more than Saturday, seems to be the sacred weekend most are not willing to sacrifice. While the 'not on a school night' may become an excuse used six nights a week instead of five, it seems that, for the time being, Americans may cling dearly the 'never on a Sunday' mantra.

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STUDENT COPING STRATEGIES AND ATTRIBUTIONS: A COGNITIVE EMOTIVE APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

This paper empirically examines the systematic cognitive-emotive information processing that a dissatisfied consumer employs in order to cope with a stressful situation. A dissatisfying service encounter, such as a student receiving a lower grade than expected, acts as a stimulus to trigger a cognitive appraisal process and other related emotional responses. Results suggest coping potential is a powerful and intriguing construct. It plays an important role in shaping an individual's perception and emotions, and consequently behavior. Coping potential is situation specific and controllable and it directly impacts the type of coping strategies undertaken. This research is aimed at improving educational service quality and provides interesting implications for marketing educators. Results show that instructors who promote high coping potential in their students through effective communication, encourage their students to undertake self-improvement coping strategies. Failure to develop high coping potential strategies in students may lead to confrontational or disruptive student-teacher interactions.

SOLVING THE PROBLEM OF PROBLEM-SOLVING: THE CASE OF LIVE CASES VS. COMPUTER SIMULATION

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ABSTRACT

The need for marketing students to enhance their problem-solving skills to meet the challenges they will encounter in their careers is addressed. As a means of improving the ability of students to develop their talents in this area, the steps of the creative problem-solving (CPS) process are identified as measures of learning effectiveness for future marketers. Using the CPS process, the live case method is analyzed against the computer simulation method to theoretically compare which experiential learning technique is better equipped to improve student capacity to creatively solve problems. It is proposed that computer simulations can better develop student talents in this respect due to its more qualified ability to provide unambiguous outcomes that demonstrate if problems were solved.

INTRODUCTION

A large number marketing students will ultimately use their degrees to begin careers as marketing practitioners, either in the private or non-profit sectors. Accordingly, in addition to the supplying the most relevant knowledge on the profession through college curriculums, marketing instructors should integrate skills that address the needs of marketing employers.

This study examines one skill that seems to stand out as a requisite for a successful marketing career and one in which marketing majors appear to be deficient when they enter the workplace: problem-solving. The marketing literature has identified this shortcoming (Kennedy, Lawton and Walker 2001; Titus 2000; Scott and Frontczak 1996; Arora and Stoner 1992; Deckinger, Brink, Katzenstein and Primavera 1990) and was adeptly summarized by Chapman and Sorge (1999):

> "Not only do students need to know the theories and concepts, but they need to know how to apply the theories, concepts, and skills to business problems. Students simply do not have enough exposure to making business decisions in uncertain and ambiguous environments." (p. 225)

It is therefore apparent that the pursuit of problem-solving should be one of the key learning objectives pursued by marketing instructors.

CREATIVE PROBLEM-SOLVING

For marketers, it has been argued that the ability to solve problems is not enough in the marketplace because one must also be creative in order to succeed (Levitt 1986; Scott and Frontczak 1996) and that "a lack of creativity has been observed in the classroom and workplace alike" (Titus 2000, p. 225). Therefore, Philip Titus (2000) recommended that the creative problem-solving (CPS) process be emphasized in marketing classes, which involves six steps: (a) problem identification; (b) problem delineation; (c) information gathering; (d) idea finding, (e) idea evaluation and refinement; and (f) idea implementation. The following description explores briefly each step in the CPS process.

Problem Identification

Before you can solve a problem, one must be adroit at identifying if one exists. "The ability to identify unmet consumer needs is a hallmark characteristic of marketing...marketing requires the constant monitoring of the environment for changing trends that provide...opportunities" (Titus 2000, p. 227).

Problem Delineation

An often overlooked aspect of problem-solving is the understanding of the nature of the problem (Cougar 1995). The textbook example of the consequences of failing in this area occurred when railroad companies believed the problem to be solved was how to compete in the railroad industry. Their misdiagnosis became evident when *all* railroads began to lose market share to the burgeoning airline industry, indicating that the actual problem was how to compete in the *transportation* industry.

Information Gathering

The collecting of information is the final step in the problem finding stage and is highly relevant to the marketing process itself. As part of the total understanding of a problem, most vital in this step is the need to delineate factors that are causing the problems (Fogler and LeBlanc 1995). According to Titus (2000), "success at this stage requires a working knowledge of what information to gather, how to gather it, and from what sources" (p. 228).

Idea Generation

This step is often the most recognizable part of marketing and is reflected in the development of the marketing mix. Here, creative solutions must be developed that address the consumer problems identified in the previous steps.

Idea Evaluation and Refinement

Before solution implementation can begin, ideas must be examined and nurtured to address the many circumstances impacting its successful development. "The purpose of this evaluative process is not to kill off ideas but rather to assess their strengths and weaknesses as viable and creative solutions" (Titus 2000, p. 228).

Idea Implementation

The final step in the CPS process is the most critical because solutions to problems can only be defined as such after verification that they actually worked. Marketers do not know if they are indeed problem-solvers until after they take the risk of implementing their ideas and can evaluate the results.

This requirement further complicates the issue because if implementation is to occur, the designers "must gain support and acceptance for their strategic plans. The importance of gaining the support and acceptance of proposed solutions is at the heart of...idea implementation" (Titus 2000, p. 229).

ADDRESSING THE CPS PROCESS IN STUDENT LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

In his analysis of classroom applications, Titus (2000) felt that traditional marketing instruction was lacking in five of the six steps of the CPS process: (a) problem identification; (b) problem delineation; (c) idea generation; (d) idea evaluation and refinement; and (e) idea implementation. The lone area where traditional instruction seems to meet the needs of the CPS process is in information gathering. "Marketing instructors have exposed students to a wealth of concepts and issues concerning marketing theory and practice" (Titus 2000, p. 231).

Since the majority of classes are still taught using the traditional (i.e., passive lecture) method (Daughtrey 2003) and this pedagogy only seems to satisfy one of the six steps in the CPS process, it is easy to understand why research indicates that marketing students are inept at performing one of the most significant skills in their chosen profession—how to creatively solve problems.

As summarized by Chapman and Sorge (1999), "to deliver future employees with strong problem-solving and decision-making skills to the workplace, we must adopt an educational process that improves and cultivates these abilities" (p. 226). Therefore, the intent of this study is to venture beyond analyzing the CPA process through traditional teaching methods and enter the realm of experiential learning. Specifically, a theoretical comparison will be made between two experiential learning techniques—live cases and computer simulation—as a foundation in determining whether one is more effective than the other in enhancing the ability of learners to problem-solve creatively.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

Within the realm of teaching in higher education, there is a growing trend from passive-teaching to active-leaning pedagogies in the classroom (Bobbit, Inks, Kemp and Mayo 2000; Daughtrey and Frontczak 2002; Kennedy, Lawton, and Walker 2001; Wright, Bitner, & Zeithaml 1994). The primary reason behind this switch is that research indicates that when students become active participants in knowledge creation, they learn more (Cross 1987; Johnson and Johnson 1993).

Experiential learning is a form of active learning and although many definitions for the concept exist, Frontczak (1998) noted that "experience plus reflections on that experience" is a common theme (p. 26). Two common experiential learning techniques are live cases and computer simulation. Both are examples of loosely structured experiential activities (Shakarian 1995) in that, in comparison to other active learning techniques, they (a) take longer to complete, (b) are more complex, and (c) are most ambiguous (Hamer 2000). These traits address the expectations of the employers, who desire new hires who can solve problems that are complex and ambiguous (Chapman and Sorge 1999; November 1993; Scott and Frontczak 1996). Accordingly, an examination of live cases and computer simulation represents a viable comparison.

The Argument for Live Cases

How do teachers determine which discipline-specific environments will provide the proper learning environment for students? To answer this question, teachers must ask themselves *who*, not *what*, has the answers. Books and handouts available inside the university cannot keep pace with constantly changing environments in the private sector, and therefore, most collateral material is woefully behind the realities of practice. Teachers must discover and explore how businesses create and transmit knowledge on a day-to-day basis. According to Checkoway (1996), "It is unrealistic to expect...instructors to facilitate learning when they have not had these experiences themselves" (p. 605). Consequently, it makes sense for practitioners to teach both students and teachers in the workplace classroom. In this experiential setting, students become committed to learning when they apply the ideas they study in "real" circumstances, when they link theory with practice and when outreach complements teaching (Gamson 1995; Hirsch 1996).

One means of creating this experiential construct is through live cases. In this study, live cases can be defined as a form of experiential education in which students engage in activities that address the needs of a client-organization. The service-learning pedagogy is similar to this definition, except that it is most commonly understood to mean student involvement with non-profit organizations. Frequently cited benefits for students who are involved in live cases/service-learning include the following (Checkoway 1996; Conrad and Hedin 1991; Erlich 1995; Jacoby 1996; Kendall 1990):

- Higher grades and higher student satisfaction
- Substantive knowledge and practical skills
- Habit of critical reflection developed
- Deeper comprehension of course content
- Theory integrated with practice
- Enhanced cognitive and personal development
- Heightened understanding of human difference and commonality
- Sharper abilities to work collaboratively

The Argument against Live Cases

Although it is evident that taking students out of the classroom and allowing them to learn in the workplace has tremendous benefits, this technique may still be insufficient in the development of problem-solving skills. It has been identified that the use of "live cases" provides students with "the challenge and satisfaction of grappling with and solving real business problems" (Kennedy, Lawton and Walker 2001, p. 147). But in the majority of live case scenarios, how do students know if they ever solved the problem? For instance, many live cases in marketing center around the development of some sort of plan for the organization (e.g., marketing plans, promotional plans, etc.). However, because of the time constraints inherent with either a semester or quarter teaching calendar, how many students actually have the opportunity to witness the implementation and subsequent evaluation of their projects? Only then would they learn truly whether they solved the problem they were asked to fix.

The Argument for Simulation

In select studies that included learning objectives related to problem-solving and aspects of the workplace, simulation has fared well. In two studies that measured performance in a simulation against performance on mathematical problems, a measure that is problem-solving defined, a relationship existed (Faria and Whiteley 1990; Whiteley and Faria 1989). Studies have also shown that the decision-making styles of successful executives and successful simulation participants to be similar (Babb and Eisgruber 1966; Wolfe 1976) and that business game performance is correlated to later career success (Wolfe and Roberts 1986, 1993). Based on these findings, one could suggest, as Wellington and Faria (1996) did: "that successful simulation performance is related to good...decision-making skills....good business managers are those who make good decisions" (p. 52).

The next logical step is that if managers can make good decisions, they are good at solving the problems that their businesses face every day. Therefore, students who perform well in simulations are effective problem-solvers. This rationale is also supported by Wellington and Faria (1996):

> "...marketing simulation games require skill and abilities, presumable managerial decision-making skills and abilities, that are different from those developed and measured by traditional academic instructional approaches, including the use of cases, term projects, and field projects ...Since good marketing managers are those who make good decisions, simulation games may be measuring what we really want students to acquire in our marketing courses." (p. 59)

Studies indicate that simulations are not only adept at helping students learn about complex problems (Doyle and Brown, 2000), but, despite its more structured environment in the classroom and the computer, it represents one of the most realistic methods by which students learn (Nel, Pitt, Berthon and Prendergast 1996; Wolfe and Roberts 1993).

The Argument against Simulation

A significant portion of the literature reviewing the performance of simulations at achieving course objectives has found this teaching methodology to be, at best, inconclusive, and at times, ineffective. In a review of 68 studies that compared simulation effectiveness with other teaching methods, Randel, Morris, Wetzel and Whitehill (1992) reported that 56% of the tests of simulation were inconclusive, less than one-third (32%) of simulations were more effective, and 5% of the studies demonstrated that traditional instruction was more effective.

Additionally, Kennedy et. al. (2001) took issue with computer simulations in that they "do not require students to identify and obtain relevant information from the marketplace" (p. 147). This inherent artificialness in a learning pedagogy that stresses "real world" application would seem to be a valid reason why experiential instructors opt not to use this technique.

COMPARING LIVE CASES AND SIMULATION IN THE CPS PROCESS

The Verdict

Based on the arguments posed, it is apparent that both the use of live cases and computer simulation can satisfy many of the stages of the CPS process where traditional instruction falls short. To leave the construct of passive-teaching and enter the world of active-learning is to guide learners in a role where they begin to teach themselves and the instructor becomes a facilitator. In so doing, students learn to identify and delineate problems, generate ideas, as well as evaluate and refine those ideas. Live cases and computer simulation address each of these areas based on the expectation that students must first recognize the problems of actual clients in the community, or fictitious ones within the framework of a software package.

It would seem that neither live cases nor computer simulation would be the proper pedagogy to satisfy the information gathering step. Since both of these techniques focus on the application of theoretical concepts, it is understood that students must already have sufficient knowledge before it can be applied. It is in this step that other active learning techniques and traditional classroom instruction would be better suited.

However, computer simulations alone consistently satisfy the step of idea implementation. Only when this step is actualized do students receive unambiguous right or wrong answers, and consequently, learn whether they solved the problem. This reality has a boomerang effect on live case methodology, where all of its preceding steps, save for information gathering, will be left open to questioning as to whether the presumptions made were correct in the first place. If, as noted earlier, student reflection is the common thread among all experiential learning techniques, are we asking students to reflect on information that could be wrong when they think it is right? On the issue of estimating their skill at diagnosing and solving problems, will students leave the experience with false self-impressions?

For instance, in the stage of idea evaluation and refinement in the CPS process, projects are commonly assessed by independent judges, a subjective measure (Finke, Ward, and Smith 1992). Without implementation and seeing results, the opinions of these judges, whether they are teachers or client managers, could be simply wrong. Possibly the scariest notion is that, in most circumstances, no one will ever know. Hypothetically, a student could leave their live case experience with a great deal of confidence commensurate with a job well done, without ever knowing that his or her decisions would have actually had a negative impact on the fortunes of the client organization.

In respect to the extensive literature regarding the inconclusiveness of computer simulations in achieving course objectives, the true problem may not reside in simulation as a pedagogical tool, but in the learning objectives by which we are measuring it. Many studies have measured simulation success against (a) grade point average (Faria 1986; Gosenpud 1987; Gosenpud and Washbush 1991; Hsu 1989; Norris and Niebuhr 1980; Wellington and Faria 1995; Wolfe and Keys, 1990; Wolfe and Chanin 1993), and (b) final examinations (Anderson and Lawton 1992; Washbush and Gosenpud 1993; Wellington and Faria 1991; Whiteley 1993). While these measures of success are common, they do not necessarily address the issue of whether these students can solve problems. Based on traditional methods of instruction and evaluation, students could conceivably be at the top of their class in examination scores and GPA without having any real sense of how to diagnose and solve problems in their field.

Thus, it seems that simulation, far from being ineffective, actually could provide powerful benefits. Even in its artificial setting, computer simulations could provide the most realistic advantages for students who need to learn how to effectively and creatively solve problems. According to Fripp (1993):

- Simulations can offer a risk-free environment at both the individual and organizational level.
- Participants can deliberately try out new behaviors that they would not readily attempt at work, or take business decisions which would not be possible in reality for fear of failure.
- Simulations can provide quick and unmistakable feedback and allow people to see the consequences of their decisions in (multiple) dimensions.

In summation, it appears that this study can agree with Vaidyanathan and Rochford (1998) that enough evidence exists to conclude that simulations can be valuable in encouraging the development of analytical, thinking, and problem-solving skills.

Table 1 provides a summary of each experiential technique under consideration and whether it would be effective in satisfying the steps of the CPS Process.

TABLE 1.

CPS Process	Live Cases	Computer Simulation
Problem Identification	Yes, but is it correct?	Yes
Problem Delineation	Yes, but is it correct?	Yes
Information Gathering	**NO**	**NO**
Idea Generation	Yes	Yes
Idea Evaluation and Refinement	Yes, but is it correct?	Yes
Idea Implementation	**NO**	Yes

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STUDENT PERSPECTIVES OF BUSINESS SIMULATIONS: REALISTIC EXPERIENCE OR CONTRIVED FANTASY?

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ABSTRACT

In an ongoing effort to explore ways to improve the classroom experience, many universities across the country are trying to unearth the most effective methods to reach their students. Several recent studies have looked at the utilization of experiential learning exercises in the classroom setting. This paper sought to (1) evaluate students' perceptions regarding simulation exercises; specifically, our primary intention was to identify whether students felt they performed better or learned more in classes that incorporated simulations as opposed to those that did not; (2) discover which factors students felt contributed to successful performance while participating in a simulation exercise; (3) highlight differences in student perceptions of simulations between those students that have simulation experience and those that do not; and 4) find whether there was a significant difference in opinion regarding simulation exercises (by previous simulation participants) as a function of the characteristics of the individual respondents.

Results indicate that student views regarding simulation exercises, regardless of whether they had previous participation experience, were positive. Students believe that simulation exercises: better enable them to learn course material, improve their self-confidence when job hunting, help prepare them for their professional career, and aid in the development of critical thinking skills. These findings should suggest to educators that the integration of experiential learning techniques into the classroom setting should be strongly considered. Experiential learning through activities like simulation exercises is clearly a valuable teaching methodology that is here to stay. Our thought is that the frequent incorporation of simulation exercises in the classroom setting may serve as a useful tool to reinforce course material. This study showed that students positively view simulation exercises. The more that students' comfort with this teaching methodology grows, the more personally and academically rewarding the experience will likely become.

EXPLICIT NORM STRUCTURING WITH MARKETING SIMULATION TEAMS: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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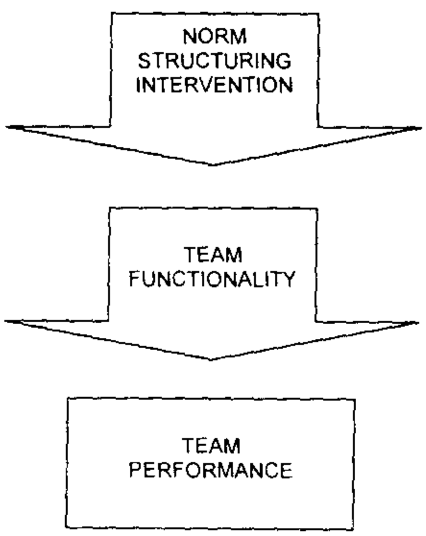
ABSTRACT

Experiential learning using marketing simulations with competing teams of students is generally recognized as aiding learning. Similarly, the dynamics of functional teams are fairly well understood and rely heavily on a foundation of communally held norms that are formed and understood by group members. Therefore, this research seeks to understand the role that an explicit norm structuring intervention with newly formed teams prior to their participation in a marketing simulation plays in team functionality, and further how that functionality directly affects the students' perception of learning and perception of their simulation performance. Indirect relationships between the intervention and perceived learning and performance, as well as actual performance measures are identified. Research testing took place at one school over a 3 year period. Overall, it was found that the explicit norm structuring tool has a direct and positive effect on team functionality and that this functionality positively affects performance as diagrammed in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Model of Norm Intervention, Team Functionality and Performance



TEACHING ABROAD: OPPORTUNITIES AND ISSUES

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ABSTRACT

During the past two decades the integration of the world's economy has increased rapidly. A number of business schools have added a global dimension in their mission statements. Faculty members have been encouraged to expand their global vision, to engage in global research, and to include global issues in each course. The purpose of this session is to explore how teaching abroad can benefit marketing educators in their quest to become more international.

DISCUSSION

Each participant took about 5-7 minutes to discuss their experiences in teaching abroad before opening up the session to a general discussion between panel members and those in attendance. Information was provided to assist faculty members identify opportunities available for teaching abroad.

Hal Kassarjian shared his experience in teaching abroad on numerous occasions. He discussed the challenge of teaching in an educational culture which is different than the culture experienced in the U.S. He discussed the issue of student cheating, where it is common for students to assist each other during the examination process. He also discussed the process of obtaining international teaching assignments.

Victoria Sietz shared her experience of teaching as a Fulbright Scholar in Romania. She discussed the Fulbright application process along with the advantages and disadvantage of participating in the Fulbright Program. She also discussed the challenge of teaching in an educational culture that is dissimilar to the culture in the U.S. She also discussed how her international experience influenced her teaching and course content since her return home.

Gary McKinnon spent 6 months, in Moldova, teaching on a Fulbright assignment. He discussed teaching in cultures similar to those outlined by Kassarjian and Sietz. He also spent 4 months in 2003, teaching on a Fulbright in Lisbon, Portugal. He discussed the similarities and differences between the two Fulbright assignments. He also discussed the advantages of being a Fulbright Scholar and outlined the application process.

Tina Keisler discussed her experiences in teaching abroad on various assignments. She described how she used her global experience to improve her teaching at CSU-Northridge.

THE EXPERIENCE ECONOMY AND EXPERIENTIAL MARKETING

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Gillian Naylor, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
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The buzzword of the 1980's was services marketing. In the 1990s it was relationship marketing. In their book, The Experience Economy, authors Joseph Pine III and James H. Gilmore, argue that the 2000s will be known as, "The decade of the experience." In their book, and Harvard Business Review, article titled "Welcome to the Experience Economy!" they distinguish between four stages in the progression of economic value: commodities, goods, services, and experiences. The authors write, "As services, like goods before them, increasingly become commoditized,-think of long-distance telephone service being sold solely on price – experiences have emerged as the next step in what we call the progression of economic value."

Over the past three to four years, we have become inundated with the term "experience" in marketing contexts. The shopping experience, the online experience, the Richard Petty Driving Experience, Star Trek Experience, the Freemont Street Experience, and even the undergraduate experience are typical references to the idea of "experiential marketing."

While this focus on "The Experience" has been touted as the panacea for everyone's marketing ills, the term is often misused, misunderstood, and abused. For example, many "marketing experts" use the term interchangeably with services marketing. As Pine and Gilmore point out, "Experiences are as distinct from services as services are from goods." If your firm focuses on services it will lose a significant amount of their business to "experience" focused companies.

Traditional goods and services marketing offers little guidance to capitalize on the emerging experiential economy. While a few consumer researchers have begun to recognize the importance of investigating the consumer experience, the focus has tended to be on such things as handling complaints, managing call centers, and providing service to retail store and online customers. At the other extreme of the research spectrum, consumer psychologists have investigated the impact of affect or emotions in consumer decision making and to a lesser degree on consumer satisfaction. However, the literature is nearly void of research that specifically focuses on experiential goods and services and how they should be developed, managed, and marketed.

This Special session was designed to provide the attendee with a better understanding of the concept "experiential marketing" and to provide a basic framework for marketing educators interested in teaching, researching, and consulting in this emerging field. Specific topics include a working definition of "experiential marketing," along with the introduction of terms such as, staging experiences, experientializing your good or service, and managing the experience. In addition, a framework for developing and managing experiences is presented. Finally, the presenters provide a detailed example of experiential marketing using an education-based example.

Attendees of this session will be immersed in a learning experience that they will both valuable and entertaining. In addition, it might just change the way they view mega experiences such as Disney World and Las Vegas. This appears to be the ideal location to present a special session on this important topic.

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CAN GOOD CHOICES BE BAD? MEASUREMENT OF THE EFFECT OF LEVEL OF CHOICE AND INTEREST OF COURSE SELECTION ON PERCEIVED QUALITY OF A BUSINESS OPTION

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ABSTRACT

How much choice should students have within their marketing majors or curriculum? Course choice is a topic generating considerable attention in business education (Kushner 1999). The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), no longer mandates a proscribed model curriculum. This has contributed to increased curriculum flexibility (Blum 1991).

Course choice can affect the actual quality of career preparation. Inadequate guidance in choice of courses can leave students unprepared for a desired career path (Shuptrine and Willenborg 1998). Perhaps the average undergraduate student does not have the experience needed to make informed choices. On the other hand, a "one size fits all" curriculum that is too restricted may be inadequate to address the differing needs of students.

Course choice may also affect how students feel about themselves. Choice is viewed as empowering. Lack of choice leads to a perceived threat to freedom, lowers motivation, and decreases feelings of control (Deci and Ryan 1985). Too little freedom of choice in education may lead students to react in a negative way toward their education, thereby lowering satisfaction and motivation. However, too much choice can be demotivating, a source of stress and discomfort, and lead to deferred decisions (Iyengar and Lepper 2000).

Finally, the degree of choice may affect how students perceive the quality of an academic program. A program allowing too much choice may be perceived as lacking quality control (Mansfield 2003), but too little choice may be attributed to a lack of resources necessary for a quality education.

The results of our study suggest that some degree of curriculum choice is good, but if students must make too many choices they may feel less satisfied with the results. Perhaps they want some choice, but do not feel sure of themselves and thus prefer to rely on expert opinion for a portion of decisions about their curriculum. Results also found that choice had a positive impact on the perceived value of the chosen business option for students' future careers, but that the level of interest influenced the value students perceived for employers. Perhaps choice allows students to feel enabled to maximize perceived value for their own careers, but interest enhances perceptions of value to others.

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MBAS WHO CONCENTRATE IN MARKETING: SKILLS/ABILITIES IMPROVEMENT AND RETROSPECTIVE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

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ABSTRACT

A goal of MBA programs is to develop management knowledge and technical skills in students that will prepare them for their careers. This study examines the level of improvement in skills and abilities reported by the MBA graduating classes of 2000, 2001, and 2003 in global samples. Students who concentrated in marketing are compared with those who did not. The study also examines the retrospective educational needs of alumni of the classes of 2000, 2001, and 2002 one year after graduation and compares marketing and nonmarketing alumni.

PERCEPTIONS OF MARKETING MAJORS: VIEWS FROM DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVES

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ABSTRACT

This study explores perceptions of marketing majors among 205 business students in two California State University campuses and a private university in Washington. The study explores several traditional dimensions of academic performance as well as personal characteristics of business students. There were significant differences between how marketing majors thought of themselves, how they viewed other marketing majors, and how other business majors viewed marketing students.

The research findings support the findings of earlier studies when it comes to the image of marketing majors. For the most part, marketing students are viewed as popular slackers, people who have good communication skills, but who do not work very hard. As disturbing as this view may be, it is even more troublesome that marketing majors are viewed as being less honest than most other business majors. Surprisingly, when we compared the opinions of marketing majors with those of non-marketing majors, there was relative agreement on most of these characteristics. Marketing majors also believed that most marketing majors do not work very hard and are not very honest. Nevertheless, their assessment of their own characteristics was more positive than their assessment of fellow marketing classmates. Marketing majors saw themselves individually as ambitious, independent, team players, flexible, good communications, leaders, well organized, and creative. Though many marketing majors admitted they were not very studious and not very good in math, they believed that their personal shortcomings were smaller than those their classmates in marketing courses. In general, marketing majors also felt that their career prospects were better than other business majors thought, though, most did not believe that marketing is a benefit to society.

The discussion of these findings focuses on two specific areas that warrant additional deliberation by marketing educators: marketing students' lack of willingness to work hard and their perceived lax ethical standards. Several suggestions are included for improving the quality of marketing majors, as well as the perceptions of marketing majors held by those in other business disciplines.

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE IRRITATION OF WEBSITE ATMOSPHERICS

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated what consumers find irritating in website atmospherics. The results indicate differences exist in the amount of irritation caused by various atmospheric factors based on the respondent's gender, age and frequency of online shopping.

INTRODUCTION

Kotler (1973-1974) defined atmospherics as "the conscious designing of space to create certain buyer effects, specifically, the designing of buying environments to produce specific emotional effects in the buyer that enhance purchase probability." Baker (1986) and Bitner (1992) developed typologies to direct research on store atmospherics. Baker's (1986) typology of physical environmental components of a shopping experience included (1) ambient factors (e.g., background features that affect human senses), (2) store design factors (e.g., layout of merchandise, traffic patterns), and (3) social factors (i.e., people in the environment). Bitner (1992) developed a typology for retail service encounters that included ambient cues that affect the five senses, store layout, store arrangement, and signs, symbols and artifacts that communicate information to a shopper. D'Astous (2000) used Baker's (1986) typology to investigate various aspects of a shopping environment that could irritate and produce negative emotions that would affect the perception of a brick-and-mortar shopping experience.

Unlike the brick-and-mortar shopping environment where all five senses may be manipulated by the marketer, only visual (e.g., color, layout and animation), and to a lesser extent, auditory cues, can be manipulated in the online shopping environment. Fram and Grady (1997) reported no differences existed between males and females in their intention to purchase over the Internet while Van Name and Catchings (1998) determined the organization of the website, server performance, product data, a search option, and shopping carts all contribute to a positive online shopping experience. Roslow, Nicholls and Tsalikis (1992) found a negative correlation between waiting time and the evaluation of service satisfaction in brick-and-mortar retail stores. Schleifer and Amick (1989) reported system response time was inversely related to computer user satisfaction. Dellaert and Kahn (1999) found visitor frustration with wait time could be mitigated by information about why the wait time is occurring. Bhatnager et al. (2000) reported marital status had no effect on perceptions of convenience of choosing online shopping over shopping at a retail store but older consumers were more receptive to purchasing via the Internet versus those that spent more time on the Internet.

Eroglu, Machleit and Davis (2001) hypothesized that consumer involvement (degree of personal relevance) and atmospheric responsiveness (tendency to base purchase decisions on the website's physical characteristics) moderated the consumer's willingness to avoid or engage in online shopping. Eroglu, Machleit and Davis (2003) tested their 2001 model and found that website atmospherics influence shopper attitudes, satisfaction and one's willingness to shop online. In addition, they found a moderating effect of involvement and atmospheric responsiveness on shopper attitudes, satisfaction and one's willingness to shop online.

Based on the previous discussion, the objective of the current study is to blend the two bodies of research regarding the impact of shopper emotions on purchasing behavior in a brick-and-mortar and an online shopping situation. Specifically, the current study utilized the methodology employed by d'Astous (2000) and investigated the impact shopping irritants that compose website atmospherics may have on online shopper emotions, and subsequently, influence the online shopping experience. As in the study by d'Astous (2000), gender and age were included as the independent variables. In addition, familiarity with online shopping may have an influence on consumer emotional perceptions (i.e., irritations) of a web shopping experience. The specific hypotheses to be tested in this study are as follows:

H_1: The degree of perceived irritation induced by displeasing aspects of the online shopping environment is influenced by the gender of the consumer.

H_2: The degree of perceived irritation induced by displeasing aspects of the online shopping environment is influenced by the age of the consumer.

H_3: The degree of perceived irritation induced by displeasing aspects of the online shopping environment is influenced by the frequency of online shopping.

METHODOLOGY

A sample of 183 undergraduate business students enrolled at a major western university was used in this study. The median age of students at the university is approximately 29 years old and over 80% of them work at least part-time (20 hours/week). Two expert judges adapted the shopping irritants used by d'Astous (2000) and added four more irritants that appeared to relate to a web shopping experience. The process of adaptation involved rephrasing potential irritants in a brick-and-mortar shopping experience to fit an online shopping experience. For example, store crowding was rephrased as heavy Internet traffic. These irritants are shown in Table 1. Respondents were asked to rate the perceived irritation induced by each of the 22 irritants with a five-point itemized scale (5 = this would be extremely irritating; 1 = this would never irritate me) using the measures applied by d'Astous (2000). Categorical measures of gender, age and frequency of web shopping also were taken.

RESULTS

D'Astous (2000) used expert judges to fit his list of shopping irritants into Baker's (1986) typology of physical environmental components of a shopping experience. In the current study, a factor analysis with varimax rotation was run on the 22 shopping irritants to see if they loaded on the same dimensions as Baker's (1986) typology. The dimensions identified by the factor analysis and mean irritation scores are shown in Table 1. The lack of a clear social dimension was expected given online shopping is most likely a solitary activity. However, the shopper is interacting with the Internet Service Provider when faced with heavy Internet traffic and waiting time to load a web page. Therefore, this dimension was labeled organizational interaction instead of the social interaction with other shoppers and sales associates as one would find in a brick-and-mortar retail shopping experience.

Following the method used by d'Astous (2000) three MANOVAs were run with the independent variables of gender, age, and frequency of online shopping and the dependent variables being the shopping irritants composing each dimension. All three hypotheses received partial support as a result of the MANOVA test. The MANOVA test of the design dimension indicated the three-way interaction and the two-way interactions were not significant. However, there was a significant main effect for gender (Wilk's λ = .721; $p \leq 0.001$), age (Wilk's λ = .562; $p \leq 0.025$) and frequency of online shopping (Wilk's λ =.480; $p \leq 0.024$). Univariate analysis showed only a few shopping irritants were significant for the main effects at the $p \leq 0.05$ level. Females were more irritated with inadequate instructions than males. However, males were more irritated by a complicated payment method. Older age groups were more irritated by a website that was not easy to read, losing their way on the web site and lacking confidence in product service. Perhaps older consumers are more familiar with brick-and-mortar retailers where product service may be assessed prior to purchase. Lastly, respondents that shopped more frequently online were more irritated by the waiting time to check out. This makes intuitive sense since frequent online shoppers are more experienced and may not tolerate delays.

There was a significant gender by frequency of online shopping interaction when testing the organizational interaction dimension (Wilk's λ = .898; $p \leq 0.0333$). Univariate tests indicated waiting for a web page to load was significant ($p \leq 0.023$) where females that shop more frequently online were more irritated by waiting for a web page to load.

The MANOVA test of the irritants comprising the ambient dimension indicated a significant age by frequency of online shopping interaction (Wilk's λ = .725; $p \leq 0.007$). Only one shopping irritant was significant. Older consumers were less irritated by the unpleasant visual surroundings in the location they were shopping on the web. Older online shoppers may be shopping at the office where the visual surrounds are relatively nice.

Table 1

Perceived Irritability of Components of the Online Shopping Environment

Shopping Irritant	Mean	SD
Organizational Interaction Factors		
Heavy web traffic	3.04	1.03
Waiting for web page to load	4.32	.85
Web Page Design Factors		
Website isn't easy to read	3.87	1.00
Website is too small	3.23	1.14
Website is confusing	3.65	1.06
Inadequate instructions on web site	3.75	1.08
Website not orderly	3.57	1.08
Losing your way on the web site	3.55	1.01
Inadequate product information	3.80	1.04
Merchandise of interest not available	3.69	1.11
Merchandise scattered on web page	3.50	1.10
Limited selection on web page	3.29	1.12
Advertised specials not available	3.74	1.20
Payment is complicated	3.74	1.13
Waiting time to check out	3.46	1.22
Prices not indicated on web page	4.20	1.07
Lack confidence in product service	3.58	1.15
Website contains deceptive sales information	3.96	1.28
Ambient Factors		
Unpleasant surroundings in the location where you shop on the web	2.84	1.35
Noisy surrounds in the location where you shop on the web	2.63	1.18
Location where you shop on the web is too hot or cold	2.69	1.14
Unpleasant visual surroundings where you shop on the web	1.73	1.00

DISCUSSION

The results of this study indicated some support for extending Baker's (1986) typology to describe the physical environment of online shopping. The shopping irritants included in this study corresponded to the ambient and design components of the typology. The social component may need to be redefined when applied in the virtual world. Females tended to be more irritated with more of the factors of online shopping than males. The youngest age group in the study tended to be the least irritated by the factors studied. Frequent online shoppers were the most irritated by most of the factors included in this study. These results are consistent with what has been reported in previous research.

The results of this study need to be interpreted in light of the study's limitations. Specifically, a larger sample is needed to secure enough observations in order to break the data apart based on other variables such as product purchased and customer satisfaction with the purchase process. It could be that irritants related to other factors such as delivery influenced the responses to some of the shopping irritants need to be included on the questionnaire. In addition, situational variables such as the sensitivity of the shopper to atmospherics and the purpose of the visit to the website may hold interesting insights into how to enhance the online shopping experience.

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CONSUMER SENTIMENT ON RETAILING AMONG UNIVERSITY BUSINESS AND MARKETING STUDENTS IN POST-SOCIALIST SLOVAKIA

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ABSTRACT

Retailing in Central Europe has evolved profoundly in the past decade. Indeed, a retail revolution is occurring that affects consumers, retailers, distributors, and advertisers in the strategic areas of pricing, promotion, distribution, and product offerings. Most remarkable is the rate of change in retailing in this region of the world after 40 plus years of a command economy. The researchers present exploratory survey results on consumer sentiment from Slovakian university business and marketing students. The researchers modified the Gaski and Etzel (1986) Index of Consumer Sentiment Toward Marketing and administered the instrument to students on two campuses to measure consumer sentiment on attitudes toward the components of the retailing mix (product, price, advertisement, and retailing).

INTRODUCTION

Retailing in Slovakia, along with other Central European countries such as the Czech Republic, Poland, and Hungary, has profoundly evolved in the past decade. Global and local retailers recently have expanded their operations throughout Central Europe and, along with these new hypermarkets and chain stores, have begun executing modern retail management strategies similar to those so popular in the United States (e.g., new product offerings, targeted advertising, markup pricing, and retail merchandising).

Current Slovakian attitudes toward retailing are typically demarcated by the young and the old. The former welcomed and embraced the new market-driven economy, accepting commercialism as a necessary process to achieve professional and personal success. The latter reminisced about olden days and protested openly about capitalists encroaching upon the moribund socialist economy. "Pamätám si, keď v'setko bolo lacné a život bol jednoduchý" ("I remember when everything was inexpensive and life was simple") was a common quote uttered by older Slovakian generations.

Socialist Slovak retailers were only able to offer limited, intermittent quantities of many products. Standing in line for hours to receive coffee or oranges was the norm for Slovak consumers. One student told us of her family Christmas tradition – to stand in line all day the day before Christmas to purchase a pineapple (Ludmilla Mutnanska, personal conversation, July 5, 2003). Retailers did not advertise; nor did they provide (or perhaps did not even know about) good customer service, eye-catching product displays, markup pricing, and loss-leader concepts.

Today, global retailers from outside Central Europe continue to expand into the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, and Slovakia (Euromonitor, 2002; Nagy, 2001). They bring with them modern retail management strategies critical in securing market share and improving customer service.

Understanding consumer sentiment on product offerings, advertising, pricing, and retailing is important to these new retailers and marketers in Central Europe. Add to this understanding the importance of young, post-socialist consumers in this market-driven transformation, and the study of consumer sentiment with college students is revealing and significant.

Consumer Sentiment Index On Marketing

The measurement of consumer attitudes and sentiment has been of interest to U.S. academic and commercial researchers for many years. Researchers report a number of efforts to develop universal measures of consumer contentment in general (e.g., Barksdale & Darden, 1972; Hustad & Pessemier, 1973; Lundstrom & Lamont, 1976). Gaski and Etzel's (1986) Index of Consumer Sentiment Toward Marketing research described the development of measure and survey scales as applied to marketing, while also providing validation evidence. A final recommendation in their research encourages longitudinal studies on consumer sentiment.

As a result of the rapid growth of consumerism in other countries, Chan, Yau, and Chan (1990) discussed the need for a rigorous measure of consumer sentiment toward marketing, but in cross-national studies. They chose the Gaski and Etzel (1986) instrument as one that demonstrated high reliability and validity both in longitudinal and cross-sectional studies to measure consumer sentiment in Australia. This current study looks at consumer sentiment on retailing in one Central European country using a modified approach from the Chan, Yau, and Chan (1990) study.

Retailing In Central Europe

Since the mid-1990s, global firms such as Ahold (Dutch), Carrefour (French), Metro (Germany), and Tesco (UK) have successfully expanded their operations into Central Europe (Euromonitor, 2002; Nagy, 2002). While dominating and even eliminating some national and local retailers, the presence of these larger and more experienced retailers has helped fuel the adoption of retail management strategies, i.e., providing more efficient production techniques, offering higher quality merchandise from distributors, and enhancing customer service. Local Central Europe retailers have lost ground to global retail expansion as a result of lack of capital funds, increase in price wars, and poor economic forecasting. Competition from so many foreign-based retailers has caused some local and national stores to declare bankruptcy. The confluence of international, national, and local retail management techniques redefine the marketing mix and, presumably, the attitudes of Central European consumers.

Product variety and assortment have improved during the last ten years. Formerly, most products came only from the communist countries. Few opportunities existed to purchase goods from capitalist countries or western neighbors (Euromonitor, 2002). Early in the transformation to a market economy, Central Europeans made frequent trips to neighboring countries in Western Europe to overcome the lack of product offerings. Today, the need to travel to Western Europe no longer exists as the merchandising of diverse products such as electronics, household goods, furniture, and automobiles are par with those selections in capitalist countries (Bugajski, 1995).

Promotional strategies emphasizing brand loyalty are gaining more popularity than those stimulating product demand (Euromonitor, 2003). Exponential increases in the use of television advertising, direct mail, and billboards have helped retailers expand their markets. A decade ago, many Central Europe consumers commented on the "childish," almost foolish, short movies (also known as television commercials) as an insult to retail marketing. According to one Czech consumer, "Retail advertisement was a funny thing ten years ago. Imagine that you have to stand hours in a line in front of the retail shop to buy washing powder, toilet paper, oranges, etc. In this situation it does not matter what kind of product one purchases, but the focus is to get something no matter what brand or what advertising promotes" (Andrea Dankova, retail consumer, personal interview, June 15, 2001). Today, television commercials are professionally developed based on global models integrating pull strategies (product discounts), call to action (telephone numbers or web pages), and even targeted messages (sports enthusiasts).

Under a command society, consumers saw no difference in pricing for the same product merchandised in different retail stores. All prices where regulated and dictated by the government. Central European retailers were not accustomed to integrating retail sales, discounts, and competitive pricing strategies to stimulate purchases (Euromonitor, 2002). The proliferation of variety and assortment in product offerings has increased the pricing of most products, making many "expensive." As new products enter the market, a slow shift toward higher quality products has resulted in higher prices. Retail prices in general are several times higher than a decade ago and remain disproportionate to salaries earned (Euromonitor, 2002).

Global retailers in Central Europe have moved toward providing a selection of both high- and low-priced products and are offering a wide variety and deep assortment of products with everyday low pricing (discounters and hypermarkets). However, wide scale use of specific retail pricing strategies such as multiple unit or bundling, odd-even, high/low, and loss leader are limited. Some retailers have artificially raised prices to highlight a discount or sale. Retailers have been slow to recognize they have the ability to influence consumer buying behavior through modern pricing strategies.

Unfortunately, retailing service has not progressed as much or as quickly as the market-driven economy. Most new salespersons possess little or no practical retail sales experience (Lupton, 2002). Additionally, experienced salespeople lack the human resource skills and market-driven attitudes to sell effectively, thus precluding an ability to transfer competent, on-the-job sales training strategies to younger and less-experienced retail colleagues (Van Zon, 1994). For example, major complaints made by managers about salespeople were their preference for personal opportunities over providing good customer service (Honeycutt, Honeycutt, Keating, & Lupton, 1999). This insensitivity to the customer epitomizes the former socialist perception of how business should be conducted, rather than focusing on the needs of the retail customer as a market-driven economy dictates.

The Slovak Republic

Slovak consumers appear not to be demanding many of the services offered outside Central Europe, e.g., bagging of groceries, assistance to one's automobile, shorter checkout lines, etc. (Lupton, 2002). Slovakians have focused on lower prices as they attempt to stretch their money. This has somewhat dampened the need for ancillary and customer services that bring added value to products. Still, there has been an increased demand and higher expectations for more customer service and product offerings within many local and national retail establishments. With travel across borders, Slovaks have experienced "westernized" retailers and reportedly appreciate the services offered, services that some local establishments have been slow to offer (Tesar, 1994; Van Zon, 1994).

METHODOLOGY

Population Description

The population of this study was pre-business, business, and marketing college students representing two campuses of an American university operating in Slovakia since 1991. A total of 395 surveys were returned. The data from Slovakia are convenience samples; the questionnaires were administered to students during their business and marketing classes. Students are randomly assigned into cohort groups from their first year of study. No self-selection into different lectures exists. While the survey administration was not a random process, each class was likely to be representative of its degree program and year.

Overall, 184 males (46.6 percent), 192 females (48.6 percent), and 19 nonresponse genders participated in the study. Approximately 96 percent of the students are between the ages of 18 and 27. Forty-nine (49) percent of the participants study at a campus in a city of approximately 60,000 inhabitants, and 51 percent study at a campus in a city with approximately 600,000 inhabitants.

Instrumentation

To evaluate consumer sentiment on retailing, the Chan, Yau, and Chan (1990) instrument (a variation of the Gaski and Etzel (1986) Index of Consumer Sentiment Toward Marketing) was slightly modified to 18 questions and administered as a self-reporting survey instrument that consists of five-point scale questions (1 = strongly agree/5 = strongly disagree). The modified survey was translated into Slovak and back translated to English. Questions dealt with attitudes about product offerings, advertising of retail offerings, pricing of retail products, and retailing services. The survey included basic demographic questions.

DATA ANALYSES

The survey was exploratory in nature, looking at the results for the possibility and feasibility of more in-depth measurements across Slovakia. For this conference paper then, only descriptive results are reported. When reporting the descriptive results for each question, some interesting findings emerge (See Table 1).

The results centered around consumer sentiment on attitudes toward the components of the retailing mix (product, price, advertisement, and retailing). Overall the initial findings suggest that the young Slovakian university business and marketing students are not satisfied with the retailing mix in post-socialist Central Europe.

Product offerings. When looking at the attitudes on retail products, the participants felt in general that product quality has increased over the past years. Fifty (50) percent indicated that the quality of products has improved with only 13 percent indicating that the products purchased are defective. When asked about the relationship between the retailer and consumer, 24 percent felt that "the companies that make products I buy don't care enough about how well they perform." These findings are important as many Slovak customers, as well as other Central European customers, have complained that the product offerings in their markets have been inferior to those in Western Europe and the U.S. At the same time, 50 percent of the students feel "the quality of retail products I buy has consistently improved over the years." The initial findings suggest improvement in product quality and possibly improvement in the relationship between the manufacturer and the consumer.

Pricing of retail offerings. Data from four out of the five questions posed concerning retail pricing indicate that the participants are not satisfied with the cost of retail products. Only 12 percent of the students felt that "most retail prices are fair." This could be problematic as more goods and services from outside Slovakia and Central Europe enter the market. Can retailers serve the local patrons if price is an obstacle?

Advertising of retail offerings. The majority of students felt that advertising "is intended to deceive rather than inform," and "most advertising is very annoying." Even though advertising agencies have increased both the quality and quantity of advertising in post-socialist Slovakia, they obviously have many consumer pre-conceived ideas concerning advertising to overcome.

Retail services. Many of the survey participants find customer service in Slovakia lacking. Forty (40) percent disagree with the statement that "most retail stores serve their customers well," and 48 percent disagree with the statement that "I find most retail sales people to be very helpful." Clearly, retailers need to provide customer service at a level the post-socialist Slovaks expect.

Gender, age, level of study, and location variables. Findings are mixed when evaluating the survey results based on gender (male and female) and age (younger that 23 and 23 and older) and level of study (pre-business and business and marketing) and location (large city and small city). Interestingly, though, students in these categories are very similar to each other. For example, both genders show statistical significance with the statement "most retail products I buy are overpriced." Similarly both age groups show statistical significance with the statement "I enjoy most advertisements." This pattern holds true for each statement and variable, with the exception of "in general, I am satisfied with the retail prices I pay." Male, but not female, tested statistically significant (see Tables 2 and 3).

SUMMARY

One must be cautious when attempting to discuss consumer sentiment in Central European countries. The diffusion in modern retail management strategies varies by country and by city population and location, as well as by product type and customer. The consumers of capital cities such as Warsaw, Bratislava, Budapest, and Prague have enjoyed more variety and assortment of products and services than those living in rural areas. Large hypermarkets with floor space approaching 6000 square meters are quickly penetrating the major urban Central Europe markets. Some consumers have the disposable income to purchase expensive, high quality products. Moreover, some do expect good customer service. Regardless of what consumers reminisce of a decade ago, modern retailing has emerged in Central Europe and longitudinal studies on consumer sentiment are necessary.

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NOTE: For printing/space purposes, the following tables are out of numeric order.

TABLE 3 - Consumer Sentiment Among University Business and Marketing – Level and Location

Retail Area	Level Pre-business	Business & Marketing	Location Large City	Small City
Product				
Too many of the retail products I buy are defective in some way. (Q1)	2.47*	2.92*	2.67	2.61
The quality of retail products I buy has consistently improved over the years. (Q3 reversed)	2.54	2.65	2.64	2.51
The companies that make products I buy don't care enough about how well they perform. (Q12 reversed)	2.99*	3.36*	3.13	3.12
Price				
Most retail prices are reasonable given the high cost of doing business. (Q2)	3.06*	2.82*	2.96	2.98
Most retail products I buy are overpriced (cost too much). (Q8 reversed)	2.37*	2.13*	2.19	2.36
Retail businesses could charge lower prices and still be profitable. (Q9)	3.64	3.81	3.72	3.70
Most retail prices are fair. (Q10)	2.47	2.63	2.56	2.48
In general, I am satisfied with the retail prices I pay. (Q11)	2.43	2.61	2.47	2.49
Advertising				
Most advertising makes false claims. (Q5 reversed)	2.64*	2.30*	2.43	2.62
If most advertising were eliminated, consumers would be better off. (Q6 reversed)	3.07	3.21	3.13	3.10
I enjoy most advertisements. (Q7)	2.70	2.60	2.64	2.68
Most advertising is intended to deceive rather than inform. (Q15 reversed)	2.40	2.47	2.50	2.34
Most advertising is very annoying. (Q16 reversed)	2.69*	2.25*	2.43	2.59
Retailing				
Most retail stores serve their customers well. (Q4)	2.90*	2.54*	2.78	2.76
Because of the way retailers treat me, most of my shopping is unpleasant. (Q13 reversed)	2.98*	2.54*	2.68*	2.97*
I find most retail salespeople to be very helpful. (Q14)	2.67	2.56	2.63	2.61
When I need assistance in a retail store, I am usually not able to get it. (Q17 reversed)	2.90	2.85	2.89	2.87
Most retailers provide adequate service. (Q18)	2.91	2.99	2.88	3.00

Note. Items in the table are mean ratings using a five-point scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 5 = Strongly Agree. *t-test of mean differences significant at $p < .05$

Table 1 - Consumer Sentiment on Retailing in Slovakia

Product Offerings	Agree	Disagree
Too many of the retail products I buy are defective in some way. (Q1)	13%	43%
The quality of retail products I buy has consistently improved over the years. (Q3)	50%	17%
The companies that make products I buy don't care enough about how well they perform. (Q12)	24%	32%
Price of Retail Offerings		
Most retail prices are reasonable given the high cost of doing business. (Q2)	29%	31%
Most retail products I buy are overpriced (cost too much). (Q8)	61%	14%
Retail businesses could charge lower prices and still be profitable. (Q9)	60%	14%
Most retail prices are fair. (Q10)	12%	50%
In general, I am satisfied with the retail prices I pay. (Q11)	13%	54%
Advertising of Retail Offerings		
Most advertising makes false claims. (Q5)	47%	20%
If most advertising were eliminated, consumers would be better off. (Q6)	25%	32%
I enjoy most advertisements. (Q7)	25%	46%
Most advertising is intended to deceive rather than inform. (Q15)	51%	12%
Most advertising is very annoying. (Q16)	52%	20%
Retailing Services		
Most retail stores serve their customers well. (Q4)	29%	40%
Because of the way retailers treat me, most of my shopping is unpleasant. (Q13)	36%	29%
I find most retail salespeople to be very helpful. (Q14)	18%	48%
When I need assistance in a retail store, I am usually not able to get it. (Q17)	36%	29%
Most retailers provide adequate service. (Q18).	24%	29%

Table 2 - Consumer Sentiment Among University Business and Marketing – Gender and Age

Retail Area	Gender		Age	
	Male	Female	≤22	23>
Product				
Too many of the retail products I buy are defective in some way. (Q1)	2.52*	2.74*	2.64	2.66
The quality of retail products I buy has consistently improved over the years. (Q3 reversed)	2.47*	2.69*	2.56	2.58
The companies that make products I buy don't care enough about how well they perform. (Q12 reversed)	3.03	3.18	3.04	3.18
Price				
Most retail prices are reasonable given the high cost of doing business. (Q2)	2.98	2.93	2.94	3.00
Most retail products I buy are overpriced (cost too much). (Q8 reversed)	2.47*	2.08*	2.20	2.33
Retail businesses could charge lower prices and still be profitable. (Q9)	3.75	3.67	3.76	3.72
Most retail prices are fair. (Q10)	2.60	2.44	2.43	2.60
In general, I am satisfied with the retail prices I pay. (Q11)	2.61*	2.35	2.41	2.58
Advertising				
Most advertising makes false claims. (Q5 reversed)	2.55	2.51	2.52	2.51
If most advertising were eliminated, consumers would be better off. (Q6 reversed)	3.16	3.08	3.01	3.17
I enjoy most advertisements. (Q7)	2.63	2.69	2.52*	2.77*
Most advertising is intended to deceive rather than inform. (Q15 reversed)	2.40	2.45	2.34	2.51
Most advertising is very annoying. (Q16 reversed)	2.56	2.44	2.40	2.57
Retailing				
Most retail stores serve their customers well. (Q4)	2.87	2.66	2.84	2.72
Because of the way retailers treat me, most of my shopping is unpleasant. (Q13 reversed)	2.99*	2.70*	2.79	2.81
I find most retail salespeople to be very helpful. (Q14)	2.73*	2.52*	2.59	2.64
When I need assistance in a retail store, I am usually not able to get it. (Q17 reversed)	3.10*	2.70*	2.72*	3.04*
Most retailers provide adequate service. (Q18).	2.95	2.93	2.82*	3.05*

Note. Items in the table are mean ratings using a five-point scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 5 = Strongly Agree. *t-test of mean differences significant at $p < .05$

BRAND REJECTION: DOES BRAND REJECTION EXIST?

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ABSTRACT

Many studies have focused on product brands and the power that they carry. Often these studies are concentrated on why consumers develop brand loyalty and what attributes people look for in a brand. While a lot of research has focused on brand loyalty, very little has focused on brand rejection, or why consumers refuse to buy certain brands. The objective of this study is to define brand rejection, establish that it exists, and to determine possible reasons for brand rejection. The study defined brand rejection as the conscious choice that consumers make not to buy a brand. It asked students to indicate which brands they refuse to buy and reasons for their choice. The data showed overwhelming evidence for the existence of brand rejection. Almost every student indicated that they reject at least one brand. The reasons for rejection listed on the questionnaire were found to encompass most of the reasons that people refuse to buy a brand. Frequency charts were also compiled to show how the reasons for rejection differ widely according to product category. While this study could not focus on every aspect of brand rejection it does serve as a good beginning to a topic that deserves more research.

AN APPLICATION OF CRITICAL THINKING PRINCIPLES TO MARKETING EDUCATION: *THE STUDENT-DRIVEN SYLLABUS*

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes an empirical study which analyzes an application of critical thinking principles to a creative approach to teaching Consumer Behavior. Students designed their own *student-driven syllabus* which was followed throughout the entire semester. In a comparison of the test class and a traditional class, both taught by the same instructor, using a variety of effectiveness measures students rated the class using the student-driven syllabus higher than the traditional class using the instructor's syllabus. The creative opportunity for increased critical thinking led to greater satisfaction, learning, and skill development as perceived by the students. Applying critical thinking principles to the organization of a course can lead to extremely favorable results for students and professors alike.

INTRODUCTION

As marketing educators have moved from a traditional, passive model of teaching to an active, experiential approach to student learning, the need to understand and encourage critical thinking skills has become more a more important element of business education. In *Teaching Students to Think Critically* (Meyers 1986), *Developing Critical Thinkers* (Brookfield 1987), and *Promoting Active Learning* (Meyers and Jones 1993) numerous studies on critical thinking (CT) offer the basis for a paradigm to be used in education. Several important characteristics of critical thinking classes include: the educator must encourage student interest, challenge student thinking, provide an interactive classroom atmosphere, allow students time to reflect, and create disequilibrium. Much of the theory of CT is based on the earlier works of psychologists such as Piaget in the area of cognitive development. Most classes in the discipline of marketing move from the abstract theory to concrete real-life examples, yet cognitive development theory suggests that this is the opposite way humans develop. In addition to reviewing foundations of theory in the literature, this study proposed a unique method of stimulating critical thinking in the classroom for consideration by marketing educators and measurement of effectiveness of this creative technique.

The new approach to CT proposed in this study is the *student-driven syllabus*. On the first day of any semester or term, most professors walk into the class with a set syllabus that establishes all the requirements, rules, objectives, and assignments. What if the instructor started the first day of class by suggesting that the students could design their own course, and then proceeded to rip up the syllabus brought to the class? Introduction of the student-driven syllabus does not need to be so dramatic yet the use of such a technique follows the basic premise of CT theory (explanation and justification for the technique are explained in detail in later sections). Most faculty espouse the need for critical thinking yet few have studied the ways to actually encourage CT in the classroom. This paper will (1) review literature related to both cognitive development and critical thinking, (2) review marketing education literature related to important skills for marketing graduates, (3) present a paradigm for marketing educators to use in teaching which incorporates CT concepts, (4) present the methodology for study of an application of CT principles to a new, creative approach to designing a course syllabus, (5) analyze results of the effectiveness of the student-driven syllabus, and (6) offer conclusions and specific recommendations for educators considering the proposed technique.

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT AND CRITICAL THINKING

An understanding of cognitive development is important in the understanding of critical thinking theory. Piaget's (1952) theory is the most well-known theory on cognitive development in the psychology literature. He suggests that children move through stages in their intellectual development, from concrete experience to abstract thought. Children are not passive in their development, they are active in interacting with the world according to Piaget. This *active discovery* leads children to then form "structures for thought." The final stage of development, "Formal Operational," involves abstract and logical reasoning. Piaget discovered few people even reach this stage. Movement from concrete experience to abstract thought is actually the opposite way educators teach. Typically, instructors first offer the theory related to the subject and then present or ask for practical examples of the theory. Projects and experiential learning assignments often follow lectures. Piaget would suggest that educators should first create active learning environments for students and then move toward abstraction.

Piaget's developmental paradigm is similar to Kolb's (1984) experiential learning model, which suggests that learning moves through the four stages of concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. Similarly, the Kolb model moves from concrete to abstract. King and Kitchener's (1994) Reflective Judgment Model also represents a developmental model suggesting that the average undergraduate college senior rates 3.99 on a scale of 7, therefore faculty should focus on earlier levels (3 and 4) of development. Reflection is an important component of all cognitive development models.

Although most faculty purport the importance of critical thinking in the classroom, few actually understand its meaning. In a study of faculty in colleges and universities throughout California, Paul, Elder, and Bartell (2002) discovered that 89% of the sample said that critical thinking is a primary objective of their instruction, yet only 19% could give a clear definition of what it is. Although much has been written on critical thinking, there is no unanimity in what critical thinking means.

In *Developing Critical Thinkers*, Stephen Brookfield (1987) discovered four primary components of critical thinking:

(1) Identifying and challenging assumptions is central to critical thinking.
(2) Challenging the importance of context is critical to critical thinking.
(3) Critical thinkers try to imagine and explore alternatives.
(4) Imagining and exploring alternatives leads to reflective skepticism.

SKILLS DEVELOPMENT IN MARKETING EDUCATION

Numerous studies in the marketing education literature have discussed the importance of workplace/career skills development for marketing students. Lamb, Shipp, and Moncrief (1995) defined a *skill* (an underlying ability than can be refined through practice), reviewed the variety of skills mentioned in the literature, and developed an approach to integrate skills into the curriculum. Based on the literature, Gault, Redington, and Schlager (2000) suggested a summary of skills for marketing students which included 13 skills in four categories:

1. Academic Skills
    a. Analytical skills
    b. Computer applications
    c. Creative thinking
    d. Informational search
    e. Problem solving
2. Job Acquisition Skills
    a. Job interviewing
    b. Job networking
    c. Resume writing
3. Interpersonal Skills
    a. Leadership and teamwork
    b. Relationship building
4. Communication Skills
    a. Oral presentation
    b. Proposal writing
    c. Written communication

In a study of the importance of various skills, Floyd and Gordon (1998) found that problem-solving skills are most important for employers when hiring recent graduates followed by communication skills, work experience, and interpersonal skills. In a study of respected marketing educators, Smart, Kelley, and Conant (1999) reported the need for skills development for students in the areas of communication, decision-making, and creative thinking abilities. Problem solving (Cooper and Loe 2000) and critical thinking (Ronchetto and Buckles 1994) skills often rate at the top of the list for important skills. Business schools today are listening to employers and focusing on skill development in addition to knowledge acquisition.

PARADIGM WHICH INCORPORATES CRITICAL THINKING CONCEPTS INTO MARKETING EDUCATION

If marketing educators are committed to the importance of incorporating critical thinking into their courses, they need guidelines in order to be successful. In a presentation on critical thinking, Karns, Clayson, Frontczak, and Kelley (2002) outlined the important factors to consider for CT classes. These include:

1. Interactive, active classroom atmosphere
    - Classes should not just be "transfer of knowledge," lecture oriented.
    - Student participation/discussion important part of class.
    - Peer interaction correlates positively with improved CT.
    - Student inquisitiveness should be encouraged (allow them to ponder issues).
    - Don't just say "any question?"
    - Support interaction in a non-judgmental way.
2. Give students time to reflect
    - Reflection important part of cognitive development and experiential learning theory.
    - Need time to reflect.
    - Use silence as a teaching tool even though uncomfortable.
3. Create disequilibrium
    - Challenge student thought structures.
    - Create uncertainty, ambiguous findings.
    - Stir emotions in students.
    - "Reflective skepticism" is good.
    - Start class with thought-provoking (no answer) question, controversy.
    - Balance information overload and too little information (challenge).
    - Let students struggle.
    - Balance support and challenge.
4. Remember the importance of "conceptual frameworks"
    - Lecture okay.
    - Students need content as a basis of CT.
    - Balance lecture and experiential activities.
5. Engage student interest
    - Current topics, issues, examples.
    - Encourage responses based on emotion.
6. Instructor encouragement and support
    - Be less of an "authority figure."
    - Atmosphere of trust.
    - Hospitable environment.
    - Model CT process.
    - Be non-judgmental, open to ideas.
    - Encourage them to formulate own judgments.
    - Validate students' comments in class.
    - Show respect.
    - Be patient.
    - Non-verbal support.
7. Arrange classroom for interaction
    - Best everyone could see everyone else (circle, rectangle).
    - Instructor not in power position.
    - Arrange for small groups.
8. Use written assignments for CT
    - Let students formulate own views (be surprised).
    - Writing important for processing and internalizing knowledge (offer meaningful written feedback).
    - Shorter, more frequent papers (practice CT).

Based on this paradigm of critical thinking in the classroom, the study on the *student-driven syllabus* was proposed.

METHODOLOGY FOR A STUDY OF AN APPLICATION OF CT PRINCIPLES

Using many of the principles of a CT classroom mentioned in the previous section, the authors proposed a way to let the students struggle and create disequilibrium in the class while at the same time supporting students in a non-judgmental way. On the first day of class for a Consumer Behavior course consisting mostly of marketing majors, the instructor walked into class with the traditional multiple-page, detailed syllabus. Typically, the professor simply says, here is what we are going to do for the semester without any input from the students. Critical thinking literature supports the fact that educators should be "less of an authority figure," and "not in a position of power." Also, CT classrooms encourage students to form their own judgments. Based on the knowledge of CT theory, the Consumer Behavior professor proceeded to say to the students that maybe it would be better to structure the class the way they wanted it to be. The professor said they would be open to *any ideas* on how to structure the class and proceeded to rip up the existing syllabus. All students were shocked at this display. Most students responded with great excitement about the possibility of organizing a course the way they wanted to and a few sat in horror at the thought of the professor not providing the structure they were accustomed to. After the initial enthusiasm, conversation and wild ideas, the professor suggested that everyone should go home and think about this offer until the next class period. If a majority were in favor of the *student-driven syllabus* at the beginning of the next class, then the class would proceed to design the syllabus. The only stipulation was that the course needed to remain a course of Consumer Behavior and the objectives of the course (following the official course syllabus directed by the school curriculum committee) must remain. Other than that, the professor said they were open to anything. The next class came and the vote was overwhelmingly a vote in favor of the student-driven syllabus. The class period was devoted to a discussion of what should happen for the entire semester. The students fairly quickly took over leading the discussion, while the professor took a seat and remained silent, often somewhat worried about the direction of the conversation and truly outlandish ideas. To the surprise of the professor, the students ended up with a rigorous course structure, still including assignments and exams, although quite different from those originally proposed, which they all agreed upon. From that point on, a new *student-driven syllabus* was written and their plan followed throughout the semester. Student interaction, the creation of disequilibrium, stirring emotions, and letting students express their own views were the foundation of the class.

At the end of the semester, several measures of the effectiveness of the *student-driven syllabus* were implemented. This class was compared to another section of Consumer Behavior taught by the same professor, using the traditional, faculty-prepared syllabus. A four-part questionnaire was prepared, tested, and administered to each section of Consumer Behavior. Part 1 of the survey included an evaluation of the course based on a form developed by Sandler and Kamins (1987), similar to one also used by Butler and Laumer (1992) and Olsen (1994). Students were asked to respond to 17 statements on a nine-point rating scale (where 1=strongly disagree, and 9=strongly agree). The items relate to student involvement and enjoyability, learning, and satisfaction with the course. Part 2 of the evaluation was based on a 15-item form used by Celuch and Slama (2000) where they measured critical thinking in the class. Students were asked to rate each item, such as "develops problem solving skills," on a 7-point scale (where 1=much worse than other classes, and 7=much better than other classes). Part 3 of the evaluation asked the students to rate the course and the instructor using a 19-item form, again developed by Celuch and Slama (2000). Students were asked to rate the class on a 5-point scale where 1=poor and 5=excellent. Part 4 of the evaluation process included items related to whether or not a student would recommend this course to other students. A 9-point agreement scale was used for this part of the evaluation process.

Finally, the results from the official school course evaluations were used to compare the two sections. The final sample size for the class using the *student-driven syllabus* was 35 while the sample size for the control class was 17.

RESULTS

In nearly all measures of the perceived effectiveness of the *student-driven syllabus*, students using the newly created syllabus rated the course higher. In only four cases out of 58 items, students in the traditional class rated the course higher. In addition, all means reported in the official university instructional assessment for the *student-driven syllabus* section were higher than the traditional course. The mean values for all statements are provided in the following tables.

Students in the *student-driven syllabus* class rated their involvement, enjoyability, learning, and satisfaction with the course higher than those students in the traditional class according to findings in Table 1. Students also suggested that the class using the *student-driven* syllabus improved their critical thinking, communication, teamwork, and decision-making skills more than other classes, according to data in Table 2. Means for all statements were higher in the test class. In the overall rating of the instructor and the course in Table 3, 15 of 19 means provided more favorable findings in support of the *student-driven syllabus* course. Table 4 shows strong support for the class decision to use the student-driven syllabus. Finally, all scores on the official course evaluation were higher in the test class.

TABLE 1

Overall Evaluation of the Course (9-point agreement scale where 1= strongly disagree and 9=strongly agree)

		Test Class	Traditional Class
1.	This course was helpful to me in understanding marketing problems.	8.37	7.71

2.	The project made the course more interesting.	6.43	6.24
3.	Working in this course allowed me to apply what I learned to real life situations.	8.03	7.12
4.	I was satisfied with my work in this course.	7.63	7.18
5.	I learned a lot about consumer behavior from this course.	8.54	8.00
6.	I was highly involved with this course.	7.66	7.06
7.	This course was enjoyable.	8.66	8.35
8.	I was satisfied with the classroom lectures.	8.91	8.41
9.	This course promoted better student/teacher relationships.	8.40	7.41
10.	I believe this course is valuable for advanced marketing classes.	8.49	7.65
11.	This course was not boring.	8.60	8.35
12.	I enjoyed working on the project.	6.23	5.76
13.	I would recommend this course to other marketing students.	8.74	8.00
14.	This course did not seem silly.	8.46	8.12
15.	This course was not a waste of my time.	8.74	8.59
16.	This course suggests the instructor cares about me learning consumer behavior.	8.74	8.35
17.	This course was worth the effort.	8.77	7.94

TABLE 2

Evaluation of Critical Thinking in the Course (7-point scale where 1=much worse than other classes and 7=much better than other classes)

		Test Class	Traditional Class
1.	Develops problem-solving skills	5.68	5.35
2.	Improves ability to pay attention	6.12	5.88
3.	Develops ability to concentrate	5.88	5.59
4.	Improves listening skills	6.21	6.00
5.	Improves speaking skills	4.76	4.06
6.	Improves writing skills	6.09	4.59
7.	Facilitates learning concepts/principles	6.44	5.71
8.	Facilitates learning methods/measure	6.26	5.71
9.	Develops an openness to new ideas	6.47	5.88
10.	Develops ability to work productively with others	6.00	5.29
11.	Cultivates responsibility for one's own learning	6.26	6.06
12.	Improves self confidence in ability to learn	5.88	5.76
13.	Develops respect for others	5.68	4.71
14.	Develops capacity to think for one's self	6.24	5.59
15.	Develops capacity to make informed decisions	6.50	5.94

TABLE 3

Evaluation of the Instructor (5-point scale where 1=poor and 5=excellent)

		Test Class	Traditional Class
1.	Rate the course in general.	4.91	4.47
2.	Rate the instructor.	4.97	4.88
3.	The instructor was organized in presenting material.	4.80	4.65
4.	The class achieved course objectives.	4.91	4.47
5.	Did the instructor treat students with respect?	5.00	4.94
6.	The instructor was available outside of class.	4.80	4.71
7.	The instructor fulfilled classroom responsibilities.	4.94	4.82
8.	The instructor explained difficult ideas.	4.63	4.65
9.	The instructor provided insight into material.	4.83	4.82
10.	The instructor appeared knowledgeable about subject matter.	4.97	5.00
11.	The instructor provided opportunity for questions and participation.	4.89	4.71
12.	The instructor used meaningful examples and illustrations.	4.91	4.82
13.	The instructor expressed ideas clearly.	4.80	4.82
14.	The assignments helped in learning material.	4.60	3.88
15.	The instructor used fair methods in grading.	4.60	4.18
16.	With relation to other instructors, I would rate this instructor...	4.89	4.94
17.	Compared to other classes, I learned more.	4.49	4.18
18.	Compared to other courses on the same level, I put more effort into this class.	4.20	3.82
19.	Instructor ability to field questions effectively.	4.77	4.53

TABLE 4

Evaluation of the Course (9-point agreement scale where 1=strongly disagree and 9=strongly agree)

		Test Class	Traditional Class
1.	I enjoyed this class more than most.	8.40	8.35
2.	I believe this class met the course objectives.	8.66	8.29
3.	I would recommend this instructor to other students.	8.89	8.71
4.	This class encouraged critical thinking.	8.31	7.88
5.	I am glad we revised the syllabus this semester.	8.17	*
6.	I wish we had stayed with the original syllabus.	2.54	*

7.	I would recommend a student-driven syllabus for other classes.	8.29	*
* (not appropriate questions for Traditional Class.)			

TABLE 5

Summary Scores for the Official Course Evaluation (6-point scale where 1= very poor and 6= excellent)

		Test Class	Traditional Class
1.	Course as a whole	5.33	5.00
2.	Course content	5.37	4.93
3.	Contribution to the course	5.70	5.29
4.	Effectiveness in teaching subject	5.56	5.21

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In conclusion, the formal student evaluations of the *student-driven syllabus* were extremely favorable. In addition, students informal, verbal feedback at the end of the semester supported their overall enjoyment of a class where they were able to design their own syllabus. Interestingly, through word-of-mouth many students the following semester had heard about this creative idea and requested that we also use a *student-driven syllabus*. Background information on CT oriented classes (Karns, Clayson, Frontczak, and Kelley 2002) suggests the following three aspects of the class are important: (1) there is no one best way to structure CT oriented classes, (2) students need to practice critical thinking in all courses, and (3) it is the educator's responsibility to create an atmosphere for critical thinking. Allowing students the opportunity to create their own syllabus and encouraging the process provided the atmosphere for critical thinking. The dramatic first day and energy created in those first couple of classes set the stage for a student-centered course based on critical thinking principles. All eight items presented in the section describing a paradigm for use of CT concepts in marketing education were considered throughout the course. Once again, there is no right way to organize critical thinking oriented classes, only important suggestions for educators to keep in mind. As Schibrowsky, Peltier, and Boyt (2002) stated, critical thinking skills should be taught and practiced in marketing education. The *student-driven syllabus* is simply one way to successfully apply CT principles.

Although there is risk involved in relinquishing some control and often more work for the educator, as it was in this instance, the benefits for students and professor outweigh the problems. The students maintained their original enthusiasm and dedication to learning in the class throughout the semester. As the results showed, their level of satisfaction was high. Overall, the *student-drive syllabus* proved to be an effective outlet to encourage and stimulate critical thinking.

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CORRECTNESS AND CONFIDENCE: TWO DIMENSIONS FOR MEASURING USABLE KNOWLEDGE

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ABSTRACT

Higher education assurance of learning techniques should be designed to assess whether lessons learned produce usable knowledge. While knowledge is often defined as "justified" information, it is the limiting of knowledge assessment to "correctness of answers" that is problematic in the development of complete learning assessment (Hunt and Furustig 1989). The purpose of this study is to introduce to the marketing educator's discussion the notion of assessing the usability of knowledge based on correctness with the addition of an expression of confidence of answers selected. Herein, the results of a preliminary study illustrate how such an evaluation provides greater understanding.

BACKGROUND

An in depth reading of Hunt and Furustig (1989), seems to suggest that real-life decision-making and practicality generally defines how certain and knowledgeable a student one needs to be. However, in assessing the relationship between learning and knowledge in academic settings, it is important that marketing educators not only have metrics available to assist in the diagnosis of student outcomes, the efficacy of instructional techniques, but also the predictability of graduates to create value for the employment community. Multi-dimensional needs require multi-dimensional analyses. These two, often opposing influences (practical and academic) suggests that educators explore approaches to assess knowledge, which capture some usability criteria.

This paper explores a little used knowledge assessment procedure that provides a better understanding of student's usable knowledge as measured by both the correctness of answers selected and the confidence expressed regarding answers selected in an academic setting. The author will introduce a process and a model for such an assessment and will report on preliminary findings and implications.

For several decades it has been argued that a necessary, but not sufficient condition of knowing something is that the person "in-the-know" must have confidence about that which is known (Ayer 1958; hunt and Furustig 1989). Further, it is argued that confidence influences the level to which an individual can effectively and efficiently use their knowledge at any given moment. As Quine (1987) said, the ability to measure whether an individual's belief (response) can be considered knowledge is a "boundary" issue. Specifically, it is in understanding where the boundary exists between being certain and not being certain; expressing usable knowledge or guessing, without limiting the assessment to merely a practical outcome of being correct or incorrect with the belief (response).

KNOWLEDGE AND CONFIDENCE

Sveiby (1997, p. 37) defines knowledge as "a capacity to act." Accordingly the intangibility and invisibility characteristic of the "capacity" aspect of knowledge makes understanding even more important. When considering marketing students becoming critical thinking professionals the primary interest should be to teach and thereby develop individuals with the usable knowledge that will permit them to succeed in a highly competitive global economy. This analytical capability supports the benefit of measuring usable knowledge; a combination of correctness and confidence in assurance of learning outcomes.

Further, when considering knowledge it must be understood that at some level knowledge is relative and there is some practical and academic value in a student being technically incorrect, especially if there is some systematic process that provides insight into the otherwise inaccurate answer: the usability of the knowledge. For the purpose of this study usable knowledge will be defined in accordance with Hunt and Furustig (1989) as "...beliefs that are correct and confidently justified." This definition also fits well in the evaluation of marketing students' performance.

MEASURING USABLE KNOWLEDGE

Armed with the general understanding of the conditions of usable knowledge, it is important to develop the concept of certainty.

Quine (1987) stated:

"Knowledge connotes certainty (but) what shall we count as certain? Knowledge applies only to true beliefs, and only to pretty firm ones, but just how firm or certain they have to be is the question."

To include certainty into the assessment of knowledge requires educators to consider the confidence of the responder in at least as great a degree as one would assess the correctness of the student to the tested item.

Using simple one-dimensional logic, if the instructor observes an incorrect answer the interpretation is that the person does not know the answer or is "uninformed." Such an inference does not necessarily portray a complete or accurate assessment of the student's knowledge. In the overall assessment of knowledge, the question must also be asked and answered: "If that student is extremely sure and still selects the incorrect answer is that individual uninformed, misinformed, guessing, or just plain wrong?" The interpretation that a correct response selected on a multiple-choice test accurately reflects knowledge does not provide a complete understanding, and does not provide any beneficial analysis of the implications surrounding the specific teaching process.

In order to make a more complete assessment of the usability of the knowledge available to the student, some level of confidence with selected responses must be made. Hunt and Furustig (1989) provided a model to illustrate the relationship among the correctness of a student's knowledge and the confidence with which the student believes the knowledge to be correct; ergo the usability of the knowledge (refer to Figure 1).

FIGURE 1

<table>
<tr><td colspan="4">Criterion: Make Selection from Available Choices</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Knowledge expressed as choice. "A"</td><td colspan="2">Knowledge expressed as choice. "B"</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Correct Response</td><td colspan="2">Incorrect Response</td></tr>
<tr><td>Certain of Response Correctness</td><td colspan="2">Uncertain of Responses Correctness</td><td>Certain of Response Correctness</td></tr>
<tr><td>Usable Knowledge</td><td colspan="2">Unusable Knowledge</td><td>Usable Knowledge</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Informed (to some level)</td><td>Uninformed</td><td>Misinformed</td></tr>
</table>

Hunt and Furustig 1989

As illustrated, the inclusion of "usable knowledge" and the notions of an individual being informed (to some extent), uninformed, or misinformed provides more depth to assessing the usability of knowledge. In a simpler sense, the Hunt and Furustig (1989) model can be reduced to a matrix that provides a more practical diagnostic tool (refer to Figure).

FIGURE 2

	Correct	Incorrect
Confident	Well Informed Usable Knowledge	Misinformed Mis-usable Knowledge
Unconfident	Partially Informed Incomplete Knowledge	Uninformed Unusable Knowledge

Byus 2003

The Byus 2003 model suggests that being confident or unconfident with either correct or incorrect responses produces a set of four distinct levels of usable knowledge as well as four distinct teaching and learning strategy possibilities. Firstly, if the marketing student is correct and confident it is reasonable to assume that the student is well informed and that a successful teaching and learning exchange has been accomplished. Secondly, if the student is correct but unconfident, it is reasonable to assume the teaching and learning exchange has produced partial information and incomplete knowledge that may require additional emphasis or remedial attention to secure greater student confidence. Thirdly, a student providing an incorrect response and is unconfident with the response produces a situation that suggests that the student is completely uninformed and that the level of knowledge possessed is "unusable". In this case, the teaching and learning exchange has broken-down. Specific actions, on the part of the student and the instructor must be undertaken in order to facilitate a new and successful knowledge creation model. Finally, there is the case of the student providing an incorrect response while being confident of the correctness of the response. In this situation, the student is misinformed. Misinformation, like partial information may only require remediation or reconsideration in order to create more usability of the information. Unfortunately mis-usable information may also be an indication of a more difficult problem wherein the student must be made to see that their belief structure regarding the subject matter may in-fact be flawed.

PRELIMINARY STUDY

Herein, the author reports the preliminary results of on-going research. The sample reported consists of undergraduates (55) enrolled in Principles of Marketing course and graduate (MBA) students (23) enrolled in a principles-type leveling course, during the Fall 2003 semester. While small, the sample provides surprisingly significant insights into analyzing the relationship of correctness and confidence with the goal being to determine the usability of student knowledge.

A basic assumption used with this sample is that all students enrolled in a principles course, regardless of their graduation status, would possess a similar amount of specific academic marketing knowledge. This assumption is made with the acknowledgement that perhaps certain undergraduate students would be repeating the course, or that individual graduate students may have been exposed to some on-the-job marketing training. There also exists a possibility that some students may have been enrolled in other business courses that may have included a marketing module.

Each of the two classifications of students (two separate classes) had a 25 question multiple-choice "Evaluation" test administered as the first event of the first session of the Fall 2003 semester. Students were instructed to provide two responses to each of the 25 questions. The first response requested a specific, direct-answer to the marketing subject addressed in the test, and the second response requested the student to indicate level of "sureness" (confidence) with the direct-answer selected on the marketing issue portion of the question. As an example:

Marketing Question: Reseller markets consist mainly of:

- *a) Industrial users.*
- *b) Retailers.*
- *c) Wholesalers and retailers.*
- *d) Manufacturers.*
- *e) Consumers.*

Confidence Measure: On the question above, how sure are you of your answer?

- *a) Not sure at all.*
- *b) Very unsure.*
- c) *Somewhat sure.*
- d) *Very sure.*
- e) *Extremely sure.*

Further, the students were given exactly 30 minutes to complete the test with no ability to converse among each other or to consult any text or note set. While this limited time frame might encourage "guessing," students were instructed to answer as accurately as possible both questions associated with each marketing issue specified on the test. The written instructions provided were:

> *Your score will be the number of items you mark (correctly or incorrectly) and which accurately express your level of sureness about minus the number of items you mark (correctly or incorrectly) and inaccurately express your level of sureness about.*
>
> *This scoring method does not penalize you for being incorrect, if you are truly "UNSURE" about your answer; however, if you are incorrect and "SURE" of your answer or your are correct and "UNSURE" of your answer your response will be considered a guess and will not count.*
>
> *Therefore, it is important that you answer questions both as correctly as possible and that you accurately assess your level of "SURENESS" with your answer.*

The rationale for these instructions is to promote honest assessment. This statement is in keeping with the notion that students, honestly assessing both their knowledge and their level of certainty with their knowledge may in-fact provide the educator with valid information about the student's information and usability of knowledge learned. The specific language used in the instructions was intended to thwart haphazard marking of either question answers or levels of confidence/ sureness. However, it is reasonable to assume that there exists an element of guesswork and/or a lack of student compliance/ cooperation in all multiple-choice tests.

RESULTS

Because the students by and large were new to the academic specificity of marketing, it was anticipated that average correctness to the marketing issue questions would be low; scores ranged from 12 percent to 72 percent with the average score being 49.32 percent. This scoring tended to support the author's belief that students in the sample were, on average, not in possession of a substantial amount of marketing specific knowledge.

The data also illustrates that both classifications appear to be fairly unconfident with their responses, with the mean confidence scores of responses computed to be 1.66. The scale used was scored as 0 = "Not sure at all", 1 = "Very Unsure", 2 = "Somewhat Sure", 3 = "Very Sure" and 4 = "Extremely Sure". This low level of student confidence also supported the author's initial impression that students would, at this early stage of instruction, be relatively unconfident with their responses.

The reliability of the five-point "Likert" confidence scale was computed to be an extremely high .9269, using the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of reliability. A split-half test of reliability produced an equally impressive set of reliability coefficients at .878 for 13 items and .864 for the remaining 12 items. The correlation between the two forms was computed to be a highly respectable .801.

Analysis of this preliminary data indicates that while graduate students were more "correct" with their responses, they expressed less "confidence" than the undergraduate student. This may suggest that while both groups do not possess a substantial amount of "correct" marketing specific knowledge, the more mature student may be more openly inclined to acknowledge their lack of confidence. It has often been stated that there may be wisdom and caution associated with age and impetuousness associated with youth.

Analysis of the data indicates that student correctness scores were fairly normally distributed regardless of classification. Such distributional characteristics help the instructor to understand the extent of correctness/incorrectness within a student population.

As previously indicated, average confidence scores ranged from 0 (Not Sure At All) to 2.92, with a mean score of 1.66, which indicates that on-average students were just less than "Somewhat Sure" on the marketing specific questions. In addition and similar to the correctness index, the students' confidence index scores also were fairly normally distributed within the sample.

The results of the students' usability of information and knowledge as a function of correctness and certainty of responses shows that approximately 13.5 percent of responses selected by students were the result of students being both "Correct and Confident," (usable knowledge). About 37 percent of student responses are categorized as being "Correct yet Unconfident" which suggests that a substantial portion of the responses are the product of partial information and must be categorized as incomplete knowledge.

The preliminary results show that slightly more than 41.5 percent of responses selected by the students were "Incorrect and Unconfident" which implies that a substantial number of responses could be considered as being the product of students being uninformed possessing unusable knowledge. Finally, the results show that slightly more that 7 percent of student responses illustrate the characteristics of being the product of misinformation (Incorrect but Confident), examples of misusable knowledge. While generally benign, such misusable knowledge can distract and confuse both the student in their pursuit of usable knowledge and the instructor in the pursuit of establishing solid understanding of marketing.

DISCUSSION

There are substantially more questions that must be examined in the context of the "correctness and confidence" concept. This discussion paper is an introduction and overview of the information provided by such an analysis, both for internal and external assessment purposes. As illustrated, marketing students and instructors can benefit from assessment techniques that evaluate the correctness of responses provided and the student's level of confidence with selected responses. For today's marketing educator, the ability to diagnose both the extent of students' knowledge and the extent of their confidence provides substantial potential for improving future marketers with curriculum that promotes higher levels of correctness and greater levels of confidence.

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INTEGRATING ADVERTISING RESEARCH INTO ADVERTISING UNITS

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ABSTRACT

This paper questions whether the teaching of research should be more practical and more strongly linked to the discipline it services. In the case of advertising education, is there a better way to teach research by integrating it into the students' first experiences with the areas of advertising practice?

To answer this question, this paper reports on the progress of the Queensland University of Technology in Australia, where research is taught as part of advertising content. The structure of the advertising units and the relationship between the integrated material and the learning and assessment outcomes is explored. The integrated content is compared with the material in a stand-alone research unit that students otherwise would have taken in their advertising program in Australia. In addition, the learning outcomes are compared with Burge's Model of Student Skill Development. A research agenda is established to track the research proficiency of students undertaking the program of integrated advertising research.

Although the concept of integrating content such as communication or ethics across the curriculum is not new, and is even supported by AACSB guidelines, it has not been previously applied to advertising. Integrating research into advertising curriculum demonstrates the value of research, how it is applied in advertising decision-making and offers many real-world applications for assessment. In addition, it allows the teaching of research to draw from a variety of learning strategies that align with the student skills development throughout university.

INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE

Most advertising programs, globally, include a research unit. This unit is often common to all students studying in the business, arts or journalism facilities and does not consider the special needs of advertising research. It is not connected with the advertising process or even advertising management decisions. It teaches the theory and mechanics of research, but not the application.

This division between the need for research and its application to advertising practice appears to carry over into the workplace. Radford and Goldstein (2002) suggest, "While research is acknowledged by practitioners, they have not found a way to integrate the value of research methods into the day-to-day practice of corporate communications."

This paper questions whether the teaching of research should have a more practical orientation and be more strongly linked to the discipline it services. Is there a better way to teach research by integrating it into the students' first experiences with the areas of advertising practice?

To answer this question, this paper examines how value may be added to the teaching of research by integrating it in advertising content. Although the concept of integrating content such as communication or ethics across the curriculum is not new, and is even supported by AACSB guidelines, it has not been previously applied to advertising research. Perhaps research is an ideal subject for integration as advertising research is more specialized than marketing research and has important and unique applications in all areas of the advertising business.

While theme-based units that adopt a multi-disciplinary approach have replaced stand-alone units in some US universities, integration is less practiced in Australia. Indeed, the advertising program is the School of Advertising, Marketing and Public Relations at the Queensland University of Technology is the only one in Australia to integrate research into advertising curriculum. This paper reports on its progress by exploring the structure of the advertising units and the relationship between the integrated material and the learning and assessment outcomes. It compares the integrated content with the material in a stand-alone research unit that students otherwise would have taken in their advertising program in Australia. A research agenda is established to track the research proficiency of students undertaking the program of integrated advertising research.

STAKEHOLDER'S NEEDS AND THE TEACHING OF RESEARCH

Marketing research courses have received criticism for their inability to adapt to changes in the educational context and in the marketplace (Bobbitt, Inks, Kemp and Mayo 2000, Benbunan-Fich, Lozada, Pirog, Priluck and Wisenblit 2001, McCorkle, Alexander and Reardon 2001, Beall and Hussain

2003). Technology has reshaped the way we do marketing and interact with our consumers. Students have also changed, with traditional school leavers no longer the main entrant into university programs.

Beall and Hussain (2003, p. 61) note, "The changes that have swept the academic and technological worlds towards the close of the last millennium imply that educators need to tailor their courses in ways that are directly relevant to real business world situation."

This paper assesses the needs of both these stakeholder groups – students and employers – in relation to advertising research. To first consider what students need from an advertising research unit, it is important to understand how students learn. McMorland (1990 in Burge 1996) suggests that students undertake six stages of skills development, from aspirant to retirement. The first three, aspirant, student and novice, relate to career formation, while the last three span career fulfilment. Burge relates this to the King Wood and Mines Learning Hierarchy to develop the skills based student development model, presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
THE SKILLS BASED STUDENT DEVELOPMENT MODEL

	Vocational skills	Generic skills	Professional Identity	Learning
Stage 3/ Year 3	Business meetings, briefings, presentations. Analysing client needs. Organizational politics and representing an organisation. Creation of databases and development of recommendations for client use. Full literacy in word, presentation and statistical programs.	Creativity. Putting ideas in practice. Knowing what you don't know. Self-evaluation. Critical thinking. Prioritising projects. Tying theory to real work problems. Discovery by self. Written and oral presentations to clients and industry. Learning to listen to verbal briefs. Leadership. Negotiation. Resolution of conflict. Motivate others.	Shift from idealism to realism. Questioning of other's expertise. Discriminate between useful and redundant knowledge. Belief in theory base even when value is not easily recognized in real life context.	Knowledge gained through assessment of conceptual soundness of claims. Problems may be ill-structured. Interpretations must be evaluated using conceptual soundness, degree of fit with data and parsimony.
Stage 2/ Year 2	Managing project activities under supervision. Cooperating with group members in a project and presenting to peers. Use of specific industry software and databases.	Prioritising tasks. Peer evaluation. Learning from experience. Directed discovery. Written and oral communication. Teamwork. Cooperation. Allocation of tasks.	Non questioning of specialists. Understanding that things can go wrong. Initial superficial evaluation of members of industry.	Knowledge gained from evaluating evidence. Judgements may involve personal evaluation of data. Certain concepts aid decision makers in their evaluation.
Stage 1/Year 1	Personal Time Management. Communication competency. Computer competency.	Self-organisation. Learning to learn. Basics of report writing and business communication.	Decision on career path.	Knowledge gained through observation and through authority figure. Such knowledge is assumed to be correct and certain.

The implications of this for our advertising research unit is that students develop different skills and use different learning styles through their three years at university. A student entering first year university has a very different skill set to the one about to graduate and analyses information and learns in a different way.

Often the dilemma with a stand-alone unit is where to place it in the university program in order to maximize the benefit. Introduce it too early and students' thinking and evaluation skills may not be sufficiently developed. Introduce it too late and the research needs of the earlier units in the program will not be supported and they will have to include a component of research anyway. An integrated unit, however, can match the research content with the style of learning, beginning with basic secondary research skills before advancing to more analytical thinking and problem solving.

Another important stakeholder group to consider is employers. A study of employer expectations of QUT research graduates in the field of business identified five core capabilities of graduates as communication skills, breadth of knowledge across the discipline, analytical thinking, quality of research skills and practical application of theory. (Bull and Waldersee 1999). In another study (Kerr and Moran 2000), employers of advertising graduates listed research as an important generic skill they looked for in a graduate. This research ability involved analytical thinking, problem solving, interpreting skills and thinking across disciplinary paradigms.

Stern and Tseng (2002) compared the priorities of academics and practitioners on market research education. They found that practitioners felt that case study, topical exercises and simulated marking research projects were the most necessary methods, while academics nominated topical exercises, lectures and real marketing research exercises. The five topics that academics would like to see included in a research course are questionnaire design, data analysis and interpretation for descriptive methods, the research process, sampling and quantitative data collection methods. The practitioners favoured a more applied approach nominating communicating and reporting research, research ethics, the research process, quantitative data collection methods and information usage.

Beall and Hussain (2003) supported this by recommending a real-world, client-based research project as the most effective technique to teach market research. "For students to better understand the business environment, everything that is said inside a classroom or use has to be related to the business" (Beall and Hussain 2003). The research unit should be practical or applied. Perhaps even integrated.

THE CASE FOR INTEGRATION

Integration offers many potential advantages. The first and perhaps the strongest point in favour of integration is that research can be applied to the specific advertising content. For example, concept testing can be examined as part of the advertising copywriting course.

Secondly, the research content can introduce the unique aspects of advertising research that are not addressed in a typical marketing research unit. Areas such as media class, vehicles and audience research can be examined in detail and in context in a media planning unit. The other benefit is that integration removes the need for a stand alone unit and allows an educator to include more advertising subjects in the major.

One potential disadvantage of integration is the possible inconsistencies in research instruction and expertise across the different units in the advertising program. Faculty may not feel qualified to teach or assess research and resent surrendering advertising content to research. In addition, the distribution of the research content across the different units may be unclear. If students do not take these units in the correct order, then they will miss the sequential building of the research skills (Young and Murphy 2003).

The alternative, the stand-alone marketing research unit, allows a singular focus on research. Often taught by research specialists, the research focus does not compete for class time against advertising content (Young and Murphy 2003).

Weighed against this is the danger that students may treat the research unit, with its often unpopular statistical orientation, as a one-off hurdle in their advertising education. They may not see how it links with the other advertising units and contributes to the advertising process. In addition, faculty may hold the stand-alone unit solely responsible for the instruction of research and make no attempt to apply research skills in their unit.

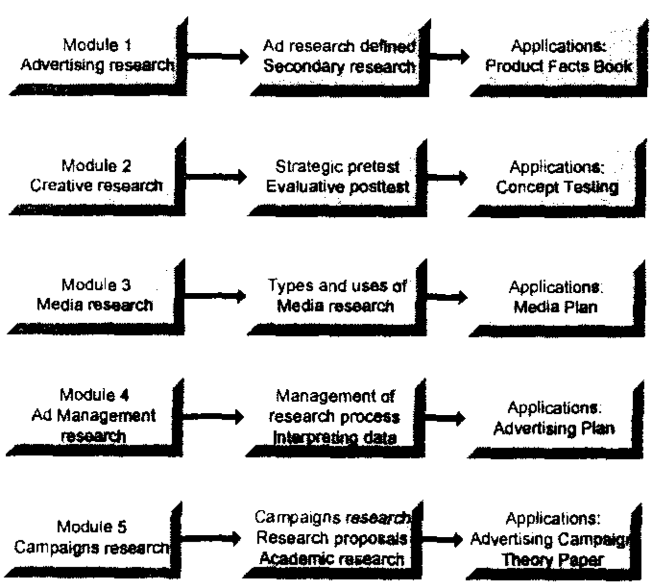
The dilemma, to integrate or stand alone, is similar to that faced by marketing educators trying to satisfy employer needs and AACSB requirements and include communication or technology into the marketing program. As Young and Murphy (2003, p.57) note, "How can the marketing curriculum effectively and efficiently provide these skills without the reduction of content knowledge?". The answer in many cases is to integrate. This is supported by AACSB International (2002) standards which state, "curriculum goals may be course specific, or they may be spread throughout the curriculum".

THE PROCESS

The process of embedding research into the advertising curriculum at QUT began with an examination of the current practice. A stand alone, school-based unit in research serviced the three disciplinary areas of marketing, public relations and advertising. An audit was undertaken on this unit to reveal the content, assessment and teaching and learning methods. This identified a number of shortfalls in the unit specifically related to advertising research. An effort was made to then connect research to the needs of advertising through the content studied and the types of assessment practiced.

Figure 1 introduces the five advertising units in the advertising major at QUT. It shows the kinds of research that is addressed in each unit and also the applications of this research in terms of assessable items.

FIGURE 1
INTEGRATING ADVERTISING RESEARCH INTO ADVERTISING CURRICULUM: STRUCTURE, CONTENT AND APPLICATION



Once the structure and content of the new embedded research unit had been developed, it was compared with the existing school based research unit from which it had been developed.

Apart from their structure, the two units differ in content and assessment. The integrated research unit has a singular focus on advertising research and covers many areas of advertising research not found in the marketing research unit. In addition, the emphasis in the stand-alone unit is on marketing research, especially surveys, questionnaire design and statistics. While surveys are presented as an important method of advertising research, they are not given particular prominence across the thirteen weeks of content. In addition, statistics are taught in the stand-alone unit as an important skill to be mastered. In the advertising unit, they are introduced and explained, but students are not required to be proficient with a statistical package such as SPSS. The emphasis is on making advertising decisions based on an understanding and interpretation of statistics.

The other major point of difference is in terms of assessment. The assessment in the stand-alone unit is through exams and tutorial exercises. While this tests students' knowledge of research, it does not test application. In the embedded unit, the assessment tasks are applied to the content area of the unit. For example, in the media unit, students are required to undertake media research to develop a media plan. In the advertising management unit, they draw on their secondary and primary research skills to formulate an advertising plan. They also visit and critically analyse advertising and research sites as part of their online tutorials.

TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF ASSESSMENT IN STAND-ALONE UNIT AND EMBEDDED UNIT

Stand alone unit	Embedded unit
Mid semester exam 40%	Product Facts Book demonstrating secondary research
Tutorial exercises 20%	Creative concept testing as part of copywriting campaign
Final exam 40%	Media research in media plan
	Advertising Plan
	Internet research online tutorial exercises
	Campaigns research incorporating problem identification, target market identification, concept development and testing, media research and campaign evaluation
	Theory Paper

EVALUATION OF THE INTEGRATED RESEARCH UNIT

As the integrated unit was only phased in during 2002 and 2003, it is too early to evaluate its impact on the research skills of undergraduate advertising majors. However a number of evaluative measures are in place.

1. Informal evaluation – feedback from students taking the units.
2. Evaluation of research skills in capstone advertising unit.
3. Evaluation against theoretical models

The informal feedback confirms the theory expressed earlier in the literature that students see a stand-alone unit as a one-off hardship that has to be endured as part of their advertising program. Their preference is to study research as it is applied in the different areas of advertising, as in the integrated unit. They like the practical orientation of the research and can see its usefulness in the advertising decision-making process. Another informal observation is the view of the writer that the quality of the research skills has already improved in final year advertising majors.

In terms of more formal evaluation, following discussion with advertising lecturers in the program, it was felt that the most effective way to evaluate the program was to measure its cumulative effect. This is best done in the capstone advertising unit, advertising campaigns, where students incorporate all areas of research studied, from secondary research to problem identification to target market identification to concept testing, media research and campaign evaluation. By the time they reach this unit, they have undertaken all research components. If their understanding of research is strong, it should be exemplified by good research in this unit.

Historically, the research has been the weakest part of the campaigns unit, with research findings often generalised from a focus group or two. A record of the research skills of advertising students over the past decade is contained in a library of advertising campaigns students project documents. These can be evaluated against the same project completed by students who have learned research through the integrated unit. However, these students will not complete their advertising program until the end of 2004.

Another way to evaluate the integrated unit is to compare the learning outcomes with Burge's Model of Student Skill Development presented earlier.

The content of the integrated unit develops with the skill level of the student. In the first year advertising unit, the student is introduced to the concept of marketing research, advertising research and secondary research skills are developed. This is in line with Burge's model, which suggests that learning is gained through observation and authority figures.

TABLE 3
COMPARISON OF THE TEACHING OF ADVERTISING RESEARCH AND BURGE'S MODEL

Dimensions of vocational, generic skills, professional identity and learning	Embedded Research Unit	Stand Alone Unit
Stage 1 – Self organisation, time management, communication competence. Knowledge gained thru observation and authority figures.	Introduction to marketing research and advertising research. Secondary research skills	
Stage 2 – Teamwork, project work, prioritising tasks. Knowledge gained from evaluating evidence.	Media class, vehicle and audience research. Creative testing, strategic copy research, concept testing, copy evaluation.	Marketing research, advertising research, research process, research methods, data analysis, interpretation, reporting.
Stage 3 – Presentations, critical thinking. Tying theory to real work problems. Shift from idealism to realism. Knowledge gained through assessment of conceptual soundness of claims.	Advertising management research – using research to make advertising decisions, case analysis. Advertising campaigns research - research design, research proposals, academic research, ethics.	

By the second year at university, knowledge is gained from evaluation. Students learn research by evaluating media research data or by testing alternative creative concepts. By third year, students are demonstrating higher level thinking skills and applying theory to real world problems. In the integrated unit, students use the case approach to solve real advertising problems. They work in teams to plan, conduct and interpret advertising research across every aspects of the campaign process from problem identification to campaign evaluation.

Students use different types of research at different stages in their university program. Beginning with basic secondary research, students develop more evaluative and analytical skills in research through to higher-level secondary research and the application of research to advertising problems. This supports Burge's model, as well as the case for integrating the research unit in the advertising content.

CONCLUSION

This paper presents an alternative to the stand-alone marketing research unit taught in advertising courses. Integrating research into advertising curriculum demonstrates the value of research, how it is applied in advertising decision-making and offers many real-world applications for assessment. In addition, it allows the teaching of research to draw from a variety of learning strategies that align with the student skills development throughout university. While initial evaluation is positive, it is too early to determine whether integrating research will improve the research skills of undergraduate advertising students.

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THE 'OTHER HALF OF MARKETING', REDUX

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ABSTRACT

Almost 50 years ago, Professor Converse called for the re-integration of distribution activities into the domain of marketing. Despite repeated urgings of the past five decades, the chasm between the physical and behavioral aspects of marketing continues to widen. This manuscript provides a review of the literature in the years following Professor Converse's landmark speech, explores the past and present treatment of physical distribution and logistics activities in the publications, conferences, and classrooms of marketing, and once again calls for re-integration.

In 1954 Paul D. Converse delivered a speech entitled "The Other Half of Marketing" to an audience primarily interested in the distribution of products (Converse 1954). In his speech, Converse pointed out that at its most elementary level, marketing involved only two groups of activities. The first group involved those that were promotional in nature and included such things as buying, selling, creating desires and the demand for goods, and the transfer of the title to goods when they were sold. The second group was those that were distributive in nature and included such things as the physical handling of goods, the storage of the goods as necessary, and the transporting of goods. Professor Converse reported that marketing academics and practitioners had paid a great deal more attention to promotion activities than they had to distribution activities during the first 50 years of marketing's existence.

The Converse speech was important for at least two reasons. First, it pointed out that 50 years after the domain of marketing had been defined, the development of knowledge had not advanced evenly across the discipline. In the area of distribution functions, the contributions made by marketers had been extremely limited. Second, the speech might be identified as the specific point in time during which a group of activities devoted to demand satisfaction began to emerge as a new, independent discipline (Drucker 1962; Bartels 1962; Bowersox 1969; Jones 1977; Lambert and Cook 1983). Now, almost 50 years since Professor Converse's speech, the schism between the demand creation and the demand satisfaction activities of marketing appears to be even more pronounced.

Despite their best efforts, these authors have apparently failed to rekindle the interest of mainstream marketing scholars in "The Other Half of Marketing." One need only scour the marketing discipline's primary journals, conferences, and textbooks to realize how neglected the topic continues to be.

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SINGLE INSTANCES AND DECISION-MAKING: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING INTERNATIONAL MARKETING

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ABSTRACT

An increasing body of evidence suggests that decision-makers rely too much on single exemplars from the past. The field of international marketing also relies too heavily on single instances as examples and that may sometimes lead to incorrect conclusion This paper introduces and reviews research that points out the perils of relying on single exemplars, and specifically questions the use of the European Union as a model of successful economic integration for other regions, that may have *dissimilar* historical, political, and economic considerations. It is proposed that there may be a need for developing different models for other regions of the world. This also has implications for designing the instruction of international marketing courses as well as other courses

CONCLUSION

Research from other areas suggests that over-reliance on a single exemplar may be misleading, even in international marketing. If decision-makers use a single exemplar as a *base* and try to make predictions about other *targets* that may not be similar in important ways, there is the risk of incorrect predictions. Further, this influence can occur at a nonconscious level, introducing biases without our even realizing it. The E.U has been outstandingly successful in reducing barriers between countries and bringing them together. Yet, the E.U. model may not be applicable elsewhere since the West European geo-political-economic situation was fairly unique.

This is not to say that economic and political cooperation in other regions is not possible. Just that other regions may have to develop their own models of cooperation. This is also not to say regionalization is not happening – many corporations have already been practicing it in their own way (e.g., Sazanami, 1997) – but that different models need to be developed for that process to develop effectively. International marketing courses will be better off if they take this into account in term of their course development as well as delivery.

Developing Students Skills of Critical Thinking, Communication and Creativity: Project based Pedagogical Examples

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The mission of the Marketing Educators' Association is to help its members become more effective teachers of marketing theory and practice. It has always been a proud tradition of the MEA Conference to present a forum where teaching tips and creative activities are shared and discussed. In keeping with that spirit, this panel presents papers on a number of activities that can be used by other instructors to facilitate the critical thinking, communication and creativity skills of their marketing students. The activities have been tested in a variety of marketing classes from buyer behavior to marketing strategy and are guaranteed to be effective and engaging.

In "An Experiential Project For Buyer Behavior and Advertising," Dr. Dolores Barsellotti describes a project she uses to teach the undergraduate Consumer/Buyer Behavior course. This course is challenging because students have not readily linked the prerequisite courses into the field of marketing.

Students are provided with five categories and he/she should find two ads that are examples of each category. One of the categories is "open", that is, the student may design his/her own category and find two ads that exemplify it (a creative component).

The project requires a series of items that must be analyzed and explained. By the time all ten are completed, some of the analysis process has become internalized (many students seem to feel that they have an entirely different outlook when viewing ads after doing this project).

Each of the eleven items that the students analyze, are concepts that are being studied in the course, such as, perception, learning, involvement, family decision-making and target market analysis. The project may also be used in other courses such as a basic advertising or promotion course.

In "Self-Generated Case Studies," Dr. Susan Peters puts a novel twist on the use of cases, especially for graduate students. One of the ways to make courses real is to use case studies, particularly for upper level and graduate courses. This method, however, has several drawbacks. First is finding cases that are meaningful to students. Cases that appeal to someone in the aeronautical industry may leave a hospital administrator yawning. Additionally, most students do not have the time to adequately get up to speed on the ten to twelve different industries that might be covered in the course of a semester/quarter. Then, when cases are assigned to groups, it usually means that the group assigned does reasonable preparation, but often the other groups are less prepared as they know they will be taking a less starring role.

The method proposed here works around some of these issues. First, the students are assigned to do an audit of their company because this is an industry in which they know more than the typical outsider and one in which they are able to access some of the "soft" issues–i.e., personalities, corporate cultures, group dynamics, etc. Then, students come up with a situation or problem to be resolved, which may be an actual problem that has occurred in the past or an area of potential future concern. From the data they have gathered, they put together a case study–the background information they believe is necessary to solve the problem as well as the situation as it stands. They are urged to put it into acceptable case format (e.g.,WACRA,NACRA, HBS, etc.).

Their completed case is then given to another student – a consultant – who is tasked with resolving the case. Along with the more typical background research, the consultant is able to schedule an "interview" with his/her "client" in order to gather additional information. A written solution is given to both the instructor and the "client" student. In addition to giving the student a chance to practice the skills in a particular class, they are also able to work on communication skills, consulting skills, problem solving skills and critical thinking.

Dr. Debbora Whitson takes a different tact in her "Weapons of Persuasion." In a consumer behavior class students are exposed to the various techniques marketers employ to persuade buying behavior. Market segmentation is investigated by having students bring in their favorite brand of toothpaste. Students are instructed to analyze (1) the objective and symbolic attributes of each brand and (2) the consumer needs and benefits that are being targeted by the marketer. Per their analyses the brands represented are then placed on a product positioning perceptual map. This exercise enables an instructor to cover several behavioral techniques (i.e., weapons): segmentation, manipulation of product attributes, mapping strategies and product development.

The Color of Taste is an exercise used to examine the effects of perception on brand preferences. By performing blind taste testing of products, this exercise provides the perfect opportunity to demonstrate the influence of intrinsic and extrinsic cues on consumption behavior.

The influence of family values is explored by having students complete an exercise entitled *I Spy in the Grocery Store.* This exercise requires students to watch and record shopping behavior. Their findings are examined to determine what if any family, cultural and religious practices influenced consumption behavior.

In a multi-culture, multi-ethnic class, students do not seem to have a strong grasp of American history or American culture. Thus, in "Teaching American Students about American Cultural Values," Dr. Juanita Roxas describes her project that ties in the evolution of American cultural values to American historical events. Changes in values are reflected in virtually all aspects of the culture.

Students form groups of three or four. Each group then chooses and item from a modified list of cultural universals. They take this and do research on changes in American values over the last century, i.e., 1900-2000. Each group must examine every decade of the century to find examples that illustrate changes in cultural values. For example, if the group chose music, they must find one example per decade of a song that illustrates changes in cultural values that occurred during the decade. Other choices include, dance, superheroes, food, dining, dress, etc. Each group writes a report and makes a presentation at the end of the quarter.

Groups have done a range of presentations from PowerPoint slides to films to skits and acting out scenarios and combinations of these. By the end of the quarter, all students know who Woodrow Wilson was because he was president at the start of the century. They are also familiar with historical events like the Great Depression, WW I and II, etc., as well as significant social events that have come up, events of national jubilation and tragedy. Students exhibit a deeper appreciation of their own rich culture.

As a change of pace from Buyer Behavior projects, Dr. Helena Czepiec presents "The 'Big Idea' Promotion Contest: Putting Punch into the Marketing Strategy Capstone Course." Teaching the marketing strategy capstone course can be daunting because instructors are expected to help students achieve a number of lofty goals. These include helping students learn: 1, to become more effective problem solvers; 2, to apply a variety of analytical tools to make and justify sound business decisions; 3, to think strategically; 4, to develop creative solutions; and 5, to develop written and oral communication skills.

The traditional case approach has many things to recommend it. However, it may not necessarily be the best way to improve students' ability to think creatively or help them implement their solutions. This paper presents an activity which is designed to achieve these twin goals while at the same time energizing the class.

The technique is the "Big Idea" Promotion Contest. Students are given two weeks or less to provide a strategic direction for the company and a method for implementing it. They must brainstorm ways to increase sales of the product; develop a mini- promotional plan; and execute it in one of many ways, including a television or radio commercial, print ad, internet website. They must perform the creative solution. Possible products range from donuts to green ketchup. Cases may be ripped from the headlines or from ones that have been covered in the term. Prizes are awarded for performance in a number of categories, including most ideas and most creative presentation. Sometimes outside evaluators are invited to judge the competitive team performances. The class presentations are a lot of fun and the students surprise even themselves with how creative they are.

And finally, in "Statistical Inference: Marketing Friendly Applications," A. Andrew Truong presents his project in the Marketing Analysis and Control class. Students come to class with a rather muffled view of finance and statistics; some may not even have had the opportunity to take upper division courses in these subjects. As such, most have chosen marketing with the idea that courses in these areas of emphases are light.

From the start of the quarter, students are infused with statistical methods via the use of Excel to balance theory and application. Financial management and analysis are integral components from the first week of class with specific concentration on performance ratios. The intent of this project is to integrate all facets of statistics, finance and control and analysis covered in the 9-week duration. Each individual requirement of the project represents a module of topic covered during the quarter. Student groups are required to assess, collect, hypothesize, calculate and interpret all data relevant to the project. Students then present their findings and submit a written report.

INSTRUCTORS AND STUDENTS IN THE EVALUATION PROCESS: ARE EXPERTS BETTER THAN NOVICES?

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ABSTRACT

Universities use diverse informants to evaluate teaching effectiveness and student learning. Professors evaluate students before and/or after instruction. Students evaluate their instructors, and also may evaluate other students (student peer evaluation). Finally, instructors evaluate other instructors (faculty peer evaluation). This Special Session discusses the multidimensional construct of teaching and the process of measuring learning and teaching effectiveness. We consider the implications of using faculty (expert) versus student (novice) evaluations, and the contexts within which they are most appropriate.

STUDENT EVALUATION OF INSTRUCTORS

Most marketing departments use end-of-term student evaluations of teaching (SET) to assess instructor effectiveness. These allow instructors to gain a clearer idea of their strengths and weaknesses in the classroom from the point of view of students, and they provide input so department chairs can better match instructors with attributes important for each course.

Unfortunately, the use of SET sometimes leads instructors to feel pressured to please students, even at the expense of learning outcomes. Previous research has explored the relationship between student learning and student evaluations of teaching (Feldman 1989). One of the most important questions about SET measures is their construct validity, the degree to which they measure what they purport to measure. To answer this question, researchers have compared SET ratings to objective measures of student knowledge (embedded assessments) to examine whether the measures are positively correlated.

The utility that students gain from a course should be a direct function of instructor teaching effectiveness. However, prior research shows the concept of teaching to be multidimensional and calls for instructors to be evaluated across a variety of dimensions (Marsh 1991). Exactly what those dimensions are is subject to controversy. For instance, Feldman (1989) identified 28 dimensions whereas Marsh (1991) found a nine-factor structure. Some argue that the attributes of good teaching will also vary across courses, instructors, and genders. Feldman (1989) found generally high correlations between student and faculty evaluations of teaching, but significant differences between the weights placed on the various dimensions.

INSTRUCTOR AND STUDENT EVALUATION OF STUDENTS

The education literature is replete with research on instructor evaluation of student performance. Ideally, instructors have set goals or objectives for their courses and then evaluate students to determine if those have been met. Since instructors are experts in their fields, most believe they are most qualified to evaluate student performance. Instructors use objective methods of evaluation such as exams, papers, and projects as well as more subjective methods such as class participation.

An alternative source of student evaluation is by student peers. Students clearly are not experts in the subject area, so can they provide valid evaluation of another student's performance? Some literature suggests that they can. A link has been found between peer evaluation and student satisfaction with projects that require teamwork (Pfaff and Huddleston 2003). In the workplace, team evaluation may increase sharing of the workload, performance, and satisfaction (Eretz et al. 2002). Students can provide a backup source of evaluation for more subjective aspects of a course such as class participation (Lord and Melvin 1994).

On the other hand, the validity of student peer evaluations has been questioned. Student peer evaluations may be biased by the popularity of students and even by race and gender effects (Ghorpade and Lackritz 2001). This Special Session looks at the effectiveness of student peer evaluation. How accurate are student peer evaluations in comparison to instructor evaluations? Is one or the other most appropriate depending on the context?

INSTRUCTOR EVALUATION OF INSTRUCTORS

Finally, faculty peer evaluation is part of a larger trend toward more systematic assessment of faculty teaching effectiveness. Faculty peer evaluation plays an increasingly important role both in retention/tenure/promotion decisions, and in the context of faculty development and mentoring programs. Many academics contend that certain aspects of teaching are best assessed by other faculty members. However, skepticism exists, largely because instructors believe that what constitutes good teaching is subjective and personally defined. In this Special Session, we describe the variety of formats and procedures used by various colleges and universities, and discuss research examining exemplar faculty peer evaluation programs (e.g., Osborne 1998;Yon et al. 2002).

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THE VALUE OF COMPANY SUPPORTED INTERNSHIPS IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

A survey on learning was conducted of participants in the General Motors Marketing Internship class. Teamwork and relationships were cited by 30% of the respondents. Several instances of improved job opportunities because of the GM Internship were noted as evidence that this program can make a difference to students when they search for their first jobs. The benefits of this program are not easy to quantify, but are qualitatively reported.

INTRODUCTION

Internship programs, both those supported by outside corporations and those obtained by individual students, provide value to employers because they give the interns experience in some of the "real-life" skills that employers find lacking in new-hires. This project reports on a General Motors initiated project, its elements and results with regard to student learning and the enhancement of job possibilities.

Edventure Partners, a college and high school marketing agency based in Berkeley, created the General Motors Marketing Internship. For a fee of between \$12,500 and \$17,500, Edventure Partners acts as the liaison between the sponsoring dealer and the class. The buzz created by student word-of-mouth can be considerable and companies such as General Motors feel that these programs are good investments. Although some critics find the General Motors program a way to circumvent rules against corporate advertising on campus, professors view the classes as hands-on experience that brings the classroom into the real world (Daniels 2000). The program offers business experience in the following areas:

*Project management *Market research
*Advertising/PR *Event production
*Business presentations *Business writing
*Budget management *Teamwork/conflict resolution

The classes start with an introduction to the participating dealer, and establishment of objectives. They are told that their class will:
1)Create a marketing agency, including name and logo; 2)Plan and implement a promotional campaign featuring GM vehicles; 3)Develop a comprehensive plans book.; 4)Manage a \$2500 budget;5)Make a formal agency-style presentation to GM executives and their client dealership.

The students divide into teams to carry through the responsibilities of the promotion. By creating attention-getting events, the students engage in the difficult business of evaluating the consumer behavior they have studied in class. Often they conduct research for the dealer, such as attitudes about the specific cars the dealership markets or their customer service record. The expectation by General Motors is that the students will become life-long product ambassadors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Many industries are reporting the growing importance of internships in their recruiting and hiring process (Knemeyer and Murphy, 2002). This project covered two areas where internships are important to the evolving nature of business today: teamwork and critical thinking skills. Both are mentioned when interviewing employers who recruit on college campuses, and they are mentioned as areas of discontent once the graduates are performing their new roles in their chosen jobs. Some employers continue to feel that graduates are not properly prepared for their jobs (Gardner, P.D. and W.Y. Liu 1997; Neumann and Banghart, 2001). In addition, projects such as this offer the chance to "practice" in the "real" world, in a situation where there is less risk and where they can be monitored. Internships are one of the best ways to connect academic material with what happens in the world of commerce (Linthicum, 2002). There may be an increase in confidence and less anxiety when areas they will face in their careers are made available to them while they are still in school (Knouse et al, 1999). When interviewing employers, the weight put on a student's internship experiences is increasing (Dietz 2002). Internships are also one of the best ways to explore and experiment with career decisions (Daughterty, 2002; Henry, 2002). "The National Association of Colleges and Employers suggests that internships are the most effective method of recruitment among companies hiring college graduates."(Sullivan 2003) Given the increasing costs to hire and retain employees in every kind of labor market, the skills learned during the kind of program discussed here can have long-term effects and benefits for future employers. Research shows that, of students who have landed a job by graduation, more of them have participated in internships than those who have not (Knause, et al, 1999).

Teamwork

The growing use of teams has been well documented. But, how do we in educational institutions teach that teamwork? One way is through group internships such as the General Motors program, where a group of up to 20 students plans and implements a promotion for a General Motors dealer over a semester of 15 weeks. They accept the challenge of "a lot of group work and compromise." (Slater 2003) They accept the acknowledgement that accountability is important. When Donald Kennedy, the former president of Stanford, wrote, "Why, employers are asking, are we being sent young men and women who know how to compete but find it difficult to harmonize their efforts with each other?" (1997, p.275), he was referring to the need to prepare students for the flattened hierarchical world of today's business world. In addition, Kennedy recognizes, as many of use who have taught these courses do, that "frequently, the most important lesson of a group project is only loosely connected to its primary academic purpose: students have to deal with the skilled colleague who has a difficult personality, or solve the "free rider" problem" (p.276). Research has documented that hiring firms value work experience and leadership experience more than students do (Siebert et al 2002), so this project can really provide a lot of benefit for the investment.

When the job market is difficult, as it has been recently, the more related experience a student brings to prospective employer, the better. Beverly Madden, director of career services for Iowa State University in Ames, Iowa, says that an internship is "training, and it's an absolute stepping stone to a job." (2003). Although un-paid internships are not very popular with new grads, she points out that an internship can be a key opener when a paid job comes along.

The benefits of promoting a team experiment on a college campus can have benefits for all sides (Daniels 2000). Corporate marketers need an entrée into the minds of their future consumers, just as McDonald's did in the 1950's, when they targeted the children who are now making the country's marketing decisions. General Motors has a particularly challenging job, because the students in this program tend to be the children of the baby boomers who flocked to Japanese cars during the 1970's because Detroit did not meet their needs. GM has a whole generation to work on, and this program does that 15 or 20 at a time. There is little literature available to quantify the benefit of this program in financial returns, but the idea of "viral marketing," which has been used successful by many consumer products companies to spread word about their product through a network of young people, does lend some credence to the idea.

Dr. Jennifer James has published a number of books with an eye on changes in society. She writes, "Companies...rely largely on self-managing groups of workers." (1996, p.75) [i] The flattening of hierarchical organizations necessarily requires the reliance of teams and self-management. Internships can be beneficial in teaching people the impact of their actions on others in their company, and how to relate to the team on which they will undoubtedly be placed (Chronicle of Higher Education, 2001).

Critical thinking skills

In many of the liberal arts classes taught at colleges and universities, the critical thinking skills being developed are expected to become more important to the workforce as graduates are expected to integrate learning from several areas (Chew and McInnis-Bowers 1996). In a study done with the National Association of Colleges and Employers in 2002, critical thinking skills were among the most mentioned areas where the employers felt students were less prepared than necessary (Dietz 2002). With the flattening of hierarchies within organizations, non-supervisory employees need to pick up skills once expected only of managers and supervisors, skills that require a broad set of general and problem solving skills (Rao 1999). Their ability to engage in critical thinking about the future of business may very well make the difference in terms of what opportunities come their way (Ackerman et al, 2003). Internships allow students to hone their skills in understanding the theory they have learned in the classroom, communicating with fellow workers, and practicing the professionalism that will undoubtedly be expected of them in the workforce (Daughterty 2002). Regardless of the specific career aspirations of internship participants, every occupation has ties to the business world in some way (Shure 2001). Of course, not all internships are paid, and more and more budget cuts are impinging on this learning experience. Even so, students are often told that the best places to learn may be the same places that do not have the resources to pay them (Whalen and Barnes 2001). With the program reviewed in this project, the students at least have the funds to create a real-life promotion as well as gain academic credit, which does not take away from their ability to hold down a paying job outside of school.

Developing critical thinking strategies in the classroom, of course, can only go so far. The strategies and skills needed for jobs such as pharmaceutical sales are a major benefit to students such as those at the College of St. Catherine, where an internship partnership with Pfizer helps students taste what a career with Pfizer is like before they get out of school (Breitstein, 2001).

OBJECTIVES

1. To document skills learned in the eight years the program has been taught.
2. To support the investment that General Motors has made in this program.
3. To confirm that lasting skills are learned with this type of program in ways that cannot be duplicated in the traditional classroom.

This project sought to record long-term benefits of the program and to query past students on its effects.

METHODOLOGY

The General Motors Marketing Internship (GMMI) has been taught by this institution since the fall of 1995.The program has evolved into a formal 4-credit course that is part of the marketing concentration.

Starting in the spring of 2002, past and current participants in the GM Internship were surveyed on what skills they felt they gained in the program. (N=100).The survey was administered to past students via email (using Perseus survey software) and to current students in class. Questions asked were:

1. Did you learn any specific skills when you took the GM course?
2. In general, what did you learn during this experience?
3. How did it benefit you in your personal life?
4. How did it benefit you in your business life?
5. What would have made it a more worthwhile experience?
6. Other comments.

The results, treated with confidentiality, were entered into SPSSX and the qualitative comments were analyzed for consistent comments. In the interest of space, the responses a re not tabulated here, but the response was 31% of a total of 100 students surveyed. Question 1 asked a general question about skills learned in the program. Table 1 represents the answers:

TABLE 1

Question 1: Specific skills learned with GMMI

Skill mentioned	Frequency	Per cent
Teamwork	12	39%
Communication	7	22%
Planning,scheduling	7	22%
Working with a real client	7	22%
Conflict resolution	4	13%
Presentation skills	2	6%
Creating press kits	2	6%
Computer skills	2	6%

Only those who had the necessary assignments mastered skills such as Photoshop® by Adobe and SPSS, but others may have learned those skills as well. The large response that teamwork was learned supports the desire to document the contribution that this program makes toward learning teamwork skills.

Question 2 asked, "in general, what did you learn?" Table 2 represents the comments.

TABLE 2

"What did you learn?"

Comment:	#	%
Teamwork	9	29%
Business processes	6	19%
Business is 24/7	3	10%
A good promotion does not necessarily bring the people you expect.	3	10%
How to write ads	2	6%
Other: How much time and dedication it takes to create a promotion like this; each department is important; I want to work in promotion.		

A total of 68% answered the first two questions with the affirmation that they learned teamwork and how to work with people who have different personalities. This supports the literature on the need to master teamwork in the workplace.

Question 3, represented by Table 3, asked about personal benefits.

TABLE 3
Question 3: Personal benefits

Comment	#	%
Made friends	9	29%
Understanding different views	5	16%
Self-confidence, self-discipline	5	16%
Communication skills	4	13%
How a large group can come together and accomplish something this big.	3	10%
This is what I want to do in the future	3	10%
Real life experience	2	6%
Stress/ time management	1	3%

This project showed how closely business and personal lives are related in the minds of the participants. Table 4 discusses the benefit to their business life

TABLE 4
Question 4: How did the program benefit you in your business life?

Comment:	#	%
Addition to my resume	7	22%
Working with a group and making everything come together.	7	22%
Helped me to grow professionally. I was able to do things I did not know I could do.	7	22%
Experience	6	19%
Experience not covered in other classes	2	6%
Taught me about dead success is more than hard work.		

It was expected that many of the students would comment about the addition to their resume, but it was gratifying to see how some of these students were able to demonstrate skills in this project that were hidden in other class endeavors. As many educators do, I took a chance a couple of years ago and assigned the role of coordinator of the project to a marginal student in whom I saw great leadership potential. He rose to the challenge and oversaw a particularly successful promotion.

In terms of critical thinking skills and teamwork, the answers to these last questions clearly show the contribution the program makes toward putting to use these skills when working with a large client.

The last question, represented in Table 5, was for purposes of evaluation and changes in the future:

TABLE 5
Question 5: What would have made it more worthwhile?

Comment	#	%
If the dealer and the salespeople had been more involved with the class	6	19%
Better turnout at the event	6	19%
Small class	4	13%
If communication were better	2	6%
Nothing, it was all fun!!!	2	6%

This question elicited comments on some areas that are correctable, such as the number of students in the class and some that are affected by the external variables of the promotion. Working with a client whose main responsibility is to sell cars means that the client is not always available to students.

CONCLUSION AND FURTHER RESEARCH

This study has reinforced the expectations about the usefulness of experiential learning. In addition, the responses open a window into the ways the participants can grow as individuals.

The objectives of the project were:

1. To document some of the skills learned in the eight years the program has been taught.
   Teamwork skills, skills in conflict resolution, communication and planning skills were important
2. To support the investment that General Motors has made in this program.
   Only time will tell if the students who have participated in the program become loyal GM customers.
3. To confirm that lasting skills are learned with this type of program in ways that cannot be duplicated in the traditional classroom.
   Skills were learned that would not have been possible in a classroom.

Given these results, the plan is to continue to fine-tune the program based on the comments, and to work with other schools that offer this program to identify quantifiable results for the sponsoring organizations. Whatever happens, this experience is one that 100 of my students will never forget.

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INTEGRATING CAREER DEVELOPMENT SKILLS INTO THE MARKETING CURRICULUM

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ABSTRACT

The pace of transformation of the modern workplace has put an emphasis on today's graduates having interpersonal, listening, writing, speaking and etiquette skills (*HR Focus* 1999). Businesses are forgoing the expenditure of hundreds of thousands of dollars each year to teach soft skills such as assertiveness, empathy and leadership expecting college graduates to possess these skills as a condition of employment. In addition, business schools have been criticized for failing to adequately prepare graduates with important skills such as managing diverse workplaces, and teamwork and leadership skills (Eberhardt and Moser 1997; Hahs 1999).

Business and marketing programs across the U. S. have begun to respond to the call to develop students' skills. For example, the marketing faculty at Florida International University developed and implemented a course in how students can market themselves in a competitive marketplace (Taylor 2003). The purpose of this study is to examine the relative preparedness of today's marketing graduate for entry into the business world and assess the viability and content of a course that emphasizes the development of various managerial skills.

A systematic random sample of 500 marketing practitioners dispersed throughout the United States was selected from the 2002 AMA International Membership Directory. The overall response rate based on the number of surveys delivered was 35.7%.

A systematic random sample of 300 marketing educators dispersed throughout the United States was selected from Prentice Hall's Marketing Faculty Directory (Hasselback 2001). The overall response rate based on the number of surveys delivered was 39.3%.

A majority of the marketing practitioners (50.3%) indicated graduates today were better prepared and 29.9% indicated the preparation of graduates had stayed the same. Only 24.5% of the marketing educators indicated marketing graduates were better prepared today, while 50% indicated they were about the same.

When asked if they believed a course that taught essential managerial and career development skills should become a part of the marketing curriculum, a large number of practitioners (80.4%) indicated it should compared to 49.1% of the educators (χ^2 = 32.326; df = 2; p ≤ 0.000).

Practitioners noted the main problems with the course would be that it would overlap with existing courses and it would require more units to graduate. Educators felt the curriculum already has enough units and students do not have enough time to take given AACSB requirements, and that the course may not get approved because it may be viewed as nonacademic.

Marketing practitioners and educators supported the need to teach marketing graduates managerial and career development skills. Practically speaking it makes the most sense to provide marketing students with multiple exposures to the skills suggested in this study.

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CREATING CAREER OPPORTUNITIES: AN ASSESSMENT OF THE MARKETING HONORS NETWORKING PROGRAM

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ABSTRACT

Career networking offers many benefits such as lead generation, the development of interviewing and communication skills, and job attainment (Anonymous 2003). To capitalize on these benefits, the Honors Networking Program was created at California State University, Fullerton. It is a distinctive self-funding program that serves as a catalyst to build long-term relationships between the strongest performing marketing majors and over 24 Corporate Partners.

In this program, the top marketing students (G.P.A. 3.0 and higher) and corporate partners participate in two breakfasts a year. These meetings ensue as follows:

- The representatives from the Corporate Partners and the students register their attendance beginning at 7:00 AM.
- There are table cards for each of the Corporate Partners. Usually there are two companies per large round table where the partners will be joined by some of the students during the welcome, introductions, and opening comments.
- Those partners funding scholarships for the HNP students are given special recognition and thanked for their support.
- Each Corporate Partner is called upon to introduce their company and briefly outline the opportunities they currently have.
- The "networking" portion of the meeting begins where the students actually go to the tables hosted by the companies of most interest to them. Students can talk to as many Corporate Partners as time permits.
- During the "networking" activities, students are encouraged to leave each partner a resume.
- Follow-up interviews are arranged.

This program offers several benefits.

For students

- Opportunity to network with managers from some of the leading organizations in the Southern California market
- Enhance experience (and comfort level) in a professional yet informal social situation with corporate executives
- Opportunity to learn more about the demands and rewards of pursuing a professional career in marketing

For Corporate Partners

- Access to the top performing marketing majors with an opportunity to build relationships prior to graduation
- Enhance visibility on the CSUF campus as a Corporate Partner of the HNP
- Become a sponsor for scholarships
- Network with the other partners

For the Marketing Department

- Build stronger relationships with key employers of marketing graduates
- Acquire an understanding of the distinct requirements of top employers
- Enhance service to the highest performing marketing students

A recent quantitative assessment with students invited to the breakfast revealed that participating students are highly satisfied with the program. At the breakfast, students seek internships (65.3%), full-time employment (59.2%), networking opportunities (42.9%), and interviewing experience (38.8%). Following each event, 62% of students have further contact with the Corporate Partners. Recommendations focus on inviting more diverse Corporate Partners, encouraging more internships and marketing the program to students.

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A STRATEGIC AND THEORETICAL APPROACH TO EVALUATING MARKETING DISTANCE EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

While it is clear that distance education is here to stay, there is no consistent or solid theoretical foundation on which to build future research efforts. This paper summarizes some of the research that has occurred in distance education and examines its limitations. Clear groundwork is outlined that is based on education theory, strategic marketing guidelines, and the AACSB's initiatives that schools need to be mission driven. In addition, secondary data from two large universities is used to explore the constructs of student perceptions. This analysis is conducted as an example of the first of many steps that need to be taken in order to develop a comprehensive framework and to determine better ways to evaluate all of the stakeholders' interests in distance education.

CRITICAL ISSUES OF ONLINE LEARNING FACING MARKETING ADMINISTRATORS

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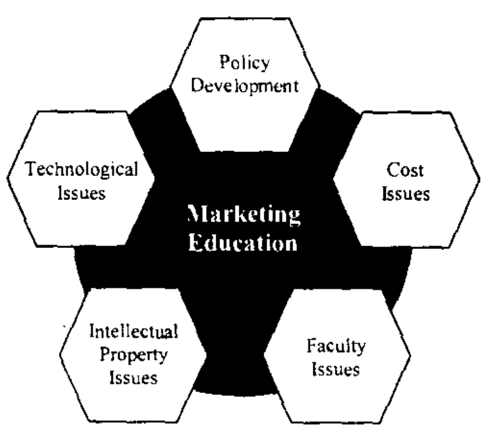
ABSTRACT

"The Marketing Educators' Association (MEA) is the premiere international organization for faculty development of the marketing professoriate. The organization's mission is to provide worldwide leadership in promoting the development and sharing of scholarship that enhances marketing education and advances marketing knowledge and practice." (www.marketingeducators.org, 2003). Indeed, the MEA facilitates discussion and debate, as well as disseminates research and information about those issues impacting marketing education. Leadership is a theme discussed often in the marketing academy. Many of our MEA members are recruited into leadership positions as department chairs and college deans to manage education. One area challenging the marketing or business education administrator is online learning. Distance education as a dynamic product and service has rapidly become part of the course offerings at many institutions. This paper presents five of the most critical issues facing marketing education leaders of online learning: 1) policy development, 2) cost issues, 3) faculty issues, 4) technological issues, and 5) intellectual property issues (See Figure 1).

FIGURE 1. Critical Issues Facing Teachers of Online Education



LEADERSHIP ISSUES CHALLENGING ADMINISTRATORS

Policy Development - Ability to Focus

The online learning environment in postsecondary education is indeed complicated to plan and manage. One of the 21 indispensable qualities of a leader as presented by Maxwell (1999) is the ability to focus. Developing policy for online learning challenges any leader's ability to focus on the overwhelming need for order within chaos. Although it would seem logical that policy development would be one of the first issues educators would explore, it is in reality one of the most often ignored until needed. Many faculty and departments diligently create online courses and offer them to students *before* creating or even understanding the policies that must be in place to support the electronic delivery of knowledge. Therein lies a quandary.

Policies provide a framework for operation; an agreed upon set of rules that explain to all participant their roles and responsibilities (Gellman-Danley & Fetzner, 1998). Without such a framework, the ultimate goal of teaching and learning may suffer as teachers struggle to defend old decisions and create new decisions based on failed methods.

The PAF model identifies for educators and administrators policy issues and particular activities within these issues that must be addressed in advance. The framework is a constructive and comprehensive means for thinking about and managing distance education programs and courses. The policy areas identify seven strategic management decision zones: academic, governance/administration/fiscal, faculty, legal, student support services, technical and cultural. An administrator could adopt the framework as a foundation for possible success in the initial offering of online courses or as a method to strategically plan for the growth of current online courses and programs. Developing a distance education policy presents a variety of issues and challenges. Most institutions need to examine a host of existing policies and revise as needed (American Council on Education, 2000).

The American Distance Education Consortium (2002) offers for creating policy the guiding principles for distance learning leaders. These guiding principles include challenging educators to design curriculum for the active and effective learner; supporting the non-curricular needs of the learners; developing and maintaining the technological and human support infrastructure; and sustaining administrative and organizational commitment. Many university and state systems have also created and promoted their own policy frameworks. For example, the Oregon University System has a draft version of *Distance Education Policy Guidelines 2001* available online at www.ous.edu/dist-learn/DEguidelines2001.htm.

As noted above, King et al. (2002) discuss areas or zones for strategic planning. The important leadership issues they explore fall within the policy framework – cost issues, faculty issues, technology issues, and copyright (legal) issues. It is important to note that policy creation and revision, although an umbrella which opens to cover at least seven other areas within online learning, is a leadership issue within itself. The next issue to be discussed is cost.

Cost - Putting an End to Unsolved Mysteries

Another of the 21 indispensable qualities of a leader as listed by Maxwell (1999) is discernment – putting an end to unsolved mysteries. One can easily affirm that the expense of creating, distributing and evaluating online learning is most certainly an unsolved mystery, even to those successfully offering distance education courses. Bishop (2002) states, "Competing priorities for educational dollars and increasingly limited fiscal resources require institutions to identify, project, and control the costs associated with online learning" (p. 1). Many administrators and educators may not fully understand the impact of the costs of online learning.

Rumble (2001) explores the notion that each stakeholder has a different perspective of what constitutes costs. For example, the faculty member will want to know how teaching an online course affects her salary and teaching load; a student will want to know if her tuition will be higher or lower; and a provost will want to know whether additional technology fees should be charged. Unfortunately, adding to the confusion is the lack of standardized categories for distance learning costing terminology. Many categorize costs differently and use different terminology – from fixed to unfixed expenses; up-front to recurrent; development costs; training costs; support costs; material costs; break-even points; capital costs; revenue costs; labor costs. Costs need to be categorized (Morgan, 2000) but more importantly, categories for expenses need to be standardized. We need to understand as well that costs may be apparent (e.g. procurement of a networking server) to those costs that are obscured (e.g. increase in network traffic due to on-line class activity).

A significant element in costing is to comprehend the system being "costed" so that expense elements are not overlooked. In short, all costs must be analyzed completely. McCormack (1996) summed it up nicely by saying, "...in an effort to be truly cost effective, any blueprint for the implementation of a distance learning program must include system designs that analyze the user's educational requirements, incorporates and builds on past experiences with distance learning, and considers the capabilities as well as the limitations of the technologies employed in the process." (p. 116). Costing is paramount if educational leaders are to make the right decisions concerning online courses and programs.

For example, Taylor, Parker and Tebeaux (2001) reported that educational institutions have two major financial dilemmas concerning distance education, especially during a time when budgets are stretched. The first is how to provide financial support for faculty and teaching units preparing courses for distance education delivery, and the second is how to determine pricing strategies that must follow state-mandated guidelines while remaining cost-effective to university budgets. They propose a five-step costing model to determine and set pricing based on a model developed by the Texas A&M University: Cost per semester credit hour, administrative costs, price for non-state funded distance courses, other DE Costs (supplies, books, materials, etc), and fee distribution. It is important for us to understand that this is just one model of many available as a template for fiscal planning.

The most challenging aspect is finding a model that most accurately fits the institution and distance learning situation. An administrator may review five or ten case studies or working templates and still not identify one that best meets her needs. This is where the unsolved mystery of cost remains a leadership challenge. Another leadership challenge closely related to cost is that of faculty issues within distance learning.

Faculty Issues - To Get Ahead, Put Others First

Number three of the 21 indispensable qualities of a leader as listed by Maxwell (1999) is servant hood – to get ahead, put others first. Admittedly, some administrators and educators would balk at this declaration, however, in distance learning it is prudent to put the faculty first in many arenas of distance education. Most faculty, nonetheless, have not responded as quickly and enthusiastically to online learning as administrators would like. Yet, research has discovered that one of the factors highly correlated to student retention in the online environment is faculty performance (Murphy, 2000). Student success and satisfaction in distance education courses are directly associated to student interaction with instructors. There is also a generally accepted connection between student satisfaction with faculty conduct and student learning (Graham, Cagiltay, Lim, Craner, & Duffy, 2001). It is important to have faculty motivated, willing and trained to facilitate online courses.

To ensure that faculty can create a challenging, productive, and stimulating learning environment, especially online, Carlson (1999) finds that professors must first possess the proper credentials, content knowledge, and technical manipulation skills. Online faculty must demonstrate a high level of comfort working in a virtual, asynchronous environment. Trippe (2000) suggests faculty training before, during and continuously thereafter for all online faculty.

Research in the field of distance education has highlighted the need for a change and modification of the faculty role in teaching at a distance (Beaudoin, 1990). For example, Visser (2000) reports that distance education courses can require twice as much time and effort to design and facilitate than those of traditional format. Many studies cite faculty resistance to instructional technology as a primary barrier to the continued growth of distance education programs (Gunawardena, 1990; McNeil, 1990). Lindner, Murphy and Dooley (2001) found that tenure status and academic rank have an effect on the adoption rates of distance education models. Non-tenured, assistant professors had the highest distance education competency scores. Today, junior faculty are hired with the expectation that they will teach distance education courses and possess the self-efficacy and skills to integrate those technologies.

Faculty have specifically expressed concerns for the adequacy of institutional support, the change in interpersonal relations, and quality. For example, within the area of institutional support are questions and concerns about salary; promotion and tenure; workload; and training. Distance education technologies create a major change in the way instruction is delivered. They require new skills for both the instructor and the student. The educational experience is shifted from teacher-centered to learner-centered. Instructors become facilitators, intermediaries between the students and the resources they need for their own independent study.

These changes challenge faculty and may trigger insecurities (Trippe, 2000). Approximately 60 percent of today's higher education faculty are over the age of 45, most having taught in the traditional classroom setting. To elicit faculty support and involvement, distance education leaders need to be skillful change agents, enticing faculty participation in online learning. Technology is also a leadership challenge within distance learning.

Technology - Courage to Navigate Technology

Administrators and educators are often naïve about is the technical aspects and ramifications of online learning. How does the network work? What is SQL? What is a portal and, if I walk through it, will it transport me to another planet? This of course is humorous, but many professors may not find themselves amused when forty students call the office at 8:00 am on Monday asking why the university server was down over the weekend. Therefore, courage is the fourth indispensable quality needed of a leader as listed by Maxwell (1999). It takes courage to navigate the technological demands of a successful online program. In fact, many administrators decidedly choose to outsource the online learning technology infrastructure because they are unable to maintain the expensive technology necessary to support distance learning (Pittinsky, 2003). Other institutions have created a specific administrative position such as ac chief information officer to manage and oversee all aspects of information technology on campus (Graves, 2000).

One must also understand the inextricable nature of the relationship between the physical technology infrastructure and the human technology infrastructure. The physical infrastructure includes the constant fear of outdated equipment, archaic building structure, and obsolete software. The human infrastructure includes knowledgeable and friendly technical support staff, media production staff, and, of course, the faculty (Bates, 2000).

Even more confusing is understanding the various course management systems typically marketed by outside commercial software vendors. Choosing between Web CT, Blackboard, Campus Pipeline, and others is a difficult and committed decision for administrators to make, especially since they ideally should seek input from faculty and students concerning the best choice of a system (American Federation of Teachers, 2001).

There is no "one size fits all" solution to technological problems. New improvements in such areas as DVD technology, wireless, speech recognition software, and virtual reality will most certainly challenge leaders to remain aware of the impact technology has on every aspect of distance learning (Farrell, 2001). The final area to explore is ownership.

Intellectual Property - You Can Seize Only What You Can See

The final issue is legal in nature and controversial – intellectual property. You can seize only what you can see (Maxwell, 1999). Unfortunately, in legal matters such as copyright and intellectual property, the related materials are often superfluous and difficult to comprehend, no less trying to apply them in a virtual academic setting. One cannot clearly understand the exact legal manner in which to operate many of the distance learning policy areas, especially since many laws concerning this issue have yet to be developed, debated and refined.

Intellectual property encompasses copyrights, patents, trademarks, and trade secrets (Smith, 2000). In 1998, the Digital Millennium Copyright Act was signed into law and specifically addressed aspects of distance education. Last November, 2002, President Bush signed into law The "Technology, Education and Copyright Harmonization (TEACH) Act," which states that copyright protected materials that a teacher would ordinarily use in the physical classroom can now, in general, be used in the digital classroom (Russel, 2002). With the new law on the books, however, Russel (2002) states, "Institutions will, over time, decide how they choose to react to TEACH exemptions and requirements."

Traditionally, colleges and universities have not sought to assert copyright over course materials and other traditional scholarly works (Gorman, 1998). Under the principle of academic freedom, faculty members generally have the right to develop and modify course materials within their fields of expertise, and to use pedagogical techniques they deem most appropriate for the subject matter.

Few court decisions have been rendered on this subject, but some of the most prominent decisions by the federal courts have followed traditional academic practice and found that faculty authors own copyright in their academic materials. At the University of Texas System, faculty members retain ownership of any web course they create. The university can claim ownership, however, when parties agree beforehand that a faculty person is hired for the sole purpose of creating an on-line course (Carnevale & Young, 1999).

Today, this topic is heated within academia with one of the main reasons for discourse being money. Creating course content and digitizing material can be lucrative to the faculty member as courses and curriculum have become "products" sought after by commercial online distance learning companies, for-profit universities, and publishers. Existing policies at colleges and universities vary greatly. Twigg (2000) presents three basic approaches for intellectual policy decisions.

1. Some institutions assert ownership over the copyrightable works of their faculty, citing the agency principles of works made for hire.

2. Some institutions allow faculty members to continue to assert ownership over their copyrightable works.
3. Some institutions attempt to allocate ownership via contract.

As a general rule, parties should enter into written agreements with curriculum writers, professors, students and all other contributors. Each agreement should specifically define the ownership of intellectual property rights in the content itself and the materials integrated into the course. Without such agreements, ownership questions could ultimately be decided through litigation.

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REDEFINING 'THE GROUP' IN CLIENT-BASED PROJECTS USING COMPUTER MEDIATED COMMUNICATION (CMC)

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ABSTRACT

In marketing education, client-based projects set within a collaborative learning framework have a positive impact on student performance (Benbasat & Lim 1993; Ivins 1997; de los Santos & Jensen 1985; Harasim 1989; Healey et al 1996; Kolb 1998; Shanka & Napoli 2001). Despite these benefits, researchers also note the difficulties marketing educators face in recognising individual student development within this group based approach (Conway et al 1993; Dillenbourg et al 1995; Dillenbourg 1999; Razzouk & Seitz 2001). Although marketing educators' use of computer mediated communication (CMC) has increased significantly (Siegel 2000; Lincoln 2001; Westhead 1999), very little empirical evidence exists to define the role of online technologies in creating a collaborative learning environment with individual assessment using client-based projects.

To address this gap, this paper explores the individual role of students in collaborative learning by positing that individual students working on client-based projects can derive the same benefits as teams of students when an online learning environment supplements the group process. This discussion proposes that a much deeper level of collaborative learning can occur in a group of more than 200 students when the class becomes 'the group'. Finally, this paper poses a set of research and educational initiatives to refine our understanding of the application of computer mediated technologies in client-based projects.

INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE

The onset of the online teaching and learning environment has brought with it a wealth of literature on the merits and application of this environment to a number of traditional teaching and learning approaches from enhancing classroom discussion through to supporting experiential and problem-based learning approaches with evidence that a problem-oriented and dialogue-based e-learning approach holds substantial potential for global marketing education (Mitry & Smith, 2002).

This paper seeks to explore the application of the online teaching and learning environment to client-based projects by redefining the traditional boundaries of the team approach which has underpinned this teaching approach through the use of computer mediated communication (CMC).

It does this through exploring the collaboration that exists within a unit that combines both a skills and planning component in a School of Advertising, Marketing and Public Relations in which the class as a whole becomes 'the group' working towards a marketing communication plan and written portfolio for a client-based project.

CLIENT-BASED PROJECTS AND ONLINE TECHNOLOGY

Client based projects are a well-established marketing education tool that allow educators to apply pedagogical perspectives in the classroom (Razzouk & Rizkallah 2002) and prepare students for their transition into business (de los Santos & Jensen 1985). These real-life marketing projects, usually undertaken in teams, have a positive impact on student performance (Ivins 1997; de los Santos & Jensen 1985) and make students more competitive in the job market (Razzouh & Rizhallah 2002).

Although positive outcomes are also delivered to students in terms of their understanding of group communication and teamwork skills (Healey et al 1996; Kolb 1998; Shanka & Napoli 2001), some students prefer to work alone (Razzouk & Seitz 2001). Research to date also suggests the group-based nature of client projects presents both administrative and grading issues for marketing educators. It is difficult for educators to find and set up meaningful projects (Razzouk & Rizkallah 2002) and when educators struggle to assign individual grades, a common response is to grade equally all members of the team (Conway et al 1993).

To resolve some of the teaching and learning aspects of client-based projects, marketing educators have turned to the Web (Siegel 2000; Lincoln 2001; Westhead 1999). Although Jorgensen (2003) suggests students are becoming more accustomed to a technologically rich environment, very little empirical evidence exists to discuss student and educator outcomes.

This paper seeks to address this gap by examining how CMC has impacted on redefining 'the group' or team approach to client-based projects.

COLLABORATIVE LEARNING AND ONLINE TECHNOLOGY

An equally well-established educational approach, collaborative learning shares similar group versus individual performance and educator administration issues to client-based projects. Collaborative learning exists when people work together to create meaning, explore a topic, and improve skills (Graham & Scarborough 1999). Within this context, the degree of interaction is determined by the extent to which the interaction influences students' cognitive processes (Dillenbourg 1999). Educational research identifies student interaction as a critical variable in learning and cognitive development (Harasim 1989) yet from an educators' perspective, Dillenbourg et al (1995) found that it is difficult to set up initial conditions which guarantee the effectiveness of collaborative learning.

Although Graham & Scarborough (1999) argue that collaborative learning maintains individual accountability through a learner-centered model and Dillenbourg (1999) suggests that teaching mechanisms in collaborative settings are similar to those involved in individual cognition, most collaborative learning research neglects a focus on the role of the individual in this process.

Equally, collaborative learning in online settings doesn't clearly focus on the role of the individual. However, research to date identifies these benefits of collaborative learning in online settings: equal access and participation from a technical perspective (Benbasat & Lim 1993; Cecez & Webb 2000) and a permanent and accessible record of student interactions (Cecez-Kecmanovic & Webb 2000) through the transcripts of online discussion forums to evaluate and further refine teaching and learning approaches.

The interactive nature of online discussion groups offers significant opportunities to educators and learners. Online discussions facilitate collaborative learning by emphasizing the positive effects of information sharing (Harasim 1989), and offer increased flexibility in time and place of learning (Bates 1995; Harasim et al 1995).

This paper explores the individual role of students in collaborative learning by positing that individual students working on client based projects can derive the same benefits of teams of students when an online learning environment supplements the group process. This model proposes that a much deeper level of collaborative learning can occur in a group of more than 200 students when the class becomes the group.

OVERVIEW OF CLIENT-BASED UNIT

The online teaching technology under investigation in this paper supports a client-based project comprising both a skills-based and strategic component for second year marketing and public relations students. The advent of online teaching technology has replaced a groupwork approach with an individual approach to this client-based unit. This decision matches the students' stage of development at a time when they have limited technical (writing) and strategic (planning) skills. On a technical level, it is deemed that each student can best develop marketing communication writing skills to meet the client's need on their own. Group writing tasks risk complacency in some team members. Similarly, as the base planning unit, students are required to learn and apply the components of a strategic planning framework at an individual level.

However, the challenge in teaching this unit at an individual level has come with large class sizes. Student numbers have increased from 70 to almost 300. This increase coincided with a Faculty initiative to embed online teaching technologies to support teaching and learning outcomes at the university. An online teaching site was designed to immerse students into the client project, facilitate discussion amongst students, lecturers and the client, and provide samples of marketing communication writing pieces and strategic plans. The online teaching site adopted the 'look and feel' of the client's website by incorporating both design and content elements from the client's website. Students were given access to client background information, a move which encouraged students to spend time on developing writing and planning skills rather than researching the information itself.

To maintain consistency across the class, the online discussion forums were developed around each assessment item. These forums were monitored seven days a week by the unit coordinator and acted as a resource for the tutors.

This project also overcomes one of the traditional problems of client-based projects, that being, finding enough clients to support this approach. All students in the class work on the one client project on an individual basis with the online discussion forums bringing the students together 'as a group' as they work towards each of their assessment pieces.

METHOD

Since the widespread adoption of computer mediated communication technologies, research has focused on identifying methods of evaluating the quality of online discussion ranging from highly quantitative methods such as the use of Pitman's (1999) tracking software to more qualitative methods such as Owen's (2000) discourse analysis. While evaluation of online discussion transcripts can be time intensive, it also offers unique opportunities for evaluation (McKenzie & Murphy 2000). Features unique to the online environment allow for easy identification of the level of participation in a discussion forum based on statistics on the number of users, frequency of access, number of messages per student, the number of threads and messages per thread (Harasim, 1989). Although this information can be useful, there is a danger in concluding that the level of activity in a discussion forum reflects the level of learning (Mason, 1992 as cited in McKenzie & Murphy 2000).

McKenzie & Murphy (2000) suggest an evaluative approach where categories for analysis reflect evidence about the learning process in which the participants are engaged. It is within this approach that Henri (1992; 1993) argues for research that is grounded in a cognitive view of learning and focused on the level of knowledge and skills evident in the learners' communications through the analysis of transcripts against participative, interactive, social, cognitive and metacognitive dimensions.

Henri's (1992; 1993) framework was chosen to evaluate the effectiveness and subsequent level of collaboration of the online discussion forums in this first level marketing communication unit analysing transcripts of the unit over two semesters, one full-time day semester and one part-time night semester, to establish the level of participation and interaction in the discussion group, as well analysing the content of the messages according to a cognitive view of learning. It should be noted that only the discussion forums for the major project have been analysed for the purposes of this study as they relate back to the client project as distinct from the other forums which focus on the exam and other skill-based components of the unit's overall assessment. The major project was broken down into two discussion forums, one for the planning component of this task and one for the skills-based component.
In addition to the content analysis of the discussion forums, further evaluation of the unit was conducted through standardised university student evaluations of the unit which provided qualitative information to determine students' perceptions of the experience. These were in the form of a computer questionnaire format ranking responses from 1-5 with one being very poor and five being very good with space provided for written responses. These questionnaires were administered by an independent person at the end of lectures in week nine of a thirteen week semester with a response rate of almost 70%.

RESULTS

One of the primary considerations when establishing an online discussion site is whether students will participate. The discussion forums under investigation, were not teacher-led but instead provided an opportunity for students to share their experiences, concerns and opinions. With each forum directly linked to an assessment piece, a total of 456 contributions were made on the planning forum and 211 contributions made on the skills-based forum in the full-time (day) semester comprising a class of 203 students. It is interesting to note, however, that while the part-time (night) semester was just under half the enrolment with 92 students, there were significantly less entries with 73 contributions overall on the planning forum and 71 contributions on the skills-based forum.

While the number of questions the part-time students asked was proportional to the number of questions asked in the full-time students' skills-based forum, the full-time students asked significantly more questions in the planning forum than any of the other forums. This could directly relate back to the students' lack of industry experience compared with the part-time students, many of whom already hold positions in the marketing communication sector. This is further reflected in the number of content questions asked in the full-time planning forum which accounted for 36% of contributions overall (and 80% of the types of questions) on this forum (see Table 1 for a breakdown of different types of contributions made on discussion forum overall according to Henri's (1992;1993) dimension measuring the level and types of participation). Similarly, the content questions asked on the part-time students' planning forum accounted for 56% of contributions overall (and 63% of the different types of questions) on this forum reflecting the higher level of difficulty this presented to the students.

TABLE ONE

Types of Participation	Plan – daytime class (203 students)	Portfolio – daytime class (203 students)	Plan – night class (92 students)	Portfolio – night class (92 students)
Administration Questions	10	16	7	10
Technical Questions	2	2	1	0
Social Contributions	26	16	6	6
Content Questions	166	65	26	21
Teacher's Responses (to students)	77	57	23	20
Students' Responses	175	55	10	14
Total Contributions	56	**211**	73	71

Breakdown of different types of contributions made on discussion forums according to Henri's (1992;1993)) dimensions measuring the level and types of participation.

Another reason for the significantly reduced number of contributions overall in the part-time semester is the reduced number of responses made by the part-time students to other students. While the number of responses made overall on the full-time students' forums accounted for 38% (planning forum) and 26% (skills-based forum) of the overall number of contributions made, the responses on the part-time students' forums accounted for only 13% on the planning forum and 19% on the skills-based forum (see Table 2 for a breakdown of students' response types according to Henri's (1992;1993) four interactive dimensions). This potentially reflects the time part-time students had to participate in the forum.

TABLE TWO

Interactivity amongst students	Plan – daytime class (203 students)	Portfolio – daytime class (203 students)	Plan – night class (92 students)	Portfolio - night class (92 students)
Direct Responses (DR)	109	36	8	5
Direct Commentary (DC)	8	3	0	0
Indirect Responses (IR)	38	9	2	4
Indirect Commentary (IC)	10	2	0	0
Independent Statements (IS)	1	5	0	0

Breakdown of students' response types according to Henri's (1992;1993) four dimensions measuring interactivity on planning and skills based discussion forums.

In terms of the cognitive level of collaboration on each of the discussion forums, most of the students' responses fell within Henri's (1992;1993) basic levels of elementary clarification (EC), indepth clarification (IC) or surface information processing (SIP) (see Table 3 for a breakdown of students' response types according to Henri's (1992;1993) cognitive and metacognitive dimensions). It should be noted that due to the low number of responses made by the part-time students (10 for the planning forum and 14 for the skills-based forum) that only the full-time forums have been evaluated on this level.

There is evidence, however, that in the full-time students' planning forum that deeper levels of information processing were occurring as they worked towards 'making sense' of the planning framework (see Table 3).

TABLE 3

Henri's (1992; 1993) Cognitive and Metacognitive Dimensions	Media Plan	Media Kit
COGNITIVE *Critical Thinking:*		
Elementary Clarification (EC)	51	8
Indepth Clarification (IC)	37	1
Inference (I)	0	1
Judgement (J)	0	4
Strategy (S)	1	2
Information Processing:		
Surface Information Processing (SIP)	34	27
Indepth Information Processing (IIP)	36	4
METACOGNITIVE *Knowledge:*		
Person	2	0
Task	0	2
Strategy	0	1
Skills:		
Evaluation	0	1
Planning	0	0
Regulation Self Awareness	5	2

Breakdown of full-time students' overall responses according to Henri's (1992;1993) cognitive and metacognitive dimensions.

From the qualitative data compiled in the Student Evaluation of the Unit (SEU), 88% of comments from students were positive about the online teaching and learning site with some of the aspects students liked about the forum itself reflected in the following comments:

- *I have found the forum incredibly helpful but I feel that if I had been in a group, we would* *have run out of ideas quickly or become stuck on a particular topic. This way, we can ask our general questions and receive answers from many different points of view. This has given my assignment a more creative edge and there are many different ideas and tactics in it. I love this forum!*

- *I just want to express that the media room is a fantastic opportunity to obtain, share or query info. How many other subjects offer a safety net like this when at the last moment when you are not sure what to do, you can get online and do something about it instantly!*
- *The OLT discussion forum is helpful and the collaborative effort in it allows good clarification of the major project.*
- *The online forum is very beneficial and promotes group understanding.*
- *The discussion forum is also excellent as well letting students discuss among themselves. It's good that everyone can discuss their ideas and problems.*
- *The unit coordinator provided ongoing and excellent support to all students. I have never personally spoken to her, but know I could go to her if I had a problem.*

Of the feedback provided on the OLT site overall, 12% of comments were negative with these students highlighting the technical and organisational aspects that could be improved on. The other key concern in relation to the discussion forums related to other students answering questions. This required the unit coordinator assuring students that all responses were checked and added to if necessary.

DISCUSSION

While Henri's (1992; 1993) framework was useful in terms of determining levels of participation, it was limited in its application for this study potentially due to the fact that these forums were originally set up to serve a more administrative (Q&A) function rather than being formally designed to further the principles of collaborative learning. Despite their original intentions, however, the discussion forums did achieve so much more than a pure administrative function which brought classes of 100 and 200 students together on line as evidenced by the large number of student responses to other students' questions (particularly on the full-time forums). Without any analysis occurring at that point, the social dynamics amongst the group amongst the students, lecturer and client were very apparent. This came through both online and in the weekly lectures with much of the online activity of the past week being a discussion point amongst students prior to the lecture, informing final content for the lecture itself, and forming the basis for face-to-face student-teacher interaction following the lecture.

The mutual support for client-based learning was also evident through the online communication with the principles of social cohesion, social constructivism, networked intelligence and the motivation and confidence (O'Reilly & Newton 2002) evident through the online discussions each week. A more formal analysis of the social contributions and dynamics of these forums would be useful to further provide evidence of collaboration in this class 'group'.

While the online forum also blurred the distinction between full-time and part-time enrolment modes by offering more flexibility to students, it did highlight the potential differences between these two cohorts of students especially in terms of the collaborative efforts made by full-time students compared with their part-time counterparts.

Probably the greatest representation or recognition of the collaborative effort was by the students themselves with the qualitative data from the Student Evaluations of the Unit (SEUs) providing some useful insights into the individual approach as opposed to a group approach and also the relationships (or perceived relationships) between the students themselves and the students and teachers. One of the main concerns for marketing educators in the teaching of large units is that of providing student feedback and ensuring students feel comfortable with, and have access to, teaching staff. Comments by students reflected this did occur with another study possible here to tie into the growing body of literature on what impacts on students' perceptions of teachers. Certainly, the online discussion forum enabled the unit coordinator to maintain control over a unit (with more than 200 students) in which the students would need a high level of support to guide them through what was potentially their first client-based project and their first marketing communication plan and written portfolio to ensure a high quality, student-centred learning experience.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

This paper demonstrates that further experimentation with client-based projects based on the redefinition of a group or team approach to teaching and learning is important for marketing educators. Computer mediated communication (CMC) has enabled client-based projects to run on an individual basis in which whole classes of 20, 50, 100, 200 or more can come together as 'the group' by adopting a collaborative learning approach. These findings lend themselves to a further study to test the level of collaborative learning by group size. That is, to see how much collaborative learning takes place in groups of 4 or 5 as distinct from groups of 10, or individual projects using an online discussion forum to drive the collaborative process. Such findings not only have implications for redefining 'the group' in client-based projects but could also help solve some of the challenges marketing educators have in terms of finding clients, the administration of a large number of groups (and clients) especially in large units, and grading students based on their individual performance and contribution within a groupwork setting.

Apart from the implications this study has for the redevelopment of client-based projects and the redefinition of 'the group' made possible by computer mediated communication (CMC), further investigation of how CMC can be used to evaluate marketing units for continuous improvement of these units through the use of online discussion transcripts. There is a wide range of literature already available beyond the scope of this paper on the further benefits and uses of evaluation of online transcripts. This body of literature also highlights one of the main challenges with ongoing evaluation of online discussion forums as being beyond the scope of academics in terms of the time involved. Significant resources have been invested for the development and support of online learning sites, however, we have probably been investing too little on the analysis of these sites to better improve unit development and teaching and learning practices. By establishing what has actually happened in the online environment within marketing units through the evaluation of online transcripts, marketing educators have the opportunity to inform what impact online technology could have in the future development of client-based projects and other teaching and learning approaches.

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STUDENT SATISFACTION WITH COHORT GROUPS: EXPECTATIONS VS. REALITY

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ABSTRACT

Can cohort groups be effectively developed at large universities? What are students' expectations for cohort groups and how is their satisfaction with the experience affected by comparing those expectations to their post perceptions? This paper examines these questions and suggests that cohorts can be administered. Students in a pilot program were satisfied with their experiences but desire curriculum integration.

INTRODUCTION

Educators and practitioners alike generally agree that business students who appreciate the connections between disciplines in the field are likely to be better trained and stronger employees after graduation. Marketing students whose marketing education has been integrated with the basics of finance, operations, and organizational behavior are not only better general business people but are also better marketing specialists. While most business schools (and all AACSB accredited institutions) require courses in the basic foundations of business, not all schools put equal efforts into developing a curriculum that thoroughly integrates this foundation knowledge.

One of the strategies that has been used to provide an integrated curriculum for business students is to provide a cohort experience. In some instances a group of students is enrolled in a single course that provides coverage of multiple subjects, typically taught in an interdisciplinary manner. While this approach provides strong integration of the topic areas, it can be difficult to administer in systems with strong departmental structures. A second approach to providing a cohort experience that is more easily administered is a group of students who take multiple, independent courses together. This allows for common or threaded material across the classes but still allows for individual course administration and assessment.

What are students' expectations regarding curriculum integration when the latter cohort approach is used and what is their level of satisfaction with the approach? The purpose of this paper is twofold: to describe the implementation of such an approach at a large, public university and to compare participating students' recalled expectations to their perceptions following implementation. As satisfaction is generally believed to result when perceptions exceed expectations comparing the two should provide some information about how expectations affect satisfaction in the classroom.

THE COHORT EXPERIENCE

Large, public institutions with diverse student bodies are likely to find curriculum integration through the provision of a single, multidisciplinary course a very challenging task. While demand for sections at all times of the day and evening, part-time versus full-time students, and non-business majors requiring only one or two of the business foundation courses can be challenges to the approach at all institutions, the challenge is magnified when the numbers are greater. Despite this, however, faculty often feel that providing integrated curriculum is valuable. A vote of business faculty at a large public institution in Southern California found that a majority rated the following initiative as "highly desirable":

Enhance students' ability to contribute to their employers' success by modifying the undergraduate curriculum to increase students' understanding of how the functional disciplines are integrated in the operations of business firms.

Based on this strong positive interest on the part of the faculty, the Director of Business Undergraduate Programs at the university decided to attempt a move toward integrated curriculum.

As a first step, it was decided that the administrative issues associated with enrolling a group (cohort) of students into multiple courses together would be tackled. If these issues could be adequately addressed and implemented then the second step would be an attempt to actually integrate curriculum issues across the multiple courses.

The decision to focus exclusively on the development of a cohort experience without working to build an integrated curriculum in the first attempt at the effort was further justified by the literature which has found that the simple act of participating in a cohort group has positive benefits. Research has shown that cohort groups are effective in fostering a sense of belonging, in creating an environment where mutual respect and willingness to take risk increase, and where development of shared understanding is strong (Imel, 2002; Chairs, et. al, 2002; Lawrence, 1997; Maher, 2001; Norris and Barnett, 1994). Further, several studies have found direct links between cohort groups and learning. Reynolds and Hebert (1998) and Reynolds and Sitharaman (2000) both compared learning in cohort and non-cohort environments and found significant learning gains in the affective domain related to attitudes, self-concepts, and values. Brooks (1998) and Chairs et al. (2002) both found that cohort members not only liked being part of a collaborative group but also found it to be an enriching learning experience.

Fifty five first semester upper division business students were admitted to the cohort on a first come, first served basis. The students agreed to take four required foundation courses (Operations, Finance, Management, and Marketing) in a single semester. Students understood that should they find it necessary to drop one of the classes that they would be required to drop all of the classes. Guaranteed registration in all four courses at desirable times (Monday – Thursday mornings) was a potential incentive for students to participate. Students were not told that the material across the four courses would be integrated however they did understand when volunteering for the cohort that they would be with the same group of students across all four classes.

CUSTOMER SATISFACTION – THE EXPECTANCY/DISCONFIRMATION PARADIGM

The expectancy/disconfirmation paradigm provides grounding for an understanding of satisfaction. The paradigm encompasses four constructs: expectations, performance, disconfirmation, and satisfaction. Disconfirmation arises from discrepancies between prior expectations and actual performance (perceived reality). There are three possible outcomes: zero disconfirmation results when actual performance is as expected, positive disconfirmation occurs when actual performance is superior to expectations, and negative disconfirmation occurs when actual performance is below expectations. Positive disconfirmation produces satisfaction while negative disconfirmation produces dissatisfaction. The paradigm has been studied and tested by many researchers and serves as the basis for the vast majority of satisfaction studies that have been completed in the fields of marketing and consumer behavior (Churchill and Surprenant, 1982; Oliver, 1980; Oliver and DeSarbo, 1988; Tse and Wilton, 1988; Yi, 1990; Bitner and Hubbert, 1994, Rust and Oliver, 1994).

Satisfaction has been defined as the perception of pleasurable fulfillment of a service (Oliver, 1999). Operationally, the construct is similar to an attitude as it can be assessed as the sum of the satisfactions with various attributes of a product or service (Churchill and Surprenant, 1982). While attitude, however, is a pre-decision construct, satisfaction is a post-decision experience construct. Bitner and Hubbert (1994) point out that satisfaction can be considered at two levels: the individual transaction or encounter level and the overall satisfaction with a product or service.

METHODOLOGY

The 55 students who participated in the cohort group described previously were asked to complete a survey regarding the experience at the end of the semester during which the classes were completed. Forty-eight usable surveys were collected (87% response). The survey, administered during class time, asked students questions about their reasons for volunteering for the cohort in addition to asking them to respond to scaled response statements regarding their expectations and perceptions regarding a variety of issues including their learning, the social benefits of being part of a cohort group, and their enjoyment and overall satisfaction with the experience. Simple demographic data (e.g., major, number of hours worked weekly, age, sex) was also collected.

Exhibit 1
Expectations and Perceptions of Performance

Before the semester began, I expected:	**Mean ***
To get to know the other students in my core classes better than I would normally expect to know my classmates.	5.0
To feel a greater sense of camaraderie in my core classes than I normally expect to feel in my classes.	4.79
To gain a greater understanding of how material in the core courses relates than I would have if I had taken the courses independently.	4.63
To feel more connected to my instructors than I normally do in classes.	4.40
To enjoy my classes more than I normally enjoy my classes.	4.27
Now that the semester is over, I believe:	
I got to know the other students in my core	5.27

classes better than I normally would expect to know my classmates.	
I feel a greater sense of camaraderie in my core classes than I normally expect to feel in my classes.	5.02
I gained a greater understanding of how material in the core courses relates than I would have if I had taken the courses independently.	4.83
I feel more connected to my instructors than I normally do in classes.	4.04
I enjoyed my classes more than I normally enjoy my classes.	4.15

*7 Point Scale: 1=Not At all, 4=Moderately, 7=Extremely

Respondents were nearly evenly divided between male and female (52%/48%). Division of majors accurately represented the division of majors across the College of Business and hours of work accurately represented average hours worked by full-time students in the College of Business. Average age of respondents was 21 years. In addition to responding to the survey questions, respondents were encouraged to provide open-ended comments on the cohort experience. Exhibit 1 contains the five expectation/perception statements used in the survey and their scores.

Respondents were asked about their overall satisfaction in three ways:

- To what extent did the Core Course Cohort Program fulfill your overall expectations?
- How satisfied are you with your overall experience in the Core Course Cohort Program?
- How inclined are you to recommend the Core Course Cohort Program to a close friend?

Results of overall satisfaction are presented in Exhibits 2 and 3.

Exhibit 2
To What Extent did the Core Course Cohort Program Fulfill Your Overall Expectations?

Far Below	2.1%	
Moderately Below	4.2%	
Slightly Below	12.5%	
Below Expectations		18.8%
Met Expectations		37.5%
Slightly Above	16.7%	
Moderately Above	20.8%	
Far Above	6.3%	
Above Expectations		43.8%

Exhibit 3
Overall Satisfaction

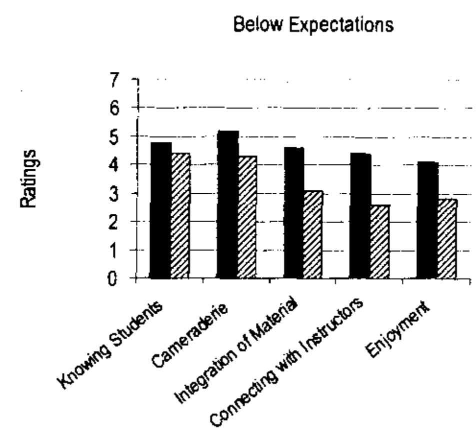
How satisfied are you with your overall	5.0*
How inclined are you to recommend the Core Course Cohort Program to a close friend?	5.5*

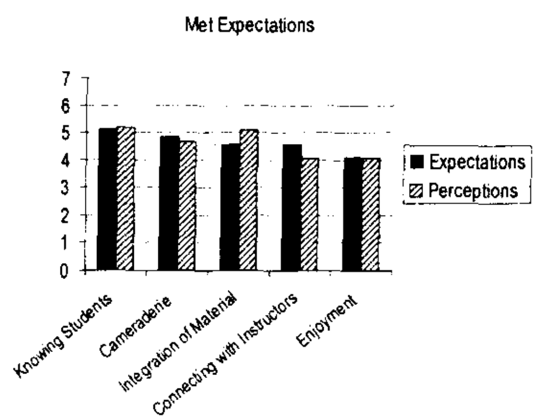
*7 Point Scale: 1=Not At all, 4=Moderately, 7=Extremely

RESULTS

Students were divided into three groups based on their overall satisfaction ratings: (1) those who perceived that the cohort experience fell below their expectations, (2) those who perceived that the cohort experience met their expectations, and (3) those who perceived that the cohort experience exceeded their expectations. Paired samples t-tests were used to compare the respondents' recalled expectations to their perceptions following the cohort experience for each of the five measures. The ratings broken down by these three groups of students are shown in Exhibit 4 and the comparisons of results are shown in Exhibit 5.

Exhibit 4
Expectations vs. Perceptions for the 3 Groups





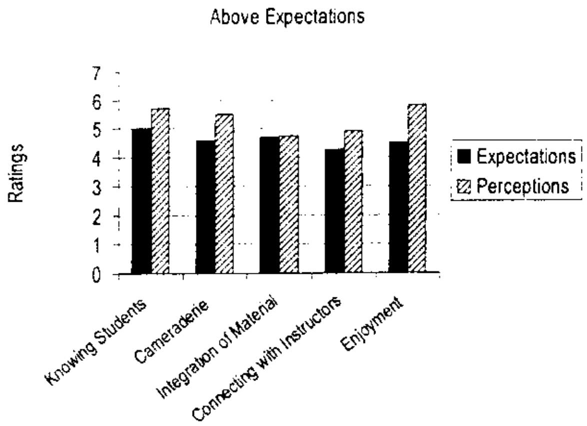


Exhibit 5

Expectation Ratings	*Below*	*Met*	*Above*
Comparison between pre-post assessment	*t statistic*	*t statistic*	*t statistic*
Getting to know the other students in my core classes better than I would normally expect to know my classmates.	0.62	0.18	3.74***
Feeling a greater sense of camaraderie in my core classes than I normally expect to feel in my classes.	1.52	0.48	1.70
Gaining a greater understanding of how material in the core courses relates than I would have if I had taken the courses independently.	2.72**	1.77	3.23**
Feeling more connected to my instructors than I normally do in classes.	2.84**	1.58	0.91
Enjoying my classes more than I normally enjoy my classes.	2.00	0.17	2.97**

**significant at the p<.01 level

***significant at the p<.001 level

Pre/Post Comparisons for the 3 Groups

The two areas in which the cohort experience fell significantly below expectations for the overall below expectations group were understanding of how the material in the courses related and connectedness to instructors. Students for whom the experience fell above expectations, on the other hand, understood how the material in the courses related better, got to know other students better, and enjoyed the course more than they expected.

Furthermore, consistent with the expectancy/disconfirmation paradigm, students for whom the course exceeded expectations had significantly higher overall satisfaction ($M=5.68$, $t=4.79$, $p<.001$) than those for whom the course fell below expectations ($M=3.5$), and they were more likely to recommend the cohort experience to a friend ($M=6.25$ $t=2.63$, $p<.05$) than those for whom the course fell below expectations ($M=4.2$).

DISCUSSION

The most interesting difference in expectations and post-experience perceptions occurs in students' ratings of understanding the way that the material relates among the different core courses. During this particular administration of the cohort experience no overt attempt was made to integrate the curriculum, yet some students perceived it as being more integrated than they expected. Furthermore these were the same students who felt that they established better relationships with their peers and enjoyed the course more than they had expected at the outset. It may be that these students formed study groups that spanned the different courses. Such collaborations could have improved students' understanding of how the material relates by prompting discussions among students that ranged across the subject matter from different courses. Hence it may be that these students did experience an integrated curriculum albeit through their own efforts rather than through the efforts of faculty to provide it.

It is also interesting to note that students for whom the experience did not meet their expectations with regard to the integration of course material also found the connection to their instructors to be less than expected. These students may have been relying on their instructors to provide the integration of material rather than on their peers and thus experienced less integrated understanding than they had hoped and were less satisfied with the cohort experience overall.

CONCLUSIONS

This trial of a cohort program was successful on two levels: 1) the cohort experience met or exceeded expectations for a majority of the students who participated. And 2) the university, through the administration of the program, determined that it was possible to offer and implement a cohort program. An analysis of data collected from the students suggests that those who made more connections with their peers than they had expected were the most satisfied, while those who expected more connections with instructors than they made were less satisfied with the experience and found the material to be less integrated than they expected.

These data suggest two improvements of the cohort program in the future. First, students should be encouraged to work in the same groups for all of the courses so that they will have an opportunity to spontaneously integrate the material. This move could be expected to contribute to even greater satisfaction for students who already gain some sense of integration from peer interactions alone. Second, the faculty should work to develop an integrated curriculum across the four courses, perhaps including projects that draw on material from more than one course. For students who look primarily to faculty to provide integration, such a move should be expected to provide increased satisfaction. Furthermore, the increased integration of the material should allow all students to learn and apply course concepts, thus enabling them to contribute to their employers' success by increasing their understanding of how the functional disciplines are integrated in the operations of business firms.

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Can't We Pick Our Own Groups? The Influence of Group Selection Method on Group Dynamics and Outcomes

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ABSTRACT

In today's business world the ability to work efficiently and effectively with others in a group is mandatory to a business student's success. Many employers rank "ability to work with a group" as one of the most important attributes for hiring business school graduates. Therefore it is important for instructors to understand the factors that influence group dynamics and outcomes.

The objective of this research was to test whether the method of group member assignment (i.e., random or self-selected) impacts the nature of group dynamics and group outcomes. The study was conducted in four marketing courses (Consumer Behavior, Marketing Research, Sales Force Management, Strategic Marketing Management) across sixteen sections. Each course included a significant group project. The two treatment conditions, random or self-selected assignment to groups, were randomly assigned to the sixteen sections. At the end of the semester, surveys were administered in each of the classes. The surveys assessed a variety of group dynamic factors including group cohesion, conflict and conflict resolution, amount of communication, attitudes, trust and group performance. Surveys were collected from 583 respondents, 337 respondents in the random condition and 246 in the self-selection condition.

Compared to self-selected groups, students in the groups that were randomly assigned were not as effective at establishing an environment of teamwork for the group. The students in the self-selected groups had better communication with each other, were more enthusiastic, took more interest in each other, were more likely to make new friends, and were more confident in other team members' abilities than the randomly assigned groups. Students in the self-selected groups were also more likely than students in the randomly assigned groups to enjoy working with the each other, take pride in their work, resolve conflict effectively, be proud of the work produced, and were more comfortable asking others in their group for help. Overall, the study results indicated that self-selected groups are better at creating teams that value teamwork and care about the dynamics of the group. Thus, if one critical learning goal of the group process is to develop teamwork skills and empathy towards other group members, self-selection appears to be the desired approach.

On the other hand, students in the randomly assigned group condition reported being more efficient and task oriented than students in the self-selected condition. The randomly assigned groups performed better at time management within the group process, indicating that this type of group assignment can develop skills such as the effective use of time.

Interestingly, although both types of groups appear to have different strengths, students in both types of groups had nearly identical ratings of the quality of the work the group produced. It appears that all groups were able to overcome any process challenges they may have faced to create outcomes that were generally favorable.

Given these results, it seems that instructors can feel comfortable using either of the group selection methods. However, there may be some qualitative reasons for choosing the self-selection approach. Self-selected groups may simulate "real world" work groups more effectively than randomly assigned groups by combining a mixture of people who know each other to varying degrees ranging from very well to not at all. Self-selected groups are typically easier to manage and generate fewer complaints from students. Finally, if allowing students to self-select their groups means a greater degree of enthusiasm, pride in their work, and slightly increased comfort in working with others in a group, they may be better able to face the challenges of group work and get the task done.

THE INTERNET, STRATEGY AND MARKETING EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

The growth of courses on internet marketing has reflected the growth of the internet itself. There is evidence that many of the failures in the dotcom bust were attributable to poor strategy or even a failure to apply any strategic thinking. Many students enrolling in courses on internet marketing have had little or no exposure to strategic concepts, especially if marketing is not their major field of study. If a broad view of strategy, (i.e. more than the marketing mix), and the tools of strategy are not incorporated into courses on internet marketing, are internet marketing educators contributing to the dismal failure rate we have witnessed among internet activities? The intent of this paper is to challenge instructors and provoke discussion on a topic which appears from the sample of courses examined to be neglected relative to the importance some argue that it has in the field of internet marketing.

GROWTH OF INTERNET MARKETING EDUCATION

The growth of courses on internet marketing has reflected the growth of the internet itself. The growth of the internet and its effect on marketing has been significant. The origins of the internet could be traced to 1969 when ARPANet was funded by the U.S. Department of Defence, although Tim Berners-Lee is credited with creating the World Wide Web which was publicly released only in 1993. Since then the internet has spread more rapidly than earlier technological innovations including TV, radio and PC's. It has often been said that the personal computer industry's growth from zero to $100 billion in ten years was "the greatest legal accumulation of wealth in history." While the PC has played a significant role in the adoption of the Internet, the Internet economy will cross $800 billion in five years. (http://www.internetindicators. com/overview.html)

In the year 2000, the internet economy in the U.S. alone directly supported 4 m. workers, a doubling from 1999. Since 1995, the internet economy has contributed almost a third of U.S. economic growth. Perhaps contrary to the perception of many, sales & marketing jobs generated more internet related employment than other jobs, including .IT.. Of the Internet-related jobs, only 28 percent are in Information Technology, which ranks below Sales and Marketing (33 percent) as the job function generating the most Internet-related employment. (http://www.internetindicators.com/overview.html)

The US Department of Commerce has estimated that in 2006 almost half the US workforce will be in jobs either related directly or indirectly to the internet & IT; many of these jobs will be in currently unknown occupations.

Assessing the spread of courses on internet marketing is not helped by the range of names which might be given to such courses, including E-marketing, Online Marketing, Web Marketing and Cyber Marketing. A search by internet search engine under one of these phrases alone revealed over 300 universities and (four year) colleges in the U.S. This paper will focus on internet marketing courses at Australian universities. There are 39 universities in Australia with business schools and a search for course outlines on internet marketing, e-marketing, online marketing etc. was conducted across all 39 Australian universities. Courses on internet marketing were identified at 33 of the 39 universities using the information available from an online search.

THE ROLE OF STRATEGY IN A SAMPLE OF INTERNET COURSES

Focus of study

The primary focus of this study concerns the role that strategy does and should have in courses on internet marketing. Given the recency of all courses on internet marketing and indeed internet marketing itself, it would be surprising if there were a clear consensus on appropriate content for such courses. This paper does not attempt to assess the curriculum of such courses in toto. The intent of this paper is to challenge instructors to provoke discussion and to consider a topic which appears from the sample of courses examined to be neglected relative to the importance some argue that it has in the field of internet marketing.

The profile of strategy in a sample of courses

In most cases it is possible to download information about courses including course objectives, and an overview. In many cases lecture content for each week of classes is also provided. This made it possible to conduct a simple content analysis to identify references to strategy in the detailed content of courses. Of course, a weakness of this approach is that strategy may be an important element of the unit but not mentioned in the online description. However it is assumed for the purpose of this study that if it is an important element, it would be mentioned in a detailed course description, especially one that lists weekly topics.

How strategy was defined for the purposes of the study.

One of the problems in even discussing strategy is that it has many different meanings. It is often taken to mean the ways in which marketing (or broader business) objectives are achieved. In many marketing plans strategy refers to the selection of the target market, positioning, and the marketing mix (or 4Ps: product, price, place, promotion). (Kotler, Brown et al. 2001; Kerin, Berkowitz et al. 2003)

However strategy has relevance beyond marketing and meaning beyond this narrow perspective. In developing a business plan for medium to large organizations, there are different levels of strategy. Strategy is developed at the corporate, S.B.U., as well as functional levels, such as marketing (Kotler, Brown et al. 2001; Kerin, Berkowitz et al. 2003). Perhaps the most prolific and influential author and speaker on strategy is Michael Porter. Implicit in much of Porter's writing is the view that strategy is a way of thinking, which requires the manager to begin their business planning by understanding the environment in which the firm operates, and then make choices. For example, two of the most famous concepts which Porter has written about are the five forces approach to industry analysis (one of many approaches to an industry or environmental analysis available to managers) and the generic competitive strategies (which imply choices between differentiation and cost leadership or broad vs. niche targeting). (Porter 1985).

THE RESULTS

TABLE 1

University #	Ref. to Mktg Mix*	Ref. to Segmentation*	Reference to strategy*	Planning*	Strategic concepts/ choices*
1	1	3	2	2	2
2	No course				
3	1	3	1	1	1
4	1	2	2	1	2
5	1	3	2	2	2
6	No course				
7	1	3	1	2	1
8	1	2	2	2	2
9	1	1	1	1	1
10	1	2	2	2	2
11	1	1	1	2	1
12	3	3	3	3	3
13	3	2	2	2	2
14	1	1	1	3	1
15	1	3			
16	1	3	2	2	2
17	1	1	1	2	1
18	1	1	1	2	1
19	1	3	2	2	2
20	No course				
21	1	3	2	2	2
22	1	1	2	1	2
23	No course				
24	1	3	1	2	3
25	3	3	3	3	3
26	1	1	1	1	1
27	1	2	2	1	2
28	3	3	3	3	3
29	No course				
30	1	3	2	2	2
31	No course				
32	1	2	2	2	2
33	1	1	2	2	2
34	1	3	2	1	2
35	1	3	1	2	1
36	1	2	2	2	2
37	3	3	3	3	3
38	1	2	2	2	2
39	1	3	2	2	2

* 1 indicates "Yes, there is a reference to this issue in course description & contents".
* 2 indicates "No, there is no reference to this issue in course description & contents".
* 3 indicates that the online course information is too brief to evaluate this issue.

TABLE 2

	Reference to Mktg Mix*	Reference to Segmentation*	Reference to strategy*	Planning*	Strategic concepts/choices*
% 1s	85%	24%	30%	21%	27%
% 2s	0%	24%	55%	61%	55%
% 3s	15%	52%	12%	15%	15%

Of the internet marketing course outlines perused at the 33 universities, 85% refer to the marketing mix (product, price, promotion and distribution) but only 30% indicate that strategy beyond the marketing mix is a significant aspect of the course and only 21% suggest that planning is considered in the content.

IS THIS RESULT WHAT WE MIGHT EXPECT?

What role should strategy play in internet marketing?

Some have claimed that the internet makes strategy less important but Michael Porter in a seminal paper in the Harvard Business Review reasons that the opposite is true. (Porter 2001) The internet tends to alter industry structures in ways that diminish overall industry profitability and has a leveling effect on marketing and business practices impairing the capacity of an individual company to sustain an operational advantage. At the same time, internet technology provides better opportunities for companies to establish distinctive strategic positionings than earlier generations of IT permitted. The internet per se will rarely be a competitive advantage. This means that the internet makes strategy more essential than ever.

There is evidence (Porter 2001) that many of the failures in the dotcom bust were attributable to poor strategy or even a failure to apply any strategic thinking. For a time, capital was so readily available to dotcom startups that there was less of a strategic imperative. The internet was used by many companies in such a way that they created a destructive competition that made it more difficult for other companies to be profitable, as well as their own company. Even when internet activities have survived the shake-out, their profitability has been disappointing. Perhaps the most famous dotcom of all, Amazon, has yet to finish a full year in the black. A new technology raises the question of who will capture the benefits. Porter argues that the profit potential of Internet technology depends on how it affects the attractiveness of the industry structure for all players, and on how it affects an individual company's ability to gain a competitive advantage over its competitors (Porter 2001). There is nothing deterministic about this. Both of these factors are influenced by the behavior of individual firms. In applying the internet as a marketing tool many companies have aimed for maximum revenue growth, not profitability. Amazon.com has been a clear example. However Amazon's brand recognition and the continued faith in it by investors has allowed it greater freedom to do this than others can hope for. The approach of many has been to capture first mover advantages and use large up-front investments to achieve a large market share. Tactics to do this have included heavy price discounting (even to the point of selling below cost), rapid product line broadening, massive promotional expenditures (including spending U.S. $2 million on a single spot during the Super Bowl game) etc.

However many internet competitors have failed to establish a clear market positioning strategy. The focus for many was on low price instead of differentiation strategies based on service, convenience and a unique approach to a specific target market. In short, they avoided choices and trade-offs. As Porter has emphasized, cost leadership cannot be used by the majority of competitors in an industry (Porter 1985). Yet the only form of differentiation used by many internet competitors has been in advertising. Differentiation as a strategy has been much less commonly employed. Perhaps some internet start-ups have assumed that they will hold an advantage by the use of the internet itself. However as traditional bricks and mortar firms become "bricks and clicks", this will not be a sustainable advantage. Other firms have been attracted by the cost savings perceived in internet marketing. However, as real as these savings may be, as most firms develop an internet presence, these savings will be available to all.

Much of the potential of the internet for marketers will be to facilitate the implementation of unique strategies. This will only be possible if organizations approach internet marketing in a more strategic way than has often been the case in the past. This then raises the question of the role of strategy in internet marketing courses. Many students enrolling in courses on internet marketing have had little or no exposure to strategic concepts, especially if marketing is not their major field of study. If a broad view of strategy, i.e. more than the marketing mix, and the tools of strategy are not incorporated into courses on internet marketing, are internet marketing educators contributing to the dismal failure rate we have witnessed among internet activities?

What profile does strategy have in relevant texts?

TABLE 3

	Section on e-marketing plans	Broad treatment of strategy (>mix)
(Chaffey, Mayer et al. 2000)	Yes	Yes
(Collin 2000)		Yes
(Dann and Dann 2001)		Yes
(Hofacker 2001)		Yes
(Mohammed, Fisher et al. 2002)		Yes
(Sheth, Eshghi et al. 2001)		Yes
(Siegel 2004)	Yes	Yes
(Sterne 2001)		Yes
(Strauss and Frost 2001)	Yes	Yes

The emphasis given to strategy varies considerably among these recent books on internet marketing. Strategy is given a particularly strong emphasis by several of these books (Chaffey, Mayer et al. 2000; Dann and Dann 2001; Sheth, Eshghi et al. 2001; Mohammed, Fisher et al. 2002). There is also a section on e-marketing plans in some. However in every one of these books there is a broad, sophisticated interpretation of strategy and use of strategic concepts. We might then ask why this does not appear prima facie to be reflected in the sample of internet marketing courses?

CONCLUDING COMMENTS – AND QUESTIONS

To the extent that detailed outlines reflects the focus and content of courses, a little more than a quarter and certainly less than a third of courses in the sample made reference to strategy or strategic concepts. This is in marked contrast to a sample of recent books and journal articles on internet marketing. Do courses on internet marketing focus too much on website design and construction? Have marketing educators become too enamoured with the new technology itself at the expense of putting it into a wider context for our students?

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ON – THE - JOB TRAINING (OJT) APPROACH IN MARKETING EDUCATION IN SELECTED SCHOOLS: PROFILE, PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

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ABSTRACT

Education is the process of facilitating directed learning. Organ and Bateman define education as " some change within the person that makes behavior change possible." We use this definition for several reasons. First, the change brought about by education enhances the person's potential to perform. It does not necessarily mean that the individual will perform better. Better performance is not only a function of education but also a function of other factors such as motivation and compensation. Organ and Bateman further stated that education generally takes place through experience. People learn through reinforced practice or the opportunity to apply material in a lab or actual setting with feedback from the trainer.

The On-the-job training has been part of the curriculum in almost all educational institutions the Philippines. The practice of putting the students in actual workplace has been the core of Spanish education which greatly influenced Philippine education system. Under the Spanish regime, on-the-job training was bar practice before one can be awarded a certificate, licensure or a degree.

During the American period, Philippine educational system improved by leaps and bound with the coming of American educators popularly known as the Thomasites. These educators innovated the Philippine educational system by mandating that all would be professionals should undergo practical exposures – On-the-job exposures for one term.

Today, most of educational institutions in the Philippines incorporated in their curriculum the on-the-job/practical training/internship/office practice/fieldwork, etc., component of their courses. The Commission on Higher Learning (CHED) issued guidelines to colleges and universities on how this program should be implemented with end-view of protecting students from eventualities or problems while they are outside the institution.

According Ralph W. Jackson and Robert D. Hisrich (1996), for a training to be effective, several principles must be taken into consideration when designing the learning program. Generally, when a training program is found to be less than effective, one or more of these principles have been violated. The principles that are particularly pertinent to marketing education are purpose, motivation, reinforcement, participation, practice, repetition, plateaus, productivity, realism, and customization.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study aims to determine the effect of On-the-Job training method of educating marketing students in selected educational institutions in the Philippines. Specifically, the study seeks to find answers on the following factors:

To assess the strengths and weaknesses of the present implementation of On-the-job method of educating marketing students; To identify the critical factors that will ensure the success of the On-the-job method of marketing education in selected schools in the Philippines; 3. To strengthen On-the-job marketing curriculum in selected institutions in the Philippines;

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Profile of OJT Participants

This study presented a demographic profile of current student participants in the OJT program whose average age is 21.5 years old. . Of the 330 respondents surveyed, majority (179) were students of whom 115 were female and 64 were male. The alumni (46), faculty (54) and company/coordinators (51) were likewise represented in the study.

These students spend a total of 240 hours in a company to complete their OJT course in the second semester. After such number of hours had been served, students undergo a performance evaluation process.

Hence, on top of this survey, the researchers gathered the student trainees' most recent overall performance rating of 87.42 mean score or Very Satisfactory. This was based from their performance evaluation (2nd semester 2004) which the researchers gathered from the 69 employers/companies from where the students completed their OJT program.

Problems

The top three problems experienced in the OJT program which concerns the students were: The students are too shy and their personality does not fit their profession Poor communication skills Lack of typing and computer skills

From faculty's opinion, the following were their top three concerns in OJT: Students tend to be grade conscious Students' absenteeism due to school activities Inadequate supervision

Lastly, from company OJT coordinators' point of view, the common problems perceived were: OJT period is too short for the students to learn the business, Grading system does not accurately give credence to student achievement. Students need thorough supervision, Prospects.

Perception of OJT Program

Of the four (4) groups surveyed, it is the groups of faculty and company coordinators which received the highest mean scores as compared with students and faculty. This means that these sector have better perception of the OJT program.

In terms of students' perception of the OJT program per se, the following factors got the highest mean scores: With OJT, students can be able to apply marketing theories learned in classroom (4.33) Practicumers are encouraged to learn new skills in OJT (3.72) OJT provides a clearer understanding of students' responsibility in the workplace (3.67) But overall, the perception of the OJT program by the four groups is significant because of the following reasons: With OJT, students can be able to apply marketing theories learned in classroom. Practicumers are encouraged to learn new skills in OJT. OJT helps develop students proper behavior in workplace and self-confidence in the practice of marketing profession because it provides lessons not given or explained in the classroom instruction. OJT likewise gives students a chance to develop new and better ways of performing task assigned.

It is noteworthy to mention that all four groups showed disagreement to two factors, namely: That OJT only tends to subject students to risk and abusive behaviors of superiors. And that OJT does not in anyway benefit the students and should be deleted from the curriculum.

OJT Curriculum Appreciation

Again, of the four (4) groups surveyed, the faculty and company coordinators got the highest mean scores which signifies that they have a better appreciation and find significance for the OJT program curriculum as compared with students and the alumni.

In terms of students' appreciation of the OJT curriculum, the following received the highest mean scores: The OJT curriculum considers the growth potentials of students (4.50) OJT curriculum is vital link of the marketing course to the industry (3.60) The OJT curriculum provides several levels of involvement by students (3.50) On the overall OJT curriculum appreciation by the four groups, the following factors garnered the highest mean scores:

The OJT curriculum considers the growth potentials of students. That, the OJT program must be evaluated periodically to determine its relevance and effectiveness. Likewise, the OJT program is important for the organization and student-trainees. It is a vital link of the marketing course to the industry.

Likewise, it can be noted from the results of the survey that the four groups moderately agreed on the following factors:

That each subject in the curriculum shows coherent development from year to year. The OJT curriculum as moderately significant in serving the most important values of the marketing profession. They find the content and methods of OJT curriculum as moderately consistent with the principles of teaching.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based from the findings derived from the study, the following conclusions can be drawn:

That the On-the-job approach is still proven to be a vital tool in marketing education and in enhancing the skills of students in the field of marketing. However, there are important factors which must be taken into consideration to improve the quality of the OJT program in a school.

Gauging from the profiles and problems encountered in OJT program, students would need to acquire the proper preparations before they can be immersed in corporate office environments. And these are some of the measures schools may adopt to better improve the quality of performance of OJT student trainees.

1. Before students can be deployed in a company, the OJT curriculum must first provide for an orientation about the rationale behind the OJT program so that students will not pursue OJT as mere course and grade compliance.
2. The OJT program must provide for role play situations prior deployment of students to familiarize them with proper office manners and decorum. Furthermore, it can be concluded that of the four groups surveyed, the faculty and company coordinators have a better appreciation and

perception of the OJT program seconded only by marketing alumni and students. This is within expectations considering that the first two sectors are the policy makers or implementers of the OJT program.

In terms of ways to further firm up the OJT curriculum in schools, the following pointers are being recommended:

1. The OJT program can be further improved by undergoing a yearly review not only of performance rating of student trainees but also the accreditation process of employers/companies for OJT practicum.
2. Students perceive OJT as their link to future jobs, hence, they expect that the OJT curriculum must provide for the latest trends in job placements that will require marketing graduates.
3. OJT curriculum must provide marketing students with leads as to growing industries or service sectors which has crucial need for marketing professionals.

DELAYED MALE: FACULTY GENDER AND STUDENT COMPLETION OF EARLY CLASS REQUIREMENTS

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ABSTRACT

Male and female students have displayed different reactions to faculty gender. Different from past findings, this research explores if gender biases exist early in the term. Students' unfavorable attitudes toward instructors were ascertained by measuring the extent to which they delayed completing a course requirement. Participants signed up for a requisite class subject pool. The difference between sign up and actual completion times reveals that male students delayed their requirement (a) more when their instructors were female rather than male, and (b) more than female students when the instructor was female. Consistent with past work, supporting data suggest that the delayed completion times reflect lower evaluations of female faculty. Discussion focuses on professional implications within and outside of academic settings.

APPLYING THE COLOR CODE PERSONALITY PROFILE TO SLOVAKIAN MARKETING AND BUSINESS PROFESSIONALS: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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ABSTRACT

This exploratory study applied the Hartman Color Code Personality Profile to marketing and business students in the Slovak Republic, Central Europe. Developed by Taylor Hartman in 1987, the Color Code instrument explains human motivation by identifying four primary motives -- power, intimacy, peace, and fun -- using four labels to represent these motives: Red, Blue, White, and Yellow, respectively. During a presentation at the 2003 Marketing Educators' Association annual conference in Scottsdale, Arizona, the researchers became interested in applying the instrument to a global audience. How will the Color Code pertain to students and professionals in other countries? Marketing and business educators could possibly use the Color Code when working overseas or when working locally with a diverse population. The paper presents an overview of the Color Code personality profile, findings from the study, and implications for marketing educators.

INTRODUCTION

The Hartman Color Code Personality Profile (Hartman, 1998) measures the primary motive of an individual, rather than the behavior of an individual. The advantage of the prime motivational approach is that it allows educators and managers to better understand a person's psyche from a different perspective than those measured by traditional inventory measurement tools that focus on behavior modalities. Indeed, no two individuals perform the same task for exactly the same reason; however, individuals with similar motives may behave alike and may be motivated by similar objectives, circumstances, and rewards. The underlying basis of the Hartman Color Code Personality Profile then is to easily identify, understand, and apply motive based theory in order to motivate, resolve conflict, and even predict the performance of an individual or group[1]. Hartman defines and explains primary motive by applying four colors: (a) Red, (b) Blue, (c) White, and (d) Yellow.

Results

T-tests were used for the initial analysis on three independent variables: gender (male x female), management level (middle x upper), and education (high school x university). There were only statistically significant mean differences between male and female business professionals on Red and Blue personalities: Red personality $T = 2.30$, $p \leq .05$ and Blue personality $T = 2.92$, $p \leq .05$. Management level and education were not significant.

The researchers were interested in how the Color Code would pertain to business and marketing professionals in other countries. The researchers chose Slovakia to begin looking at the effectiveness of using such a tool for helping business managers and marketing educators in Central Europe work with their employees and students. The data suggests that for the most part, there are some differences in Slovaks when compared to the U.S.

The only statistical differences identified were a greater proportion of Red personality males than Red personality females, and a greater proportion of Blue personality females than Blue personality males. Even in the U.S. today, it is typically seen as a masculine characteristic to be power driven – a Red personality trait, and it is typically seen as a female characteristic to be nurturing - or a Blue personality trait. Is this innate, or is it indeed a societal difference? Perhaps if the researchers could have applied the Color Code to the U.S. population 40 years ago, they would ascertain results similar to Central Europe. For example, they might find fewer women in management and fewer fathers involved in raising or disciplining children.

To this end, business educators, managers, and trainers could use the Color Code when working overseas or when working locally with a diverse population. Using the Color Code, educators would better understand the primary motives and increase their teaching effectiveness by realizing that student differences may have more to do with innate primary motive than with culture, race, economic status, language, society, or religious differences. The number of students studying abroad has grown to over 1.6 million with more than a third of these students (582,996) studying in the United States (Open Doors 2002: International Students in the U.S., 2002). The better understanding educators have about prime motive, the greater the educators' ability to communicate with expatriate students and create successful learning activities. Hartman (1998) reported the U.S. population is comprised of personalities of approximately 24 percent Red, 35 percent Blue, 20 percent White, and 20 percent Yellow, and suggests that these percentages might be consistent worldwide.

Based on this exploratory study, future research should look at multiple countries and different schools, yielding larger samples. Follow-up studies on educators adopting the Color Code would generate interesting longitudinal comparative data. If these differences are indeed based on variations in primary motive that business students or educators can easily measure, understand, and use, then this knowledge becomes an invaluable tool as users transcend the cultural, economic, and societal boundaries that allow people to limit their effectiveness in many walks of life.

A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING SUPERSTITIOUS BELIEFS AND SUPERSTITIOUS BEHAVIORS AMONG BUSINESS STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Rational behavior by consumers is a common assumption underlying much of marketing and consumer behavior literature. Whereas consumers act as rational or near-rational decision-makers in most situations, there are circumstances where they exhibit non-rational behavior. One example of such non-rational behavior is when people engage in superstitious behavior. For example, if a person is in the market for a car, and decides to postpone the purchase by a month because she expects the company to introduce a major price promotion next month, the behavior will be considered perfectly rational. However, if car sales drop more than 30% from August 28 to September 15 in cultures where this period is considered to be a "ghost month" (Simmons and Schindler 2001), the behavior of people engaging in such beliefs is clearly superstitious.

If managers are aware of the existence of any superstitious behaviors that directly affect the performance of their products, they can plan around such superstitions to avoid any harm. For example, Chinese manufacturers favor the use of digit 8 and avoid using the digit 4 in their pricing as buyers in China connote digit 8 with "enrichment" and digit 4 with "death" (Simmons and Schindler 2001).

Another aspect of superstitious behavior that is of interest to marketing educators is the prevalence of such behavior among marketing professionals. To the extent these managers engage in superstitious behaviors, they are committing acts that could be questioned by the stakeholders. The prevalence of superstitious behavior among practitioners is of interest to business educators as they are responsible for training future managers and practitioners. Superstitious behavior is a persistent trait. It should be possible for educators to assess the prevalence of such beliefs and behaviors among their students while they are still in college, and take appropriate steps to counter such beliefs (provided such an action is warranted).

One of the objectives of college education is to promote rational, scientific thinking among students. To the extent that superstitious beliefs do not have a scientific, rational basis, any engagement in such behaviors by the student community goes directly against that objective. In this study, we develop a theoretical framework to understand the prevalence of superstitious beliefs among business students and propose a set of antecedent variables that could predict such behaviors. Following Campbell (1996), we also distinguish between engaging in superstitious practices and believing in their instrumentality. We develop a set of propositions that builds on this important distinction and has the potential of resolving some conflicting empirical findings in the literature. These propositions pertain to the relationships between superstition and locus of control, Type A behavior pattern, ambiguity tolerance, and academic performance.

This study is an initial attempt at clarifying the issues surrounding the idea of superstitious beliefs among students. By providing a theoretical framework that differentiates between superstitious behaviors and beliefs, we hope to jumpstart a stream of research on this topic that is important for educators in a variety of contexts. It also serves to resolve some of the conflicting findings in the literature on how and why individuals use superstitions. We also present a variety of testable propositions that can give additional insight into the role of superstitions in individual behavior.

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HEMISPHERIC ASYMMETRIES AND COGNITIVE PROCESSING: A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE SOP SCALE

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ABSTRACT

The cognitive processing literature relating to brain asymmetries argues that individuals are innately prone to emphasize the use of geometric/pictorial information versus verbal information sequentially analyzed depending on whether they are right or left brain reliant. How information is processed is of considerable importance to consumer behaviorist. Various scales have been developed to measure cognitive style. This paper examines one of these. Nearly two decades after Childer's et al. (1985) published the Style of Processing (SOP) scale, it has received scant use – even though it has received apparently unsolicited defense from the developers. This paper first examines the underlying theoretical issue of SOP and thoroughly tests Childer's et al. scale. The findings indicate that it lacks in nearly every category of validity. An attempt to reconstruct an SOP scale also ends in abject failure. Thus the question remains, does this construct exist?

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COMPARING VARIANCES USING A SINGLE LEVEL OF VARIANCE

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A credible cross-section of marketing professionals, academics and practitioners, has underscored the need for more *fact-based knowledge*. These professionals, acting as Marketing Science Institute (MSI) trustees, have declared that "assessing marketing productivity (return on marketing) and marketing metrics" a priority for 2002-2004 (Lehman 2002). Traditional accounting tools are often eschewed because of a cost control perspective rather than a market control perspective. Variance analysis is an excellent example of a cost control tool that can be made more relevant to the control of marketing. However, few of our marketing students have a solid understanding of accounting principles, and substantial minority have the quantitative skills necessary for effective marketing control.

Hulbert and Toy (1977) demonstrated that quantity variances could be analyzed in terms of changes in market size and market share. Extensions to Hulbert and Toy's work on exogenous and uncontrollable pricing variables such as reference point market prices and proportion of reference prices maintained leave the marketing managers with a series of variances to compare and analyze. The decomposition of such complex variables has been traditionally handled with a multi-level pair-wise analysis approach (Mitchell and Olsen 2003; Weber 2000). The major disadvantage is that variances at the end of different decomposition branches cannot be directly compared to each other.

However, the proposed single tier method allows for comparing the relative sizes of all variances and requires that total potential extension of the analysis be represented in the initial decomposition. That is to say, the total revenue variance is recognized as being comprised of four variables – Reference Price Variance, Relative Price Variance, Market Share Variance, and Market Size Variance – at the first tier of the analysis.

The Single Level Approach
To rectify the lack of comparison inherent in the multi-level approach, the variance in total sales revenue, Ta –Tb, can be re-written. The resulting identity is described as sales revenue being equal to the product of the four variables that were originally identified in the multi-level approach.

$$T_a - T_b = \%_a R_a S_a M_a - \%_b R_b S_b M_b \qquad (4)$$

where T = total sales revenue	subscripts a = actual, b = budgeted
Relative Price Variance = $(R_aS_aM_a)(\%_a-\%_b)$	Reference Price Variance = $(\%_aS_aM_a)(R_a-R_b)$
Market Share Variance = $\%_aR_aM_a(S_a-S_b)$	Market Size Variance = $\%_aR_aS_a(M_a-M_b)$
Plus the complement of each Variance	

In a single level approach, each of the four variables is decomposed separately into a primary variance and its complement. The primary variance of each variable, (X_a-X_b), is weighted by the product of the actual levels of the other three variables. The complementary variance represents the combined impact of the other three variables. The sum of the primary variance and its complement, by definition, equal the difference in total sales revenue. Each of the four primary variances can be directly compared and ranked in terms of their relative impact on revenues. Managerial control is now augmented allowing limited resources to be focused on a strategy that should produce the most impact.

DISCUSSION

Variance analysis is the investigation of a difference between a planned and an actual performance. The most important role for variance analysis is to provide symptoms of a firm's operations being out-of-control. In marketing this takes on a special significance because only portions of a variance analysis are directly or indirectly impacted by the firm's marketing strategy. The traditional multi-level approach to variance analysis may not allow managers to directly compare variances that are under their control. This paper illustrates that a single level of analysis allows all four of the primary variances to be directly compared and ranked in terms of relative importance. Using a single level of analysis allows the impact of changing the firm's relative price and the firm's market share to be directly compared.

Based upon a cursory review of current marketing textbooks and experience in the classroom, our students are failing to receive sufficient training in analysis and control techniques. It also appears that classic tools such as variance analysis need to be reviewed and revamped for the modern era of databases and Internet. The new generation of managers must be in a position to respond to MSI's call for enhanced assessment of marketing productivity (Lehman 2002).

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Teaching Nonlinearity in Marketing Research Classes: A Case Example

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ABSTRACT

Despite the existence of nonlinear relationships in marketing theory, marketing research textbooks devote little space to modeling these relationships. Developing an interesting and easily used scenario that helps students to understand nonlinearity in marketing relationships thus provides a valuable addition to pedagogy. This paper uses a publicly available data source as the basis for a case example that allows instructors to use a variety of pedagogical formats to illustrate nonlinear concepts, from classroom lecture through hands-on student analysis.

BACKGROUND

When marketing educators discuss causal relationships in marketing (e.g. advertising vs. sales), they tend to discuss these relationships in straight line terminology so as to simplify the concepts for pedagogical purposes. However, marketing theory indicates that many of these relationships are not linear, but are curvilinear. For the purposes of this paper, three important marketing relationships will be discussed here for illustration: market demand; customer satisfaction; and market growth.

The market demand function (e.g. Kotler 2003), states that the market demand for a product is a nonlinear function of marketing mix expenditure. Low levels of expenditure have little influence on market demand, but increasing levels of expenditure cause the market to increasingly notice and desire the product, thereby increasing demand. However, as market saturation occurs demand levels off, regardless of the level of marketing expenditure.

A second important marketing theory is the relationship between product performance in meeting customer needs, and customer satisfaction with the product. Nonlinearity in this relationship has been determined (e.g. Oliver 1997) for two theoretical reasons: the "zone of indifference", and attributes which may be either "satisfiers" or "dissatisfiers". Under the former concept, there is a range of performance level that is acceptable to the customer, and satisfaction is not effected within this range. However, when the range is exceeded, either positively or negatively, then satisfaction is effected, both positively (satisfaction) or negatively (dissatisfaction). The latter concept holds that there are types of attributes which may only lead to satisfaction; others may only lead to dissatisfaction. When the basic meeting of needs effected by these attributes is exceeded, either positively or negatively, then there is no further impact on satisfaction level. Under this concept, while small excesses (positive or negative) have only a small satisfaction impact, slightly larger excesses may have quite large impacts, thus the nonlinear relationship.

The third theoretical concept is one of new product form growth over time. Under this concept (e.g. Lilien and Kotler 1983), market growth begins slowly after new category of product introduction, then word of mouth is accelerates growth. Finally, as the market approaches saturation, growth slows, then plateaus.

These and other models of marketing relationships, have found their way into both marketing management and pedagogy (e.g. Lilien and Kotler 1983). A model may be defined as "a representation of the most important elements of a perceived real world system" (Naert and Leeflang 1978, p. 9). While there are several approaches to modeling a system, our discussion will center on mathematical models.

The purpose of this paper is to utilize an interesting and commonly available set of data to provide an example of a marketing application of nonlinear relationships. These analyses illustrate both the complex nature of business situations and the advisability of using the appropriate analysis in drawing conclusions. Instructors who do not use student hands-on analysis in their classes (e.g. an introductory marketing class) may use this data in a lecture context, to illustrate the power of nonlinear analysis and the complexity of "real world" marketing applications, to whatever level of analytical detail desired.

RESEARCH TEXTBOOKS MODELS

The most likely place for marketing students to encounter discussion of nonlinearity is in marketing research textbooks, which usually contain several chapters on statistical analysis (e.g. Kumar, et al 2002). The multivariate analysis topics have been receiving increasing emphasis, as computer capacity and software improvements have allowed comparatively easy analysis of data.

For the purposes of this paper, the models discussed will be bivariate regression models utilizing continuous variables. Other mathematical formats and models, including econometric and other forecasting methods, will not be considered in this discussion.

TEACHING STATISTICAL CONCEPTS

Over two decades of teaching research methods to graduate and undergraduate students has yielded the author's conclusion that the statistical chapters of research textbooks tend to be the most difficult in the book for students to comprehend. This observation is neither unique to the author, nor specific to the business discipline, as noted by the following.

Connors, et al (1998), summarizing several relevant studies, note that student difficulties in learning statistics is a part of the more general "math anxiety", which they define as "an emotional dread of future math-related activities" (p. 40), and that "about half of college students ... will have difficulty thinking hypothetically to understand concepts like probability and sampling distributions" (p. 41). Piotrowsky, et al (2002) note that "... Mathematics anxiety has always maintained a central focus in the education literature."

Recently, however, there has been "... a focus on 'statistical anxiety' as experienced by undergraduates" (p. 97). Garfield and Ahlgren (1988) contend that "The experience of psychologists, educators, and statisticians is that a large proportion of students do not understand many of the basic statistical concepts they have studied ...". Kranzler and Moursund (1999) have gone so far as to write a statistics text called "Statistics for the Terrified", observing that most statistics texts are written for those with strong mathematics skills and "... Most of my students in counseling and education programs are not like that" (p. 2).

Various efforts have been made to overcome student difficulties. e.g. Piotrowsky, et. Al (2002). The remedies for this anxiety, however, are numerous. Kranzler and Moursund (1999), for example, suggest that students employ visualization in the form of "rational-emotive therapy (RET)" prior to undertaking application exercises (p. 187), while Connors, et al (1998) cite research showing that "students acquire concrete concepts more easily than abstract concepts" (p. 41). While not addressing the RET approach, this paper follows the latter advice: using an easily visualized example that is clearly important to the business situation involved, but is also of some general interest to undergraduate students.

NONLINEARITY IN MARKETING MODELS

The consideration of relationships between continuous variables, in the marketing context, indicates that there are four different types of mathematical forms (Naert and Leeflang 1978), which will be briefly discussed below:

- Linear in both parameters and variables
- Nonlinear in the variables, but linear in the parameters
- Nonlinear in the parameters, but linearizable
- Nonlinear in the parameters and not linearizable

Linear in Both Parameters and Variables

This is the basic form of the "general linear model", or linear additive model. Each independent variable in the model (in the case of multivariate analysis) exhibits a straight line relationship with the dependent variable. Further, the predictive contribution of each variable is added to the contribution of the other variables in the model. This form will not be discussed further in this paper.

Nonlinear Variables, But Linear Parameters

This form is also known as the nonlinear additive model, and is the one most commonly referred to in marketing research textbook discussions on nonlinear relations (e.g. Kumar, et al 2002). Models of this form simply define a new variable that is some nonlinear transformation of one or more of the variables in the model, thus forming a linear additive model. From the view of estimation, these equations are not different from the basic linear additive model, though interpretation becomes more problematic.

A wide variety of mathematical transformations are common in this approach: squares and square roots, reciprocals, logarithms, and combinations of these transformations. A useful example of the latter is the logarithmic-reciprocal relation (Naert and Leeflang 1978, p. 73), which produces the S-shaped curve found in market demand and market growth models, discussed above. An example of this would be the following relation:

$$\text{Ln Sales} = a + b/\text{Advertising}$$

Sales and advertising data would be used to determine the parameters "a" and "b". The "a" parameter would represent market saturation in the market demand model.

This fairly versatile approach also allows a limited inclusion of variables that are nonlinear in the parameters, i.e. interaction terms. For example, Sales may not only be related to Advertising and Product Price, but the combination of these two. A new interactive variable may be formed by the multiplication of Sales and Product Price, and included in the model. This approach is limited to the inclusion of a small number of interactive terms; a large number of interactions can lead to estimation and interpretation difficulties (Naert and Leeflang 1978).

Nonlinear Parameters, But Linearizable

This form generally has the independent variable(s) as an exponent; for example:

$$\text{Sales} = a\,(e^{b(\text{Advertising})})$$

This form may be linearized by taking logarithms of both sides. In a similar way, fully interactive models may be transformed to a linear additive model format. The reader is referred to Naert and Leeflang (1978) for further discussion.

Nonlinear Parameters and Not Linearizable

While this form was previously considered "intractable", increasing power of computers has led to the development of nonlinear analytical methods (Naert and Leeflang 1978). Thus, some very useful marketing model applications have been developed, including exponential and logistic model formats. The logistic model is another S-shaped form that asymptotically approaches a limit, thus useful in the market demand type of models discussed above. An example would be:

$$\text{Sales} = \frac{a}{1+e^{b(\text{Advertising})}}$$

Various forms of this and other asymptotic models have been found to be useful in marketing applications.

THE DATASET

Pedagogically, the optimal dataset used to illustrate nonlinear marketing applications would be one that is of interest to students, is clearly nonlinear, illustrates an important application of marketing theory, and has managerial usefulness. Over the years, the author has found that the weekly list of the top ten movies in the US meets these criteria fairly well. These lists, appearing in newspapers and other public arenas, include the movie title, weekend receipts, number of weeks in release, and the total receipts for each movie (Exhibitor Relations Co. Inc. 2003).

The total receipts data is illustrative of the market demand model, discussed above, thus is both theoretically applicable and clearly nonlinear. Movies are inherently interesting, especially to undergraduate students, thus serving to help reduce the "statistical anxiety" discussed above. Continuing releases of new movies allows an instructor to have a list of contemporary interest, with related events fresh in student memory.

The marketing discipline is quite active in the movie industry, participating both before a film is produced, as well as after production has been completed (Rocco 2003). Preliminary film budgets and general strategy development occur prior to production, while promotion and distribution decisions tend to be considered after production has been completed, but prior to distribution.

The movie total receipts data typically fit asymptotic models quite well, with R-squares usually over .90, and frequently in the .98 to .99 range. Given this very strong fit, movie marketing managers may utilize this and other information in various ways. For example, pre-release testing with relevant target markets may allow a fairly accurate forecast using "standard" marketing mix applications (e.g. pre-release advertising level, number of theaters initially showing the movie). Then a different level of the marketing mix may be tried, the differences between actual and forecast noted, and the impact on profits of changes in marketing mix calculated. A series of such experiments with a variety of movie releases could lead to the development of marketing strategies relevant to various types of movies and competitive environments.

SAMPLE DATA ANALYSIS USING SPSS

One of the very useful features of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software is their nonlinear relationships option. Under this option, the student simply clicks on the dependent variable, clicks on the independent variable (or time), and clicks on one or more of the 12 preprogrammed models. The output includes the computed R-square, significance, and the model parameters. A plot of the data and the model(s) is automatically included, enhancing the students' understanding of the analysis.

An example of this output for the movie "Finding Nemo", using the reciprocal, the logarithmic-reciprocal (the "S" model), and the logistic. All models are good fits of the data (greater than .90) which is a typical result. In the author's experience, the logarithmic-reciprocal model provides an excellent fit across a wide range of movies. While the logistic model also tends to fit well, it has the "real-world" drawback of requiring an estimate of total receipts, which is the value most desired to predict from the model. An example of a class exercise used may be obtained on request from the author.

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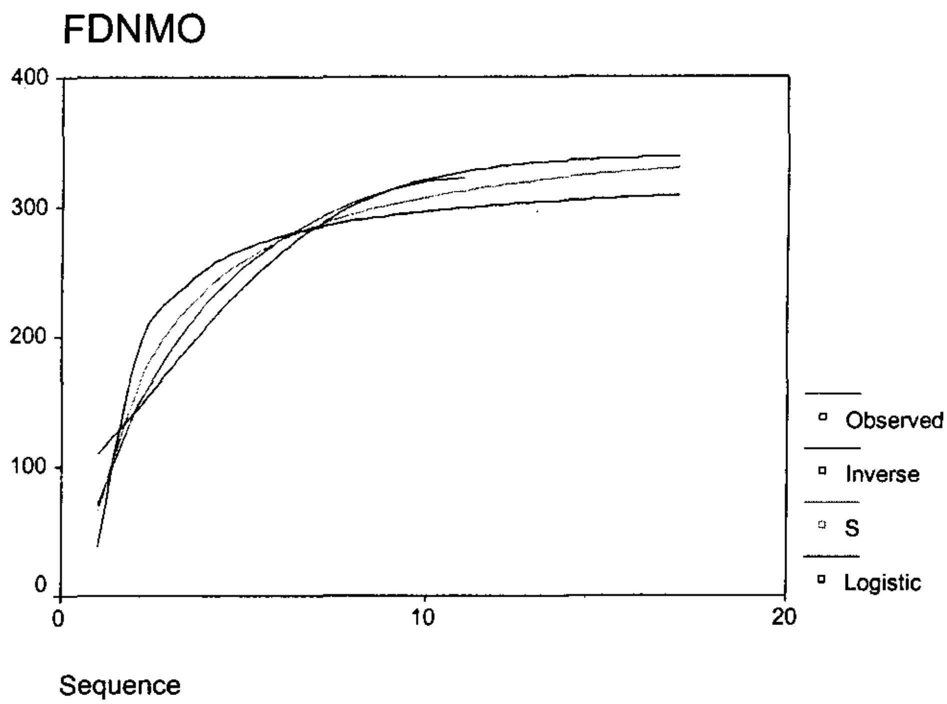
EXHIBIT

Example of Nonlinear Analysis for the Movie "Finding Nemo"

Independent: Time (weeks after initial release)

Dependent	Meth	Rsq	d.f.	F	Sigf	Upper bound	b0	b1
FDNMO	INV	.902	9	83.19	.000		325.648	-287.80
FDNMO	S	.990	9	851.81	.000		5.901	-1.7134
FDNMO	LGS	.963	9	231.81	.000	340.0	0.0091	0.6707



TECHNOLOGICAL AND PEDAGOGY IMPACTS ON THE FUTURE OF BASIC MARKETING COURSES AND TEXTBOOKS

SESSION CHAIR
James Cross, University of Nevada, Las Vegas

PANELISTS
Greg Bowman, McGraw Hill- Irwin
James Peltier, University of Wisconsin, Whitewater
John A. Schibrowsky, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
John Keeney, Xanedu
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Certainly, the practice of marketing has changed dramatically over the last 20 years. Electronic commerce/online buying, the Internet, database marketing, experiential marketing, contact management software, home use of computers, sophisticated pricing models, the growth of interactive marketing, and the development of sophisticated marketing intelligence systems are just a few of the tools and terms that have evolved over the past two decades. With the increasing speed of change in the field of marketing, one can only assume that the need to change what is taught will change even more over the next twenty years.

Couple this with all the new publishing and communication technology available, such as custom publishing, Print on Demand, E-books, course management tools such as WEB CT, and other on line resources and it easy to see that the future of marketing education is poised for great change.

This special session was designed to review how far basic marketing education has advanced over the past twenty years, and to peek around the corner at the next decade or two. However, unlike most presentations on the subject, this session begins by comparing basic marketing textbooks and other course communication tools of the past three decades with those of today. This approach focuses the discussion on factual differences rather than anecdotal evidence and opinions.
The presentation is divided into two parts. First, Cross will present research findings pertaining to topic and pedagogy coverage of principle books published in over the past four decades. This data provides an important benchmark concerning what was taught twenty plus years ago as compared to what is considered as current pedagogy.

The second part of the presentation centers on a discussion concerning the impact of new technology on the future of basic marketing education. The discussion promises to be both insightful and entertaining.

The importance of the interaction of these topics cannot be overstated. A course, delivered via the Internet that covers out-of-date topics is still an out-of-date course regardless of the medium. Conversely, a course touting the importance of new technology taught via lecture notes and overheads sends mixed messages to the students.

As we approach the new millennium, it is time to reflect on the past four decades to determine if marketing education has lead marketing thought, simply kept up with marketing practice, or lagged behind the practice of marketing. Recently, ELMAR has been the site of an exchange of views pertaining to the future of marketing education. The discussion was entertaining and informative; however, in our opinion the discussion has been missing two essential ingredients, a factual benchmark of marketing thought and an understanding of the new technologies that will drive marketing course communications in the future. This special session is designed to fill this void.

A REVIEW OF THE LEARNING OUTCOMES OF STUDENT DEVELOPED MARKETING PLANS

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ABSTRACT

Student developed marketing plans are intended to develop several critically important knowledge and skill outcomes, and to provide realism and an active, experiential learning experience for the student. This study evaluates various aspects of the assignment from the students' point of view in terms of perceived accomplishment of learning outcomes.

METHODOLOGY

A convenience sample of 146 students and alumni from three universities responded to a web-based survey comprised of 7-point semantic differential and Likert-scale items and open-ended questions.

RESULTS

Semantic differential scaling indicates that the marketing plan assignment was seen as an active, challenging, good, helpful, interesting, specific, structured, fun, personal, and practical learning experience. However, respondents felt the project required too much effort and was stressful.

Relatively high levels of work performance were reported. The ratings ranged from a low of 4.91 (on a scale of 1-7) for effective teamwork to a high of 5.38 for applying marketing concepts and for quality of the written report. Higher levels of work performance were reported among marketing majors, those in a senior level course, those in a semester format, and for a problem-solving type of plan. Lower teamwork performance was reported where the project had more than 50% grade-weighting. Interestingly, self-selected teams reported lower performance on many project dimensions.

All of the marketing knowledge development outcomes were seen as at least moderately developed, ranging from 2.64 to 3.83 (reversed 1-7 scaling). Knowledge about marketing planning was most well-developed. Knowledge about marketing budgeting and control processes were the least developed. Problem-solving marketing plans produced greater overall knowledge development. Marketing majors indicated more knowledge development than non-majors. The semester format and senior level course locus produced more knowledge development as well.

All of the skill outcomes were seen as relatively well-developed by the assignment. The range was from 2.75 for applying marketing knowledge to real-world situations and leadership to 3.91 for ethical sensitivity (reversed scaling).

More positive attitudes toward marketing were developed with a mean rating of 2.83 (reversed scaling). Self-confidence was also enhanced with a mean rating of 2.97.

The assignment was seen as moderately helpful in performing a currently held job with a 3.68 mean rating. The usefulness of the marketing plan assignment for getting a job was rated at 3.84.

Satisfaction was relatively high with a 2.41 mean rating (reversed scale). Respondents agreed (1.64) that the assignment should be required for marketing majors and all business majors (2.62). Open-ended responses identified a sense of accomplishment, making a contribution to an organization, and exposure to the real-world of business as the most rewarding aspects of the assignment. Teamwork problems were most often mentioned as the least rewarding aspect.

Suggested improvements to the assignment included: having more direction and support from faculty, more frequent accountability for progress on the project, breaking the assignment into smaller components, increased team member accountability and performance recognition, and having more time to complete the assignment. Internships, mentors, networking, and actually running an enterprise were mentioned as more effective than the marketing plan in developing the knowledge and skills needed for success.

(Exhibits, instruments, and references available on request.)

EFFECTIVENESS OF SERVICE-LEARNING IN MARKETING: A TWO-YEAR STUDY

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ABSTRACT

A number of exploratory research studies have been conducted on the use of service-learning in business courses. Much of the literature develops a rationale for using service-learning by citing the need for civic education and enumerating its benefits for business students. Research conducted in several areas of business, including marketing, reveals an increasing understanding of how service-learning can be applied in different disciplines. However, limited empirical data is available which can be used to emphasize the civic and academic value of service-learning. To speed up the institutionalization of service-learning, studies need to reveal that the concept works in a specific course, over time, with different types of activities, for different professors and even for different majors. This paper presents the results of such a study conducted over a two year period as part of a principles of marketing course at an AACSB accredited business school.

A total of nine faculty and six hundred and fifty five students participated in the study. Two models of service-learning, the Discipline-Based Service-Learning and the Problem-Based Service-Learning models were utilized. Three hundred and seventy three students engaged in team projects, while the remaining students worked on an individual basis. Twenty-three percent were marketing majors, sixty-eight percent were majoring in other business options, and the remaining nine percent were non-business majors. Based on existing research in other academic areas, four general desired outcomes were selected. These outcomes related to civic responsibility, career development, academic learning, and personal development. To measure student reported outcomes, a self-administered questionnaire was developed, utilizing a survey instrument designed for assessing the impact of service-learning.

Results of the study reveal that all student-learning outcomes were achieved to some extent, with the greatest impact on civic responsibility. Students reported that the primary benefit was to show them how they could become more involved in their community and how their efforts impacted community organizations. Whereas they may have originally thought volunteer work was comprised primarily of mundane tasks, the assignment allowed them to engage in, and become aware of, higher-level activities. Particularly encouraging was the increase in the student's propensity to volunteer.

Students tended to agree that the assignment made them more aware of new career possibilities and that participating in this type of activity would be an asset upon graduation. Results show less success in using the assignment to enhance an understanding of the principles of marketing. However, only twenty percent of the students felt that the technique did not enhance their understanding of course content.

The assignment's impact on personal feelings, biases, and appreciation for diversity had mixed results. Reflective papers revealed that students who were more directly involved with an agency's clients tended to be more personally affected by the experience. On the other hand, when a team or individual worked primarily with an organization's management staff, there was less impact on personal factors.

When results were cross tabulated by type of assignment, those involve involved in team projects reported a more significant positive impact on several personal factors (e.g. leadership and communication ability) as well as academic learning. A similar analysis based on major revealed a greater impact on the career development dimension for marketing option students.

Core business courses should provide more than just an introduction to a subject matter. They should also be used to help develop personal skills and values, as well as build career awareness. There are many methods of teaching aimed at enhancing knowledge, skills, and values. As this study shows, the value of service-learning lies in its ability to provide not only these outcomes, but also to help create civically responsible individuals.

ON THE EFFICACY OF GENERAL VERSUS SPECIFIC ATTITUDINAL MEASURES TOWARD AN MBA PROGRAM

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ABSTRACT

The assessment of student or alumni attitudes toward an academic program may be handled through the use of general measures that use semantic-differential based adjective pairs (e.g., valueless/valuable) or through specific measures (e.g., my marketing program experience fulfilled my expectations) that encompass Likert scale scoring. This study seeks to compare these approaches through an assessment of their covariation with student preferences for teaching methods. Its intent is to reveal whether there is a preferred approach for measuring program attitudes and to establish a framework for future studies using similar and alternative predictors. The results reveal the viability of the use of general measures in the measurement of attitudes toward an academic program and it recommends their inclusion in the development of outcome assessment metrics.

INTRODUCTION

With every AACSB-International accredited business program being faced with outcomes assessment and the need for continuous improvement, refinements in outcome assessments offer great promise. Typically, perceptual and attitudinal outcome metrics may be applied to current students, alumni, recruiters, employees, and the business community at large. Such metrics may encompass gap studies of skill and knowledge emphases (Davis, Misra, and Van Auken 2002), as well as comparisons of perceptions with program expectations (Nordstrom and Sherwood 1997). Other common forms of outcome metrics include assessments of attitudinal affect and self-reports of learning effectiveness (Young, Klemz, and Murphy 2003). While metrics may be applied to external publics, studies of current students and/or alumni are richer in that programmatic variables that directly influence outcome measures may be assessed as to their relationships. In essence, the variables that explain performance, satisfaction, attitude, etc., are revealed and may be emphasized while those without explanatory power are not. As a result, programs may directly undergo improvement by implementing recommended changes.

ATTITUDE TOWARD A PROGRAM

Within the area of business, global attitude toward the marketing major has been revealed by Davis, Misra, and Van Auken (2000) and by Young, Klemz and Murphy (2003). Such measures, as applied to marketing seniors, permit assessments of the efficacy of various teaching methods and the revelation of those methods that covary with global attitude toward the major. Basically, the revelation of predictor variables that are controllable by faculty and explain attitude are at the heart of programmatic improvement.

Overall, attitude studies are important because the attitude of the student may play a pivotal role in learning. Positive relationships between attitude and learning have also been postulated. (Davis, Misra, and Van Auken, 2000). In fact, attitude toward the course was the second most important variable in predicting achievement in a graduate statistics course (Johnson 1996). Further, students that had a more favorable attitude toward a course evidenced higher achievement (Kuhlemeier, Van Den Bergh, and Melse 1996). Thus, influencing attitude suggests an affect on learning (Glazer, Steckel, and Winer 1987). Further, when attitude is poor, students can experience feelings of insecurity, frustration, anger, alienation, overcompensation, and futility (Gregore and Butler 1984). Research also suggests the utility of matching teaching styles with student learning preferences, as such preferences are viewed as being directly related to student performance (Okebukola 1986).

With the establishment of attitude as an outcome metric, it is recognized that an overall evaluation is being obtained that can range from extremely positive to extremely negative. Thus affect is being revealed or one's feelings. In the area of outcomes assessment, affect has been measured through the use of global attitudinal measures. To illustrate, Davis, Misra, and Van Auken (2000) used Mitchell and Olsen's (1981) measures to assess attitude toward the marketing major. They used seven-point semantic differential scales, portraying a continuum that included the following: good experience/bad experience, satisfactory/unsatisfactory, useless/useful and ineffective/effective. These measures were also used by Young, Klemz and Murphy (2003) in a marketing context. Given marketing's rich tradition of attitudinal measurement it is not surprising that marketing is influential with respect to new assessment approaches. Further, marketing-based attitudinal measures may be applied to all business disciplines, as well as those external to the field.

STUDY PURPOSE

This study thus seeks to build on existing attitudinal assessment approaches through the addition of idiosyncratic or specific attitudinal assessment measures that have been reported by the AACSB/Educational Benchmark, Inc. study (Newsline, 1998). In this work, the following three "attitudinal" questions were employed:

- To what extent did your undergraduate business experience fulfill your expectations?
- When you compare the total expense to the quality of your education, how do you rate the value of the investment you made in your undergraduate business degree?
- How inclined are you to recommend your undergraduate business program to a friend?

These specific measures can easily be adjusted to a major area of study, undergraduate and/or graduate education. They are unique in that they are idiosyncratic to an audience and they seek to directly measure affect.

This study thus seeks to contrast the efficacy of alternative attitudinal metrics through an assessment of their covariation with student preferences for teaching methods. One of the attitudinal metric approaches will encompass global measures using seven-point semantic differential scales (satisfactory/unsatisfactory, good/bad, etc.), while the other will employ AACSB/EBI attitudinal measures expressed in seven-point Likert scale form. The three prior mentioned idiosyncratic questions now appear as the following statements:

- My major, undergraduate or graduate program fulfilled my expectations.
- When I compare my total program expenses to the quality of my major, undergraduate or graduate education, I rate the value of my investment as high.
- I am very inclined to recommend the (name of institution and major, undergraduate, or graduate program) to a close friend.

In an effort to determine the relative efficacy of the global versus idiosyncratic attitudinal approaches, measures of the effectiveness of eight alternative teaching methods[1] will be statistically compared with each of the two attitudinal-measurement approaches. While using these same predictors, if the resulting goodness-of-fit measures vary substantially between the two dependent variable sets, an attitudinal measurement approach of choice will be revealed.

To date, teaching method variables have explained 38% of the variance in the global attitudinal approach (Davis, Misra, and Van Auken 2000), yet no comparison between the global and idiosyncratic attitudinal measures using a fresh data set of predictors and criterion measures have been made. This study will address that void and provide insights into future questionnaire construction with respect to the attitudinal measurement of business programs.

THE SAMPLE

The population used in this study contained all MBA alumni from a private New England university. The subjects (n=312) were assessed as to course content value, subject matter emphases; teaching method effectiveness, and the two alternative attitudinal measurement formats: global and the more tailored specific approach. The results of this survey produced a sample size of 82 for an effective 26.3% response rate.

STUDY METHOD AND PRELIMINARIES

Since the purpose of the study is to assess how well the two alternative approaches to program attitudinal assessment covary with alumni perceptions of teaching methods, the two attitudinal approaches were separately factor analyzed. The purpose of this was to determine the dimensionality of each. Given the revelation of a single dimension for each

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[1] These teaching method measures will assess effectiveness on a seven-point scale that ranges from poor to excellent with the value of seven denoting excellent.

attitudinal measurement approach, multiple regression and its single dependent variable requirement would be the appropriate methodology for assessing the extent of covariation with teaching methods. This is because all criterion measures have the potential of being collapsed into a single composite score for each respondent for each approach.

Factor Analysis of Global Variables. The results of using a principal component's factor analysis on the eight global variables revealed the presence of a single factor, which explained 57.3% of the variance in the data. This component matrix is presented in Table 1. These semantic differential scaled variables produced sizable loadings and are compatible with the results obtained from the data used by Davis, Misra, and Van Auken (2000).

Factor Analysis of Specific Variables. The factor analysis results on the three idiosyncratic attitudinal measures revealed a single factor, which explained 86.0% of the variance. The resulting component matrix is presented in Table 2.

These seven-point Likert scaled variables evidence striking commonality.

Factor Analysis of Teaching Method Variables. With the establishment of the appropriateness of a multiple regression analysis, the eight-teaching method variables were also subjected to a principal components factor analysis with a varimax rotation. The purpose being to produce orthogonal or uncorrelated factors that will address the issue of multicollinearity among the predictor variables. The results of this application revealed the presence of three factors that explained 64.8% of the variance in the data. These three factors patterns are presented in Table 3.

The first factor loads heavily on group projects and in-class experiences. The second factor weights more on cases and computer simulations or what amounts to analytical and conceptual skill development, while the third factor denotes an emphasis on individual involvements.

MULTIPLE REGRESSION RESULTS

Global Attitudinal Metrics. The results of regressing the overall or global attitudinal factor against the three teaching method factors produced an R^2 value of .32, thus 32% of the variance in global attitude is explained by teaching methodology. The regression evidenced a statistically significant association between the three teaching methods and the global attitudinal measure (F = 12.12, d.f.= 3 and 78, p= .00) thus attesting to the soundness of the R^2 value. Table 4 portrays the nature of the relationships.

As can be seen, each predictor variable is statistically associated with global attitude and judging from the signs of the beta coefficients, all predictors covary directly with attitude. Additionally, the most powerful predictors are the group project, in-class experience factor and the individual experience factor which tie with respect to the highest beta weights. Finally, there is no multicollinearity present due to the use of orthogonal factors as predictors. All in all, the three predictors are explaining global attitude toward the program.

Specific Attitudinal Metrics. The inclusion of the specific or idiosyncratic attitudinal factor was likewise regressed against the same three teaching method factors. In this case, the R^2 equaled .24, which is 8% less than the use of the global attitudinal factor. Still, the three predictors were statistically associated with the specific attitudinal factor (F = 8.36, d.f. = 3 and 78, p = .00). Overall, the results of the multiple regression appear in Table 5.

As can be noted, the three predictors evidence positive beta coefficients, hence they also covary directly with the specific attitudinal factor. The major difference occurs with the first teaching method factor, which is barely associated with the criterion measure (p=.05). Further, the teaching methods with the highest beta weights are the second and third factors with the second factor (cases and computer simulations) possessing the greatest explanatory power. Overall, the use of different criterion measures that are conceptually related has revealed different results.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This study has shown how two different approaches to attitudinal measurement of an MBA program produced different results when regressed against teaching method factors. The two approaches are conceptually related (r=.64, p<.01), yet basically loaded on different factors when both were combined in a principal components factor analysis (explained variance = 66.3%). Given this uniqueness, the results suggest that one of the two is superior with respect to measurement. In this regard, the global attitudinal approach captures a covariation with teaching methodologies that is not seen in the specific attitudinal approach. In essence the R^2 value for global measures equaled 32% while the R^2 value for specific measures equaled 24%. Thus, global measures may be richer in terms of explanatory power. If faced with a choice, this study would recommend the global approach in lieu of the idiosyncratic.

Of course, other predictor variables such as course content value or skills versus knowledge emphases need to be investigated. In this regard, would the global approach continue to perform? Still, the key is variation. Apparently, global measures evoke superior covariation and this consideration should prompt their inclusion in outcome assessment studies. Further, teaching methods and their preferences by students can and do explain attitudes toward a program. In essence, they tap learning styles and they offer key implications for faculty evaluating outcomes. Thus, they too should be a part of outcome assessment. In this context, general attitudinal measures would seem to be preferred over the specific. However, they can both be included and evaluated as to their efficacy over a variety of predictors. It may be that systematic patterns will be revealed which will add to the theory of attitudinal measurement in outcome studies. Hopefully this study will serve as a catalyst and stimulate further inquiry.

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Tables are available from the first author by request.

EXCELLENCE IN THE TEACHING OF MARKETING: EDUTAINMENT NOT ENTERTAINMENT

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ABSTRACT

This paper develops the *Teacher as a Communicator* and *Teacher as Actor* roles and describes why and how marketing faculty can and use traditional acting tools including enthusiasm, voice control, animation, suspense, and surprise in order to capture and hold their students' attention and interest in marketing.

INTRODUCTION

Considerable discussion has taken place in our journals, conferences, offices, and hallways regarding the attributes or characteristics of those marketing professors that excel in their teaching effectiveness. Over the last 15 years the three most frequently cited authors in our literature, Conant, Kelley, and Smart have labeled these individuals as "Master Teachers." (2003, 1991, 1988). Other recent authors have been perhaps more modest and focus on what makes for a "good" teacher (Desai, Damewood, and Jones 2001). These and other authors have focused on defining excellence in marketing education via primary research. Others have used analysis of student evaluations of teaching (aka SETs) to provide insight into the characteristics of those professors who are viewed as better via the eyes of students.

Overall, the marketing education literature clearly suggests that a master teacher must possess a wide variety of abilities, attitudes, and skills. Unfortunately, the same literature has not provided very much guidance on how to develop these characteristics or improve upon those now possessed. Smart, Kelley, and Conant (2003) offer some guidance such as interacting with know master teachers, having them observe and comment on instruction, etc. However, more complete guidance can be offered by breaking down the roles of the teacher and the isolating on specific steps that can be taken to improve role performance.

THREE CRITICAL ROLES

Jordon reminds us of the three critical roles teachers must play in their efforts to educate. They are: (1) the *Teacher as a Scholar*, (2) the *Teacher as a Person*, and (3) the *Teacher as a Communicator* (Jordon 1982). Knowledge of the field of marketing and mastery of specific subsets is a minimal necessity for playing the role of *Teacher as Scholar.* While it may be argued that most students assume their professors to be knowledgeable, it is also reasonable and fairly well documented that many students are not in the best position to even assess such knowledge. Evidence of this fact was presented long ago in non-marketing education literature. One such study involved the classic "Dr. Fox Effect" experiment in which an individual acted as an expert (professor) for one class day and completely "wowed" students despite the fact that "Dr. Fox" conveyed little content, used double talk, irrelevant, and contradictory examples during his class lecture (Perry 1985). Clearly, Dr. Fox's students did not know they had been duped!

The *Teacher as Person* role is perhaps best thought of by considering the personal characteristics and actions that help build rapport with students. How well students like their teacher/professor can summarize performance within this role. Within this area are characteristics and descriptors such as caring or empathy, concern for students, a friendly demeanor (Kelley, Conant, and Smart 1991 and Smart, Kelley, and Conant 2003) and perhaps being fair and impartial in evaluating student performance (Desai, Damewood, and Jones 2001). This is the likeability and showing concern for the student that Marks (2000) found to positively impact SET scores. "Dr. Fox's" students liked him, so they felt that they had learned from him. But, we know that their perceptions did not match reality. They were no better off (knowledge wise) upon leaving the classroom that day than they were when they entered the room. If Dr. Fox had "known his stuff," then we could argue that effective teaching had occurred.

The *Teacher as Communicator* role requires that what students need to know, understand, do, etc. be properly transferred within the classroom. (This is not meant to suggest that learning does not take place outside the classroom.) Thus, what the professor knows must be communicated. Knowledge in itself is not enough. And, being liked is not enough. A number of scholars suggest teachers could become better at their role of *Teacher as Communicator* if they thought of and trained themselves as an actor. This suggests that an overall *Teacher as Actor* role subsides within the *Teacher as Communicator* role.

EDUTAINMENT

If marketing educators expect their students receive or absorb the material presented and discussed in class, then they must capture them by presenting material (our knowledge) in and interesting and captivating way (Tauber and Mester 1994). Simply put, we need to entertain our students. But, we must think of and use entertainment as a means to an end. After conducting numerous interviews and observations with award-winning teachers, Kelly and Kelly (1982) concluded that, among other elements, that the very best teachers compared their teaching to a theatrical performance. Evidence of effective teaching as effective acting appears to be worldwide. A dramatic style of teaching in many cultures has emerged as one of the highest correlates with teaching effectiveness (Sallinen-Kuparinen et al 1987). Holloway, Abbot-Chapman, and Hughes (1992) report that a common element among effective teachers is a high level of enthusiasm even to the point of being highly dramatic.

FOUR KEY ELEMENTS

While not considered to be all inclusive of the possibilities, four major elements of delivering marketing education in an atmosphere of edutainment appear to be: (1) enthusiasm, (2) animation through bodily movements, (3) animation through voice, and (4) the use of suspense and surprise. **Enthusiasm.** Teacher enthusiasm is fundamental to effective communications and is a pedagogical necessity. (Soenksen 1992). Effective teachers motivate their students with an enthusiastic style of teaching (Brophy and Good 1986). Enthusiasm has been identified as one of the five delivery characteristics associated with effective teaching. **Body Animation.** Effective actors and teachers use gestures to communicate with and "control" their audience's attention and thoughts. The best gestures are natural and not distracting. They are purposeful. **Voice Animation.** As an actor uses their voice to effective play a role, so does the effective teacher use it to facilitate student learning. There are three aspects or components of voice to be understood and used in the classroom. They are pitch (high versus low), volume (loudness), and speed (rate of talk). **Suspense and Surprise.** These are two other characteristics of teachers who deliver effective classroom instruction day in and day out. Again, if we think of those actors, movies, shows, etc. that gain and hold our attention we will find that the elements of suspense and surprise are present. Teaching without surprise or suspense suggests that all in life is completely predictable. This is hardly the case with today's marketing world!

APPLICATIONS

A large variety and number of examples of how professors can effectively use the above-mentioned four elements are presented in the full paper from which these proceedings were produced.

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IMPROVING INSTRUCTOR EVALUATION PROGRAMS: INTEGRATING IMPORTANCE AND EXPECTATIONS DIMENSIONS

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a conceptual model featuring two dimensions that may improve the way students' evaluations of instructors are used at institutions. The dimensions are described with hypotheses advanced for empirical testing. Making the assumption that empirical support will be found, implementation issues are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

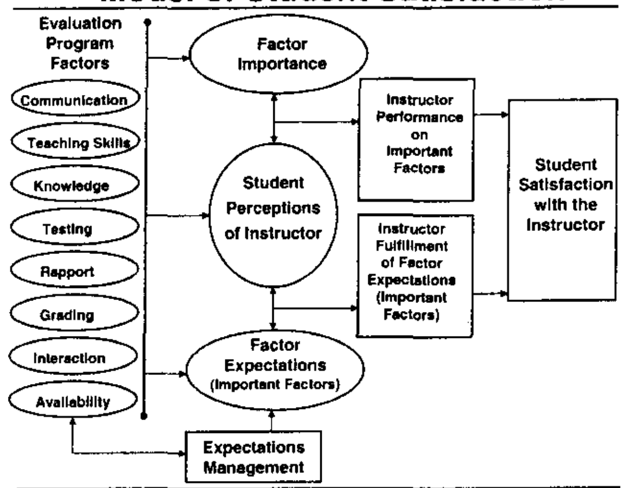
A survey of AACSB members found that deans and department heads rated classroom teaching as the most important component in evaluating annual faculty performance (Anderson and Shao 2002). When asked how student evaluation scores (i.e. satisfaction ratings) were used for evaluation purposes, respondents indicated that mean scores for an instructor were evaluated primarily by making comparisons to department, discipline, college and university aggregate mean scores. This approach suggests that improvements can be made in the way student ratings are used for evaluation purposes.

Evaluation programs that simply report student satisfaction mean scores for instructor characteristics (e.g., teaching skills) with a general satisfaction score have two limitations. The scores may be used to complete comparisons of the instructor's performance in the classroom without actually indicating key areas where instructors should apply effort to improve students' overall satisfaction. Even if this guidance is provided, instructors may not understand the degree to which they need to change in order to increase student satisfaction. To address these limitations, instructor evaluation programs should provide an understanding of: 1) the factors students believe to be important when they evaluate instructors, and 2) the students' expectations for instructor performance on these factors.

MODEL OF STUDENT SATISFACTION

The Model of Student Satisfaction (Figure 1) assumes that a common set of factors (e.g., communication, teaching skills) associated with good teaching are determined by faculty, students and administrators for an evaluation program. Several studies have described characteristics of effective instructors which can be reviewed for factors that are appropriate for a particular institution. Literature reviews related to characteristics associated with effective teaching (Whitlark, Geurts and Rhoads 2002; Chonko, Tanner and Davis 2002) are good sources for this information. To illustrate typical factors, a comparison of findings from two studies is described below that suggests the use of eight common factors. These are presented in Figure 1 as Evaluation Program Factors.

FIGURE 1
Model of Student Satisfaction



The Model of Student Satisfaction (Figure 1) includes Factor Importance and Factor Expectations as dimensions that influence Student Satisfaction with Instructors. They are viewed as being separate, yet related, dimensions. Each represents distinctive perceptions held by students that can be considered jointly when evaluating instructor performance and diagnosing where to make improvements. The Factor Importance dimension suggests the relative emphasis to be placed on each factor as indicated by importance ratings. In contrast, the Factor Expectations dimension indicates the degree to which specific aspects of the factors should be addressed by an instructor.

FACTOR IMPORTANCE

Evaluation programs assessing factors that are both relevant to the learning environment and important to students offer two benefits. First, the information gathered through these evaluation programs can be used to focus the attention of instructors on areas where the university, or college, has previously set explicit or implicit standards. Secondly, instructors can diagnose how well they perform on key factors that are relatively more important to students. The impetus for considering the relative importance of these factors from the students' perspective is the belief that satisfaction ratings are influenced by the extent to which the instructor performs well in areas that are truly important to the students. Therefore, the following hypothesis is advanced:

H1: Student satisfaction with the instructor is positively related to the extent with which the instructor performs well on factors that are relatively more important to students.

What factors are important to students and which factors are relatively more important? Grunenwald and Ackerman (1986) used a modified Delphi technique to obtain agreement among students regarding factors associated with good teaching. Eight factors were identified: availability, communication skills, grading, interaction, knowledge of subject, rapport with students, teaching skills, and testing. In addition to developing clear definitions of these factors, their relative importance was obtained using mean scores from a 100 point constant-sum scale. More recently, Chonko, Tanner and Davis (2002) asked students to identify the most important things they expected of their professors. A total of 19 attributes were mentioned including several more items in the "other" category.

Table 1 presents the eight factors recognized by Grunenwald and Ackerman (1986) with mean scores. Attributes identified by Chonko, Tanner and Davis (2002) and the percentage of student responses for each are also presented. For comparison purposes, the attributes have been categorized based on factor definitions provided by Grunenwald and Ackerman (1986). Findings from both studies support use of the eight factors (Grunenwald and Ackerman 1986) when examining instructor performance.

The ranking in Table 1 suggests factors that should receive greater attention from instructors. It is is based on both mean scores indicating relative importance (Grunenwald and Ackerman 1986) and a total percentage of the student responses reported by Chonko, Tanner and Davis (2002) for each attribute. Multiple attributes were expressed by students so the attribute percentages are not meant to add-up to 100%. Although differences exist between the rankings of factors based on mean scores and percentage responses, four factors ranked highly in both studies: Communication Skills, Teaching Skills, Knowledge of the Subject and Rapport with Students.

TABLE 1
Evaluation Program Factors: Ranking of Importance

Factor	Attribute/Percentage of Students Expressing	Rank
Communication Skills	Interesting (11.9) Communicates Well (10.7) Easy to Talk to (10.3) Interested in Subject (4.0) Enthusiastic (2.7) Loves to Teach (1.9) Sense of Humor (1.5)	1 (17.03) 43%
Rapport with Students	Wants Students to Learn (1.4) Good Personality (7.9) Kind (6.0) Understanding (4.7)	2 (11.03) 20%
Teaching Skills	Organized (1.10) Helps Students (11.6)	3 (15.79) 12.7%
Knowledge of Subject	Knowledgeable (3.4) Experienced (1.1)	4 (15.64) 4.5%
Grading	Fair (2.5)	5 (10.45) 2.5%
Interaction	Easy-going Style (1.2) Open-minded (1.1)	6 (9.93) 2.3%
Testing	No Attributes Categorized	7 (11.84)
Availability	No Attributes Categorized	8 (7.49)

FACTOR EXPECTATIONS

While it is beneficial to know which factors students believe to be relatively more important, it is also valuable to understand their expectations for the factors. Attributes such as those included in Table 1 can be developed into scales items representing each factor. These can be used to determine what students expect from a typical instructor.

Predictive, normative, and comparative expectations have been identified in the marketing literature (Prakash 1984). Comparative expectations regarding the attributes of factors are used as "benchmarks" when evaluating instructors. For example, students will have beliefs about the likelihood of a typical instructor exhibiting a "sense of humor" in the classroom. If this attribute is an indicator of the factor communication and it is expected by many students, communication factor ratings of an instructor that regularly uses humor will be relatively higher than those reported for an instructor that does not exhibit a "sense of humor".

There are two reasons why it is useful to understand the students' comparative expectations for a typical instructor. First, instructors benefit from gaining knowledge about the performance level they must achieve to have positive interactions with students. Assuming students' expectations are realistic, they can take actions to improve the quality of their teaching and influence student satisfaction ratings. The second reason is related to the possibility that students' comparative expectations may be inaccurate or even unrealistic. Instructors may be able to shape them to be more accurate.

Figure 1 represents Instructor Fulfillment of Factor Expectations (of important factors) as influencing Student Satisfaction with the Instructor. This conceptualization is similar to that expressed in literature related to consumer satisfaction. Consumer satisfaction has been depicted as resulting from the difference between the consumer's expectations and the degree to which these expectations are met (Oliver 1980; Zeithaml, Berry and. Parasuraman 1993; Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1994). In this paper, the difference between expectations held by students for important factors and their evaluation of the instructor's performance on these factors is considered. If a difference exists between what students expect and the instructor's performance, then the students' level of satisfaction is lowered. Conversely, students will be more satisfied with the instructor's performance as their expectations for important factors are fulfilled. The following hypothesis states this proposed relationship more formally:

H2: Student satisfaction with the instructor is positively related to the extent with which the students' expectations for important factors are fulfilled by the instructor.

EXPECTATIONS MANAGEMENT

The Model of Student Satisfaction (Figure 1) includes Expectations Management to suggest that student expectations for important factors are shaped by instructors and their institutions. It is highly likely that factors which students believe to be important and their expectations for the attributes of these factors will be different from those expressed by faculty and administrators. Differences in views held by students and faculty regarding the importance of evaluation items have been reported by Desai, Damewood and Jones (2001). Considering the perspective of students, their expectations are shaped by different things, including previous educational experiences, "word-of-mouth" from other students and student orientation sessions. Expectations for attributes of important factors (e.g., communication, teaching skills, grading) continue to develop as they interact with instructors. Managing expectations by explicitly communicating the instructor's role in the learning process and what is expected of students may improve student evaluations of the instructor. Students' expectations would be more accurate and the instructor's involvement in clarifying and meeting student expectations may improve the likelihood that expectations are fulfilled.

IMPLEMENTATION: INTEGRATING DIMENSIONS

Integrating Factor Importance and Factor Expectations into existing instructor evaluation programs should be accomplished after empirically testing the hypotheses related to the Model of Student Satisfaction (Figure 1). Assuming the hypothesized relationships are supported, student responses indicating Factor Importance and Factor Expectations (i.e. expectations for factor attributes) may be collected periodically (e.g. once each year) to establish benchmarks. As student ratings of instructors on factors and attributes are obtained, comparisons can be made to the importance and expectations data. These can be completed using summary scores of factors to provide general direction on where to make improvements. Attribute scores can then be considered for an indication of specific actions to improve performance on a factor of interest. Providing this information with the widely used mean score comparisons of instructors to department, discipline, college and university scores improves the diagnostic value of ratings provided by students.

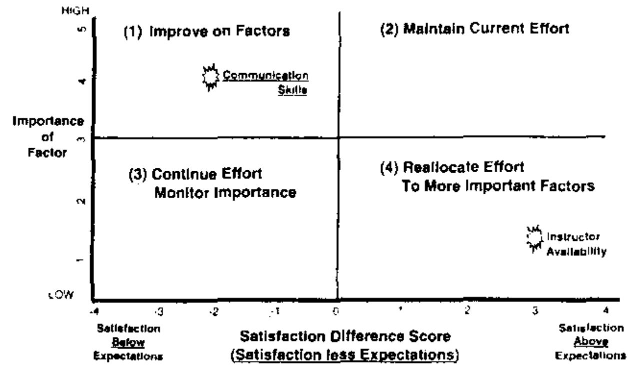
Importance rankings can be reported to suggest the relative emphasis to be placed on each factor. Student satisfaction indexes may be included with these rankings to reveal the extent to which students' satisfaction with each factor exceeded or fell below expectations. The indexes are calculated as a ratio of satisfaction to expectations (e.g., communication satisfaction divided by communication expectations).

One commonly used graphical tool is a four-cell matrix based on axes indicating high-low levels of importance, or expectations, and student satisfaction. Typically, the cells suggest actions to be taken: 1) Improve on Factors, 2) Maintain Current Effort, 3) Continue Effort/Monitor Importance, and 4) Reallocate Effort To More Important Factors. One matrix can be produced to represent factor importance and student satisfaction ratings. This matrix indicates, generally, where to direct effort when making improvements. A separate matrix is then used to show factor expectations and student satisfaction ratings. This second matrix reveals the extent to which student expectations are being fulfilled. Expectations for attributes related to each factor can also be included to indicate specific actions that may be taken by an instructor.

A more coherent approach using the four-cell matrix involves representing student satisfaction with difference scores calculated from factor expectation scores and student satisfaction ratings. The difference scores represent the extent to which student expectations are fulfilled. The four-cell matrix displays them in relation to importance rankings of the factors. Reporting the data in this way with one matrix may ease interpretation and ensure that the benefit of considering student expectations is not overlooked. Figure 2 provides an example of the second approach using a four-cell matrix with scores reported for the Communication Skills and Instructor Availability factors. Using satisfaction-importance (expectations) matrices, aggregated data can be plotted for a college, or department, to indicate factors needing attention. Alternatively, data can be plotted for individual instructors.

As depicted in Figure 2, communication skills of the instructor are not meeting expectations held by students for this factor. This is indicated by the satisfaction-expectations difference score (-2) derived from the instructor's satisfaction ratings on this factor at 2.5 and expectations reported by students at 4.5. Therefore, the instructor's communication skills would be a primary area for improvement because, in this example, expectations are not being met on a factor that is very important to students. As suggested previously, the instructor's next step would be to examine the attribute expectations scores in relation to the students' satisfaction scores. This review would indicate specific actions that could be taken to improve performance on the communication skills factor.

FIGURE 2
Satisfaction – Importance Matrix



CONCLUDING REMARKS

Since an emphasis on student satisfaction ratings will more than likely continue, it is beneficial to focus on factors that influence student satisfaction ratings and "measure what matters" to students. Empirical testing of the Model of Student Satisfaction (Figure 1) may support integration of this student-centric approach into evaluation programs that currently do not consider students' perceptions of Factor Importance and Factor Expectations. Information related to these dimensions can be conveyed in a manner that may help instructors focus their effort on important factors and fulfill student expectations for attributes related to the factors.

The opinions of some students regarding the relative importance of factors and their level of expectations for factor attributes may be different from those held by instructors and their institutions. They may even be unrealistic. Therefore, it is important to manage student expectations so they have an accurate understanding of the learning environment. Exploring ways to improve instructor evaluation programs and manage student expectations appears to be rich areas for further research. Hopefully, this paper will stimulate some discussion and ideas that will advance research activity in these areas.

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COURSE SELECTION DECISIONS BY BUSINESS STUDENTS ON CAMPUSES WITH AND WITHOUT PUBLISHED TEACHING EVALUATIONS

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ABSTRACT

In spite of students' increasingly vocal demands for access to official student evaluations of teaching (SET), little is known about the relative importance of SET in course selection decisions, and whether such evaluations are viewed by students as a valuable source of information about an instructor or course. This study used choice-based conjoint techniques to develop a web survey for two groups of students: those on campuses with published, on-line, official SET and those without such access (overall n=124). We found that although course evaluations play an important role in deciding among instructors, perceptions of the amount of useful knowledge gained in the course and how lenient the instructor is in his/her grading practices are the most important considerations when choosing among courses in the business major. Students on campuses with published SET rated course evaluations as less important in course choice than students on campuses without published evaluations. The findings suggest that improvements to the evaluation instrument and process are needed before students regard SET as a useful information source.

CHALLENGES FACING THE INTEGRATION OF ONLINE TUTORIALS IN THE CLASSROOM

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ABSTRACT

Enhancing teaching and learning has increased in emphasis, with educators now strongly debating effectiveness. Teaching effectiveness has been challenged from three pedagogical aspects: psychological, social and more recently, technological. Online learning methods have grown substantially with students demanding increased flexibility. Many studies document positive learning outcomes, but do students like this mode of learning? In this study a survey was conducted to determine student's attitudes and perceptions of online tutorials, because perceptions of learning environments vary.

INTRODUCTION

Effective teaching and learning methods have been debated for many years, (Jonassen 1988; Rose 1999), with a paradigm shift occurring within higher education. Educators are debating effectiveness more seriously than before (Babin, Shaffer et al. 2002).

Higher education institutions are commonly using a variety of computer based learning tools which offer the necessary educational needs and fulfil student expectations. Offering greater flexibility provides learning environments that are easily accessible, allowing for more opportunity for interaction plus a variety of different learning opportunities (Franklin and Peat 2001). The learning environment should offer flexibility in structure and include opportunities for the development of self directed learning (Candy, Crebert et al. 1994). Technological effectiveness for online teaching has been challenged and this study focuses on technology enhancing communication in learning.

Use of technology in marketing courses offers an unsurpassed real world opportunity for universities, and students. The shift in technology has seen teaching and learning move toward a student centred approach, with far more active learning and process based strategies employed, rather than passive transfers of communication messages (Bobbit, Inks et al. 2000; Jeffries 2001; Kennedy, Lawton et al. 2001).

However, there are still concerns as to opinions of online education. These include, but are not limited to inferiority, high dropout rate and time required for adequate instructor training. Online learning is sometimes viewed as an lesser form of education (Eastman and Owens-Swift 2001). It can be seen as a cost saving exercise for some unprofessional universities trying to increase their intake of students. As many as 50% of students drop out because they feel isolated and have to take responsibility for their own learning (Aron 1999). Furthermore, instructors need to be trained in how their students need to use this technology to ensure successful, efficient learning. Therefore, the objective of this study was as follows:

> to determine student ***attitudes and perceptions*** in an online marketing tutorial.

New teaching methods and flexible learning approaches are constantly being researched in education (Graham and Scarborough 1999; McLoughlin 2002). Many educators are now implementing new technology into their courses such as online syllabus, Internet term project and online homework assignments (Clarke III, Flaherty et al. 2001). The use of technology in online classrooms can encourage creative teaching and promote learning within smaller classes with students who can work on their own and, require learning flexibility (Abernathy 1999; Benbunan-Fich 1999; Eastman and Owens-Swift 2001).

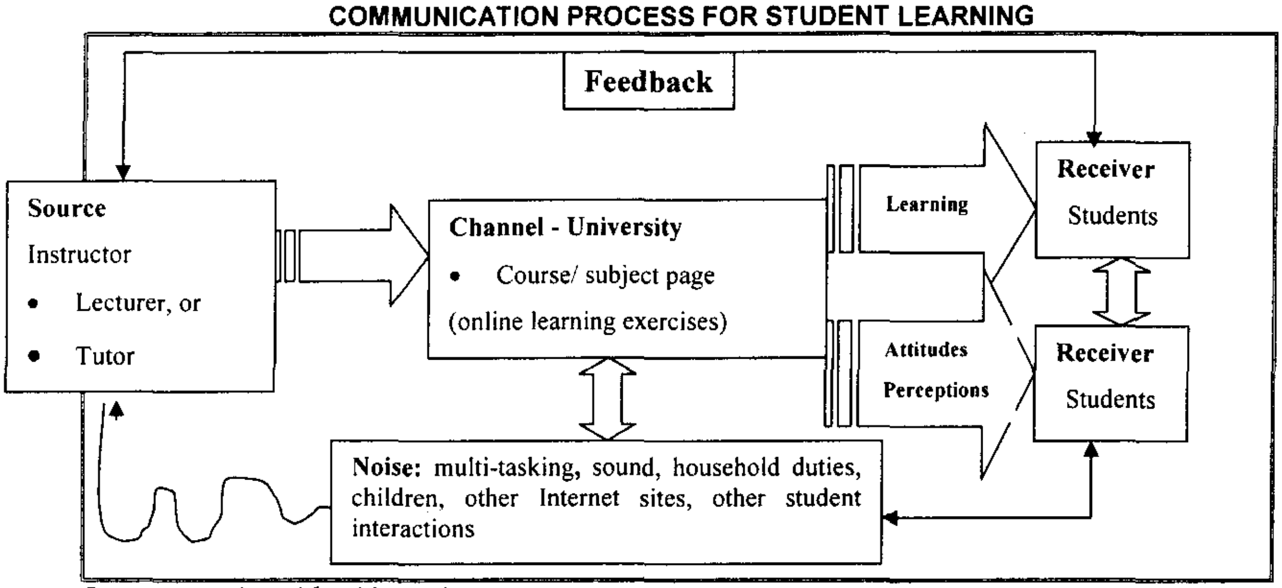
These new approaches came into fruition with a postgraduate course, Integrated Marketing and Communication (IMC) in semester one, 2003. Each week students were given a choice of topics and had to choose one to discuss online. They were asked to present ideas in regards to defining the subject area, identifying models and theory, how apt their topic was to the real world in particular the Australian context, giving real and practical examples. They were also asked to relate this information to class discussions from that week's lecture.

Student experiences revealed insights into what the students' attitudes and perceptions about online learning. This article consists of six sections. The next section details literature and the background to students' perceptions to different learning styles, namely lecture and active learning and how the online classroom affects learning. Next we detail the methodology and how the data was collected via a web survey. The findings are discussed. We give limitations and conclude with recommendations and future implications. Then we describe the literature on attitudes, perceptions, learning styles and the online classroom, followed by the method, findings and limitations.

LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Three important aspects of this research investigate the relationship between perceptions, learning and attitude. These will be briefly discussed. A student's perceptions about learning online is important because it is the explanation of how students see, select, organise and interpret information and stimuli into meaningful information and pictures (Liang 1967). Therefore enhancing their learning within a classroom environment. A student's behaviour can be affected by their perception of the relationship with another communicator. In this instance this would be the lecturer or tutor, other students and online learning experiences. Their learning environment (eg home or study environment) can also effect their perceptions. As shown in figure 1, the noise that can effect learning perceptions can include other home activities taking place, other students participating online at the same time, and current attitudes and perceptions that students possess. Learning is how individuals acquire experience, attitudes and knowledge. This will be discussed next.

FIGURE 1:
COMMUNICATION PROCESS FOR STUDENT LEARNING



Source: developed for this study

Learning is how individuals acquire and experience information. Learning styles are varied. Students can be visual, aural, kinaesthetic or a combination of these. Computer based instruction can provide greater potential for an interactive environment than other mediated teaching methods (Jonassen 1988).

Attitudes are a group of beliefs that are organised around a specific object and predispose a person to behave in a specific manner toward that object. Robeach (1969) believes that each individual has an organised system of attitudes that direct our behaviour. This therefore can result in a positive or negative emotion (Robeach 1969; Bem 1970; Insko and Schopler 1972; Oskamp 1977).

An individuals' communicative behaviour can be affected by their perception of the relationship with the other communicator (Liang, Phillipson et al. 1966). Consumer behaviour is explained as "continued repetition of behaviour is determined by habits rather than by attitudes or beliefs" (Ronis 1989, p. 217). Therefore by providing an online discussion learning environment, research suggests it can provide positive effects on students motivation and their attitudes (Slavin 1996).

Lecture verses Active Learning

Learning to teach is a journey through many mazes, and there is no guarantee that you make it to the other side. Highly effective teachers are professionals who have the taste to be the best they can (Smart, Kelley et al. 2003). With many different teaching strategies available to teachers, knowing what is best for you and your students is of utmost importance. Freeman (1998) suggests educators are increasingly looking for innovative teaching methods for learning in order to assist with problems associated with information delivery to large classrooms of students. Educators of marketing are placing greater emphasis on developing communication skills within courses (Smart, Kelley et al. 1999). This study looks at how this is possible with the findings of online tutorials.

Educators have a greater responsibility of providing levels of education (Young and Murphy 2003) that not only meet, but exceed student and industry expectations. One way is to be creative. Creativity is evaluated as being high on the agenda for skill development within classrooms (Shipp, Lamb Jr. et al. 1993). However, there are still questions concerning the validity of creativity in marketing disciplines (McIntyre, Hite et al. 2003). Educators within the marketing discipline need to enhance creative thinking and teaching practices, and one possible method is the use of technology and online learning. Not all academics are creative, however most would agree that the ability to think creatively is of utmost importance to industry (Brabbs 2001). As teaching professionals, pedagogies need to be more creative than traditional lectures to keep abreast with a changing student cohort and technological advances. Students' also demand courses that allow them to graduate with real marketable skills (Young and Murphy 2003), and using technologically based courses can better prepare them for the real world.

A population of students with increasing diversity challenges today's academics (Ekroth 1990). These included gender, age, culture and diversity of academic knowledge. These issues were identified by providing a survey to all students within the class, prior to the commencement of the study. It requested specific details of each student, namely age, level of tertiary education and country of origin. This clearly identified any discrepancies or weaknesses within the study.

The Online Classroom

Students can be passive recipients of information. Educators' cyber-blackboard has never been so exciting. We can place students in an endless time zone where learning and activity can take place whenever the student wants to engage. We can put them into different situations one day to the next. They can practice a multitude of skills: research, communication, fact finding, fun, as well as managerial decision making by altering exercises to suit the weeks topic of study. Students need to develop an interconnecting and integrated approach to learning. They need to develop holistic views to solve complex, every day problems in unstructured situations (November 1993). Although there are downsides of using technology for learning, benefits include time and location flexibility and no ethnic labelling (Smith 2001).

Giving the learner more autonomy when choosing how to interact with provided information and with others can be an effective learning environment (Megarry 1989). Self directed access can help students to self pace and explore more options about their topics of interest as opposed to information that is already known to them (Berge and Collins 1995). Online teaching is also an effective medium for developing social interactivity allowing the student to organise and reorganise information and create their own conceptual framework based on discussions from other students as well as receiving feedback (Godat and Whiteley-De Graaf 2003). Individual learners see the benefits of online education as opportunities for further interaction with peers (Harasim 1987); a more democratic appeal to learning and convenience of access.

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted at Queensland University of Technology in Brisbane, Australia during Semester One, 2003. Postgraduate students enrolled in the Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC) class were included in the study. Each student had the option of completing the survey in the final week of semester. All surveys were anonymous.

Type of data collected

A number of variables were taken from prior studies. Instructional variables included in the study were learner characteristics, learning location (Strauss and Frost 1999), time (Henke, Locander et al. 1988; Wager 1998; Strauss and Frost 1999; Marks 2000), level of interactivity (Harner 2000; Jonassen 2000; Kayama and Keesling 2000) and real world experience (Atwong and Hugstad 1997; Kearsley and Schneiderman 1998).

Survey

One survey was completed at the end of semester to enquire as to student's attitudes and perceptions on online tutorials instead of classroom tutorials. It is more beneficial to ask both qualitative and quantitative questions, therefore this study applied this principle (Fraser 1991). Of the 80 students enrolled in the unit, 32 completed the survey in the final week of semester. The sample was mostly female with 27 females and 5 males. Most students (85 percent) were aged between 20 and 29, with 75 percent being full time students. Ethnicity was 50 percent Australian and 37.5 percent Asian.

When the questionnaire was designed, we kept in mind measuring students' perceptions of the online learning environment. With special regard of how effective it was for student's individual learning styles, how and if they participated, if it was enjoyable, helpful and what level of satisfaction they would gain from this new mode of learning. The survey was developed using certain criteria:

1. Being **consistent** with other survey instruments used,
2. **Dimensions** such as past study modes, study habits and learning types and styles,
3. With regard to our **purpose** of the online learning environment which was relevant to our study (Sweeney and Ingram 2001; Granitz and Greene 2003).

FINDINGS

The majority of students had only participated in on campus delivery (72 percent), with 75 percent stating that they studied regularly and 80 percent fitted in studying wherever they could. As to the notion of study groups, 60 percent said that they did not like studying in groups, with 87.5 percent preferring to study on their own. However, 94 percent liked to study in a familiar environment. With a student population who had only participated in on-campus learning, 85 percent preferred academic contact during semester, with 15 percent not enjoying academic contact. This was not a surprising result.

Adding computers to the learning equation

Time spent by students on the Internet per week varied, with an average of 20 hours per week. Student's perceptions as to being comfortable spending large amounts of time in front of computers was not an issue with 72 percent stating that they did not mind. Access mostly was from both home and work, with weeknights for study from home. Of those who believed the Internet was of benefit to their studies (78 percent), 69 percent liked online tutorials as a means of learning. Reasons included they could work in their own time without attending class and they could think about their answers before answering. It is possible that if students can think before answering, then here may be some merit that this thinking enhances learning. If researching answers in students' own time is considered fun, as well as relating the topic to theory and practice, then this also has pedagogical merit.

Communicating with others, feeling embarrassed researching and the Internet being an equitable environment were not issues for liking online tutorials. A full list of reasons for liking on line tutorials can be seen below in table 1.

TABLE 1:
STUDENT'S REASONS FOR LIKING ONLINE TUTORIALS

Reason	*%*
Work in my own time	63
I can think about the answer to the question before answering	56
Do not have to attend class	50
Helps me relate theory (class discussion) to real world	28
Research was fun doing it in my own time	28
Communication with other students	19
No risk of embarrassment	15
Much more equitable environment	15
Other	

Source: analysis of survey data. N = 32

TABLE 2:
STUDENT'S REASONS FOR NOT LIKING ONLINE TUTORIALS

Reason	*% percent*
Time consuming eg face to face tutorials shorter	3
I like the class interaction	22
Other – Impersonal, liked contact	See comments below

Source: analysis of survey data, N = 10

Many respondents did not answer question about not liking online tutorials, with only 10 useable responses from the sample. Reasons for not liking online tutorials did not include being time consuming, nor missing our on class interaction. Of the respondents who believed the Internet was of benefit to them, 71 percent liked to maintain contact with academics. Likewise, 71 percent also preferred to study individually, while believing the Internet was advantageous to them. A comprehensive list can be viewed in table 2.

Many students gave reasons for not liking online tutorials even though they may have found them beneficial for reasons stated above. The main themes of feedback about online tutorials were themed around common perceptions of convenience, assessment, class contact and discussion abilities. Although students' said that they liked the convenience of online tutorials, however many negative comments regarding missing out on classroom discussion should not be overlooked. Students like to hear others opinions and stories. Postgraduate learners like to here what others are doing and how they are achieving it, as well as how they are using theory and what things have not worked. Students like flexibility and self paced learning (Candy, Crebert et al. 1994; Abernathy 1999), however possibly this technology shift does not suit every learner type. Instructors need be aware of this, but if technology is to be accepted as a learning style, possibly developing communities for students will allow a class to bond (Eastman and Owens-Swift 2001). Increase electronic word of mouth between the community of students as online discussion information is a strong within communities and can effect consumer behaviour (Whyte 1954; Katz and Lazarsfeld 1955). Students' positive and negative comments can be seen in table 3. The following discussion discusses the limitations to the study.

TABLE 3:
POSITIVE VERSES NEGATIVE THEMED COMMENTS

Common themes	Comments made by students
Convenience (+)	'Whilst I found them more convenient, I didn't learn anything new from having the online tutorials, whereas I may have if attended face to face tutorials.'
Assessment (+)	'I thought the tutorial questions were an excellent form of assessment – it was more enjoyable being able to research and write about topics that interested me. It was great!'
Class contact (-)	'I must admit that even though I liked the online tuts for being able to complete in my own time, but I really missed the contact and discussion possible in classroom tuts.'
	'I perceive it as a cost cutting and ineffective tutorial method.'
	'I did not find it interactive.'
Discussion (-)	1. 'The discussion was interesting enough to read, but didn't provide for proper discussion or 'thrashing out' of ideas.'
	2. 'By talking about the subject with others is a way I enjoy learning and the way I remember things.'
	3. 'I welcome personal interaction, communication and a more pleasurable and natural learning experience.'
	4. 'Online tutorials do not allow for clarification. The written word lacks tone.'
	5. 'QUT has many postgraduates working in industry. This means that class is great networking opportunities, as well as giving students an opportunity to hear about how others are applying theory in the workplace.'
	6. 'The discussions we had in class were exciting and informative.'
	7. 'I am a person who likes discussion and I find it a really good was of consolidating reading and study of theory with practice.'

Source: derived from this research

LIMITATIONS

The sample used was a relatively small convenience sample from one class of postgraduate students. Issues such as nationality and educational background were not considered. However both would impact on the response type provided by individual students. The study needs to be replicated in other marketing courses for any applicable findings to be reliable.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Technology can enhance learning experiences. Critical in marketing education is what is applied in the online classroom and needs to represent the real world. Marketing educators need to seize opportunities to experiment and use creative and integrated communication tools such as the Internet, as it has proven to be a powerful tool (Clarke III, Flaherty et al. 2001).

Employers and industry demand skills from graduates including the creativity and ability to communicate interpersonally and to possess problem solving skills (Kennedy, Lawton et al. 2001). This research has shown that technology does not necessarily mean that an exciting online class will occur (Market 1999). Creative academics must guide and challenge their cohort, no matter what the environment, to enhance learning and students' perceptions and attitudes toward learning.

If marketing educators have gone down the online learning path, they must be prepared for pitfalls. The Internet does not cover all topics well (Benbunan-Fich, Lozada et al. 2001); therefore much pre-thought must go into each semester's topics and exercises. Continuous information management must be a priority to avoid angst within the student cohort.

Students were more active and very committed to their task of their discussion topics. Tasks completed online need to be part of assessment or incentives need to be provided to track and measure success of exercises (Benbunan-Fich, Lozada et al. 2001). In this study, students need only complete their chosen topic from a total choice of four or five topics. This was found to be more beneficial than if the entire student cohort was given only one or two topics. The lecturer monitored the answers, with some being used as supplemental discussion in the lecture the following week.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Many academics see active online learning as one of the answers to some existing educational problems. This study has shown that overall, although online tutorials were perceived as being advantageous to student's study, time constraints and lifestyles, it did not mean that this mode was their preferred way of learning.

This study presents a continuation of the many studies that exist to compliment change within the teaching paradigm. We have an increasingly diverse student cohort, new workplace demands on academics, new technologies and learning environments. "Education is a process, not a place" (Eastman and Owens-Swift 2001) and active learning can occur in online environments. Online learning will never supersede face-to-face traditional learning. Integration is the key to provide students with a diverse range of learning situations.

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Available upon request to the author.

IT'S NOT THE CLICKS THAT COUNT: PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR ONLINE DISCUSSION GROUPS

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ABSTRACT

This paper offers a theoretical model and purpose for discussion groups using Bloom's Taxonomy of learning. It also shows how online discussions benefit from using these learning objectives as a guideline to course design and it offers a framework for Internet-delivered Marketing courses. This includes course specific discussion objectives and methodologies that go beyond current orientations that emphasize increasing the number of posts or "clicks."

Discussion groups allow students to participate actively and interact with students and faculty. As such, they supplement content delivery. They, along with the content, must be guided by course objectives based on learning outcomes. Therefore, an online discussion group's (threaded discussions) objectives should integrate class learning objectives with technology and a pedagogical approach.

The model suggests a framework to examine Bloom's Taxonomy as viable theory to provide significant outcomes of Internet-based learning. The computer environment offers faculty members a richness of evaluation tools unavailable or extremely difficult to capture in the classroom. In a synchronous class-based environment, the faculty member's time is spent moderating and leading the discussion, and unless it is videotaped, much of the information of the class discussion is lost. In the online world, the discussion stream is saved. The level of interaction can be easily quantified and the discussion content can be reviewed, categorized and measured.

This paper suggests that evaluating the quality of online discussion first requires consideration of its pedagogical objectives and, as a result, requires much more than the measurement of the number of posts. By leveraging the benefit of stored transcripts, we may be able to evaluate levels of community development via inter-student activity, indicators of critical thinking and other measures of enhanced learning as a result of applying Bloom's Taxonomy to online discussions.

The paper provides several recommendations to marketing educators based on the model including discussion guidelines, question content, community development and faculty participation. Finally, the paper presents areas for future research including the development of a survey that can demonstrate the relationship of each level of Bloom's taxonomy to specific learning objectives of the class and the elements of the model.

HUMAN INTERACTION AND PERCEIVED LEARNING IN ONLINE VERSUS IN-CLASS TEACHING MODALITIES

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ABSTRACT

Marketing educators have exhibited strong interest in revising marketing instruction to better meet the needs of modern students and their future employers. Today, one of the more often pursued pedagogical changes is in offering classes online and not requiring the student's presence in the classroom. The purpose of this study is to compare students' desire for human interaction and students' perceptions of learning between online and traditional in-class teaching modalities.

Research hypotheses about human interaction and students' perceptions of learning are presented. A "real-world" check for a key assumption is presented and directions for future research are outlined.

INTRODUCTION

Marketing educators have exhibited strong interest in revising marketing instruction to better meet the needs of modern students and their future employers (Duke 2002). Indeed, the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) has just promulgated a new set of accreditation standards that specifically call for continuous improvement and innovation in the instructional process (AACSB 2003).

Today, one of the more often pursued pedagogical changes is in offering classes online and not requiring the student's presence in the classroom. Of course this requires a number of changes in resources, infrastructure, and instructional approach (e.g., Cartnal and Diaz 1999; White 2000; Arbaugh 2001, 2002). One fruitful area of inquiry in instructional approaches is in comparing the outcomes of the two different teaching modalities. Several studies have sought to distinguish differences between traditional in-class and online pedagogy (e.g., Arbaugh 2001, 2002; Prater and Rhee 2003).

The purpose of this study is to compare students' desire for human interaction (face-to-face) and students' perceptions of learning between online and traditional in-class teaching modalities. Both sections offer the same subject matter yet are instructed in radically different ways. One section is taught in the traditional on-campus, in the classroom environment, while the other one is instructed online, using highly technical Internet tools.

STUDY DOMAIN AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Human Interaction

The criteria for developing and delivering web-based courses of instruction are becoming more complex (Arbaugh 2002). Greenlaw and Deloach (2003) argue that electronic discussion alters the focus of the learning process, replacing the single view of the instructor, as in an on-campus course, with the various student views. This reduced reliance on the instructor increases collaboration and lessens the social distance within the online classroom environment (Arbaugh 2001). However, the resulting online collaboration is not an automatic occurrence and must be initiated by the instructor in "threaded discussions" and required group assignments (Diaz & Cartnal 1999).

This network view of learning, as opposed to the traditional, teacher-centric view, can vastly increase the amount of information available to students. However, as Santovec (2002) points out, information wealth can be a good thing but it also creates the possibility of overload, as it is possible to know the facts without the learner understanding what they mean. The traditional in-class modality does not face these concerns to the same degree since: (1) the learning situation is more hierarchical; and (2) because questions and concerns can be immediately addressed.

Thus, it has been suggested by some researchers (Greenlaw and Deloach 2003; Hutchins 2003) that student comments should be closely monitored so that instructors can adapt their courses and technology accordingly. This is especially true for instructors trying to build what we call Human Interaction. For purposes of this study, we define Human Interaction as the degree to which instructor efforts to reduce this social distance and alleviate information overload by engaging in immediacy behaviors (Hutchins 2003; Hughes et al. 2003).

Online instructors can employ many of the same verbal immediacy behaviors that in-class instructors do by using personal experiences, humor, addressing students by name and providing feedback in real-time or with online messages. The non-verbal immediacy behaviors of eye contact, body position, smiling, and moving around the classroom that are used by on-campus instructors are not as easily duplicated by online instructors. Online instructors can begin to build trust with this non-verbal communication process through the use of humor, emoticons and video clips (Hutchins 2003). These techniques, as Vaidyanathan and Aggarwal (2001) state, "transform the learning experience by making it more interactive and engaging" (p. 112). Our scale seeks to determine whether students in online sections value Human Interaction differently than do students in traditional, in-class sections.

Since students who select online sections may be more independent and prefer a more flexible learning environment (Worley and Dyrud 2003), we hypothesize that there will be a significant difference in the desirability of Human Interaction between online and in-class student groups (cf., Diaz and Cartnal 1999). Thus:

H_1: There will be a significant difference in desired Human Interaction between students enrolled in online sections and those enrolled in in-class sections.

Perceived Learning

For the purpose of this study, Perceived Learning is defined as additional skills or knowledge students think they have developed or acquired from the course. Halsne and Gatta (2002), in a smaller sample study, examined differences between instructional modalities in terms of learner-content interaction and concluded that there were no significant differences in learning. Consequently, we hypothesize that there will be no differences in the perception of learning between online and on-campus teaching modalities. Stated more formally:

H_2: There will be no difference in perceived learning between students enrolled in online sections and those enrolled in in-class sections.

METHODOLOGY

Survey research methodology was employed so that queries could determine the extent to which respondents hold a particular attitude or perspective (Babbie 1990). The survey that was developed included items designed to measure the students' desired degree of Human Interaction and the Perceived Learning of students enrolled in online and on-campus sections of the same course.

Instrument Development

Scale development, purification, and testing were conducted according to the protocol developed by Churchill (1979) in his seminal treatise on developing measures for marketing research. He recommends the following multiple-step process (the first four steps are not just sequential, but are also iterative):

1. Review extant literature
2. Discuss concepts with academic experts and practitioners
3. Specify the domain of the construct
4. Generate sample items and scales
5. Collect data
6. Evaluate measurement properties of scales

To begin the scale development process, the authors collected and reviewed preliminary qualitative data obtained from students enrolled in two on-campus classes (50 students) and one online class (25 students) during the 2002 Spring Semester. All students in these classes were asked to respond to two open-ended fundamental questions regarding skill improvement and perceived learning. (What was it like taking this class online/on-campus? Did your overall communication skills get any better?) This information was used to guide the development of the survey questionnaire. The questionnaire instrument then was reviewed by five business professionals selected from both the academic and practitioner communities. From this procedure, a six-item scale of Human Interaction and a six-item scale of Perceived Learning were obtained. These scales were employed in pre-test and were subjected to data-driven purification and validation in accordance with the Churchill (1979) process.

The pre-test survey instrument was administered concurrently to one online and one in-class section of the same departmental course, Spring 2003. Scale reliability was assessed according to Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cronbach 1951), which determines the mean reliability of all possible methods of splitting the scale in half. The six-item Human Interaction scale attained a robust alpha of .962 and was retained. The six-item Perceived Learning scale achieved an alpha of .744, exceeding the generally accepted basic research standard of .700 (Nunnally 1978).

The proposed scales were then examined for validity through principal components factor analysis. The technique for this analysis involved Kaiser normalization with listwise deletion of missing values and a VARIMAX orthogonal rotation of the factor matrix. This analysis indicated that one item in the Perceived Learning scale loaded on both factors and it was, consequently, deleted from the final scale. A re-determination of Cronbach's alpha indicated a higher reliability measure of .793 for the revised five-item scale.

The final Human Interaction scale consisted of:

1. Instruction with more human interaction would help me learn more.
2. Instruction with more human interaction would help me understand communication concepts better.
3. Instruction with more human interaction would be a better way for me to learn the content/course materials.
4. Instruction with more human interaction would contribute to my overall satisfaction with the course.
5. Being in a class with more human interaction would improve my ability to learn.
6. I would prefer instruction with more human interaction.

The final five-item scale for Perceived Learning was comprised of:

1. My interpersonal skills have improved by taking this course.
2. My technical skills have improved by taking this course.
3. My writing skills have improved by taking this course.
4. My oral communication skills have improved by taking this course.
5. This course has improved my group/team skills.

A five-point Likert scale was used to allow participants the opportunity to respond to each scale item with one of the following: Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Neither agree nor disagree (3), Disagree (2), and Strongly Disagree (1).

Sample

The sample for this study was comprised students enrolled in four on-campus and four online sections of the same departmental course during the Spring and Summer of 2003. Two hundred survey questionnaires were distributed to a total of eight class sections of 25 students per section. A total of 90 survey questionnaires were collected from the online student population (90% response rate) and 98 survey questionnaires were collected from the on-campus group (98% response rate).

Data Analysis

Data collected for this study were analyzed using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test for significant differences between online and in-class groups regarding Human Interaction and Perceived Learning. Demographic information was summarized using frequency distribution tables for categorical data.

Study Results and Discussion

Human Interaction

Our first research hypothesis holds that there will be a statistically significant difference in students' desire for Human interaction depending on whether they are in an online or a traditional, in-class section. Specifically:

H_1: There will be a significant difference in desired Human Interaction between students enrolled in online sections and those enrolled in in-class sections.

As discussed in the previous section, a six-item scale was utilized to determine a composite value for students' desire for Human Interaction in both online sections and in-class sections. The online group mean for desired Human Interaction was 3.52, while the in-class group mean was 4.47 (see Table 1, next page). The ANOVA conducted to examine the mean differences of the two groups was significant at the .05 level ($p < .001$). Consequently, we may conclude that H_1 was supported.

Perceived Learning

Our second research hypothesis states that there will be no differences in students' perception of learning between online and on-campus teaching modalities; specifically:

H_2: There will be no differences in perceived learning between students enrolled in online sections and those enrolled in in-class sections.

As discussed in the previous section, a five-item scale was utilized to determine a composite value for students' perceived learning both in online sections and in in-class sections. The online group value for Perceived Learning was 3.95, while the on-campus group value was 4.07 (see Table 1, below). The ANOVA conducted to examine the mean differences of the two groups was not significant at the .05 level (p = .163). Therefore, we may conclude that H_2 was supported.

TABLE

Study Results for Human Interaction and Perceived Learning by Teaching Modality

Construct	Online Group	In-Class Group	Significant at .05 Level?	p-value
Human Interaction (H_1)	3.52	4.47	Yes	< .001
Perceived Learning (H_2)	4.78	4.92	No	.163

The findings agree with smaller sample findings reported in the literature in the Business Communications field (Diaz and Cartnal 1999; Worley and Dyrud 2003). However, literature supporting the idea that students enrolled in online courses desire less Human Interaction (face-to-face) than those in traditional in-class sections cite student characteristics and student preferences (cf., Worley and Dryud 2003; Hutchins 2003). Inherent in this reasoning is that students do, in fact, self-select into these sections. Given budget pressures facing many instructional institutions today, this assumption bears a reality check.

Included in our survey was the item, "I took this class online because I could not enroll in an on-campus section." The 90 online responses were evaluated to see how many responded Strongly agree (5) or Agree (4). Only 19 of the 90 indicated agreement with the item, so we may conclude that—since nearly 4 out of 5 students managed to select into online courses—self-selection into online teaching sections is supported.

CONCLUSIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study explores differences in desired Human Interaction and Perceived Learning between those students taking the course in an online environment and in a traditional, in-class environment. Two research hypotheses regarding the different teaching modalities were presented; both were supported.
Two key ideas for future research become clear. Research is needed to explore ways that students can evaluate themselves so that they can self-select into the teaching modality that will best enable them to succeed. Further, studies to date have relied on self-reported student assessment of learning. The positive outcome of this study identities the need for marketing educators to incorporate cutting-edge high tech pedagogies into their curriculum while continuously improving upon and assessing the student-learner outcomes.

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ARE WE PREPARING STUDENTS FOR THE NEW AGE: THE DISCONNECT BETWEEN EMPLOYERS NEEDS, UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS AND ADVANCED DEGREE PREPARATION

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ABSTRACT

Over the years marketing education has evolved tremendously and academics have struggled to update their skills to reflect the needs of the market place and the growing technological revolution. Our programs haven't kept up with changes in the market which may account for the success for companies like DeVry and University of Phoenix. These institutions offer very specific practical education in business that is becoming increasing popular especially among working professionals. The major accrediting organization AACSB is adapting its scope to enable it to accredit such non-traditional institutions. How would AACSB accreditation of these institutions impact traditional programs?

Employers on the other hand, are still desperately looking for people who have specific skills. These include communication as well as ability to work in teams. One of the most important skills still lacking is the ability of most undergraduates to communicate effectively both orally and in writing. With the increasing multicultural student bodies of the twenty first century this becomes a challenge for educators who may be tempted to add classes in business communication to al already crowded curriculum. Does one class in business communication solve the problem? Or should it be built into all classes?

Having reviewed approximately thirty-five applications from PhD candidates who were seeking faculty positions it becomes clear that most of the programs that provide doctorate education are still perpetuating the courses that were offered forty years ago. For example, a course in Buyer(consumer) behavior, marketing research, strategy and perhaps a modeling course. While this may adequately meet the needs of research institutions for publications it may not adequately provide teaching skills that undergraduates need to get a job. Are current PhD programs giving adequate preparation to new faculty across varied university missions?

STUDENT GRADE MISPERCEPTION: IGNORANCE OR GRADE INFLATION?

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ABSTRACT

Students consistently overestimate their performance on academic exams, with the error being inversely related to their grades. The effect has been explained as a matter of incompetence. It is postulated that students don't t know what they don't know and therefore perceive their own performance incorrectly. Another explanation suggests that students are generally aware of their performance but consistently regress their performance towards a grading norm. This exploratory study suggests that the overestimation effect is probably due to grading norms, not incompetence.

Implementing and Assessing Distance Education: A Five-year Case Study

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ABSTRACT

Distance learning has the potential to deliver a quality product at a profit. Based on five years of trial and error experience with a sponsored MBA program, we make recommendations for implementing and assessing a sponsored distance education program..

In times of constrained academic budgets, distance learning partnerships between universities and businesses are being created with an eye on financial benefits as well as on opportunities for penetrating new market segments (Webster & Hackley, 1997). This is not surprising since online courses are already offered by more than 60% of colleges and universities in the U.S. (Green, 2002). Note that a majority of college administrators believe that distance learning courses are at least of equal quality to those offered face-to-face (Read, 2003).

As distance education courses grow in number, educational institutions strive to develop effective implementation and evaluation methods for online instruction. The purpose of this paper is to review the effectiveness of a hybrid, distance learning MBA program offered at the University of Georgia in partnership with a large corporation. Based on a five-year evaluation of this program, we offer insights for evaluating and assessing programs of this nature.

As with any education program, the first step in an effective evaluation process is to designate learning outcomes. Here, we focus on learning that is provided in real-life contexts (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Two phrases currently found in education theory are "situated learning" and "communities of practice." Students enrolled in our MBA program work within the same company, providing the situational comradeship and socialization found in communities of practice. The sponsor firm for this program situates the students in a common, though geographically dispersed, work setting, allowing instructors to center coursework around daily work activities.

Given this educational setting, what are the appropriate implementation and assessment processes for our hybrid distance-learning program? Based on the research of Wlodkowski and Jaynes (1990), it is useful to assess education programs in seven areas: (1) achievability, (2) believability, (3) measurability, (4) desirability, (5) focusing, (6) motivation, and (7) commitment. These seven areas provide a direct and systemized method for assessment and evaluation.

In addition, the Institute for Higher Education Policy (2000) offers a series of benchmarks as measures of success in distance learning programs. For each of these benchmarks, the Institute delineates practical application components that had been identified through an extensive literature review. These benchmarks serve as a starting point in our assessment in that they appear to coincide with Wlodkowski and Jaynes' seven aforementioned criteria. We collapsed the Institute's benchmark areas into a three-step process covering planning, implementing and then assessing distance learning programs.

Author Index

Ackerman	David	California State University, Northridge	23,59
Ackerman	Robert	University of Nevada, Las Vegas	N/A
Aggarwal	Praveen	University of Minneosta Duluth	95
Anderson	Beverlee	California State University, San Marcos	6
Appleton-Knapp	Sara	San Diego State University	80
Baglione	Stephen	Saint Leo University	125
Ball	Gail	Management Consultant	21
Barsellotti	Dolores	California State Polytechnic University, Pomona	57
Bowden	Randall	Saint Leo University	125
Bowman	Greg	Irwin/McGraw-Hill	104
Braunstein	Lori A.	Central Washington University	30,94
Bridges	Claudia	California State University, Sacramento	66
Browdowsky	Glen	California State University, San Marcos	6
Bruce	Grady D.	California State University, Fullerton	24
Byus	Kent	Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi	43
Chapman	Kenneth J.	California State University, Chico	85
Chochol	Drahomir	Vysoká škola Manažmentu	94
Chrysler	Earl	Black Hills State University	107
Clayson	Dennis	University of Northern Iowa	5,132
Combs	Howard W.	San Jose State University	126
Comegys	Charles	Merrimack College	118
Corbin	Steve	University of Northern Iowa	105
Cours	Deborah	California State University, Northridge	4
Cross	James	University of Nevada, Las Vegas	104
Curren	Mary	California State University, Northridge	4,25
Czepiec	Helena	California State Polytechnic University, Pomona	57
Daughtrey	Clayton	Metropolitan State College of Denver	11,36
Dietz	Janis	The University of La Verne	61
Donoho	Casey	Northern Arizona University	18
Dou	Wen Yu	University of Nevada, Las Vegas	21
Eaton	John P.	University of Arizona	10
Edgington	Rachel A.	Graduate Management Admission Council	24
Foley	Linda M Horton	University of Mississippi	68
Foley	Richard	Penn State Beaver	68
Fortune	Mary F.	San Jose State University	126
French	Warren	University of Georgia	133
Frontczak	Nancy T.	Metropolitan State College of Denver	36
Geringer	Susan	California State University, Fresno	106
Granitz	Neil	California State University, Fullerton	67
Gross	Barbara	California State University, Northridge	23,59
Haley	Debra	Southeastern Oklahoma State University	5
Harich	Katrin	California State University, Fullerton	25,67
Hartley	Steve	University of Denver	104
Heisley	Deborah D.	California State University, Northridge	4
Hennessey	Judith	California State University, Northridge	4
Hersche	Joel	University of the Pacific	18
Hollenbeck	Candice R.	Piedmont College	133

Hopkins	Patricia M.	California State Polytechnic University	131
Hugstad	Paul	California State University, Fullerton	104
Jackowski	Mick	Metropolitan State College of Denver	11
Jones	Robert M	California State University, Fullerton	67
Jones	Russell W.	University of Central Oklahoma	53
Karns	Gary L.	Seattle Pacific University	105
Kassarjian	Harold	UCLA & California State University, Northridge	20
Keleman	Ken	Western Washington University	19
Kelley	Craig A.	California State University, Sacramento	26,66,105
Kerr	Gayle	Queensland University of Technology	47
Kiesler	Tina	California State University, Northridge	20
Kling	Nathan D.	University of Northern Colorado	96
Krentler	Kathleen	San Diego State University	80
Lee	Ruby	University of Nevada, Las Vegas	21
Lincoln	Doug	Boise State University	111
Louie	Therese	San Jose State University	93
Luck	Edwina	Queensland University of Technology	119
Lupton	Natalie A.	University of Nebraska Lincoln	69
Lupton	Robert A.	Central Washington University	30,69,94
Macpherson	Elizabeth L.	Queensland University of Technology	73
Maughan	Micol	Fort Hayes State University	21
McAlister	Debbie Thorne	Southwest State University	3
McClure	Nancy Ryan	University of Central Oklahoma	53
McDonnell	John	Queensland University of Technology	86
McKinnon	Gary	Brigham Young University	20
Mejza	Michael	University of Nevada, Las Vegas	21
Merais	Danilo R.	De La Salle University- Dasmarinas	90
Meuter	Matthew	California State University, Chico	85
Miller	Chip	Drake University	96
Misra	Shekra	California State University, Chico	56
Mitchell	Ted	University of Nevada, Reno	97
Moore	Simon	Queensland University of Technology	2
Mottner	Sandra	Western Washington University	19
Nastanski	Michael	Saint Leo University	125
Navqi	Sumbul F.	University of Arizona	10
Naylor	Gillian	University of Nevada, Las Vegas	21
Nill	Alexander	University of Nevada, Las Vegas	21
Olsen	Howard W.	University of Nevada, Reno	97
Onkvisit	Sak	San Jose State University	1
Orsini	Joseph	California State University, Sacramento	99
Parrish	Ralph W.	University of Central Oklahoma	53
Pass	Michael	California State University, San Marcos	6,114
Patel	Rajul	University of the Pacific	18
Patti	Chuck	Queensland University of Technology	2
Peltier	James	University of Wisconsin, Whitewater	21
Peters	Susan	California State Polytechnic University, Pomona	57
Petroshius	Susan	Journal for the Advancement of Marketing Education	N/A

Reardon	James	Universiteit Antwerpen/University of Northern Colorado	96
Richards	Joseph	California State University, Sacramento	26
Roberts	Wayne	Southern Utah University	35
Roxas	Juanita	California State Polytechnic University, Pomona	57
Rubio	Wilhelmina V.	De La Salle University- Dasmarinas	90
Rudelius	William	University of Minnesota	104
Rybina	Liza	Kazakhstan Institute of Management, Econmomics and Stragegic Research	96
Schaffer	Robert	California State Polytechnic University, Pomona	N/A
Schibrowsky	Jack	University of Nevada, Las Vegas	21
Schlee	Regina P.	Seattle Pacific University	25
Seitz	Victoria	California State Polytechnic University, Pomona	20
Shaw	John	Providence College	1
Shen	Dong	California State University, Sacramento	26
Sherwood	Skip	California State University, Fresno	106
Sibley	Robert E.	San Jose State University	126
Stern	Bruce	Marketing Education Review	N/A
Swenson	Michael J	Brigham Young University	18
Tom	Gail	California State University, Sacramento	93
Toy	Dan	California State University, Chico	85
Troung	A. Andrew	California State Polytechnic University, Pomona	57
Vaidyanathan	Rajiv	University of Minneosta Duluth	95
Van Auken	Stuart	Florida Gulf Coast University	107
Vida	Irena	University of Ljubljana, Slovenia	96
Vigneron	Franck	California State University, Northridge	59
Vredenburg	Dennis	Southern Utah University	35
Walker	Bruce	University of Missouri	104
Wan	Zhong	University of Arizona	10
Whiteley-De Graaf	Kate	Queensland University of Technology	119
Whitson	Debbora	California State Polytechnic University, Pomona	57
Wilhelm	Wendy Bryce	Western Washington University	118
Wright	Lauren	California State University, Chico	85
Zinkhan	George	University of Georgia	133