

BUILDING SKILLS IN THE PERSONAL SELLING COURSE THROUGH ACTIVE LEARNING EXERCISES

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ABSTRACT

Marketing educators face a daunting task of preparing marketing students for a career in the business world. Much of what educators focus on is the teaching of content knowledge in their courses. However, there are a wide range of skills that marketing graduates must possess to be successful in business. The purpose of this paper is to describe how additional skills have been incorporated into a personal selling course.

INTRODUCTION

Marketing educators face a daunting task. Not only must they stay abreast of a continually expanding base of marketing knowledge, but at the same time industry, accrediting organizations and public policymakers are demanding more accountability in terms of the quality of marketing graduate that is being produced. A major challenge involves the student audience itself. Student attention spans are getting shorter and the priority they place on education seems to have fallen relative to the need to work and family obligations. These challenges have forced marketing educators to evaluate how, what, when and where material is taught in a class. In addition to the standard pedagogies of lecturing, cases, and student projects, various forms of technology are being used to enhance the presentation of class material and facilitate student learning by increasing student interaction with the learning environment (Smart, Kelley and Conant 1999).

Active learning has been proven to be one of the best methods of instruction by having students apply concepts they have learned to "real world" situations (Bush-Bacelis 1998). Due to their relevance to everyday life of the student, marketing classes are fertile ground for use of active learning exercises to accomplish course learning objectives. The purpose of this paper is to highlight some active learning exercises that can be used to "polish" the skills of students in a personal selling course.

BACKGROUND

Attempts by marketing educators to add to the skill set of their students are not new. Lamb, Shipp and Moncrief (1995) suggested marketing educators should spend more time building skills and less time

on disseminating knowledge. There is a large body of literature that deals with skill development in team building (e.g., Bobbitt, Inks, Kemp and Mayo 2000), problem-solving (e.g., Cooper and Loe 2000), and computer proficiency (e.g., Siegel 2000). In the personal selling course, Parker, Pettijohn and Luke (1996) reported sales representatives and sales professors differed somewhat in their view in how skills should be taught in a personal selling course. Sales practitioners felt active learning via guest speakers and role-playing were the most effective way of developing skills. Sales professors rated lecturing nearly as important as role-playing and ranked guest speakers well down the list.

Jones and Kelley (1999) conducted a content analysis of the personal selling course syllabi distributed at the 1999 American Marketing Association Faculty Consortium on Professional Selling and Sales Management. They found few courses emphasized skill building beyond verbal communication. For example, only one course covered business etiquette skills. None of the syllabi addressed business dress, although the topic could be covered as part of how to do a sales presentation or nonverbal communication. None of the syllabi included such topics as building business relationships on the golf course, evaluating of compensation plans, personal budgeting and retirement planning.

A review was conducted related to the coverage afforded the topics of interest in this paper by recent personal selling textbooks (Futrell 2000; 1996; Manning and Reece 2001; Marks 1997; Quigg and Wisner 1998; Weitz, Castelberry and Tanner 1998). Most of the textbooks cover compensation plans. However, the treatment of compensation is primarily restricted to describing different plans such as straight commission, straight salary and combination. Marks (1997), Futrell (2000) and Manning and Reece (2001) address business etiquette, although Futrell, and Manning and Reece only have a one half-page box on the topic. Quigg and Wisner (1998) provide ten pages on the business wardrobe. Personal budgeting, retirement planning and building business relationships on the golf course were not covered by any of these textbooks.

ACTIVE LEARNING EXERCISES

Evaluation of Compensation Plans

Almost all entry-level sales positions provide some sort of commission or bonus component of the compensation package. However, many students may be unsure how to evaluate different plans. For example, how does one plan that offers a 10% commission on sales net of list price compare to another plan that pays a bonus on an increase in market share in a sales territory. In addition, some companies provide company cars and other companies pay a car allowance. How much is each one worth? Salary and commission schedules also change as the sales person becomes established. What is the value of a particular compensation plan over a five-year period of time? To answer such questions, an active learning assignment can be required where students gather compensation information on five sales organizations in five different industries. Each compensation plan is evaluated for its value at the end of the first, third and fifth year. Since some companies will keep their compensation plans confidential, students may be encouraged to contact career counselors for information on company compensation plans.

Personal Budgeting

Students choosing a position as a commissioned salesperson need to develop strong personal budgeting skills since there is likely to be some variance in earnings over time. For example, a newly hired salesperson may have to work against a draw or face a compensation schedule of say 60% salary and 40% commission. In this context, budgeting may be challenging even for students that have paid 100% of their college tuition and living expenses.

An active learning exercise designed to hone budgeting skills is to require students to use a spreadsheet program to establish a personal budget for the first year in a sales position. Included in the budget will be projected income from wages, income from other sources (e.g., commissions), expenses for the household, food, clothing, entertainment, automobile, taxes, and savings.

Retirement Planning

Many business programs require students to take a course in Business Finance. Typically this course is designed to teach corporate finance, not personal finance. In addition, the personal selling course may attract marketing or business minors, or majors from

other parts of the university.¹ Therefore, it is very likely that many students have not been exposed to retirement planning. Yet many companies that recruit students for entry-level sales positions offer part of their hiring package at least one 401k plan. Students are expected to understand what these plans are and how to choose one. (As anecdotal evidence for the need to cover the topic of retirement planning, a recent student who was taking the author's personal selling course asked the author whether a company 401k plan where the company matched a dollar for every dollar that the employee put into the plan was a "good deal." It took a little time to explain that the student would receive a 100% gain just for putting a dollar in the plan!).

An active learning exercise designed to teach retirement planning is to have students use a spreadsheet to find the value of a mock 401k plan over their working life. The second part of the assignment is to have students gather information on five company 401k plans and evaluate them relative to potential returns and flexibility (e.g., borrowing against the account balance, employer matching funds, investment options, and transferring the 401k to something else if one changes employers).

Business Etiquette

Kelley (1992) discussed what, how and where business etiquette skills could be incorporated into the marketing curriculum. Schaffer, Kelley and Goette (1993) reported the results of a survey of marketing practitioners regarding the need to incorporate etiquette skill-building in the marketing curriculum. The respondents indicated that etiquette was important in being successful in business and it should be part of a business school's curriculum. Mausehund et al. (1995) found that students at three AACSB-accredited colleges of business were the most uncomfortable with protocol related to interviewing, building interpersonal relationships and dealing with social occasions. McPherson (1998) presented how to organize and implement a business dinner to teach dining etiquette. Harrington (2000) described a class offered by MIT's Entrepreneurship Center that teaches networking and cocktail-party skills to its students

Students may be instructed in proper business etiquette including networking and dining in a variety of ways. The instructor may use class time to cover

¹ Students from majors such as Communications Studies, Biology, Teacher Education, English, Engineering, Government and Criminal Justice have enrolled in the author's personal selling course over the past three years.

basic aspects of etiquette in class through role-playing. Alternatively, an etiquette dinner or lunch can be set-up on campus. Unless funding can be secured from private, department, college or university sources, students may be asked to pay for the meal. The instructor or a professional company recruiter can "teach" the etiquette of dining and networking as the meal is being consumed.

Business Dress

The idea of dressing for success is nothing new. An excellent way of involving students the right and wrong way of dressing for the business world is to invite professional sales associates from an upscale department or men's/women's store to give a program where they can bring samples of business clothing to illustrate the correct and incorrect way to dress in today's business world.

Building Business Relationship Through Golf

Since professional sales people must build business relationships exposing sales students to how to build business relationships on the golf course make intuitive sense. Macnow (1996) suggests that many business people learn to play golf as a business tool as the game provides insights into a potential clients character. Furthermore, Macnow cites a 1996 survey of senior management women that found the respondents thought playing golf helped them fit into the corporate culture and gave them a chance to network with the 'right people.'

One way to teach these skills is to organize a one-day seminar that includes a round of golf. A "Building Business Relationships on the Golf Course" seminar may begin with a panel of sales managers discussing with students how to build business relationships through golf. Then students and sales managers would be put into foursomes and play a round of golf on an Executive nine hole golf course. The day could end by inviting students and sales managers to a lunch.

INTEGRATING NEEDED SKILLS INTO THE PERSONAL SELLING COURSE

Corporate Sponsorship

In an era of tight budgets it is unlikely that most marketing departments will have the resources to implement a series of courses to build these extra skills in students. In addition, individual classes are already packed with learning outcomes that fit a traditional classroom experience. Therefore, an alternative to integrating all of these active learning

exercises into one class is to develop a seminar series that local businesses can sponsor. At the author's school, Lucent Technologies, ARAMARK Uniform Services, Fastenal, Wallace, Pepsi and Enterprise Rent-A-Car have made cash donations to sponsor the individual skills as part of a Management Development Seminar Series partially tied to the personal selling course. These cash donations are used to offset costs of paying for seminar leaders, dinners, green fees, and workshop materials.

Student Involvement

Success of skill building activities offered outside the personal selling course requires the support of students regardless of whether they are enrolled in the course. The student chapter of the American Marketing Association has helped insure the success of the Management Development Seminar Series by participating in the organization and implementation of the Series. Former students and alumni can be asked to participate in the experiential activities which has a secondary benefit of building stronger alumni ties with the marketing department.

Faculty Involvement

The third ingredient needed for success is faculty involvement in the development of other skills in other classes. Successful implementation of extracurricular skill building activities requires the commitment of a faculty member willing to serve as a product champion. For example, the building business relationships on the golf course require students to know how to play golf. The author approached a local municipal golf course to offer a group beginner golf lessons for four weeks prior to the event. Students then enrolled in the lessons so they could play the Executive nine hole course. Another approach would be to work with the physical education department or golf team coach (if the university has one) to offer a one-unit course on beginning golf.

CONCLUSION

Teaching the personal selling course allows the students to build skills in many areas. Of course selling skills need to be the focal point of the course. However, the course lends itself to teaching many of the peripheral skills that are useful for a successful career in sales. Active learning exercises related to evaluation of compensation plans, personal budgeting, retirement planning, dressing for success, business etiquette and building relationships on the golf course are not only fun for the student to participate in but extremely relevant to everyday life

in the world of sales. Incorporating exercises to build these skills allows instructors to provide needed nuances when preparing their students for a career in professional sales.

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Moving Marketing Education from a *Commodity* to an *Experience*

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This paper is dedicated to the memory and joyful spirit of my student, Justin Harbottle, who made Consumer Behavior a memorable experience for me in Spring 2000.

ABSTRACT

This paper describes a framework marketing educators can use to move marketing education from a basic commodity approach to an experience approach in educating students. The framework, based on Pine and Gilmore's (1999) *Progression of Economic Value* and the concept of *Experience Realms*, suggests a new classification of experiential learning activities for marketing educators to use in the classroom. The proposed framework recommends that educators use a combination of assignments from all four experience realms.

INTRODUCTION

Marketing education has increasingly moved toward a model of experiential, interactive learning and away from the traditional, passive, knowledge-transfer, lecture approach to learning. Most marketing educators now appreciate the value of experiential learning assignments in student skill development, yet the process for analyzing and selecting innovative experiential learning techniques is not clear. Experiential learning exercises should include all stages of the learning cycle (Kolb 1984) in order to be effective. Marketing educators are often unaware of this process and how to insure all stages are included for effective learning.

A corollary trend in business today relates to the transformation of retailers from static, often boring environments to dynamic, interactive, experience-based environments for customers. In order to remain competitive many retailers have become aware of the need to provide *experiential shopping environments* for customers. Both *The Experience Economy* (Pine and Gilmore 1999) and *Experiential Marketing* (Schmitt 1999) provide significant support for this major shift in marketing strategy for retailers.

In moving toward experiential marketing, the world of business has moved along a *Progression of Economic Value* from a basic "commodity"

approach to the sale of "goods," then to a "service" orientation, and now to an "experience" approach to business (Pine and Gilmore 1999). Businesses that remain using one of the earlier approaches may miss the competitive mark. Just as business has progressed along this continuum, marketing educators need to move toward the "experience" end of the continuum in order to remain competitive in the educational marketplace.

This paper proposes an innovative framework marketing educators can use to move marketing education up the *Progression of Economic Value*.

Specifically, this paper presents:

1. A summary of the trend toward experiential learning in marketing education.
2. Discussion of the *Progression of Economic Value* model used in business today.
3. Framework of Experiential Realms for consideration in marketing education.
4. Classification of assignments using the proposed experiential framework.
5. Recommendations for marketing educators in the use of Experiential Realms.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING IN MARKETING EDUCATION

Although the traditional, passive, teacher dominated *lecture* is still the predominant pedagogy for marketing educators (Roach, Johnston, and Hair 1993; Clow and Wachter 1996), the trend in marketing education continues toward an active, experiential, student-centered approach to learning (Lollar and Leigh 1995; Harich 1995; Wright, Bitner and Zeithaml 1994; Titus and Petroschius 1993; Stretch and Harp 1991; Gaidis and Andrews 1990b). A recent special issue of the *Journal of Marketing Education* was dedicated to "Experiential Learning in Marketing Education" (April 2000). The benefits of experiential learning in marketing education are well-documented in the literature. For example, experiential learning exercises

increase student involvement and motivation (Butler and Laumer 1992; Williams, Beard, and Rymer 1991; Harich 1995), help students to integrate theory and practice in order to make a connection with the "real world" (Harich 1995; Karns 1993; Haas and Wotruba 1990), improve a variety of skills such as communication, creativity, and critical thinking skills (Lamb, Shipp and Moncrief 1995; Harich 1995; Williams, Beard and Rymer 1991), and increase student learning (Harich 1995; Butler and Laumer 1992). Hamer (2000) considered the additive effects of the use of multiple experiential learning techniques in one course, concluding that multiple experiential techniques provide greater benefit to students than one technique combined with the lecture format. Many studies continue to lend support to this significant trend toward experiential learning in marketing education.

PROGRESSION OF ECONOMIC VALUE MODEL USED IN BUSINESS

In *The Experience Economy*, Pine and Gilmore (1999) carefully describe *The Progression of Economic Value*. This concept implies that many firms, especially retailers, have moved along a continuum from commodity to transformation. The progression of retailing is illustrated in Exhibit 1. A supermarket can be used as an example of each stage in the Progression of Economic Value:

- (1) Commodities
A supermarket selling only basic raw materials or processed agricultural goods such as coffee beans, flour, milk, fruits and vegetables, and meat would fall into the *commodity* stage of the cycle.
- (2) Goods
Supermarkets selling tangible manufactured goods such as soft drinks, cereal, potato chips, baked goods, and canned soup fit into the *goods* stage of the progression.
- (3) Services
Many supermarkets now provide a variety of intangible services to customers such as cake decorating, teleshopping and home delivery, floral arrangements, and photos developing, all falling into the *service* stage.
- (4) Experiences
Supermarkets are now beginning to provide *experiences* or *memorable* events that *engage* the customers, such as the pharmacist offering a variety of health screenings or the bakery giving children the

opportunity to decorate cookies for their mothers on Mother's Day.

- (5) Transformations
Few supermarkets ever reach this level of the Economic Pyramid, because true transformation involves lasting consequences for the customer. For example, if a supermarket invited a famous author of a particular diet book to give a brief lecture and sign books in the store and a customer changed their life pattern of eating as a result, this would be a *transformation*.

Many retailers, such as Disney, Rainforest Café, REI, and Niketown, have moved toward the experience stage of the Progression of Economic Value in order to remain competitive. Both *The Experience Economy* (Pine and Gilmore 1999) and *Experiential Marketing* (Schmitt 1999) cite numerous examples of retail firms focusing on the customer experience. The goal of many retailers today is to provide a memorable experience that engages the customer. "In the emerging Experience Economy, companies must realize that they make *memories*, not goods, and create the *stage* for generating greater economic value, not *deliver services*...customers now want experiences" (Pine and Gilmore 1999).

The *Progression of Economic Value* concept can be used as a model for marketing educators. Just as in business, educators must put themselves in a competitive position and meet the needs of customers. Educators must shift up the continuum to provide *experiences* for their students. Marketing educators lecturing out of a textbook may be providing a *commodity*, while those offering their own unique lecture may provide a *good*. In order to provide more of a *service*, faculty may write letters of recommendation for students, offer career advising, and assist students in writing reports. Those marketing educators who have reached the *experience* stage of the Progression of Economic Value are providing relevant, memorable, experiential learning activities for their students. They have shifted the focus of education to an interactive, student-centered, *experience-based* approach. As mentioned in the previous section, the marketing education literature is filled with many creative examples of experiential learning techniques. Marketing education even has the opportunity to reach *transformation*. For example, a professor changing the major and career direction of a student may have created a true life-changing transformation for a student.

FRAMEWORK OF EXPERIENTIAL REALMS FOR USE IN MARKETING EDUCATION

In shifting up the Progression of Economic Value, marketing educators may consider four different *experience realms* suggested by Pine and Gilmore (1999). These experience realms are based on two primary dimensions or ways to engage students:

(1) *Level of student participation*

Student participation may range from "passive participation" where a student does not affect or influence the educational setting to "active participation" where the student affects the educational environment that yields experiences. Much is written in the educational literature about active learning.

(2) *Type of connection or relationship that unites the student with the educational experience*

The connection may range from *absorption*, where the experience occupies the students' mind, to *immersion*, where the student is physically part of the experience.

Putting these two dimensions together yields the four *realms* of an experience (see Exhibit 2 for an illustration of the realms). The four experience realms can be used as a framework for marketing educators in designing courses. No one particular realm is the best. Ideally, a marketing educator would include all four realms at some time during a course. The four experience realms can be described as follows:

1. *Entertainment Realm*

Here the student passively absorbs the experience through their senses, meaning that the student may observe/listen and bring the experience into their mind. Listening to a professor's lecture would fall into this realm. Traditionally, marketing education has fallen into this one realm.

2. *Educational Realm*

In this realm, the educational experience actively engages the students' mind. Here learning requires the full participation of the student in activities such as class discussion and exercises.

3. *Escapist Realm*

Here the student is completely immersed and actively involved in the educational experience. Giving an advertising campaign presentation to an actual client or taking golf lessons to learn how to

negotiate on a golf course would be examples of experiences in the escapist realm.

4. *Esthetic Realm*

Students are immersed in the educational experience but have no effect on the educational performance itself. A field trip to an advertising agency or a video production company would fall into the esthetic realm.

Students engaged in the entertainment realm may just want to *sense*, in the educational realm may want to *learn*, in the escapist realm want to *do*, and in the esthetic realm want to *be there* (Pine and Gilmore 1999). For a complete marketing educational experience, all four of the experiential realms should be included. Marketing educators could consider this experiential framework in the design of a particular course or even program. A mix of the four realms is important for student learning.

CLASSIFICATION OF ASSIGNMENTS USING THE PROPOSED EXPERIENTIAL FRAMEWORK

Others have classified experiential learning activities, but none have used *experiential realms* as a framework for classification. Gaidis and Andrews (1990) classified projects by the "Type of Experience" (Course-related or Non-course related) and by the "Nature of Relationship with Client" (Formal or Informal). Exhibit 3 provides a classification of experiential learning activities in marketing education by the four *experience realms*. This exhibit is not meant to include an exhaustive list of activities which would fall into each realm, but only examples of learning exercises for each quadrant.

The primary learning activity which falls into the Entertainment Realm is the traditional lecture. Although this would be considered the least experiential, it does stimulate the learner's senses. Students, hopefully, passively absorb the information presented by the professor. As mentioned previously, the lecture remains as the predominant pedagogy for marketing educators.

The Escapist Realm includes activities that most educators consider to be *the* experiential learning exercises, but both the Educational and Esthetic Realms also include a variety of experiential activities. The Educational Realm includes more typical *active learning* assignments, such as in-class discussion, small group activities, journal writing, and online exercises.

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Williams, David L., John D. Beard, and Jone Rymer. 1991. Team Projects: Achieving Their Full Potential. *Journal of Marketing Education* (Summer): 45-53.

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EXHIBIT 1

Progression of Economic Value forming The Economic Pyramid (Pine and Gilmore 1999)

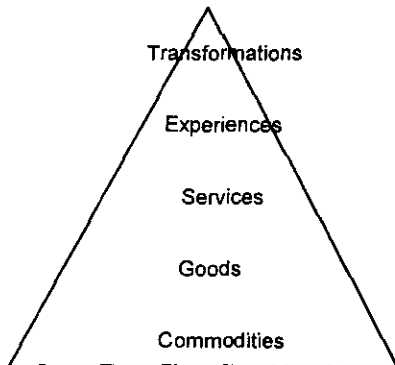


EXHIBIT 2

Experience Realms (Pine and Gilmore 1999)

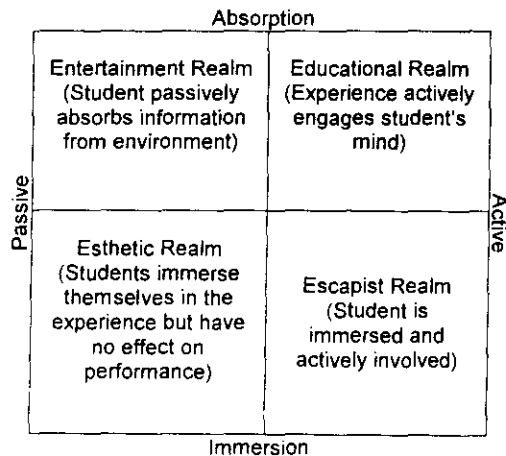
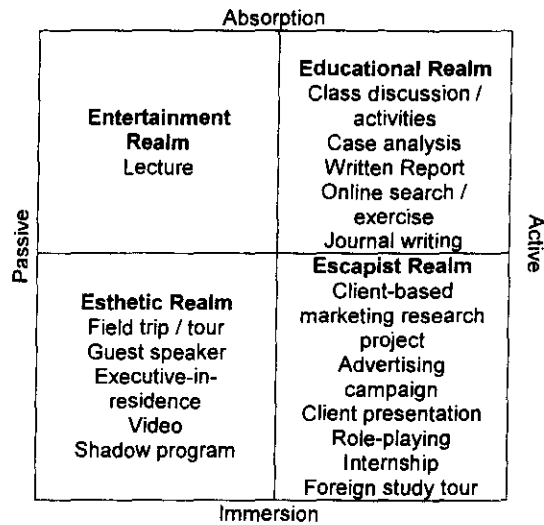


EXHIBIT 3

Experience Realms for Marketing Education



DELIVERING THE UNDERGRADUATE MARKETING RESEARCH COURSE AS A FUNCTIONING RESEARCH FIRM

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ABSTRACT

More and more faculty are coming to realize that the traditional lecture format is not the most effective for today's classroom. Guskin (1994) comments that "the primary learning environment for undergraduate students, the fairly passive lecture-discussion format where faculty talk and most students listen, is contrary to almost every principle of optimal settings for student learning" (p.20). In an effort to overcome the ineffectiveness of the traditional method, many faculty and departments are experimenting with innovative approaches to learning.

The purpose of this article is to describe an experiential learning method that has been used successfully for five years in teaching the undergraduate course in marketing research. The course uses the model of a functioning, marketing research firm where student teams complete actual marketing research projects as consultants for actual clients. Using this model students are able to successfully learn, apply, and understand the major steps of the marketing research process.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

The concept of experiential learning, as popularized by Kolb (1984) and Schon (1983), concerns itself with a process where reflection-on-experience unfolds in different contexts to create knowledge. This concept relating to learning through experience focuses on reflective construction of meaning, with particular emphasis on critical reflection and dialogue. When brought into the purview of the educator, the notion of experiential learning has been appropriated to designate everything from kinesthetic-directed instructional activities in the classroom to special workplace projects interspersed with critical dialogue led by a facilitator (Fenwick 2000).

Several excellent examples of successful marketing classroom experiential learning projects have been presented in the literature (see for example Bobbitt et al. 2000; Graeff, 1997). These articles document the process of requiring students to apply the theoretical concepts, models, and theories of a course or courses to a marketing project. In each case the authors testify to the increased effectiveness of learning through the use of experiential learning methods as measured by objective assessment and

student self-report. However, in the articles reviewed the projects students worked on were artificial projects created for the classroom. In the pedagogy that is the subject of this article, students are required to conduct a marketing research project for an actual client organization.

THE CLIENT-BASED PROJECT

The marketing research course is established from the start as a marketing research firm. Students are referred to as associates of the firm responsible in teams of three for identifying a client, generating and implementing a research project with that client, and presenting a final research report to both the client and the firm. The role of the professor is that of senior partner, responsible for supervision of associates and serving as a resource. The environment is cooperative, not competitive, in that the firm is most successful when all research projects being completed are done so successfully.

Course Description

The course syllabus introduces the course and the setting as follows:

"Each fall the university offers a course, BUS 450 Marketing Research. Rather than operate this course as a traditional class, it is run more as a business (the *firm*). Rather than receive a course syllabus, students (referred to as *associates*) receive this *Associates Handbook* outlining the values, expectations and policies of the firm. The *goal* of the firm is to effectively educate its associates to understand and be able to apply the marketing research process. The *business of the firm* is to conduct quality marketing research for organizations in the community, providing a valuable service that allows associates an opportunity to practice research skills."

Values Statement

An important component of the course is to instill upon students a concern for ethical values in business, and specifically in marketing research where the opportunity for misrepresentation and fraud is great. To that end the course syllabus lists the following value statement for *the firm*:

- The ultimate goal of this endeavor is to allow each and every associate to grow in knowledge and understanding in a spirit of cooperation, not competition.
- No associate within the organization is more valuable than another, each brings unique strengths and weaknesses to this endeavor that are to be appreciated. Associates working together are far more valuable to the firm than associates working independently.
- It is the responsibility of the *senior partner* (the instructor) to be readily available at *scheduled meetings* (scheduled class times) and at other times as needed to serve as a resource to each associate, ensuring that each associate has a fair opportunity to achieve the stated objectives of the firm.
- It is the responsibility of each associate to uphold his or her responsibility to the firm which includes completing all assigned tasks on time, attempting to always do one's best, and being a responsible member of a research team completing one's fair share of the task.
- It is the responsibility of the senior partner and each associate to communicate openly and honestly, being willing to confront each other when there is a concern, a lack of clarity or understanding, or any unresolved issue.
- No information will ever be presented to clients or fellow associates purported to represent greater accuracy or precision than what can be objectively demonstrated. Any limitations or flaws in information will always be clearly disclosed.

Assigned versus Student-Identified Client Organizations

The first time this course was offered the professor attempted to arrange business contacts in advance for students to use to identify potential projects. A dozen corporations and organizations were contacted and agreed to cooperate with students to complete an appropriate research project. When the class met it became clear that students at this university had their own contacts and organizations they wanted to work with. Consequently the prearranged contacts were not used and students pursued projects with organizations where a relationship already existed.

In five years of teaching the course there have been repeated cases where the research done by students has been instrumental in their obtaining part-time employment during school and full-time employment upon graduation. The research project becomes an important part of the student's portfolio, providing tangible evidence of the student's ability to implement the research project and to work as part of a team.

Based on past experience the course is now designed to require students to identify and contact their own organization to establish research opportunities. A benefit of having the student initiate contact with the client is greater responsibility on the part of the student toward the client compared to the situation of being assigned a client organization. Research teams are formed by having students with prospective clients present those opportunities to the class in an effort to recruit other students to join the team. Proposals failing to attract a team of three are dropped from consideration.

Criteria for Selecting Client Firm

Often organizations that students would like to work with are not good candidates because managers are not available to work with students, appropriate projects are not available for students to complete, or confidentiality concerns prevent students from easily accessing needed information. The course handbook presents the following criteria to student teams:

Each research team will be responsible for identifying and making arrangements to work with a client. Eligible clients can include companies, churches, and organizations. The following criteria should be applied in selecting a client to work with during the semester:

1. A representative of the client organization must be readily available to meet with the research team periodically to clarify objectives, approve activities, answer questions, and provide access to information resources. (In-person meetings are desirable two or three times, other contact can be by phone.)
2. The client must be able to provide a list of contacts to be surveyed (when appropriate).
3. The client must be willing to pay any costs associated with the research (long distance, mileage, printing, fax, and postage).
4. The client should arrange a meeting of appropriate organization members at the end of the semester for a presentation of results by the research team.

Criteria for Research Project

The main criteria for an acceptable research project is that it include a primary data collection activity (survey or structured interview) of a minimum of 50 respondents. This sample size was chosen to allow students to wrestle with the major problems of

designing and implementing a survey and to provide sufficient first-hand experience in collecting data. For projects that require a larger sample size, students are allowed to enlist the aid of others in collecting the data. Often student teams struggle (and fail) to achieve this minimum sample size.

Project Outputs

Students are required to prepare and present a series of written and oral outputs for the client organization and the class. These assignments are:

Research Agreement. Each team prepares a letter of agreement for the client organization that includes: the general nature of the research project, the population to be studied for the project, the methods to be used to conduct the research, names of organizational contacts, and the agreed upon time frame for research. Each research team submits the letter of agreement to the senior partner. Provided corrections are not required, the senior partner mails the agreements to the client.

Preliminary Research Plan. Each team prepares and submits for review a two-page report to the client identifying the specifics of how each of the steps in the research process will be implemented. This document requires students to identify the need for research, questions of interest to management, research objectives to be achieved, and sources of information to be used in conducting the research. Each research team submits their plan to the senior partner who approves it and mails it to the client.

Data Collection Instrument. Each team submits the data collection instrument (survey or interview form) for approval prior to its being used. Instruments are also circulated and discussed in class for review and improvement. Several class sessions are devoted to pairs of teams exchanging work for evaluation and critique. These sessions then result in questions for the entire firm to discuss which are tied back to theory by the senior partner.

Final Research Report. Each team prepares and submits a final written report to the client identifying the results of the research project, limitations of the research, implications to the organization, and recommendations for follow-up or future research.

Presentation of Final Report. Each team makes a presentation to the class of their research and findings. Teams are encouraged (but not required) to present their findings to their client organization. Often the client will attend the class session when their report is being presented.

Other Aspects of Being a Firm

The assumption from the start is that all members of a team will receive the same grade for the team project which accounts for 50 percent of the course grade. Each of the project outputs is graded separately. If teams have a nonparticipating or otherwise dysfunctional member, they are constantly reminded throughout the semester to confront that individual and, if necessary, involve the instructor in such confrontation. Teams meet individually with the instructor throughout the semester, providing regular opportunities to identify and resolve such problems.

The instructor maintains a subjective "meter" on the value of work in progress, reporting periodically through the semester the value of the firm's work. At the end of the course a market value is assigned to the firm's completed research (typically \$2,000 to \$10,000 per project). Teams are encouraged to keep track of their "billable hours" to be able to estimate, on a per hour basis, the value of their work. This exercise instills a valuable lesson pertaining to the life of being an independent consultant, a career toward which some students aspire.

ESTABLISHING AND ACHIEVING LEARNING OUTCOMES

To establish that one teaching method is more effective than another requires that one establish objective learning outcomes and determine if those outcomes are better achieved using the new method. McCorkle et al. (1999) examined academic pedagogy and identified four categories of preparation required for marketing students to successfully enter the workplace: (1) discipline-related knowledge, (2) discipline-related skills, (3) support skills, and (4) personal characteristics. This classification schema provides a useful framework for establishing and providing a basis for evaluating the effectiveness of teaching methods in marketing. Each of the four categories will be described followed by a description of how it is addressed by the consulting firm method of teaching marketing research.

Discipline-related knowledge involves understanding the marketing theories and concepts of the course. Discipline-related knowledge for this course focuses on thoroughly understanding the eleven major steps of the marketing research process (Burns and Bush 2000). Each of the steps are first presented and discussed in class in a traditional lecture and discussion format. Students are then required to immediately apply the theory to their consulting project, providing context and creating a need to understand and be able to apply each major concept.

To the extent that theory presented in class does not meet knowledge needs created by the consulting project, students are motivated to further study and examine theory to identify relevant concepts and methods.

Discipline-related skills (also called core or work-related skills) involve the experience and practice of theories. In business and marketing courses this is most often accomplished through the use of case studies and similar projects, allowing students to apply appropriate theories to documented situations in the classroom setting. One weakness of this approach is often the inability of the student to identify with the situation due to a lack of meaningful industry experience, especially at the undergraduate level.

Students are provided the opportunity to practice each step using appropriate in-class exercises, knowing they will need to be able to apply those same skills to their consulting project. Students are then required to apply each of the steps to their consulting project. This intentional repetition allows students to fully explore and more thoroughly understand underlying concepts and concerns of the marketing research process. Through work on an actual consulting project, students have no option but to recognize the relevance and application of appropriate theories required to meet obligations to their client. Specific class time is devoted to discussing consultant-client relationships and talking about the need to serve both internal and external clients in an organization.

Support skills are skills and abilities that are relevant to a broad range of jobs or careers and include creativity, decision making, communication, and teamwork. While traditional classroom activities allow limited development of these skills, the consulting project provides an opportunity for the student to externally validate the effectiveness of such skill development. Having to complete 50 or more surveys as a student team, having to design and delegate responsibilities for completing the project among team members, and having to effectively communicate with the client to obtain and provide information, all serve to motivate students to maximize their learning in these important areas.

Personal characteristics are other qualities that may be of interest to potential employers including being responsible, mature, enthusiastic, self-motivated, ambitious, and self-confident. The consulting project opens many opportunities for the faculty member to identify and work with students on developing these skills. Through peer and self-assessment, students

are able to gain objective feedback on their development along these dimensions.

CONCLUSION

Traditionally the primary focus of academic preparation has been on discipline-related knowledge with limited emphasis on skill and character development. As a result of the experience presented in this article it is argued that development of discipline-related skills and support skills has resulted in better comprehension of discipline-related knowledge. Requiring students to apply and use discipline-related knowledge and skills in an actual project for an actual client has resulted in a very high level of understanding. By requiring students to accurately apply skills and methods, and having them be responsible to an outside client, the effectiveness of learning is greatly enhanced.

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CLASSROOM AS LEARNING CENTERS!

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ABSTRACT

The American institutions of higher learning have had a great deal of success in providing collegiate education for a remarkable high number of individuals. High levels of communication, computational and technological literacy and informational abilities that enable individuals to gain and apply new knowledge and skills as needed, to effectively define problems, gather and evaluate information related to those problems, and develop solutions are the quality of performance indicators in today's college and university graduates. Given the above premise, the question becomes, are we in today's educational arena, training our students to be able to succeed given today's business and industry demands?

INTRODUCTION

In a recent Joint Report on "A Shared Responsibility for Learning (1998)", American Association For Higher Education, American College Personnel Association and National Association of Student Personnel Administrators put forth some Learning Principles. Further, the reports calls on each of the participant groups in the learning process students, faculty, scholars of cognition, administrative leaders, student affairs professional and other staff, alumni, governing boards, community supporters, accrediting agencies, professional associations, families, government agencies and all those involved in higher education, as professionals or as community supporters to view themselves as teachers, learners, and collaborators in service to learning.

This paper will look in depth at the following principle identified in the report above and offer suggestions to turn our classrooms into learning centers. The process, benefits and implications of active learning are explored in this paper. The premise of the paper is the principle "Learning is an active search for meaning by the learner-constructing knowledge rather than passively receiving it, shaping as well as being shaped by the experience."

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This concept of active learning has been addressed in the literature as early as the 1960s. In his work,

(Carl Rogers 1969) has identified two types of learning: Cognitive (meaningless) and experiential (significant). Cognitive learning, according to Rogers, relates to academic knowledge such as learning vocabulary or multiplication tables. Whereas, experiential learning relates to applied knowledge such as learning about aircraft engines in order to be able to repair them. The major distinction between cognitive and experiential learning is that the latter addresses the needs and wants of the learner. The qualities of experiential learning according to Rogers are:

1. Personal involvement of the learner,
2. Learning initiated by the learner,
3. Learning is evaluated by the learner, and
4. Learning has pervasive effects on the learner.

Rogers equates experiential learning to personal change and growth. Rogers also feels that human beings have a natural propensity to learn and the role of teachers is to facilitate such learning. Teachers should accomplish this by setting a positive climate for learning, clarifying the purposes of learning, organizing and making available learning resources, balancing intellectual and emotional components of learning and sharing feelings and thoughts with learners in a non-dominating manner. Policymakers (state and federal) and leaders in education and business have also discussed and evaluated the quality of undergraduate education in the United States. The basic tenet was that our educational process needs a great deal of improvement in order to meet the demands imposed by the businesses and industries today (About Teaching...1995). An outgrowth of this conference was a list of characteristics of quality performance to be attributed to today's college and university graduates: high level communications, computational and technological literacy, and informational abilities that enable individuals to gain and apply new knowledge and skills as needed, the ability to arrive at informed judgment, that is, to effectively define problems, gather and evaluate information related to those problems, and develop solutions, the ability to function in a global community-a range of attitudes and dispositions including: flexibility and adaptability, ease with diversity, motivation and persistence (for example, being a self starter, ethical and civil behavior, creativity and resourcefulness, ability to

work with others, especially in team settings, technical competence in a given field, demonstrated ability to develop all of the above to address specific problems in complex real world settings, in which the development of workable solutions is required. Given the above premise, the question becomes, are we in today's educational arena, training our students to be able to succeed given today's business and industry demands?

OUR CHALLENGES AND RESPONSIBILITIES AS FACULTY MEMBERS

The University of Delaware Institute for Transforming Undergraduate Education (ITUE) endorses the following principles in undergraduate courses:

1. Courses should help students think critically and enhance their abilities to analyze and solve real world problems,
2. Courses should develop skills in gathering and evaluating information needed for solving problems,
3. Students should gain experience working cooperatively in teams and small groups, and
4. Students should acquire versatile and effective communication skills.

The Institute also suggests that undergraduate courses must be student centered encouraging students to "learn to learn" by applying technology effectively to enhance learning and provide a variety of opportunities to learn. This becomes more germane when we examine the techniques employed by the majority of teachers in today's classrooms.

TRADITIONAL TEACHING APPROACH

We can identify the traditional/classical teaching approach by the following characteristics:

1. Classes are generally conducted in lecture or discussion formats where, topics of discussion are pre-determined by the instructor,
2. In some instances, cases are used to examine and review the concepts that are being discussed or learned,
3. The instructor decides what topics will be addressed, lectured on, discussed and learned,
4. The instructor decides how the topics are to be addressed, what textbooks and reference materials are to be read,
5. The instructor decides what topics are to be tested, the type of examinations to be administered, and the nature of the rewards (grades) are predetermined.

Let us elucidate the traditional or classical approach to classroom education as it is now. Lectures and discussions identify topics that need to be covered in classes and the teacher outlines the nature and the extent of the coverage. The topics are preset and the

content delivery may or may not allow students to "think on their feet." The "Case approach" on the other hands brings together previously learned concepts and knowledge and allows students to focus on the applications of these concepts in a predefined business setting. This traditional method of exchange of information often times stymies the "critical thinking" abilities of students. The learning that takes place is largely forgotten outside the particular subject based classroom environment. Many problems have been associated with learning that occurs through group projects (McCorkle et al 1999). These include free riding/social loafing, inadequate rewards, skills and attitude problems, transaction-costs problems, integrative learning problems, poor product quality, lack of individual innovation, pacing of the project workload, and not enough timely feedback to improve the quality of work. In addition, these problems are magnified by the lack of covariance in the student members within the groups themselves. However, many of the potential negative "side effects" of group projects, provide students the opportunities to experience real world group dynamics and problem solving. Thus, the role of the teacher in the traditional or classical teaching scheme is to set up the framework for learning through a highly structured set of subjective criteria and ensure that learning takes place through lectures, discussions, examinations, and presentations that finally translate to a "grade." Thus many of the activities in the classroom are driven by student outcomes that manifest in letter grades. Whether actual learning has taken place is a highly debatable (scarcely measured in real terms) and a volatile element of concern.

A NEW LEARNING APPROACH

Problem Based Learning (PBL) is an educational methodology, whereby, the students create a learning environment where "a problem" (a real world scenario) drives learning. Prior to students acquiring knowledge through learning, they are posed with a problem that requires them to learn new information and knowledge before they are able to understand and work with the problem. Students generally work collectively to develop their own theories and identify learning goals of their own. Finkle and Torp (1995), state "Problem Based Learning is a curriculum development and instructional system that simultaneously develops both problem solving strategies and disciplinary knowledge bases and skills by placing students in the active role of problem solvers confronted with an "ill-structured" problem that mirrors real-world problems".

PBL is a model that uses a genuine "ill structured" problem as a driving force for learning. The reason for acquiring new knowledge is predetermined by the posed problem. This type of situation fosters and motivates students by learning in the context of "need to solve a problem". PBL learners are given more and more responsibilities for their own education and become increasingly self-ruling, unregimented and independent of the teacher for their education. Students are provided with a list of tasks to be carried out during the learning process. These tasks include: determine whether a problem exists, understand the problem through brainstorming and articulate an exact statement of the problem, identify the information already known and needed to evaluate the problem, identify resources that need to be used to gather information regarding the problem at hand, evaluate the problem through outlining and categorizing the variables and/causes, determine/establish learning goals from analyses in relation to existing knowledge, and summarize relevant findings amongst the group members.

The characteristics of PBL are that it is student oriented, group learning through meetings, students determine how to accomplish/complete the various tasks assigned, students determine what books to read and what literature and resources to consult for task completion, and learning occurs over a period of time while the task is being completed. PBL properly administered, should accomplish activation of the existing knowledge, and allow students to acquire knowledge that is better retained. Knowledge retention is achieved through development of learning goals. The problem analysis uses existing knowledge, develops a learning strategy, allows learning to analyze different problems and identifying various information needs, allows using various theoretical underpinnings and develops viewpoints in conjunction with a problem, and the sharing and expressing of knowledge with others.

IMPLEMENTATION OF "PBL" IN CLASSROOMS

Active Participation by the learner is a key element in productive learning and can be accomplished by:

1. Designing instructional methods **involving students directly** in the discovery of knowledge,
2. Incorporating learning materials that challenge students to **transform prior knowledge and experiences** into new and deeper understandings,
3. Requiring students to **take responsibility** for their own learning,
4. Encouraging students to **seek meaning** in the context of **ethical values and commitments**, and

5. Incorporate assessments based on students' abilities to **demonstrate competencies and use of knowledge**.

Faculty and staff then become facilitators in the **active search for meaning** by:

1. Expecting and demanding student participation in activities in and beyond the classroom,
2. Designing projects and tasks through which students apply their knowledge and skills, and
3. Building programs that feature extended and increasingly challenging opportunity for growth and development.

The fundamental assumption prior to implementing PBL is that all the constituents in the learning process, the faculty, students, and the administrators are ready for a total paradigm shift in thinking of "what constitutes learning?" This means a total rethinking of the concepts of "what, why, how, when, where, and how much" of "Learning." Implementation of PBL in classrooms needs a great deal of preparation for all the elements in the process. It is understood that problem based learning is not an approach which can be successful at all levels. It is most effectively used in senior level and graduate marketing/business courses. The major elements in the PBL process are the problems, the students, faculty, the environment itself in which the process is to be implemented and the constant and continuous interaction/feedback between the above elements. The problem posed needs to be a reflection of "the real world". Students need to realize the coexistent nature of the problem and the reality in which they are to operate. The problem needs to reflect currency with existing business practices rather than what may have happened a decade ago. The problem needs to engage the students into a challenge mode to understand the situation. That is, the students must be able to learn from each other's experiences and be able to generalize from the specific problem situation to develop more rigorous knowledge and understanding.

IMPLEMENTATION: "THE HOW TO"

In order for PBL to be effective in our classrooms, a few prerequisites need to be met. Students need to have some basic understanding of some of the concepts and elements of the subject matter. Faculty members will need a great deal of up front preparation to pull this off. Each subject area has to be divided into a number of "LEARNING MODULES". Each Learning Module will have a set of "COMPETENCY GOALS" or "A SET OF LEARNING GOALS". Based on these learning/competency goals, the instructor will design a very ambiguous problem that parallels a real situation. This

necessitates that PBL may be effective at the capstone course levels, instructors in all the functional areas of business need to have input into the nature of the "ill structured problems" and modules designed for PBL, students need to be given the tasks and responsibilities of setting their own learning goals, the students need to be divided into groups of 10 or so and each group needs to have a trained instructor or a facilitator to act as catalyst to enhance the learning process, the progress of the students needs to be monitored in such a way that learning is encouraged and fostered through coaching rather than lectures and instructor designed discussions, the foci of the exercises need to be identifying problem solving techniques and not necessarily specific outcomes or solutions for the "ill structured problem", students need to have access to information that aid learning and expand their knowledge bases. Once students get a taste of this new way to acquire knowledge and learn the excitement needs to be nurtured through added reinforcements of recognition. In time, the entire curriculum may need to be revamped to reflect the overall commitment to encourage PBL. Once the learning goals are established, the role of the faculty member becomes one of a facilitator, to encourage the learning process to begin in the students. The students will be assigned to groups and instructed to set up new learning goals defining the tasks that will allow them to address the ill stated problem. The student groups will have specified amounts of time to complete the various tasks that have been identified through group interaction. The instructor will ensure the group learning process is nurtured and not controlled and guard the quality of discussion. Constant mentoring of students in groups is a must for PBL to thrive. Once the tasks have been completed the information will be disseminated and shared with the class through presentations and discussions. The effectiveness of learning is enhanced through rotating group leadership responsibilities within each group.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The PBL method may not work in every course offered in the marketing and business curricula. A great deal of up front work needs to be performed in order to ensure the success of learning through PBL. At this time, this method of learning is being implemented in graduate education at a few select institutions in the U.S. However, with proper guidance, PBL can be implemented in select undergraduate senior level courses in marketing and other functional areas of business.

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EQUITY THEORY AND STUDENT SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

Student satisfaction is a subject that has received considerable attention. While there is controversy over whether or not students should be treated as customers, it is apparent that some of our understanding of customer behavior has applicability to students. Therefore, by examining our understanding of consumer satisfaction we may gain insights into the determinants of student satisfaction.

One approach to the study of customer satisfaction is based on equity theory. Equity theory postulates that people use their individual perceptions of their inputs and outcomes (costs/benefits) as a basis for judging equity of a transaction. People hold some perception of the social norm for appropriate ratios of inputs and outcomes. The basic model used in equity theory is as follows:

$$\frac{\text{Outcomes of A}}{\text{Inputs of A}} \sim \frac{\text{Outcomes of B}}{\text{Inputs of B}}$$

The model shows that one views his/her own ratio in relation to the ratio of the other partner in an exchange. For example, an Oliver and Swan (1989) study found that buyers viewed an equitable or fair exchange to be when their (the buyers) outcomes were high, while the sellers' inputs were high.

Using equity theory, two research questions about student satisfaction were developed:

Research Question #1: *Do students perceive greater satisfaction when they perceive a positive ratio between their inputs and outcomes?* and
Research Question #2: *Do students perceive greater satisfaction when their outcomes are high compared with the instructor having high inputs?*

To explore these two research questions, a questionnaire was developed that asked students to estimate their inputs of time, money, effort and their outcomes of information, skills, knowledge, grade and course credits for a particular course. The instrument also asked students their perceptions of their input/outcomes ratio in relation to the inputs and outcomes of the instructor. The final question asked students to indicate their level of satisfaction with the course. The survey instrument was administered to 177 students enrolled in the

College of Business Administration at California State University San Marcos.

The data were analyzed using SPSS 9.0. To explore the findings in relation to Research Question #1, a ratio of outcomes to inputs used composite scores for all factors. This ratio value was then tested for a possible correlation with satisfaction. Using the Kendall's tau b, the test was statistically significant at the .01 level of significance. The ANOVA test using satisfaction as the dependent variable and the ratio value as the predictor variable had an F value of 30.454, which was also significant at the .01 level of significance. Based on these tests it appears that there is a relationship between the ratio of inputs to outcomes and student satisfaction with a course. The greater the perceived outcomes in relation to perceived inputs, the greater is the level of student satisfaction with a course.

The findings were also significant for Research Question #2. The tests were significant at the .03 level, which indicates that students tend to have a higher level of satisfaction when they perceive the instructor inputs were at a higher level and their outcomes were at a higher level. This finding indicates that students are more satisfied with a course when they believe the instructor is putting forth more effort.

The results of this exploratory study show that student satisfaction can be fruitfully studied using equity theory.

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ACADEMIC RIGOR AND THE STUDENT TEACHER EVALUATION PROCESS: STUDENT PERCEPTIONS

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ABSTRACT

Two studies were conducted to look at the relationship between rigor and student evaluation of instruction. Approximately 30% of the students admitted that they had purposely inflated evaluations because an instructor gave good grades, and about 30% indicated that they had purposely lowered evaluations below what they thought the instructor deserved because tests in the course were too hard. Fifty percent had done one or the other. Students did not believe that a demand for rigor was an important characteristic of a good instructor. Further, approximately half of the students in a self-reported, published medium gave their instructor the same grade they received. The findings suggest that faculty fears that higher academic standards would lower student evaluations are not unfounded.

A recent survey conducted at a Western university found that over 65% of the surveyed faculty believed that higher standards for grades in classes would lower student evaluations (Birnbaum 2000). When asked if the student evaluation process encourages faculty to "water down" the content of their courses, 72% responded in the affirmative. Almost 49% of the faculty said they present less material in class than they used to, and about one third said they have lowered standards for students to get a passing grade (only 7% said they had raised standards).

An on-line publication recently suggested that if instructors wanted to raise student evaluations they should grade leniently (The Bucknellian Online 1998). Yet educators continue to state that rigorous academic standards do NOT significantly change student teacher evaluations (Cashin 1995; Marsh & Dunkin 1992).

Marsh and Roche (1999) referred to the idea that academic rigor would result in lower student teacher evaluations as a "presumption" that is not supported by the research. They state that the evaluation-grade expectation correlation is small ($r = 0.2$, approximately 4% of the variance). The authors suggest that instructors use proven methods of improving their evaluation ratings rather than, "...

the ethically dubious, counterproductive tactics (easy workloads and grading standards) that apparently do not improve teaching effectiveness of SETs (p. 518)." The debate has been complicated by research findings. Gillmore and Greenwald (1999) reported that out of six published studies that manipulated grading leniency in actual classrooms, all found higher evaluations from students in the more lenient conditions. Clayson & Haley (1990) found that in marketing classes, academic rigor was not significantly related directly to teaching evaluations. However, they found that academic rigor was significantly positively related to "learning", which was positively related to the evaluations. Rigor was negatively related to "personality" and "fairness", both of which were positively related to the final evaluation outcome. The combined overall effect of rigor on the evaluations was significant and negative. In other words, students believed that they would learn more in a course with rigor, but they also reported that rigor would decrease their evaluation of the instructor's personality and her fairness. In this study, "personality" accounted for so much of the variation of the final evaluation outcome that the overall effect of rigor was negative.

This study looks at the direct student perceptions of academic rigor and their related view of instruction.

METHOD

Two studies were conducted. The first attempted to evaluate students' perception of rigor and its place in defining a good instructor. The second study looked at the issue of reciprocity. In other words, to what extent do students tend to evaluate the adequacy of teaching by their own grade? Do the professors' fears expressed in the survey reviewed above have a basis?

Method of Study One

A survey was administered to two undergraduate business classes in each of three universities. One university was in the Western states, one in the Midwest, and one in the Southwest. A total of 168 (105 female) useable questionnaires were analyzed. Each of these institutions encourages students to add written comments to the standard evaluation form.

As part of a longer survey, several questions were asked of students' perceptions of the importance of rigor in the teaching evaluation process. Rigor was defined on each questionnaire as, "... the instructor demands a lot of you." Students were asked, "Have you ever added a written suggestion [to a student teacher evaluation] that an instructor's tests were too hard?" They were also asked if they had given an average instructor, "... a higher than average teaching rating..." because the instructor gave good grades, and "... a lower than average teaching rating..." because the instructor's tests were too hard.

Further, each student was given five traits (see Table 1) that could be related to a good teacher (taken from Clayson & Haley 1990) and asked to give a percentage to each weighing that trait within the total of five. The students were also given a forced choice comparison of four traits to create a Thurstone's Paired Comparison scale.

Results

Thirty-five percent of the students admitted to adding written comments to evaluations stating that the instructor's tests were too hard. Twenty-nine percent said that they had given an instructor a higher evaluation than they thought the instructor deserved because that instructor gave good grades, and 29% indicated that they had given an instructor lower evaluations than the instructor deserved because tests were too hard. Forty-five percent had either added a written comment that tests were too hard and/or had purposely inflated an evaluation of an instructor that gave good grades. Forty-three percent had either added a written comment that tests were too hard and/or had purposely deflated an evaluation of an instructor that had difficult tests. Fifty percent had inflated an evaluation because of good grades they received and/or had purposely deflated an evaluation of an instructor that gave tests that were "too" hard. Table 1 shows the proportions of traits that would constitute a good instructor in the students' perception.

The Thurstone's Paired Comparison asked the students to create a scale of the "... most important characteristics of a good instructor." Learning was defined as "... how much you think you learned in the class." On a forced-choice paired comparison, learning was chosen 98% of the time over rigor, fairness was chosen 89%, and personality was chosen 75% of the time over rigor.

Thurstone's procedure creates an interval scale. These intervals were found to be (adjusting rigor to zero):

Rigor	0
Fairness	4.02
Personality	4.25
Learning	6.77

TABLE 1

Proportions of Traits that Impact Good Teaching

Trait	Av Percent	Cumulative % < 11
Knowledge	31.5	6.0
Concern for Students	21.0	19.0
Personality	18.8	34.5
Fairness	16.7	32.7
Rigor	11.5	70.8

Discussion

The concept of "rigor", defined as, "... the instructor demands a lot of you," was not considered by these students as an important trait to a good instructor. Almost 71% of the students reported that rigor would constitute 10% or less of the proportion of traits that would characterize a good instructor. Further, about 50% of the students indicated that they would reward or punish an instructor based on giving good grades, or giving tests that were judged to be "too" hard. The students apparently found little relationship between a knowledgeable instructor and student learning with rigor.

Method of Study Two

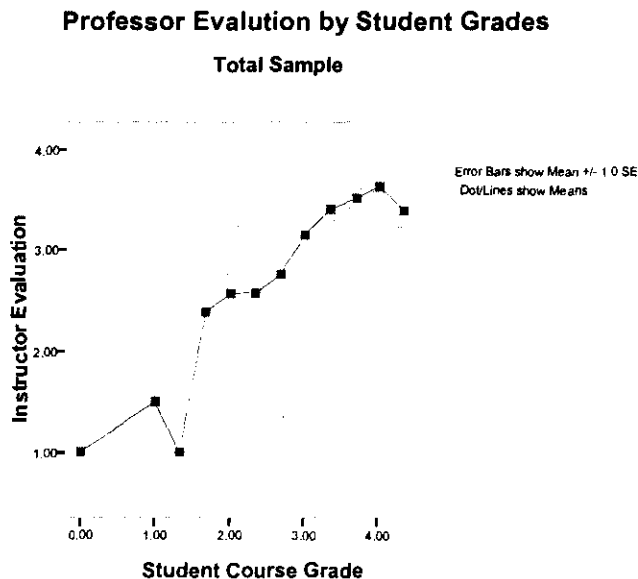
Several web sites now exist that give students an opportunity to publish an evaluation of an instructor and/or a course. One of the largest of these is Teacher Review (www.teacherreview.com), which currently contains evaluations of 3,011 instructors in 536 schools. Students give a letter grade to the instructor's exams, homework assignments, lectures, class projects, office hours, personality, and speaking skills. The student then gives an overall letter grade to the instructor and then can add the grade they received in the course.

Evaluations were chosen from business, social science, and physical science professors that were at least over half complete (i.e., over half of the letter grades were assigned). When more than one student evaluated an individual instructor, one evaluation was chosen at random, using a random number generator. The sample selected contained an evaluation of 809 instructors.

Results

The relationship between the student's course grade and the student's evaluation of the instructor was analyzed. The correlation between the two was 0.472, accounting for 22.2% of the variance ($r = 0.474$ for 182 business instructors). Of the students receiving an A in the course, 72% gave their instructor an A (87% gave either an A or B). Of the students receiving a C or lower, 67% gave their instructor a C or lower. Over 53% (53.5%) of the students gave their instructor the same grade they received ($Z = 12.19$ that the distribution was random). The graph of the two variables is shown below.¹

Figure 1



Discussion

Students could obviously input any data they chose onto the web site. It would be expected that students who were the most computer literate and had strong feelings would be more likely to respond. There is also no external validation of the course

¹ Students could claim a grade of A+.

grade recorded. The average grade for the sample was 3.39 (after adjusting A+ to A). It has been this writer's experience in over ten years of measuring such things, that students have a tendency to overestimate their grades, indicating that the correlation reported here is probably underestimated (reduction of variance lowers the correlation). It is also true, however, that students during the actual evaluation process can record anything they choose. Nevertheless, there was a strong relationship between reported grades in a course and the evaluation given to the instructor.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

Over a third of the students sampled reported that they had been concerned enough to add a written comment to an instructor's evaluation that the course's tests were too hard. Approximately 30% of the students admitted that they had purposely inflated evaluations because an instructor gave good grades, and about 30% indicated that they had purposely lowered evaluations below what they thought the instructor deserved because tests were judged to be too hard. Fifty percent had done one or the other.

The sampled students did not believe that a demand for rigor (as defined) was an important characteristic of a good instructor. Further, approximately half of the students in a self-reported, published medium gave their instructor the same grade they received.

The results of this study seem to support the faculty "presumptions" found in Birnbaum's survey.

LIMITATIONS

The sample in the first study was small and not randomly chosen. The sample of the second study was self-selected and in a public medium. Generalizations of the findings are therefore questionable. The results, however, are suggestive and agree with the published literature (Greenwald & Gillmore 1997). Nevertheless in a field that literally contains thousands of published articles, these results only point to further research.

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DEVELOPING A STUDENT ORIENTATION: THE USE OF A FIRST DAY SURVEY

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ABSTRACT

Market and customer orientation are well-known terms to any marketing professor. However, the application of such concepts in the classroom is not always straightforward. At a time when most marketing educators recognize the changing needs of their students, new tools to adapt our teaching methods and techniques to them are called for. This paper discusses the use of a first day survey to assess students' needs, wants, and expectations regarding several aspects of a marketing course and presents ways to develop a student-oriented format for the class.

WHAT DOES A STUDENT-ORIENTATION MEAN?

Since the advent of the "new marketing concept," customer orientation has become the best tool to gain and retain customers. Customer orientation, one of the components of market orientation, refers to the process of generating and disseminating market intelligence for the purpose of creating superior consumer value (Kohli and Jaworski 1990). In a business context, the construct of customer orientation captures the company's level of commitment and orientation to serving customers' needs, the fact that business objectives are driven primarily by customer satisfaction, and the underlying belief that the company can generate greater value for its customers. Developing a customer orientation in the business world thus involves knowing and understanding the customers' stated needs and implied expectations, orienting organizational activities to satisfy such needs and expectations, and assessing customer satisfaction.

The application of the customer orientation concept to education is not new. In fact, discussions of customer-focused educational systems abound. However, as Mukherjee (1995) pointed out, applying the customer orientation concept to educational system is complex as there are many layers of providers and customers. As a means of streamlining the line of reasoning of the paper, we focus here on students as customers, view the instructor of a specific course as the supplier, and propose means by which the instructor can cater his/her teaching style and techniques to his/her students.

Most educators recognize the need for them to adapt to environmental changes (Ferrell 1995) and to changes in the nature of students and students' expectations for their education. This brings the question of how educators should assess their students' needs so that they can adjust accordingly. The purpose of this paper is to present a way to adopt the business notion of customer orientation in a classroom environment and to provide a simple tool for educators who wish to implement a student orientation in their classroom. Specifically, the paper discusses the use of a first day survey to identify students' needs and expectations with regards to the course and to better know and understand the students.

METHODOLOGY

A two-page survey was administered to all students of two sections of an undergraduate Consumer Behavior class (N=104) on the first day of the semester. The students were informed that the format of the class had been kept flexible so as to accommodate their needs and that the purpose of the survey was to gather information about their preferences for different class formats, exam formats, studying habits, etc.

The survey was designed to both address class-specific issues and gather more personal information about the students in an attempt to develop an appreciation of each student's background. As listed in Table 1, a series of 5-point Likert scales aimed at gathering students' attitudes toward different class and exam formats, their studying habits, and their level of experience with different assignments. Another set of questions addressed scheduling issues, such as the convenience of the scheduled office hours and the students' personal schedules (if they worked and, if so, how many hours per week and what their job was, whether they had children, how many credit hours they were registered for that semester, and, what, if any, other marketing courses they were taking). Since the course called for many web-based assignments, email communications, and made extensive use of the course's website for posting lecture notes, sample exam questions, and grades, a section of the survey included questions on the students' ease of access to a computer and the

25% of the surveyed students worked between 25 and 30 hours per week and another 25% over 30 hours. This, of course, creates severe time constraints for the students that educators must recognize and work with.

Comments to the two open-ended questions were content-analyzed so as to paint a picture of the "ideal" professor. Many of the comments had to do, again, with class format. Students like organization, thoroughness, clarity, attention to details, and good communication skills. Other qualities include fair, knowledgeable, "up to date with current trends," personable, accessible and available to the students, someone who listens, who likes what he/she teaches and is enthusiastic about the materials. The professor must "keep the students interested" and "motivate them to learn." From a human standpoint, the ideal professor is someone who "wants to see their students succeed in life," "someone who can relate to the students," as well as someone who shows respect for the students.

In order to be able to relate to the students, simple survey questions such as where the students are from, where they work, what type of job they might want once they graduate, the magazines they read, television programs they watch, or associations students they belong to can help shed light into the students' lives and allow the educator to use more pertinent examples as illustrations for marketing concepts.

Most importantly, a good professor was identified as one "who listens to the feedback of the students," who is "open to new things," and who is "willing to work with the students to help them get the most out of the class." The following comment captures the student orientation as seen from the students' perspective: "a good professor makes his course appreciated by the student."

DISCUSSION: HOW TO USE THIS INFORMATION

Collecting survey information from the students on the first day of class will help develop a student orientation only if it is used to adapt the class curriculum to the students' needs and expectations as they were expressed in the survey. Thus, the real challenge is to use the knowledge and understanding of the students to put in place a student-oriented course, much as market intelligence is used to create superior consumer value.

While some of the information from the first day survey is relatively easy to implement, such as with

preferences regarding the exam format, other outcomes may entail that adjustments be made to the teaching techniques used in class, possibly to the syllabus, and sometimes, require that the instructor rethink his / her teaching philosophy.

As was discussed in the previous section, the results confirm previous findings (e.g., Smart et al. 1999) that the traditional classroom model has given way to a model that emphasizes active learning. Such emphasis can be achieved by shortening lectures to make room for active learning techniques from which to choose (Shakarian 1995) such as experiential learning exercises, relevant guest speakers, and case discussions. Videos can be used to capture the students' attention but also to generate classroom discussions. Interestingly, experiential activities are not only favored by the students, their effectiveness in terms of learning has also been demonstrated (Hamer 2000).

Other findings related to students' level of experience with different assignments might involve scheduling several preparatory sessions. For instance, since many students reported not being very familiar with the library system, a workshop with a business librarian was scheduled. Similarly, to address students' lack of experience with conducting case studies, a special training session was organized with a practice case analysis.

Scheduling and other personal issues that students may indicate on the survey could point to needed adjustments in the office hours. Often times, professors schedule their office hours for their own convenience but overlook the fact that these may not coincide with the students' availability. Electronic means of communications are providing an easy remedy for this by allowing "virtual" office hours to be held. This is especially useful since, of the 32.7% of students who indicated that the office hours were not convenient, most could not suggest a better time, as their class and work schedules took up most of their "free" time.

Sometimes, the first day survey results may require that the instructor rethink his/her teaching philosophy. As discussed by Smart et al. (1999), the traditional "teacher" role of educators has given way to "learning facilitator" roles. As indicated in the survey, the students view a good professor as someone who can make the class interesting, fun, and interactive by incorporating many teaching methods. Therefore, embracing a student-oriented approach to teaching would stipulate that the instructor be ready and willing to improve in those areas.

LIMITATIONS

This study has several limitations. First, the questions addressed evaluations of different aspects of class and thus may not reflect the actual effectiveness of each technique. This might explain the difference between the results of this survey and that conducted by Merritt (1998), which focused on "what works" for the students as opposed to what they "prefer." Her finding that students felt they learned more from lectures than from videos or guest speakers does not map on to the students' stated preferences in this study. This discrepancy may be attributed to the affective (liking) versus cognitive (learning) nature of the questions used in the two studies and illustrates the need to balance student tastes and preferences with learning outcomes of the course when developing a student orientation. Care must be taken to ensure that the student orientation does not interfere with the course's learning objectives. The key to making the student orientation a success is to find a good balance between adapting to the students' needs and covering the materials.

A second limitation of this study is that several potential moderating variables, such as learning style and level of skills, were not measured. Learning style has been shown to affect student preferences for different class activities (Frontczak and Rivale 1991) and thus may have affected the responses in this survey. Similarly, Merritt (1998) showed that the level of skills affected students' perceptions of the effectiveness of different class activities such as lectures or cases and thus may also moderate students' preferences for these techniques.

CONCLUSION

Although most educators recognize the need to adapt to continuous changes in the environment and in students' needs and expectations (Smart et al. 1999), doing so is challenging. This paper has presented the use of a first day survey to demonstrate the benefits of developing a student orientation. The benefits of a student orientation extend beyond satisfying the students. Much as customer orientation has been shown to lead to product innovation (Lukas and Ferrell 2000), student-generated insights have the potential to lead to novel teaching methods.

On a final note, it must be noted that developing a student orientation can only be successful within a teaching philosophy of continuous improvement. Developing and successfully implementing a student

orientation requires a climate of continuous learning, one in which educators are consistently striving to balance between meeting changing student needs and expectations and attaining the learning objectives they set for their classes. Learning is not static and implementing means to assess and adapt to student expectations must be dynamic. Students' needs change constantly. As new generations reach college-age, educators must stay in touch with their needs and be adaptive and willing to continually modify their teaching styles and methods to their ever-changing customers.

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WEB-BASED TEACHING IN THE BASIC MARKETING COURSE

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RATIONALE

WebCT is a web-based system for the delivery of course material in a variety of classroom settings. While WebCT is the most popular such proprietary system, similar offerings such as Blackboard, PageOut and Top Class have also become quite common in colleges of business in recent years. Several major textbook publishers have developed supplemental materials to be used with these systems. While our specific experience is with WebCT, the material to be presented in this panel discussion is applicable to all such systems.

Web-based teaching materials can be used in a variety of classroom formats. In some cases they are used primarily as a course delivery mechanism for remote sites, while in other situations they are simply used to provide minimal support to a traditional face-to-face class. Like many of the earlier advances in educational technology, there are some problems inherent in the opportunities presented by the adoption of these systems. In addition, there are some specialized classroom techniques unique to these systems which need to be mastered by teaching faculty and a time commitment needed to master these new skills.

Our presentation will focus on our experiences with WebCT across a fairly wide range of formats, which include a "pure" distance learning section of the basic marketing course, and a rather traditional lecture/discussion section of the basic marketing course where WebCT is used to simply supplement existing course material. In addition, our presentation will provide information on a multiple-section situation where the basic marketing course is heavily augmented and supported by WebCT. Within these sections, WebCT is used to deliver course materials, on-line exams, and collect survey data on student satisfaction with the quality of the course. Some preliminary data from these surveys can be presented, depending on audience interest.

FORMAT

There are over six hundred schools who have site licenses for WebCT, and an equal number who have access to similar systems. Many of the faculties at these schools have experience with WebCT and will want to share their problems and opportunities, as well as to learn from our experiences. Therefore, we see this presentation as a classic panel discussion with a high level of audience interest and involvement.

Bob Collins will briefly introduce the topic and discuss his personal experiences in the situations where he has used WebCT to extensively augment multiple sections of the basic marketing course taught in a variety of formats. One of these sections is in a "pure" distance learning format. Discussion will include course access and copyright issues, web-based course materials, and on-line exams/surveys.

Michael Mejza will discuss his use of WebCT to provide minimal support to a traditional section of basic marketing in a lecture/discussion format. In Michael's classes, he uses WebCT primarily as a classroom management tool. He will focus on the use of WebCT to collect and distribute various assignments and conduct discussion groups.

Tom Boyt is prepared to discuss the use of WebCT from the perspective of an administrator responsible for satisfying the needs of our various publics, as well as the need to insure instructional quality and high academic standards are maintained within this format. Tom will also discuss the preliminary data from the student surveys.

MENTORING OUR STUDENTS AND FACULTY

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ABSTRACT

There is a widely held belief in business and academia that most who are successful, and virtually all who are extraordinarily successful, achieved that success with the aid of at least one mentor. Someone took a personal interest and guided, sponsored, advised, encouraged, challenged, or in other meaningful ways facilitated their success. As educators we are all in a position to mentor. Students and junior faculty both need and desire personal attention. Though most faculty have had mentors, many do not know exactly what it means to be a mentor and may not recognize or make the most of opportunities to engage in mentoring activities.

Many models of mentoring exist in business and academia, ranging from informal to highly structured, short-term to continuing, issue-focused to general, and points between (Chao et al. 1992; Gunn 1995). Some involve spontaneous relationships while others are arranged through formal matching programs. Though traditional views emphasize ongoing relationships, much fruitful mentoring also occurs within relationships that are shorter-term. While faculty to student mentoring is traditionally envisioned as occurring outside the classroom, many faculty engage in mentoring activities within their classrooms. Further, those teaching large numbers of students, though unable to mentor most in the traditional sense, nevertheless may activate a mentoring mindset and serve as a mentor through caring and committed, though brief, interactions.

However we chose to define mentoring, a mentor helps someone learn things he or she would have learned less well, more slowly, or not at all if left alone. The need for mentoring clearly exists. AACSB requires faculty development programs, and mentoring is a viable means of socializing junior faculty. Students faced with selecting majors, performing academically, and launching careers are almost always in need of guidance. Further, many face challenges coming from economically or socially disadvantaged

backgrounds, as first-generation college students, or as members of underrepresented groups. Whatever the specific situations, students and junior faculty face unfamiliar and uncomfortable expectations within which they fervently hope to succeed. It is during such times that mentoring can play a key role.

As well as benefiting the protégé, mentoring benefits the mentor (Bell 2000). While the mentor offers the protégé the benefit of his or her experiences, perspectives, and specialized knowledge, mentored students and junior faculty bring with them fresh ideas, creativity, initiative, current knowledge and skills, and a passion to succeed that offers renewal to the mentor. Thus, mentoring benefits both parties by offering a reciprocal transfer of skills and experience (Gunn 1995; Kaye and Scheef 2000).

Barbara Gross discussed mentoring undergraduate students and related pedagogy issues. Deborah Cours described her perspective on the needs of junior faculty. Shirley Stretch-Stephenson focused on how senior faculty can mentor junior faculty and students. Hal Kassirjian discussed how researchers are mentored through thesis supervision, the editorial review process, and the recruiting process for their first academic position. Rika Houston discussed issues of diversity impacting minority students and junior faculty.

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THE SKILLS VERSUS THEORY-BASED KNOWLEDGE PARADOX IN MARKETING EDUCATION: A GAP ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT

The relevancy of marketing curriculum to work performance is a topic of importance to marketing educators. This paper describes the results of a survey of marketing alumni to gather curriculum and work-related information. A gap analysis approach was employed to measure the perception of the degree of importance of skills and theory-based knowledge to one's current employment and the effectiveness of the delivery of skills and knowledge through the marketing curriculum. Results show that marketing graduates perceive that they are underprepared in certain skills and are overprepared in certain knowledge areas. Implications are discussed. The paper presents a model for depicting the relationship of skills and theory-based knowledge to one's career in the area of marketing, and offers suggestions for areas of future research.

The continuous improvement process for a marketing major calls for an examination of marketing curricula in several respects— coverage of theory, application, currency of information, and relevancy to the careers of marketing graduates. The relevancy aspect of curriculum improvement can be assessed in part by asking marketing graduates about the extent to which their marketing education prepared them for their marketing careers. This paper examines the relevancy of marketing curriculum through a gap analysis applied to marketing alumni. Such an analysis measures the difference between the perceived importance of a set of work-related skills and knowledge and the degree to which a basic marketing curriculum prepared them in these areas.

Educational institutions evaluate student satisfaction for a number of reasons, including student retention (Hatcher et al. 1992); student satisfaction (Gwinner and Beltramini 1995; Juillerat and Schreiner 1996); outcomes or value added (Hartman and Schmidt 1995); and program planning and evaluation (Borden 1995). There are a number of ways of measuring program outcomes – student evaluation of faculty, exit examinations, job placements, and student and alumni perceptions. However, according to Halpern (1988), there is no best single indicator of program quality. Still, the degree to which alumni believe that

their marketing education prepared them for marketing careers is certainly a significant indicator of curriculum quality. Basically, a measurement of alumni perceptions should reveal much about the skills and knowledge components of the marketing option. As Headley and Choi (1992, p.8) point out, "to improve service quality, one must listen to the customer since quality is ultimately defined by customer perceptions." In the case of the academy, this would include graduates, students, recruiters and employers.

Assessment studies have looked at various aspects of the perceptions of marketing programs. Nordstrom and Sherwood (1997) compared undergraduate and graduate perceptions of the adequacy of skills and characteristics required by the work environment. Several other studies have used a gap-analysis approach to assessment. Gap analysis, described by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985), is portrayed as a divergence between either an expected services and a perceived (delivered) service from a customer's point of view, or the difference between a service provider's specified level of service and the service actually delivered. Measurement can be made objectively in terms of "...what the consumer receives as a result of his interactions with a service firm" (Lewis and Klein 1986, p. 33). Winer (1998) described a gap analysis approach to assessing the administration of a business school, including the design of curricula to meet employers' expectations. Giacobbe and Segal (1994) also used a gap model to explore the performance interrelationships that existed between marketing students, marketing research educators, and marketing research practitioners. Their study examined perceptions of performance skills and abilities desired by practitioners relative to the extent of their delivery. Lundstrom and White (1997) also used a gap analysis to measure perceptual differences between practitioners and academicians on curriculum content and research areas in international marketing.

KNOWLEDGE VERSUS SKILLS

The relationship between skills and knowledge presents a dilemma to marketing educators.

1990; Scott and Frontczak 1996). The average respondent age was 27.2 years, and males made up 69.7% of the sample. The approximate undergraduate G.P.A. was 2.80 and the marketing major G.P.A. was 2.94.

Variables

The primary variables of interest, developed from the authors' prior research, ranged from the acquisition of written communication skill to the much more general ability to understand how marketing relates to other functional areas in business. These primary variables are listed in Table 1. The seven point semantic differential scale (7=high, 1=low) measured the perceived importance to one's current employment of each of the eleven knowledge and skill areas. Separately, the same items were also measured in the context of how well the university's marketing curriculum prepared them in each of the areas.

DATA ANALYSIS

The mean ratings of each of the eleven items, relating to the areas of knowledge and skills, were computed. Some interesting results emerged. For example, "Oral Communication Skills" were rated as the most important area with respect to one's current employment (Item 6), but were rated third in terms of how well respondents felt they had been educated in that area. Further, the "Ability to analyze the relationship between marketing variables (e.g., 4Ps)" (Item 3) was rated the lowest in terms of importance but came in fourth in terms of their preparedness. Given the anticipated differences, a gap analysis was conducted for each item. This approach examined the distance between the rated importance of a given knowledge or skill area to one's current employment and the perception of the alumni as to whether the marketing program had prepared them for that area.

RESULTS

As can be seen in Table 1, the gap analysis indicates that out of the eleven variables relating to knowledge and skills that many marketing curricula try to impart, eight showed a divergence between perceived importance to one's current employment and level of preparedness.

[Insert Table 1 here. A Gap Analysis Of Alumni's Perception Of Skills And Theory-Based Knowledge Importance Contrasted With Preparation Provided By The Marketing Program]

Of these eight items, the alumni felt that they were "underprepared" in three areas in the sense that they rated their importance as being significantly higher than their level of preparation ($p < .05$). These areas are:

- Technical preparation (ability to use software such as spreadsheets, statistical packages, database packages in a marketing context)
- Oral communication skills
- Written communication skills

Similarly, in the other five areas they were being "overprepared." That is to say, they rated their preparedness higher than the importance of these areas ($p < .05$). These items are:

- Ability to identify a marketing problem
- Ability to analyze the relationship between marketing variables (e.g., 4 P's)
- Ability to communicate effectively using the language of marketing
- Understanding marketing concepts
- Understanding how marketing relates to other functional areas in business

It is noteworthy that all three areas of "under-preparation" involve skills, while all five areas of "over-preparation" involve knowledge. The findings support our expectation that recent graduates would value skills more than knowledge areas. The classificatory data also showed that 15 (22.7%) of the respondents were working in fields, which were unrelated to marketing. It is reasonable to assume that these respondents would value their marketing knowledge at a level lower than those who had jobs that were marketing related would. Therefore, the data were re-analyzed to include only those whose jobs related to marketing. As can be noted in Table 2, the results were revealing.

[Insert Table 2 here. A Gap Analysis Of Alumni's Perception Of Skills And Theory-Based Knowledge Importance Contrasted With Preparation Provided By The Marketing Program]

The areas of perceived "under-preparation" were identical to those revealed in the first analysis (items 1, 5, 6). Yet, two items (items 2 and 9) of perceived "over-preparation" were not significant ($p > .05$):

- Ability to identify a marketing problem
- Ability to communicate effectively using the language of marketing

This sub-group concurred with the earlier finding regarding perceived over-preparation on items 3, 10 and 11 ($p < .05$). As evidenced by items 2 and 9, it appears that one tends to value knowledge areas

somewhat more when one's job is related to that field, as should be expected.

IMPLICATIONS

The relative importance of knowledge compared to skills, over time, has not been clearly established. This is because most of the past research, including our own study, has focused on marketing graduates who have been employed five or fewer years. It is therefore understandable that general skills are valued more highly, as we found, rather than marketing knowledge. Basically, skills are valued more highly by managers of entry-level jobs, and that is transmitted to the inductees. These skills (communication, interpersonal, quantitative, and so forth) are developed throughout a student's college career. The utility of these skills cuts across functional areas and is useful for most jobs. These skills are also very important from the perspective of students as well as employers. Yet, knowledge of marketing is likely to be more useful after graduates have been promoted beyond entry-level jobs. It is proposed herewith that the knowledge area will be more important than after the first five years or so from graduation (see Figure 1).

[Insert Figure 1 here. Impact Of Knowledge On Job Effectiveness]

As can be seen in the model, it is hypothesized that marketing knowledge will have a greater impact on job effectiveness than skills five years or more after graduation. In other words, both skills and knowledge are important for initial job performance. However, marketing knowledge has increasing utility as one advances in one's career. Therefore, it is proposed that future research should also focus on marketing graduates who have been working for over five years to assess what they find to be more important in terms of marketing curriculum.

With our sample, we found that the alumni felt underprepared in terms of technical preparation as well as written and oral communication skills. Interestingly, the need for good communication skills has been emphasized in the literature (Deckinger, Brink, Katzenstein, and Primavera 1990; Gaedeke and Tootelian 1989; Gaedeke, Tootelian, and Schaffer 1983; John and Needle 1989; Kelley and Gaedeke 1990; Scott and Frontczak 1996) as well as by recruiters. On the other hand, alumni felt they had been overprepared in terms of the ability to identify market problems, to analyze the relationship between marketing variables, and to communicate effectively using the language of marketing. Other areas of over-preparation related to an understanding of the

marketing process and how marketing relates to other functional areas of business.

In the second analysis of the data, which included only those alumni whose jobs related to marketing, with two exceptions, findings were identical to the first analysis. Most skills – written or oral communication, for example – are valuable in jobs in any area of business. Knowledge areas of marketing, in contrast, are likely to be of greater importance to people who are actually working in jobs related to marketing. As we found, graduates working in marketing did not feel they were overprepared in two of the knowledge areas (Items 2 and 9, contrary to what we found in the first analysis).

Future research should look at this phenomenon in other majors, too, for example accounting, finance, and management. We would hypothesize that skills are valued more highly by recent graduates in all majors than are knowledge areas.

The results must be viewed with some caution. Our findings point towards the ongoing knowledge versus skills debate (Ronchetto and Buckles 1994; Cunningham 1995; Rotfeld 1996; Sanoff and Daniel 1996; Thomas 1998; Fortune 1997). This includes a discussion of whether educators should aim to prepare students for their entry-level job or for their longer-term careers. Entry-level positions may emphasize skills more than knowledge, while management level positions would emphasize knowledge relatively more. Thus, alumni who have been employed for five or fewer years would be more likely to see preparation in skills areas more important than preparation in knowledge areas. Corporations spend substantial sums of money every year in training employees, and some believe they are trying to pass on some of their training cost to educational institutions. Yet, knowledge has a more long-term value to the individual. Which one is more important from the perspective of an institution of higher learning, especially ones that are subsidized by tax dollars? Hopefully, this research will provide a catalyst for a discussion on this topic.

CONCLUSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Gap analysis has been used by marketers to identify preference gaps in the marketplace (Brown and Swartz 1989; Headley and Choi 1992; Davis and O'Neill 1999). This paper applies such an analysis to curriculum development and relevancy assessment. This has been done for both knowledge and skills relevant to the marketing curriculum. It essentially reveals areas of under preparedness and over preparedness. These kinds of "identified gaps" could

be starting point for a discussion among faculty regarding possible modifications of the curriculum and how class formats are configured. It would be interesting to determine whether marketing knowledge is evidencing a decline in importance as marketing educators respond to the market need to create additional skill enhancements.

Other areas in need of future research include a gap analysis of knowledge and skills based on the perceptions of the entry-level employee and their immediate supervisor. A second area of inquiry would include an identical gap analysis of the perceptions of the same supervisors contrasted with higher levels of management. These studies may contribute to a thoughtful discussion and potential resolution of a festering area in need of inquiry.

Of course, these areas where the gaps are found may require a reassessment as to curriculum emphasis, and effort may be needed to address the areas of under-preparation. A limitation of this study is that data were collected from alumni from one marketing program. We do recognize that the current findings may be idiosyncratic to our faculty mix, program, as well as students. Others may find gaps in quite different areas. We also caution curriculum developers to validate their findings with multiple (longitudinal) surveys before undertaking major curriculum change. It would be interesting to compare findings from institutions with similar characteristics to see if some systematic patterns emerge. We recognize that the mix of employers where our students are placed is one of the key drivers of the perception regarding over- and under-preparation. If the mix of employers is significantly different at another school, different results could be expected. Overall, the limitations of conducting this type of research cannot be overlooked. Hopefully, our paper will stimulate the addressing of these issues, as well as a discussion of the utility of skills relative to knowledge at various points of career development among marketing graduates.

COMMENTS

Tables and figures are available from the first author on request.

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**TWENTY YEARS OF ADVANCES IN MARKETING EDUCATION:
A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF PAPERS PUBLISHED
IN THE WMEA PROCEEDINGS**

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ABSTRACT

All fields of inquiry need to do a self-assessment by periodically examining where they have been and where they are going. This study reports the results of a content analysis of 20 years of the Western Marketing Educators' Association's (WMEA) Proceedings from 1981 through 2000. The investigation examined contributions by individual authors and institutions. The analysis also examined how the topical coverage has changed over the years. Insights into the state-of-the-art in marketing education are offered.

INTRODUCTION

All fields of inquiry need to periodically take stock of where they have been and assess what research needs to be emphasized in the future. Since 1977 the WMEA has held an annual conference with the purpose of reporting and discussing current pedagogical research. Starting in 1981, the best papers submitted for competitive review have been published (either in their entirety or as an abstract), in a Proceedings. The membership of WMEA recently decided to change its name to the Marketing Educators' Association (MEA) and become national in scope. Therefore, it is time to determine what has been learned about the field of marketing education and where future studies should focus. The purpose of this study is to report the results of a content analysis of 20 years of WMEA Conference Proceedings from 1981 through 2000 with the intent to identify major contributors, contributing institutions and past topical coverage. Based on the results of the study, recommendations for future research in marketing education are offered.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There have been several studies published in a number of business disciplines that focus on the historical contributions contained in academic journals and proceedings in a particular discipline. In most cases, a content analysis was used to assess contributions categorized by author, institution, size of department, academic rank and/or topic. For example, Henry and Burch (1974) reported the

results of an analysis of general business and management research productivity. Dyl and Lilly (1985) profiled contributors to the accounting discipline. Heck and Cooley (1988) reported both author and institution contributions in 15 finance journals. Stead (1978) reported the results of a review of *The Journal of Business Communication* between 1963 and 1974. Reinsch and Lewis (1993) continued Stead's inquiry and completed a content analysis of the articles that appeared in *The Journal of Business Communication* from 1978 through 1992. Altman et al. (1997) reviewed 20 years of articles that appeared in the *Journal of Banking and Finance*.

In the advertising field, Yale and Gilly (1988) analyzed the advertising research published in six marketing-oriented journals between 1976 and 1985. Specifically, they classified articles by empirical and statistical methods used and by type of sample employed. Barry (1990) evaluated three major advertising journals from the dates of their inception through the end of 1989. His results included the contribution by journal and frequency of appearance by institution, author and authors' academic rank.

In marketing, Helgeson et al. (1984) classified the key variables in the consumer behavior literature published between 1950 and 1981 in ten selected journals. Clark (1985) content analyzed articles published in eight leading marketing journals between 1983 and 1984. He measured and ranked the productivity of institutional contributors and developed an active faculty index. Clark, Hancock and Kaminski (1987) evaluated the contributions of the *Journal of Marketing Research* from 1964 to 1985. They reported author and institutional productivity and whether a professor or a businessperson wrote an article. Randall, Miles and Randall (1999) reported the results of contributions to the *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*. Most recently, Bakir, Vitell and Rose (2000) reported the research productivity of marketing scholars and departments by analyzing six major marketing journals from 1991 to 1998.

Stern (1992) performed the study most relevant to this study by content analyzing the first 11 volumes of the WMEA Proceedings (1981-1991) and reporting the results according to contribution by author,

institution, subject matter, and article length. He also classified the articles as either conceptual or empirical. The current study seeks to extend Stern's study by conducting a content analysis of all 20 volumes of the WMEA Proceedings.

METHODOLOGY

All 20 issues of WMEA Proceedings from 1981 to 2000 were content analyzed by a group of trained, objective judges. Only the competitive papers in the Proceedings (633 total) were content analyzed. Two judges examined the competitive papers from each Proceeding and recorded data on author and institution identity, type (abstract or full paper, conceptual or empirical), and topic of article. Most of the judges' decisions were straightforward (e.g., author name, institution and type of article). The analysis also required the judges to evaluate the content of the article. In the event the two judges could not agree on any classification a third judge broke the tie. Interjudge reliability was 92.4%. The judges did not initially agree on the categorization of 48 articles--mostly for topical content.

Two measures were computed when examining the frequency of appearance by author and institution. First, the raw appearances were recorded and reported. For example, if an article was co-authored by two persons from the same institution each author was listed with a frequency of one. Second, adjusted frequency scores were computed to provide additional insight. The adjusted frequency score was originally suggested by Lindsey (1980). If an author or institution was part of a co-authored article, each author (and institution) was given a 0.5 adjusted score. If there were three co-authors, each author and institution received a 0.33 adjusted score. The same adjustment formula was applied to articles co-authored by four or more authors.

RESULTS

Contributions by Author

A listing of authors with five or more appearances is shown in Table 1. Forty-three authors appeared five or more times in the twenty years that WMEA has published proceedings. Craig Kelley had the most appearances. Frequent authors in rank order were Fred Morgan (13), Stuart Van Auken (11), Bruce Stern (11), William Browne (10) and Helena Czepiec (10). The adjusted scores reflect the degree of co-authorship by each author. Here the research productivity by Kelley and Morgan are much closer, reflecting a greater number of sole-authored papers by Morgan. A somewhat different ranking would result based on the adjusted score for each author.

TABLE 1
Frequency Of Contributions By Author
(1981-2000)

Author	1981-2000	
	Number of Appearances	Adjusted Score*
Craig A. Kelley	17	10.05
Fred W. Morgan	13	9.50
Stuart Van Auken	11	7.99
Bruce L. Stern	11	5.99
William G. Browne	10	5.49
Helena Czepiec	10	4.14
Sharyne Merritt	9	8.50
Regina P. Schlee	9	7.16
Curt Dommeyer	9	6.83
Joseph L. Orsini	8	7.00
Gary L. Karns	8	5.66
Charles S. Sherwood	8	4.33
John Gottko	8	4.33
David E. McNabb	8	3.99
Dennis E. Clayson	7	6.00
William A. Cohen	7	6.00
Kyung-II Ghymn	7	5.50
Arthur Salzman	7	4.58
Leon Winer	6	6.00
Nancy T. Frontczak	6	5.00
Bruce J. Walker	6	4.83
Nina M. Ray	6	3.49
Robert J. Zimmer	6	3.00
Michael J. Swenson	6	2.24
Denney E. McCorkle	6	1.74
Joe F. Alexander	6	1.74
Juantia Roxas	6	1.59
Farrokh Safavi	5	5.00
Paul Hugstad	5	5.00
Karl A. Bodecker	5	3.50
Michael K. Mills	5	3.50
Boris W. Becker	5	3.00
Jay L. Laughlin	5	2.83
Dennis Guseman	5	2.73
Nabil Y. Razzouk	5	2.66
William R. Wynd	5	2.66
Linda R. Stanley	5	2.50
Robert A. Lupton	5	2.50
Beverly A. Browne	5	2.49
Richard D. Nordstrom	5	2.33
Gary McCain	5	2.16
Rajiv Vaidyanathan	5	2.08
Patricia Hopkins	5	1.31

* = Score of 1 for single authored article; .50 for a two-authored article.

From 1981 through 1990 there were 22 authors who appeared in the Proceedings at least 4 times. The number of authors contributing to the WMEA Proceedings from 1991 through 2000 was 371. They

wrote a combined total of 234 articles. Thirty-two authors appeared at least four times during this period. The top ranking authors made 171 appearances, while their aggregated adjusted score was 101.32. There was an increase in co-authorship over the 1981 to 1990 time period.

surprising given the fact that the WMEA conference has a strong education focus.

Contributions by Institution

The authors' institution affiliation is shown in Table 2. Contributing authors with 7 or more appearances represented 36 different schools. Five of the top 6 schools (all with 20 or more appearances) are part of the California State University system, which is by far the largest system in the Western region. The top contributing schools were California State University, Fullerton; Oregon State University; California State University, Sacramento; and California Polytechnic University, Pomona. The ranking of contributing institutions would be slightly different if the adjusted score was used.

Empirical vs. Conceptual

Greater insight into the types of articles included in the WMEA Proceedings was achieved by having the judges classify the articles as either empirical or conceptual. The analysis of the entire span of 20 years found that approximately 53% of the articles were empirical versus about 47% conceptual. These percentages contrast with what Stern (1992) reported for the first 11 years of the WMEA Proceedings (60% conceptual and 40% empirical). It is possible the shift away from conceptual articles may be due to a change in the subject matter studied or author - reviewer preferences.

Abstract vs. Full Paper

The articles were classified as abstracts (one page) or full paper (two or more pages). Only two page abstracts were published during the first two years of the Proceedings (44 total). Since 1983, authors had the choice of publishing the full article or an abstract of the article. Stern (1992) reported that between 1981 and 1991, 59.1% of the articles in the WMEA Proceedings were published as full papers. In the entire 20 year span of the Proceedings 60% of the articles were published as full papers.

Contribution by Subject Matter

The subject matter of the articles published in the WMEA Proceedings is reported in Table 3. Subjects of articles were analyzed into two periods. Teaching techniques was the number one topic covered by articles in both time periods. This finding is not

TABLE 2
Frequency Of Appearance By Institution
(1981-2000)

<u>Institution</u>	1981-2000	
	<u>Number of Appearances*</u>	<u>Adjusted Score**</u>
Cal St. Univ. Fullerton	26	21.33
Oregon St. Univ.	24	21.16
Cal St. Univ. Sacramento	24	19.80
Cal Poly Pomona	23	22.47
Cal St. Univ. San Bernardino	22	16.88
Cal St. Univ. Northridge	21	18.50
San Jose St. Univ.	18	17.50
Portland St. Univ.	18	16.85
Arizona St. Univ.	17	14.83
Cal St. Univ. Chico	15	13.25
Cal. St. Univ. Hayward	15	12.00
Cal St. Univ. Los Angeles	14	12.33
Seattle Pacific Univ.	14	11.50
Colorado St. Univ.	13	10.75
Metropolitan St. College	12	12.00
Boise St. Univ.	12	11.83
Cal St. Univ. Long Beach	12	11.00
Seattle Univ.	12	8.76
Cal St. Univ. Fresno	11	11.00
Univ. of Nevada - Reno	11	10.00
Wayne St. Univ.	11	10.00
Univ. of Nevada-Las Vegas	11	8.00
Brigham Young Univ.	11	7.83
New Mexico St. Univ.	10	9.66
San Diego St. Univ.	10	7.83
Univ. of Northern Iowa	9	8.50
Northern Arizona Univ.	9	7.33
San Francisco St. Univ.	9	7.00
Univ. of San Francisco	9	7.00
Eastern Washington Univ.	8	7.00
Pacific Luthern Univ.	8	6.33
Cal St. Univ. Bakersfield	7	7.00
Univ. of San Diego	7	6.50
Univ. of Northern Colorado	7	5.50

* = Number of times an article from a specific institution appeared.

** = If an article was authored by one or more authors, all from the same institution it would receive a score of 1; if an article was co-authored by two persons from different institutions then each institution would receive a score of .5, etc.

The subject matter of articles definitely shows an ebb and flow to the timely topics in marketing education. For example, many schools focused on the integration of international marketing into the marketing curriculum during the 1980s and early 1990s. Hence, there were a number of articles in the 1981 to 1990 time period that examined various aspects of international marketing. However, as programs assimilated international marketing into their curricula, fewer articles appeared on the subject in the 1991 to 2000 time period. The marketing of services, legal issues in marketing, advertising research, retailing, marketing theory, and pc's and

software are other examples of subjects that generated a great deal of interest in the 1980s but waned in the 1990s. Core concepts such as consumer behavior, advertising and marketing strategy also experienced a drop between the first and second halves of the Proceedings' life.

Subjects that gained in popularity in the 1990s were evaluation of students and marketing educators, modifying the marketing curriculum, challenges for marketing departments and career development for marketing students. The interest in these topics can be directly traced to the mission-driven standards adopted by AACSB in 1992, which required schools and faculty to demonstrate improvement. Hence, WMEA papers reflected the new emphasis as authors share their ideas and experiences in addressing the new standards. Other subjects that appeared in greater numbers in the 1990s were cross cultural/diversity issues, attitudes of students and distance learning.

Lastly, the Internet became a hot topic in the 1990s as the subject of technology shifted from how to use computer hardware and software to the use of the interactive Internet technology and e-commerce.

TABLE 3
Subject Matter Of Articles

<u>Subject</u>	<u>1981-1990</u> <u>Appear-</u> <u>ances</u>	<u>1991-2000</u> <u>Appear-</u> <u>ances</u>	<u>Total</u> <u>Appear-</u> <u>ances</u>
Teaching Techniques	46	38	84
Other Topics	28	36	64
International Marketing	29	23	52
Evaluation of Educators	14	22	36
Evaluation of Students	8	22	30
Career Development for Marketing Students	7	21	28
Curriculum Issues	10	18	28
Consumer Behavior	17	5	22
Pc's and Software	16	5	21
Legal Issues	15	4	19
Marketing of Services	13	6	19
Marketing Strategy	11	6	17
Social Issues	9	8	17
Attitudes of Students	4	12	16
Cultural/Diversity	3	13	16
Personal Selling/Sales Management	8	8	16
Challenges for Marketing Depts.	1	14	15
Advertising Research	12	2	14
Groups & Teams	2	12	14
Business Ethics	5	8	13
Research Techniques and Results	7	6	13
Teaching Market Research	5	7	12
Mktg. Theory & Practice	9	2	11
Retail Marketing	9	2	11
Using Case Studies	2	6	8
Internet Issues	0	7	7
Non-Profit Marketing	3	4	7
Decision-Making	5	1	6
Direct Marketing	4	2	6
Distance Learning	0	5	5
Marketing of Colleges	2	3	5
Distribution Channels	3	1	4

DISCUSSION

The WMEA Proceedings reflect where marketing education has been in the past and where it may lead in the future. The results of this study show that productivity by authors and institutions vary over time. This variance is most likely due to where authors are in their careers. It appears that earlier in one's career a greater number of articles are published in the WMEA Proceedings. Productivity by institutions appears to change depending on what may qualify as research at a particular institution over time. For example, in the first half of the WMEA Proceedings, the faculty at Arizona State University contributed frequently. However, the research emphasis at ASU shifted to top tiered journals in the late 1980s and there was a corresponding drop in published articles in the WMEA Proceedings.

The shift toward empirical articles is somewhat expected for a couple of reasons. First, recent authors early in their careers may have a greater familiarity and comfort with empirical studies. The reason may be that doctoral programs stress empirical aspects of research rather than the conceptual. Second, many of these same authors serve as reviewers of WMEA submissions and may have a bias toward defining research as empirical rather than conceptual.

THE FUTURE OF MARKETING EDUCATION

From a historical perspective, analyzing the past provides a window into where marketing education may be headed in the future. The real contribution of the present study is to suggest where marketing education may be headed and make recommendations for future research.

It is clear from these results that contributions of individual marketing educators and institutions change over time. Ten years from now the ranking of authors in Table 1 will be different as individual academic careers run through a life cycle. Furthermore, topics covered over the next ten years will focus on the issues occupying business at the time.

The "bias" toward empirical studies exemplified in the second half of the WMEA Proceedings is likely to continue as the need to provide empirical supporting evidence for ideas has gripped the academic profession.

It is unclear what impact the change of the name of WMEA to MEA will have in the future. Hopefully, the conference will broaden to include marketing educators from throughout the U.S. and the world. The broadening of the membership may lead to an expansion of the ideas that marketing educators might consider in their teaching and research efforts.

Future Research

Many areas of marketing education continue to be worthy of investigation by marketing educators. The following list is offered as a sample of the research topics that may be investigated in the next few years.

1. Integration of E-marketing. This evolving technology has attracted the research interest of many educators. A quick look at the papers presented at recent marketing conferences will tell you that the Internet is a timely topic. Specifically, research needs to be done on issues related to how to integrate E-commerce into the marketing curriculum. Should it be a separate class or incorporated into the existing courses in the marketing curriculum?

2. Role of marketing education. Periodically marketing scholars have asked the question, "What is the role of marketing education in a broad business education context?" Are the needs of graduates and business being served by today's curricula? What changes need to be made in the marketing curricula?

What are the barriers to change and how can they be overcome?

3. Role of marketing educators. The role of marketing educators has been, and will continue to be discussed at many conferences. What is the "proper" mix of scholarship and teaching? Have marketing educators had any impact on the way business is conducted? What changes must marketing educators make to increase their impact in the way business is conducted in the U.S. and in foreign countries?

4. Marketing curriculum. The WMEA proceedings indicate the marketing curriculum has undergone change over the past 20 years. International marketing, TQM, services marketing and E-commerce are all examples of topics that have had a profound influence on the marketing curriculum. Marketing educators need to be vigilant to insure currency of the marketing curriculum. What new developments in other fields might have impact on the marketing curriculum? What attempts to integrate traditional business disciplines (e.g., accounting, finance, operations) also have been incorporated into the marketing curriculum?

5. Role of marketing departments. A major contributor to the success of the efforts of marketing educators is related to the leadership of marketing departments and business schools. Specific questions include, how have marketing departments and business schools adapted to changes in the way organizations conduct business? Do the leaders of marketing departments and business schools possess the skills necessary to manage in today's changing business environment? What should be the role of the marketing department in advancing the interest of a business school?

6. Ethical decision-making. Credibility is still the key to doing business. Much work remains to be done when it comes to student perceptions/ actions related to controversial ethical issues. Do the ends justify the means, especially with regard to enhancing earnings or product positioning?

7. Student assessment. AACSB standards require accredited business programs to assess what their students know. Already there is research on how to assess student outcomes (e.g., Ahmadi, Blake, Kelley and Takeuchi 1999). What is the relative effectiveness of different methods of assessment? When should assessment measures be taken? How should assessment results be incorporated into the marketing curriculum?

8. Employer perceptions of marketing graduates.

Employer assessments of student readiness for a business career have been the focus of many studies (e.g., Kelley and Gaedeke 1991). Have marketing educators made any progress in improving employer perceptions of student preparation for the business world? What remains to be done? How should new skills and knowledge requirements be integrated into the marketing curriculum?

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HEY, WE MISSED THE EXIT: TEACHING MARKETING STUDENTS TO NAVIGATE IN A CHANGING BUSINESS LANDSCAPE

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ABSTRACT

Students preparing for rapid changes in today's marketplace need to think of what could happen in the future and ways to deal with it (Ackerman, Gross and Perner 2000). In this study we explore the degree to which marketing instructors feel coursework can prepare students to think critically about the future and the extent to which they perceive that, when balanced with other demands on classroom time, this should be a significant course objective. This inquiry helps us understand instructor perceptions of both students and the curriculum.

We also sought to examine the types of approaches used by instructors. For example, Van Doren and Smith (1999) suggested using scenario planning to encourage experienced MBA students to envision multiple future environments. A survey of marketing educators by Smart et al. (1999) found that use of technology has increased and in-class lecture has decreased. Preparing students to be flexible and insightful in the face of rapid change while also providing the practical skills most entry-level jobs require is not easy. For example, considerable effort has been given to incorporating the immediate impact of e-commerce into marketing curricula. On the other hand, considerably less time has been spent on how to deal with the more basic marketplace changes this new technology has helped to create.

We conducted exploratory depth interviews with eight marketing faculty members from three universities. One university has a research focus while the other two are more teaching focused. Informants represented a variety of ages and lengths of experience teaching courses ranging from introductory to capstone marketing management courses as well as various specialized undergraduate and graduate courses. The researchers jointly drew up a list of issues or interview topics to be addressed. However, in an effort to encourage informants to

freely elaborate on any and all issues deemed relevant and important from their perspectives, interviews were kept loosely structured and questioning was relatively nondirective.

Informants suggested that teaching students to anticipate future change in business is a challenging but important task. With one exception, informants said it is possible but requires considerable work on the part of both instructor and student. There was quite a diversity of opinion as to when, where and how these skills should be learned. Some include assignments related to a future focus in every course. Others expressed the belief that it should not be taught in basic courses, but in upper-level courses specifically related to new product development or entrepreneurship. Generally, assignments paralleled instructor opinions. Projects specifically aimed at building students' skills in anticipating future change in business were given by those who were the most optimistic that those skills can be taught. These results provide the basis for future research on pedagogical methods that will lead to flexible, well-trained leaders in business.

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THE CHANGING ROLE OF MIDDLEMEN IN THE PC INDUSTRY: NEW E-DISTRIBUTION MODELS FOR THE MARKETING CLASSROOM

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ABSTRACT

Channels of distribution evolve over time in response to changes in the business environment. In the new e-Commerce environment new business models have emerged to create greater value within the supply chain and to the end consumer. The internet is now the fourth marketing channel system and is altering the fundamental processes of how goods and services are delivered. This article presents an overview of the changing distribution system in the personal computer (PC) industry. The purpose of this discussion is to provide a framework for marketing educators to introduce the new e-distribution models in the marketing classroom.

INTRODUCTION

The growth in e-Commerce activities has surpassed the expectations of many business analysts. In the U.S. alone, online retail sales totaling \$2.4 billion in 1997, grew to \$20 billion in 1999, and is expected to reach \$108 billion by 2003 (Kleindl, 2001). An additional 62 million U.S. households are likely to join the internet community by 2002 indicating that the internet has diffused beyond early adopters to the mass market (State of the Internet, 1999). In all this growth, new cybermediaries have entered the electronic marketplace to facilitate the exchange between sellers and buyers, where buyers may be households (B2C), businesses (B2B) or even consumer to consumer (C2C).

In the new e-Commerce environment, the internet has become the fourth channel system, adding to the traditional channels of face-to-face, catalog, and telephone sales (Forrester Research, 1999). In this new channel system, the power has shifted from the seller to the buyer. Consumers now have access to more information than ever before in the pre-purchase stage of the

decision process. This information and wider choice of products and services have enabled them to place new demands on the traditional channel intermediaries. In many instances, consumers can go directly to producers without the need for traditional retailers, wholesalers and, in the case of intangibles, distributors.

WEB-BASED BUSINESS MODELS

Business models are defined as an architecture for the product, service, and information flows which includes a description of the various economic agents and their roles (Rappa, 1999). Underlying each of these business models, is the basic idea of the "value chain." According to Michael Porter (Selz, 1999) a firm's value chain is embedded in a complex stream of activities that connects primary suppliers and principal customers to other upstream and downstream businesses. In the physical world, the value chain can be viewed as a series of linear sub-processes that link raw materials, production, distribution, marketing, and sales to the buyer in a market *place* environment. In the e-Commerce environment, the sub-processes operate in a market *space* environment through a series of networks that occur simultaneously. This virtual value chain, a term coined by Sviokla (Collin, 1999), is likened more to a matrix or web that is accessible at each point and freely configurable through a series of networks. These networks can be used to connect the firm's internal processes (intranet), external processes (extranets) or both. In Selz's (1999) dissertation, the value web broker is introduced as part of the virtual value chain. Value webs are transitory in nature and are centered on the product or value broker, a typical intermediary function. The role of the value web broker is far more extensive than simply bringing sellers and buyers together.

The formation of this new internet economy, or digital marketplace, has resulted in an accelerated evolution of new business models. The many business models are classified by Timmers (1998) based on three elements: Porter's value chain; interaction patterns which can be structured as 1-to-1, 1-to-many, many-to-1 and many-to-many; and value chain reconstruction. Timmers' framework provides an excellent point of discussion for identifying elements of value creation among businesses that are familiar to marketing students. Some suggested businesses to compare include travel agencies, car dealerships, books and music retailers, and personal computer sales.

THE IDR CYCLE

The rapid growth of the internet economy is forcing companies to adapt to the new digital market *space* environment, especially in those industries where a critical inefficiency in distribution and sales exists (Digital Marketplaces, 1999). Virtual distributors have emerged to either replace or improve some portion of the existing distribution channel, and then thrive in fragmented markets that lack dominant suppliers and buyers. In the virtual market *space* environment, the new cybermediaries have been able to lower costs, provide more choice and information, and respond to customer needs in a more timely fashion.

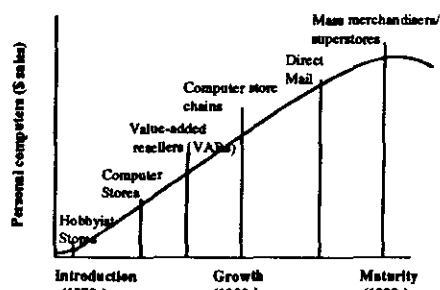
Does this mean that traditional intermediaries are at the point of extinction? This is an important discussion point to bring forth in the marketing classroom. Students can examine some of the industries (e.g. travel, retail, financial) to determine whether intermediaries have been eliminated or have merely improved their "value-added" processes in a digital environment. Chircu and Kauffman (1999) propose that the transformation of any industry structure in the internet economy is likely to go through the intermediation-disintermediation-reintermediation (IDR) cycle. The IDR cycle will occur because new technologies are forcing change in the relationships among buyers, suppliers, and middlemen. Intermediation occurs when a firm begins as a middleman between two industry players (e.g., buyer-supplier, buyer-established intermediary or established intermediary-

supplier). Disintermediation occurs when an established middleman is pushed out of the value chain. Reintermediation occurs when a once disintermediated player is able to re-establish itself as an intermediary traditional

THE IDR CYCLE IN THE PC INDUSTRY

The personal computer (PC) industry provides a good example of how the IDR cycle evolves. The PC market is credited as one of the first industries to use revolutionary new ways to sell products through new process technologies. Before 1997, PCs had a market penetration rate in U.S. households of 35 percent. When the sub-\$1,000 PC market emerged in 1997, the expansion of the U.S. personal computer market quickly reached a penetration level of 43 percent. The sub-\$1,000 price point enabled many households to purchase a high-performance computer at a relatively low price (Industry Report, 2000). This price drop was a great opportunity for many U.S. households to purchase a second household computer. The sub-\$1,000 computer has now clearly moved the U.S. market into the maturity stage of the product life cycle. Stephens (2000) estimates the adoption/diffusion rate for PC technologies has now pushed PCs in the maturity stage of the product life cycle. Figure 1 provides a good illustration of the dominant retailers for PCs over the product life cycle.

Figure 1 : Dominant Retail Market for PCs



Source: Barrowitz, Korte, Hardy, and Reddick, 1997. *Marketing*, Irwin-McGraw Hill Publishers

Intermediation Phase

When Apple Computer was first introduced in the 1970s, most of the sales occurred in hobby shops using the traditional channels of distribution. Targeted consumers were primarily innovators and early adopters who were technology-savvy and educated. As a

new technology, personal computers (PCs) were relatively expensive to most consumers so only a few could afford them and even fewer understood the technology. Gradually, more PC manufacturers (competitors) entered the growth stage of the PLC and developed marketing strategies that would further diffuse this product innovation.

Today, the five largest computer manufacturers (Compaq Computer, IBM, Dell Computer, Apple Computer, and Hewlett-Packard) comprise 40 percent of the industry sales volume (Industry Report, 2000). Dell Computer is now the number one PC manufacturer and is credited with developing the direct sales model. In the marketing classroom, it is interesting to discuss the evolution of Dell Computer Corporation to illustrate how internet technologies have enabled Dell to gain cost advantages over its competitors by eliminating the retailer, and linking with key suppliers and key customers. Dell Computer began by selling computers through the use of the telephone, but today it sells primarily online. Business analysts project that by end of 2000, Dell Computer will have close to 100 percent of its sales transacted online (Industry Report, 2000).

Disintermediation Phase

By the time, Dell had entered the PC market, most mass-market consumers and businesses were knowledgeable about computers and were well aware of its capabilities. There was little need to sell through wholesale distributors and retailers to a market of buyers who understood the technology and the various PC configurations. With Dell Computer's direct sales model, wholesalers and retailers were eliminated in an effort to reduce costs and enhance the value to customers. Dell's direct sales business model focused on the customer's desire for speed of delivery, customized products, and low prices as key competitive advantages over the traditional indirect sales channel system.

By 1996, Dell Computers was using information technologies to squeeze time out of all sub-processes in its value chain. This networked series of intranet and extranet

systems linked supplier to manufacturers to customers in such a way that a more efficient marketing system gave Dell shareholders \$1.54 in profits for every new dollar of capital investment in 1997, compared to Compaq, a traditional reseller, who returned only 59 cents on every dollar (Kleindl, 2001).

Reintermediation Phase

Reintermediation of traditional retailers and wholesalers requires the use of internet technologies and a better understanding of what customers consider important when purchasing a product or service. The name of the game is to create better value for the buyer while reducing the costs of the sub-processes in manufacture and distribution of the product. New cybermediaries have emerged to perform transactional, logistical and functional activities. It can be argued that while Dell's direct sales model may have eliminated channel intermediaries in the initial model before the advent of internet technologies, the model actually created opportunities for reintermediation after the internet was introduced. In the virtual value chain, new processes of distributing personal computers to reach the 2nd and 3rd time purchasers emerged. These include such channel members as (Channel Information Services, 2000):

- Build Your Own System (BYOS)--resellers buy computer components and build their own PCs
- Build to Order (BTO)--are programs offered to resellers by distributors where the distributor, rather than the reseller, builds computers to meet specific requirements of reseller's client.
- Distributors--are 2nd tier distributors who stock products from 1st tier vendors for resale to the reseller channel
- Corporate resellers--provide technology products and services to Fortune 1000-class businesses
- Aggregators--large reseller organizations offering franchises to smaller resellers, and distribute 1st tier products to these organization by aggregating their many small orders
- Master Reseller--large national distributors that offer one-stop shopping for all product and technology products and sells to a broad range of resellers

- Value-Added Resellers (VARs)--resellers who provide value by selling computer related products and value-added computer services
- Value-Added Dealers (VADs)--resellers who sell brand name computer related products and provide value-added services with those sales
- Channel Assemblers--are authorized distributors who assemble the PC on behalf of the PC manufacturer.

CONCLUSION

Channel systems evolve over time in response to changes in the business environment and to the changes in consumer behavior. The PC industry is an excellent starting point for introducing the idea of the IDR cycle and how new E-distribution models have evolved to provide added value to suppliers and consumers. As consumers of PCs, marketing students are very familiar with the PC industry and how they behave in the marketplace. Therefore, this industry provides a rich starting point to discuss changing distribution systems and the effect on the other marketing mix elements (product, price, and promotion). As marketing educators, we are obliged to revamp our traditional approach to teaching "channels of distribution" and to rethink of how we can better introduce the new "value web models" now that the internet has emerged to become the fourth distribution channel.

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MARKETING EDUCATOR HOME PAGE AND WEB SITE ADOPTION: ACCOMPLISHMENTS AND CHALLENGES

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to gauge how marketing educators approach the establishment and maintenance of their home page. An on-line survey was used to identify how and where home pages fit into the educators' faculty responsibilities and, most importantly, uncover some of the resource issues relevant to faculty development and success in adopting Internet technologies in their faculty role.

STUDY OBJECTIVES

The overall purpose of this study was to identify the current status of the use of home pages by marketing educators. More specifically, it sought to empirically measure the following home page aspects: (1) length of existence, (2) its contents or elements, (3) faculty vs. other individual(s) involvement in its design, establishment, and updating, and (4) performance or quality self-perceptions. Additional information was sought to measure the degree of institution support for web site development/maintenance (not limited to home pages) and general attitudes relating the their institution's and academic unit's atmosphere and expectations regarding faculty use of the Internet.

STUDY DESIGN AND METHODS

The population of interest in this survey was current and/or former members of the Western Marketing Educators' Association (WMEA), which has recently and legally changed its name to the Marketing Educators' Association (MEA).

The method chosen for gathering data was an on-line survey. An e-mail invitation to participate in the study addressed from the author of this paper was sent to those holding WMEA/MEA membership within the 1998-2000 time frame. E-mail addresses were obtained from membership directories and by searching at member institutions for e-mail addresses not contained in the directories. Thus, the population studied was limited to those with e-mail systems (to receive the invitation) and Internet access (to complete and submit the survey).

FINDINGS

Sample Size and Characteristics

Of 353 invitations sent, a total of 79 (or 22.4 %) e-mail invitations were undeliverable. A total of 102 usable responses were realized for a 36.4% response rate. Most respondents were at the highest possible professorial rank (i.e. "full"), located at a USA based public institution, and were teaching at the undergraduate level.

Home Page Adoption

A majority (81 or 79.4%) reported the existence of a home page. Most said this has existed for more than two years (63.4 %).

Table 1 identifies content or elements existing at these home pages. Out of 14 elements listed in the survey, the mean average number of elements reported was approximately 6.9. Most frequently listed was work contact information. (98.8%) followed closely by an e-mail contact hot link (92.5%). Most also listed information about courses they taught (82.5%) with a much smaller percent (52.5%) having direct links to information specific to those courses. However, it is not known if those courses have web sites for which linking is possible. Marketing educators are least likely to list personal information on their home pages.

Perceived Home Page Strengths and Weak-nesses

As shown in Table 2, many didn't really have an opinion about three of four home page elements, navigation, and style performance characteristics. Highest ratings were for the spelling accuracy of home page content—52.5% "excellent" and 36.3% "good." More insight into what was liked or disliked about home pages was discerned from responses to two open-ended questions asking what were seen as the main strength(s) and weakness(es). Approximately one-half of all eligible respondents gave comments to this question (41 comments on strengths and 40 on weaknesses). Content analysis of the strength responses found five themes or common threads while four appeared for weaknesses. Table 3 displays the overall findings for this analysis. Many educators

thought highly of their page's simplicity while an overwhelming number were dissatisfied with non-currency of the page.

Personal Involvement in Home Page Construction and Maintenance

Respondents were asked about the role they vs. others played in making decisions about content, style, and navigation issues. The findings in the first three rows of Table 4 suggest that marketing educators were very involved with the up front content issues (62.6% "completely" and "mostly me" combined) while less involved with style and navigation issues. There also appeared to be relatively more involvement in the actual work of updating vs. creating the web site. Educators reported combined "completely" and "mostly me" frequency scores of 45.1% for creation but a 56.3% for updating. This is an important factor to recognize given the frequency of web site updating reported by study participants. One-third of those with home pages said that their web sites had been updated more than four times in the past academic term. However, 43.2% was the combined frequencies for once or not at all.

If other people were involved in any of these five areas, respondents were asked who, if any, of four different types of people were involved. When other people were involved with the up front design, style, and navigation issues, the most frequent person was a university or college web master (54.1%) followed by other university/college staff (36.8%). Least frequently mentioned was another professor (8.8%). When other people were involved with the actual work of establishing a site, the relative popularity of those involved with the up front decisions was identical. However, nearly twice as many relied on other professors (17.5%). When other people were involved with the actual work of updating the site, "other university/college staff" was the most frequently used (47.4%) with "university/college web masters" placing second (39.5%).

Available Institutional Resources

Six areas were rated as to the quality of institutional resources and reported Table 5. The highest rated resource (with a 72.7% "excellent" and "good" combined score) was obtained and updating necessary hardware and software while the lowest such combined score (34.7%) was for staff to maintain or update their web sites. Overall lower ratings were for staff support resources while middle level ratings were reported for professional development opportunities with approximately 30%

or 3 out of 10 respondents giving "Fair" ratings for this area.

On a more global level, 17.6% strongly agreed with the statement "In general, the faculty I work most closely with at this institution get all the support they need in order to establish and maintain their web sites." while 14.7% strongly disagreed.

Institutional Expectations and Personal Intentions

As shown in Table 6, a majority of respondents worked in academic units, which did not expect faculty to have a web site or use a web site for their teaching related activities. However, 31.7 % (strongly and somewhat agreed combined) felt they were expected to have a web site. By far, the majority (69.4% - strongly and somewhat agreed combined) saw increased use of web sites to fulfill their teaching responsibilities.

Obstacles Preventing Further Internet Adoption

Another open-ended question was used to solicit perspectives on obstacles preventing more effective use of the Internet to fulfill their faculty responsibilities. A total of 67 out of the 102 study participants offered comments—many containing multiple ideas. Content analysis found the following common themes and their frequency of occurrence: (1.) The lack of time to learn and execute (n=35), (2.) lack of training (n=11), (3.) inadequate technical support (n=7), and (4.) other resources (n=5).

Segmentation Analysis

A number of statistical tests (ANOVA, Chi-square, and t-tests) were conducted in order to identify any possible differences in some of the respondents' demographics and other study variables. No statistically significant differences were found when looking a size and type of institution across home page presence and resource ratings questions. Despite the probable hypothesis that administrators might perceive higher amounts of resources available for faculty, no significant differences were found in these views. Another analysis step was to look for variables that significantly related to the existence of a home page. A significant (.025) Chi-square score was found for level of agreement with faculty (in their academic unit) being expected to have a web site and the presence of a home page. Thus, it appears that educators are meeting expectations.

Finally, the statement "In general, the faculty I work most closely with at this institution get all the support they need in order to establish and maintain their web sites" was treated as a dependent variable and

regressed (linear, stepwise) against the six resource issues (shown in Table 5). The resultant three variable model produced an R of .775 ($R^2=.600$) and was significant at .000. The three independent variables, in rank order, explaining this variance were: "Support services to assist when there are problems," "Staff to construct and publish a web site which you have conceptually defined for them," and "Obtain and update necessary hardware and software." Further analysis also indicated that obtaining and updating necessary hardware and software is the strongest predictor of respondents stating that they saw themselves using their web site much more in their (future) teaching responsibilities.

DISCUSSION/CONCLUSIONS

Nearly eight out of ten (79.4%) marketing educators in the study reported the presence of their own home page/web site. This represents a 268% increase over the 29.6% reported to exist in the fall of 1996 (Lincoln, McCain, and Vega 1997). Thus, it appears that strong progress is being made in this area. Home page content has also increased with 82.5% of this study's home pages containing course (taught) information whereas the comparable percent in 1996 was 28. Having contact information on the site is up slightly—from 92% to 98.8%. The study also found improvement over some of the activity measures reported by Vaidyanathan et al (1998).

Most educators are using their home page to offer communications access and provide students with access to the courses they teach. A much less popular use is to lead others (via links) to other sources of information available through other organizations. There appears to be opportunities to add value to web site visitors by directing them to other (linked) sources of information. Only about one-third of the home pages owned by study participants offered this content. However, the identification, linking, and avoiding "dead links" can require significant time. Again, this is clearly one of the major obstacles reported in the study.

Many respondents were not able to assess three functional qualities (browser compatibility, dead links, download time) and might be well advised to use one or more of the free services available for assessments. Faculty with home pages appear pleased with the fact that they have one and that they are simple and easy to use. However, they very often feel that their home pages are not up to date. They recognize that expertise and time is needed to keep the site current.

The amount of personal involvement in web site construction and maintenance is considerable. It appears that continual training and refresher workshops may be needed. Most important is the need for staff support and assistance to help them with technical issues that many care not to learn or know. Lastly, it would seem that more sharing of expertise with colleagues might be called for. Perhaps administrators could more explicitly recognize the efforts of faculty who help other faculty advance their web site publishing skills.

While advances in institutional resources will aid marketing educator Internet technology adoption, other avenues should be recognized and brought to bear. These might include publishers, professional educational organizations (e.g., AMA, MEA), as well as hardware/software vendors (e.g. WebCT).

LIMITATIONS

As with most empirical studies, this one has some acknowledged limitations, which influence the generalizability of its findings. First, the study focused only upon current and/or former members of the Western Marketing Educators Association. Second, respondents, by definition, had to be current users of Internet technology in order to receive a study invitation as well as participate in the study. Thus, those less "connected"—physically or mentally—to the "Net" have not been surveyed. Third, many respondent characteristics seem to indicate that one should consider the respondents "senior" faculty. They were at the highest rank and had been teaching for several years. Lastly, although many questions in this survey were home page specific others were more general about other web sites (e.g., for courses) that respondent's used. It is possible that some respondents may not have completely differentiated between the two.

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TABLE 1
Information Available at Home Page

Information or Items	Number of Responses	Percent of Responses	Percent of Cases
Work address and contact information	79	14.3	98.8
Direct e-mail connection or link	74	13.4	92.5
Information on courses taught	66	12.0	82.5
Brief biographic sketch	61	11.1	76.3
Links to courses taught	42	7.6	52.5
List of recently completed research	37	6.7	46.3
Complete vita or resume	31	5.6	38.8
Links to other university hosted web sites	31	5.6	38.8
Links to business hosted web sites	28	5.1	35.0
Links to government hosted web sites	26	4.7	32.5
Links to non-profit hosted web sites	26	4.7	32.5
Information of personal interests/hobbies	20	3.6	25.0
Home address and contact information	18	3.3	22.5
Listing of research in progress	12	2.2	15.0
Total responses	551	100.0	688.8

TABLE 2
Rating of Web Site Characteristics

	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	No Opinion
Ability to work with a range of browsers	32.5%	26.3%	20.0%	3.8%	17.5%
Length of time for browser loading	26.3%	40.0%	11.3%	3.8%	18.8%
Spelling accuracy in web site	52.5%	36.3%	2.5%	1.3%	7.5%
Absence of dead hot links	23.8%	37.5%	16.3%	3.8%	18.8%

TABLE 3
Open-Ended Response Themes for Home Page Strengths and Weaknesses

Strength	Number of Mentions	Weakness	Number of Mentions
Simple/easy to use	9	Needs updating/not current	17
Course material related	6	Not complete/finished	8
Informative/complete	6	Not creative, interesting or unique enough	9
Photos/graphics	4	Not interactive enough	3
Other web site links	3		

TABLE 4
Personal Involvement in Site Design, Establishment, and Maintenance

	Completely me	Mostly me	Fairly equal with another	Mostly another person	Completely another person
Influence in deciding upon web site content issues	43.8%	18.8%	7.5%	22.5%	7.5%
Influence in deciding upon web site style issues	38.0%	10.1%	7.6%	21.5%	22.8%
Influence in deciding upon web site navigation issues	35.0%	12.5%	13.8%	15.0%	23.8%
Amount of actual work performed by professor in creating and publishing web site in beginning	28.8%	16.3%	6.3%	30.0%	18.8%
Amount of actual work performed by professor in updating and publishing web site in changes	37.5%	18.8%	4.7%	25.0%	14.1%

TABLE 5
Rating of Institution Support for Web Site Establishment and Support

	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	No Opinion
Obtain and update necessary hardware and software	24.2%	48.5%	17.2%	9.1%	1.0%
Support services to assist when there are problems	24.2%	33.3%	25.3%	15.2%	2.0%
Programs, workshops, etc., to help you learn about using a web site to fulfill your job	15.2%	41.4%	29.3%	10.1%	4.0%
Programs, workshops, etc., to help you learn how to construct and publish a web site	16.2%	32.3%	30.3%	15.2%	6.1%
Staff to construct and publish a web site which you have conceptually defined for them	16.2%	24.2%	25.3%	27.3%	7.1%
Staff to maintain or update your web site at your request	15.3%	19.4%	22.4%	32.7%	10.2%

TABLE 6
Academic Unit Expectations and Personal Intentions

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
Having a web site is expected of all faculty in my immediate academic unit	11.9%	19.8%	16.8%	21.8%	29.7%
Regular use of a web site for teaching-related matters is expected of all faculty in my academic unit regardless of course taught	4.0%	14.0%	23.0%	24.0%	35.0%
In the future, see myself using web site much more for teaching	30.6%	38.8%	18.4%	5.1%	7.1%

ELECTRONIC MESSAGE BOARDS TO ENHANCE STUDENT PARTICIPATION & LEARNING

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ABSTRACT

The use of electronic message boards as a means of increasing student participation and learning in a Principles of Marketing class is investigated in this exploratory study. Electronic message boards offer a means to foster a learner-focused approach in class. Preliminary findings suggest that students enjoy the process and find it helpful in facilitating learning. Furthermore, students who participated heavily in the process earned higher grades in the course.

INTRODUCTION

Instructors often find themselves challenged to develop and implement new approaches to increase student involvement in courses. This is particularly true in an environment of larger class sizes. The challenge of handling increased class sizes while offering a high-quality, interactive, "learner-centered" experience to students presents a dilemma that marketing educators have struggled with and are likely to continue to struggle with for some time.

While many would argue that there is no substitute for direct student-faculty contact, some have found that a liberal interpretation of "direct" may allow for contact even when faced with the challenge of rising student/faculty ratios. A technology such as electronic mail, for example, has increased faculty accessibility for most students. Furthermore, electronic mail has encouraged "direct" faculty contact from students who might never have visited or called a professor during office hours.

The use of technology in a classroom has benefits beyond its ability to increase faculty – student interaction. Technology can increase students' ability to talk to each other as well as the teacher hence providing

an increased opportunity to develop interpersonal skills. In an era where business schools have been accused of over-focusing on quantitative skills at the expense of interpersonal skills (Louis, 1990; O'Reilly, 1994), such opportunities seem particularly valuable. Additionally, even in a small class, students required to use tools such as e-mail and the internet are being forced to increase their comfort level with such technologies. While many instructors today correctly assume that their students are familiar with the myriad of technologies available, continued reinforcement through use has benefits. Furthermore, there are always a few students who do need to be introduced to technologies that many take for granted.

Is the use of technology the solution to enhancing student interpersonal, as well as technological skills, and reducing the challenge of keeping in contact with our growing number of students? While arguably not the only solution, it may well contribute to producing students and ultimately graduates who are skilled in these areas and who have had an education resplendent in contact with each other and with their faculty. The purpose of this paper is to explore the value of using technology, specifically internet message boards, to increase student participation and learning in a Principles of Marketing course.

BACKGROUND

In a 1987 study commissioned by the American Association of Higher Education, The Education Commission of the States, and The Johnson Foundation, Chickering and Gamson called for the creation of a learner-centered environment in higher education. The study suggested that classes in a learner-centered environment are developed around seven principles. The principles are:

- Encourage student-faculty contact.
- Encourage cooperation among students.
- Encourage active learning.
- Give prompt feedback.
- Emphasize time on task.
- Communicate high expectations.
- Respect diverse talents and ways of learning.

In a recent *Journal of Marketing Education* article, Gremler, Hoffman, Keaveney, and Wright (2000) interpret these principles in the following way.

- *Encourage student-faculty contact* – The most critical factor in keeping student motivated and involved. Contact both in and outside of class is very beneficial. Knowing a few faculty members helps students be more intellectually committed to their academic work and future goals.
- *Encourage cooperation among students* – Learning is most effective when it is a team effort—collaborative and social rather than competitive and isolated. Students can develop both listening and critical thinking skills when they share their ideas and listen to those of others.
- *Encourage active learning* – Students must actively experience the class material and make it a part of themselves. This does not occur when students simply listen to lectures, memorize information, and take objective exams. Students need to process what they are learning by writing or talking about it and relating it to their other academic and life experiences.
- *Give prompt feedback* – Students need timely, constructive feedback on what they are doing well and what they can improve. Class activities and assignments should provide ample opportunities for them to perform and receive suggestions for improvement.
- *Emphasize time on task* – There is no substitute for spending an appropriate amount of quality time learning course material. Students

need help with setting priorities and developing effective time management skills.

- *Communicate high expectations* – Expecting more from students will motivate them to do better work. Instructors should be clear about the course expectations, give prompt feedback, and reward good performance.
- *Respect diverse talents and ways of learning* – Students come to college with different learning styles. What works for one student may not be effective for another. Students need the opportunity to learn in diverse ways and to succeed in demonstrating their skills so they will be more receptive to learning skills that do not come as easily for them.

All seven of the principles that comprise a learner-centered classroom can be incorporated into a course through the use of electronic message boards. Electronic message boards allow individuals to post messages to a web site. Others then view these posted messages and may decide to reply to the original message or to post a new message. Hence, the process allows the participants to carry on “conversations” without the restriction of being in the same place at the same time. The message board facilitator (a course instructor in this case) posts questions or discussion issues to get the ball rolling. The facilitator may, in turn, reply to posted messages on the board. Credit may be given for participation.

This type of class participation offers a direct opportunity to address all seven principles described above as the basis of learning-centered education. It provides contact with faculty outside class; it allows students to share their ideas and listen to those of others; and it requires students to process what they are learning by writing/talking about it. Regular instructor replies to messages provide prompt feedback. Time spent on the message board is quality time spent on course material. Good performance is rewarded by credit for participation. Finally, the approach provides a unique way of learning which may better accommodate some students.

ELECTRONIC MESSAGE BOARD AS A PEDAGOGICAL TOOL

The electronic message board approach was used in a Principles of Marketing course with 50 students. There are a variety of such message board services available free on the internet. The specific one used in this application was *InsideTheWeb.com*. The class was randomly divided into two groups of 25 and each group was assigned a separate message board. Both boards carried the same questions and discussion issues. The smaller groups allowed for a manageable number of postings per board and a greater opportunity for the students in a "discussion group" to get to know each other.

The course met four days per week for three weeks (it was a condensed format summer offering). A new set of questions and discussion issues was posted each morning prior to class. Those questions and issues remained on the board until the following morning. Responses to the previous day's questions and issues were deleted when new questions and issues were posted. Students received participation credit for posting messages or for replying to the messages of others. Postings were counted for quantity and also evaluated for quality.

The board was also used as an electronic study group. On the day and evening prior to an exam, students were encouraged to consider the board a remote study group. Students posted sample essay and multiple-choice questions and invited their classmates to respond to them. Additionally, students posted messages asking each other for help in understanding different concepts.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study is an exploratory research design. Because the efficacy of electronic message boards as a pedagogical tool was being investigated, though not formally tested, the outcome of this research is clearly exploratory. The following research questions, however, were investigated:

- Did students with higher levels of message board participation earn higher grades in the course?
- Did students with higher levels of message board participation in pre-exam study groups earn higher grades on the subsequent exams?
- Did students with higher levels of message board participation believe that the process contributed more to their learning in the course than students with lower levels?
- Did students who regularly read classmates messages believe that the process contributed more to their learning than students who did not read posted messages regularly?
- Was there a relationship between the level of on-line participation and the level of in-class participation?

DATA COLLECTION AND MEASURES

Information to address the research questions and provide additional feedback on the process was collected through a survey that was distributed on the last day of the course. The survey was distributed to 49 students. Forty-six responses were obtained (93.8%). The students were not required to put their names on the survey; however, it was possible to match students and their responses as they were submitted. This provided the opportunity to use student performance in the course and on individual exams as dependent variables.

Two measures of student participation were used. First, students were asked to estimate their level of participation on the message board. Second, the instructor kept a record of daily student participation throughout the term. Comparison of these two measures found that students overestimated their level of participation, as compared to the instructor's measure of participation. While the instructor's measure indicated that 2.2% of the students participated on a daily basis, 8.7% of the students estimated that they had participated daily. Furthermore, the instructor's measure of participation identified a mode level of participation of 4-6 times (over a ten day period), while the

students estimated their level of participation at 7-9 times. As a result of what is likely perceptual bias on the part of the students, the instructor's measure of participation level was used in all analyses reported.

RESULTS

Students who indicated that they did not participate daily were asked why this was the case (Table One). Their responses indicated that access to the internet was the primary deterrent to daily usage. Lack of time was also frequently cited. Given the compressed delivery mode of the course, lack of time is likely to have been a bigger deterrent for this group than it would be in a regular semester. Furthermore, the lack of time issue may have also exacerbated the access to the internet issue. Students have access to the internet on campus however may not have had the time to take advantage of this accessibility in a three-week class that met daily. This likelihood is supported by respondent comments such as the following,

"In a semester class I suppose it won't pose as much of a problem because students have more time and are at school more to use school resources."

"I had difficulty accessing the web so I was not able to participate as much, but if it were a regular semester and posts were left on for a few days there would be a greater chance of reaching the web through on-campus computers."

TABLE ONE

"If you participated less than every day, what was the primary reason that you didn't participate every day?"

Access to internet was difficult	46.3%
Lack of time	41.5%
Questions didn't always interest me	2.4%
Didn't find the process helpful	0.0%
Other*	9.8%

- Other responses appeared primarily to be versions of "Lack of Time"

Table Two illustrates that students generally did take the time to read the postings of others rather than just posting their own message in an attempt to obtain participation points.

TABLE TWO

"When you logged on to post a message, how often did you read the messages others had posted to the message board?"

Always	46.5%
Usually	34.9%
Sometimes	14.0%
Rarely	4.7%
Never	0.0%

Overall, students found the use of electronic message boards to be beneficial to their learning experience (see Table Three).

TABLE THREE

Student Evaluation of Electronic Message Boards

Item	Mean
How helpful to your personal understanding of the material and overall learning did you find the messages and replies to messages of other students?	3.82
How helpful to your personal understanding of the material and overall learning did you find the instructor's replies to the messages of students?	3.95
How helpful did you find the pre-exam night electronic study groups?	3.65

Scale was 1-5 with 1=Not helpful at all and 5=Extremely helpful

Student comments further support the finding that the message boards aided the learning experience.

"I think that the message board is a great idea. When people would give examples or answers to the questions it helped me understand the material in more ways than expected."

"This was a very good idea. It forced me to apply material and think of real-life examples and that's how I learn things best."

Students were also asked to assess the impact that the message board process had on their enjoyment of the course and the extent to which they believed the process added to their learning in the class. As shown below, students felt that the electronic discussions were a valuable addition to their learning experience.

What impact did the electronic discussions have on your enjoyment of the class?	4.08
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Scale was 1-5 with 1=Lessened a great deal and 5=Enhanced a great deal
 Student comments:

"I loved it and like to see other points of view."

"I feel that the message boards were a refreshing addition to class. It's not only another way to participate, but easy to do and something that we aren't monotonously doing in all our classes. It was fun."

Overall, how much do you believe the electronic discussions added to your learning in the class?	3.68
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Scale was 1-5 with 1=Not at all and 5=A great deal

In order to further explore the value of the electronic message board as a pedagogical tool, the relationships between student participation and performance and between student participation and student learning were assessed. As shown in Table Four, students' performance was measured by three components: final course grades, mid-term exam scores, and final exam scores. In all cases, students who participated more often by using the electronic message board performed better. It should be noted that since participation in the electronic discussions contributed only 10% to a student's overall grade in the course, it cannot be assumed that the higher level of participation in itself would explain the higher course grade.

Results as to the effect of students' message board participation on students'

learning were mixed. It was found that students perceive the message boards in general to contribute to their overall learning in the course; however, students did not feel that reading classmates' messages necessarily contributed to enhanced learning.

TABLE FOUR
 Effects of Student Participation Via Electronic Message Boards

	R ²	Correlation	Significance Level
Did students with higher levels of message board participation earn higher grades in the course?	.293	.541	<.000
Did students with higher levels of message board participation in pre-exam study groups earn higher mid-term exam grades?	.101	.317	<.05
Did students with higher levels of message board participation in pre-exam study groups earn higher final exam grades?	.134	.365	<.05
Did students with higher levels of	.072	.268	<.10

message board participation believe that the process contributed more to their learning in the course than students with lower levels?			
Did student who read classmates messages regularly believe that the process contributed more to their learning than students who did not read posted messages regularly?	.068	.260	>.10

The final research question asked if there was a relationship between the level of on-line participation and the level of in-class participation. In-class participation was measured by a daily, subjective assessment by the instructor. The correlation between the two was .315 ($p < .05$), supporting the finding that students who participate may tend to do so regardless of the means available to them.

LIMITATIONS

It is important to acknowledge the limitations of this research. First, as this is an exploratory investigation, the sample is

limited to one course section. In addition, the intensive nature of the course schedule (3 week, daily meetings) may have affected students' willingness and accessibility to participate. Further examination of the use of electronic message boards in traditional course terms (10-18 weeks), across a larger cross-section of students and among additional course types would enhance these findings.

CONCLUSIONS

Electronic message boards represent a way to increase the learner-centered focus of a course. Furthermore, based on this small, exploratory study, it appears that students enjoy them and perform better when they use them.

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USING ONLINE DATA COLLECTION TO INVESTIGATE CONSUMER PERCEPTIONS OF WEB SITE SECURITY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is twofold: (1) to demonstrate a data collection methodology, and (2) to examine consumer perceptions of web site security and in particular to experimentally investigate the effect that third party assurance seals have on making consumers feel more comfortable with electronic commerce transactions.

In this paper, E-Commerce is defined as: "The use of electronic transmission media (telecommunications) to engage in the exchange, including buying and selling of products and services, involving transportation, either physically or digitally, from location to location" (Marilyn Greenstein and Todd Feinman)

GROWTH OF E-COMMERCE

Electronic commerce actually began in the 1970s when larger corporations started creating private networks to share information with business partners and suppliers. This process, called Electronic Data Interchange (EDI), transmitted standardized data that streamlined the procurement process between businesses, so that paperwork and human intervention were nearly eliminated. E-Commerce is broader than traditional EDI as it caters to a broader commerce environment.

CONSUMER CONCERNS

The threats and concerns that consumer's face can be broadly summed up in the following categories: Security of Data, Business Policies, Transaction Processing Integrity, and Privacy of Data.

THIRD PARTY ASSURANCE

There are a considerable number of third party security programs that attempt to assuage potential security concerns. Some of the better known third party programs are: BBB online, TrustE, Veri-sign, Inc, ICSA, Web Trust, WebWatchdog, BizRate, Web Assurance Bureau, Netcheck Commerce Bureau, MasterCard, PublicEye, and Multicheck. Each program provides a seal of approval that can be displayed on the web site. These seals of assurance are

similar to those issued by other industries such as the carpet industry, health industry, Good Housekeeping seal or the Parent TV seal of approval.

METHODOLOGY

Subject subjects were recruited to evaluate a hypothetical web commerce site and asked to answer questions about the site's graphics, ease of navigation, presentation clarity, and so on. Buried within these questions were questions about perceived security and privacy issues. Each subject evaluated the identical site except that the presence and number of third party assurance seals was experimentally manipulated. The hypothetical site and the online instrument is available at: <http://216.156.234.71/suba/>.

RESULTS

A total of 260 subjects participated in the experiment, about 55% male, most were evening graduate students. Most of the subjects were in their mid-to-late-twenties. ANOVA was used to test for the significance of relationships between the variables.

DISCUSSION

This paper had two goals: to demonstrate a methodology and to investigate consumer perceptions of web site security with respect to third party assurance trust emblems. There were several very interesting findings with respect to gender, privacy statements, and the number of trust emblems displayed.

As a demonstration of a data collection methodology, this paper has clearly been successful. It is often very difficult for individuals to explain their behavior and frequently they are not even aware of it; as a result researchers often employ experimentation in such situations.

One advantage that academic researchers have is a large pool of potential subjects. Some care must be taken during recruitment so that the demographics of the sample matches that of the target population. This matching is most easily accomplished when the student pool includes evening graduate students.

**GOLD MEDAL CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT
SPECIAL SESSION**

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- Effort vs. performance issues
- Initiating class discussions
- Dealing with students whose substance abuse is impacting on class
- Rising student expectations due to technology—impact of e-mail, faxes, etc.

One of the constant themes I have noticed over the years at MEA is "How do I improve my teaching?" What can I learn at this conference that I can take back to my school and implement on Monday morning? Yes, we hear about new courses and technology, and we have all tried some of these, but how do we as teachers handle the everyday classroom management problems?

Sometimes new teachers are afraid to ask their colleagues, and experienced teachers don't discuss it; both for fear of being judged a poor teacher. The problem is that we continue using the same techniques year after year because we don't find new ideas or solutions. I have been at special sessions where classroom management or techniques are presented. These sessions are great take home ideas from one presenters perspective. The audience at these sessions is excited to talk about their ideas, but not enough time is available because the panel uses most of the time.

I propose a special session where audience participation is required. We share our ideas. Each panel member can shortly present his/her solution to a classroom management problem. Then the panel member can ask the audience what they have done to effectively solve the management problem at hand.

Structure of Competitive Special Session:

- Dealing with disruptive students
- Attendance problems
- Rescheduling exams—Issues of fairness to student vs. classmates
- Cheating
- Test return day issues
- Extra credit issues

MASTERING MARKETING: USING TECHNOLOGY TO INTEGRATE THE BUSINESS CURRICULUM

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Overview

There are two important trends affecting business education today: (1) Integrating the business curriculum, and (2) Integrating technology into the curriculum. In response to market demands, administrators at business schools are pushing faculty to meet school goals in these two areas. In turn, faculty at most schools are feeling the pressure to demonstrate how they are achieving these goals in their courses. The objective of this session is to demonstrate a technologically innovative CD-ROM-based product series called *Mastering Business* and explain how it addresses these two common concerns among marketing faculty.

Integrated Business Curriculum

Given the departmental structure of most business schools and the specialization of faculty academic backgrounds, efforts to achieve true integration within the curricula have often been met with faculty opposition. Satisfying multi-disciplinary and continuing course teaching commitments with existing faculty is not easy. An easier alternative is to start by demonstrating the integrated nature of business within the core course in each discipline. *Mastering Marketing*, is a technological, interactive, multimedia product that allows this to happen.

Technology Empowers

Given that entering students today have most likely used computers in high school, at home, and at play, it is reasonable they expect to continue learning in a technologically savvy environment. However, some research shows that faculty are often perceived as reluctant to make extensive use of technology in their teaching.

Mastering Marketing matches this environmental trend, resulting in a b-school need, very well. Besides being a technologically innovative product that allows faculty to demonstrate the integration of technology into their teaching, the entire series is built around the challenges faced by a young eBusiness operating in an online retail environment. The focus of the product is on using technology to improve the *learning process* within the traditional classroom as opposed to using technology for distance education.

About Mastering Marketing

Mastering Marketing is an interactive, video-enhanced CD-ROM product that hopes to serve the needs created by the significant market trends identified in the previous section. The product uses the context of a fictional e-Business to help students actively experience the importance of core marketing concepts in facing issues that typically emerge in today's business operation. It makes extensive use of engaging video and interactive exercises to help students clearly see how the theoretical concepts in their marketing textbook apply to realistic business situations.

The essential benefits of *Mastering Marketing* are:

1. **Dynamic:** Allows faculty to show the impact of theory in dealing with today's dynamic e-Business environment
2. **Engaging:** By watching the characters grow in their personal and professional relationships within the organization, students are drawn into the context of the business surrounding *Mastering Marketing*
3. **Technologically innovative:** Serves the need for faculty to integrate technology into their courses
4. **Active:** Unlike video cases, *Mastering Marketing* requires the active involvement of the student. Interactive multi-layered exercises ensure that students progress through the concepts and get continuous feedback on their understanding.
5. **Integrative:** Clearly demonstrates the integrative nature of business. By dealing with realistic business situations, students using the *Mastering Marketing* CD can see how marketing interacts with the other functional areas to impact the functioning of business.
6. **Links Theory to Practice:** By explicitly tying textbook content to the situations faced by the fictional business within *Mastering Marketing*, the product clearly shows students how the material covered in their course relates to ongoing business practice. All the content is also created, reviewed and verified by professors.

INTEGRATION OF THE BUSINESS CORE CURRICULUM AND THE ADEQUACY OF SUPPORT PROVIDED

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ABSTRACT

In response to industry demands and accreditation standards, many business schools are developing integrated versions of common body of knowledge (CBOK) courses. Attempts have ranged from intentions to discuss and incorporate these issues into existing independent classes, to aggressive efforts involving multiple team-taught courses. In a few cases, however, integration efforts targeted for all business majors have been scaled back to limited offerings or eliminated all together.

Although content and presentation-related decisions are paramount to the success of these programs, other more subtle issues such as attitudes, infrastructure, and resources are of equal importance. These issues represent the foundation on which the program will be established. This research attempts to document the extent to which U.S. university/college-based business schools are involved in integration efforts, identify the nature of support provided, and the perceived adequacy of that support.

A sample of 240 university/college-based business schools in the United States was drawn from the 1999 AACSB membership directory. Given the relatively small population size (1000), 240 represents a 95/5 sample based on traditional sample methodology. In order to deal with multiple informant concerns, each business school is represented by one administrator (Dean, Associate Dean, or Department Chair) and two full-time, tenure-track faculty.

Approximately 40% of U.S. university/college based schools of business are currently involved in efforts to integrate the core business curriculum. Those involved, however, vary regarding the stage of program development. Thirty three percent of these are in the early planning stages, 13% are testing pilot programs, and 46% have implemented integrated efforts as a regular component of the curriculum. Only one respondent indicated that a program had been discontinued after introduction.

While a large proportion have extensive integrated course offerings, approximately 25% of schools involved rely upon discussions between faculty members to include integrated material in their traditional courses. Beyond this format, the most popular approaches involve a series of integrated courses taught by faculty teams (26%), or a single

integrative course taught by an individual faculty member (22%). Although integrated courses are offered throughout the college curriculum, the majority of business schools deliver integrated material during the Junior and Senior years.

Profiles of the involved and uninvolved schools differ little with regard to observable characteristic such as faculty size, teaching loads, and accreditation status. The major difference between these groups appears to be attitudinal in nature. They differed in their perceptions of faculty and administrator attitudes. Schools involved in integration efforts perceive their faculty, and business school and university administrator attitudes to be much more positive than those from business schools that are not involved in integration efforts. This suggests that sufficient attitudinal support is necessary for starting the integration process as well as developing a successful program.

Support efforts that cost little in terms of time and effort are perceived by both faculty and administrators as sufficient. The integration mandate has become part of the business school mission, hiring priorities, and undergraduate degree requirements. Integration activities have also been incorporated into the Key Performance Indicators of many business schools.

With regard to more substantive support, faculty and administrators are in agreement on a number of issues. Corporate funding is nearly nonexistent, and funding for planning grants and faculty rewards are insufficient. They also agree that many faculty are ill-at-ease with the prospect of teaching in an integrated curriculum, most are perceived as lacking sufficient background to participate, and the academic reward process offers little recognition for contributions to the integration effort.

Faculty and administrators differ, however, in their perceptions of the adequacy of faculty development support, release time for development and delivery of the integrated course offerings, and the results of efforts to hire cross-functionally trained faculty. Faculty perceptions on these issues are significantly less positive than the perceptions of administrators. These discrepancies help to explain the less optimistic faculty perceptions of their school's commitment to integration efforts.

IMPLEMENTING OUTCOME ASSESSMENT PROCESSES: AN EXAMPLE - RETROSPECTIVE, UPDATE AND LESSONS LEARNED

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ABSTRACT

Numerous continuous quality improvement processes have been applied to business schools in response to complaints from employers about the lack of preparedness of students graduating from business schools.

Even though much has been written and said on the subject in the interim, Marks, Beckman and Lacey (2000) issued a recent call for help in applying outcome assessment to marketing education. This paper responds by retrospectively discussing the school's experience and its further steps in implementing outcome assessment.

This paper does not attempt to review the abundant literature on outcome assessment in higher education, choosing instead to more directly focus on the case example. Suffice it to say that many competency outcomes have been identified as pertinent for business (marketing) graduates. Hartley, Cross, and Rudelius (2000) present an excellent review of assessment issues as they might be applied to marketing education.

AN EXAMPLE – RETROSPECTIVE AND UPDATE

This application of outcome assessment occurred in a recently AACSB accredited, smaller business school in a traditionally liberal arts oriented, private, denominationally affiliated university. It participated in the AACSB candidacy process.

Student Outcomes

The school strives to equip all of its students with knowledge and skills commonly expected of business graduates emphasizing the development of both competence and character.

Assessment Process

Various assessment tools have been designed to provide feedback from stakeholders as part of the process. The school has benefited greatly from the peer comparison and longitudinal data from the EBI benchmarking program.

The school also developed a curriculum map, identifying the degree to which each course contributes to the achievement of each outcome.

This tool has been very helpful in guiding course re-design.

The school has gathered extensive data from its "satisfaction-measures" outcome assessment process, discussion of which is beyond the scope of this paper. The school relies on course assignment based means of assessing "actual" outcome achievement rather than using standardized tests or an assessment center approach.

Assessment in the Marketing Curriculum

The outcomes are linked to marketing course objectives, learning activities/assessments and grading criteria.

Lessons Learned

The following list summarizes the lessons that have been learned from the school's experience with implementing assessment to date:

- Outcome assessment is a long-term, significant commitment with valuable payoffs.
- Clarifying a school's mission, core values, and distinctiveness and using them to drive the selection of outcomes is necessary.
- The major strength of the outcome assessment process is the school's commitment to openly sharing the feedback and using the results.
- Follow-up exploration into the reasons for low ratings is necessary prior to forming solutions.
- Selecting 2 or 3 "burning" issues to address each year in the school's strategic initiatives.
- Maximize the assessment payoff by carefully designing course assignments.
- Administering exit surveys in the capstone course produces high response rates.
- The pass-along survey to employers of alumni has provided some helpful insights, but response rates have been very low. Response rates from mentors and internship supervisors have been much higher.

What's Next

There are several next steps for the school as it continues to refine its outcome assessment.

(Exhibits and instruments available on request.)

Student Performance in Introductory Marketing: Do Business Communications Courses Help?

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ABSTRACT

A cursory glance at advertisements today reveals poor written communication skills. Nationwide faculty lament that students' writing skills are weak. This is a major concern for marketing faculty since communication skills are considered critical to marketing success. At our college written communication accounts for at least 50% of a student's grade in the introductory marketing class.

After considerable discussion, our college moved a required business communications course from the junior level to the sophomore level. The faculty and administration made this move based on the belief that earlier training in business communication skills would better prepare students for the rigors of our business core classes. This study investigates the relationship between grades in business communications and introductory marketing.

The analysis sample consists of 3,334 students who earned a grade in introductory marketing between the spring 1996 and fall 1998 semesters. The sample was fairly equal in terms of gender (males = 52%; females = 48%). The average GPA was 2.7 after 99 units. The average age was just under 26. About 63% of the sample had completed the business communications course.

Standardized scores were not available for many students; therefore, we include University grade point average (GPA) as our best measure of academic ability. GPA has been shown to have a strong positive relation to performance in the introductory marketing course (Borde 1998).

Our University attracts a significant ESL enrollment, which we capture through status as a non-resident alien and participation in the University's Education Opportunity Program (EOP). Many EOP students are first generation college students and frequently come from homes in which English is seldom spoken.

Age and total units earned are included as measures of chronological and academic maturity. Gender was included because some studies have found it to be a significant predictor of academic

success (see, for example, Anderson, Benjamin, and Fuss, 1994).

An initial Probit analysis revealed a significant relationship between the grade in business communications and introductory marketing *after* accounting for possible language difficulties with non-resident alien and EOP status. Further analysis will examine the structure of this relationship.

Although we expected that students who were more academically mature would perform better, this was not the case. Furthermore, we thought that chronological maturity would improve performance. Age was highly significant but, surprisingly, was negatively related to good performance in introductory marketing.

As expected, students who have earned higher grades, earn higher grades in marketing. This finding is consistent with previous pedagogical research in business and economics (e.g., Von Allmen, 1996) and confirms that previous success is a good indicator of future success in college courses.

The data seems to indicate that we made a wise decision when we moved the communications course from the junior to the sophomore level.

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VENTURING FAR 'AFIELD': THE CHALLENGE OF AN INTERNATIONAL MARKETING FIELD PROJECT
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ABSTRACT

The phases and tasks of managing international field projects and methods for assessing results are discussed. Examples and recommendations are provided to guide the development of an international field project.

INTRODUCTION

The importance and interdependence of the global economy has never been greater and business schools must meet the challenge to prepare students for this environment

A number of different approaches have been utilized to add international experience to business programs including study abroad (Duke 2000, Ryan 1996); overseas internships (Toncar and Cudmore 2000); adding international courses within or across disciplines; infusing an international orientation into courses across the curriculum; and exposing students to language and culture courses outside of the business school. Additionally, there has been an interest in internationalizing the marketing curriculum and exploring various pedagogical approaches for teaching students about international marketing issues (Cateora and White, 1979; Zimmer and Greene, 2000).

Several researchers have described the use of field projects with an international orientation. Karnath and MacNab (1996) undertake projects for international clients but using the US domestic market as the focus--students identify prospects in the US market for a foreign client. Frear and Metcalf (1988) describe an international marketing workshop for MBA students—an approach that uses instructor screening of student participants.

Given the many benefits of the field project experience in other courses (Malhotra et al., 1989; Haas and Wotruba, 1990), we feel this method deserves greater attention as a pedagogical approach in the international marketing course. Our purposes here are to: (1) describe the tasks involved in the three phases of the international marketing field project--the launch, execution and assessment phases, as shown in Figure 1, (2) illustrate how to manage field projects--standard issues encountered in both domestic and international projects as well as issues unique to international projects, and (3) suggest strategies for assessing the project results in meeting the needs of four key stakeholders-- the college, its students, clients, and the regional community.

LAUNCH: PRE-PROJECT ACTIVITIES

The preplanning for an international field project, as

with any domestic marketing project, requires that both the instructor and client establish mutually agreed upon objectives. The instructor needs to ensure a balance between client and student learning objectives. Objectives must be realistic given the students' time and talents during the term while satisfying the client needs. For example, clients may want students to identify potential distributors for products in a given international market while the students would benefit more from analyzing the advantages and disadvantages of marketing the product in several international markets in order to appreciate the unique challenges and opportunities presented in diverse international markets. Likewise, a client may seek to have students study a large number of potential product-markets, a set that could not be tackled in reasonable depth to benefit the client or the student within the time limits of the course.

For schools operating outside metropolitan areas, and even for those that are in metro areas that are taking a first run at international projects, it can be useful to use a semester to develop an assessment of regional business needs before undertaking a set of client projects. This will not only allow the instructor to better determine what the perceived needs and challenges are for local area businesses interested in international markets but also what the interest level is in obtaining assistance from the university through a student project. This approach involves using the assessment of the local and regional businesses as the semester long field project.

Obtaining Projects

Projects may be uncovered from international marketing assessment studies of local and regional businesses, by publicizing the opportunity through the chambers of commerce, university outreach publications, through Small Business Development Centers, faculty and alumni contacts in the business community, and through connections with Department of Commerce and State Trade offices. Often regional Commerce Department and Trade Office officials are eager to speak to international marketing courses and provide assistance to these types of projects. They are also in a good position to step in and provide additional support to client companies at the conclusion of the student projects.

Type Of Course

One of the first planning considerations is the type of international marketing course. Is the international marketing course an undergraduate course that has as its only prerequisite the principles of marketing course and may be taken by both marketing and non-

marketing majors? Is the international marketing course offered at the graduate level? Is the international marketing course a capstone course at either the undergraduate or graduate level? International field projects may be conducted in any of these types of courses but will influence the instructor's preparation and supervision of the project as well as the nature and type of projects undertaken by the student teams.

Student Preparation

There are a number of dimensions to consider--courses taken, cultural inexperience, problem solving and organizational skills. At a minimum, we expect that students in an international marketing course have at least taken the principles of marketing course. How long ago did students take principles of marketing? For some graduate students, it may have been some time ago. Have the students taken a marketing research course? This can be one of the single biggest issues in conducting a field project and many graduate students are more poorly prepared to conduct secondary and primary marketing research than undergraduate students.

Many students have had few opportunities to travel outside of the US and often many undergraduate students have not even traveled out state. They often lack experience in dealing with different cultures. This is particularly true in environments with little student diversity. If you are fortunate enough to have international students in the class, this can be an asset for the field project teams as these students are more aware of cultural differences and issues.

Instructors can utilize assignments and mini cases to build skills needed for the project. These can include "country briefings" to introduce students to the characteristics and challenges of marketing in different countries. Both domestic and international projects are challenging problem-solving exercises for students. The additional complexity and uncertainty of the international field project can overwhelm some students. The instructor needs to provide guidelines and examples for the project and written report to students. This, as well as careful coaching of the student teams, helps to produce a quality end product.

Matching Projects And Teams

The demands of particular projects may necessitate larger or smaller teams. In general, smaller teams are easier to manage, increase the amount of instructor coaching time and reduce the likelihood of free riding (Strong and Anderson 1990). It is often important to balance student teams to ensure that each team has someone that has taken marketing research or other course work when there are no course prerequisites beyond the principles course. It is also beneficial to consider balancing teams for some diversity among US and international students. When possible, it is useful to provide students some choice in which project team they will be on (Gaidis and Andrews 1990)

Haas and Wotruba (1990) describe a very effective method for organizing a project oriented course by interviewing students and "hiring" them into different positions. Even if time does not permit the entire interviewing process to be utilized, using application forms allows faculty to begin to identify individual student strengths, interests in leadership, and weaknesses in order to assemble balanced teams.

This approach, as well as projects utilizing a larger number of students, generally has appointed leaders. Smaller project teams, four or fewer students, are often "leaderless"--there is no designated leader though one may emerge over the course of the project. The organization structure for the teams and the perceptions of the team members regarding accountability and team roles can effect performance and motivation.

Selecting And Motivating Students

"Hiring" or assigning students responsibilities on the project team, face-to-face meetings with the client to refine the project scope of work, and the end of term deadline and responsibility of making a presentation and delivering a written report to the client are both motivating and intimidating to students. Most students take the project very seriously and become committed to the project. They understand or grow to understand the importance of the project--even when the client does not completely understand the value of the project. Peer pressure and the use of peer evaluations to determine part of the overall project grade often provide additional incentive, particularly for the less motivated student.

With international field projects, it is imperative that students understand the special complexities of such projects--beyond those in traditional field projects--such as unique social and cultural forces and limited access to secondary data. Because any field project can create frustrations and challenges for the student, the instructor for an international field project must communicate the challenges early and often to the student and help them come to terms with the means for coping with these challenges.

EXECUTION: PROJECT ACTIVITIES

While all faculty members using real-world field projects in their courses have their own success strategies, we shall divide discussion of project execution into three parts: (1) recognizing the differences between domestic and international projects, (2) the sequence of project activities, and (3) some lessons learned.

Differences Between Domestic and International Projects. Both domestic and international field projects share a number of similarities including the need for a valuable deliverable, potential for communication problems, management issues with a leaderless groups, the need to understand key project management guidelines, and balancing student, client and university goals to find a win-win solution.

At the same time there are striking distances between domestic and international field projects. Handling language problems among team members and with international contacts can be a challenge. While a multinational team facilitates better global understanding, it can add complexities if the final report is to be delivered in English with most secondary and primary sources in another language. This may also require identifying resources for translation.

Few countries have the quality or quantity of secondary data from government agencies or trade associations available in the U.S., which affects expectations of both students and clients. Similar problems exist with primary data from customers, prospects, employees, and distributors. While there continue to be huge improvements in data availability for research on international markets, it is often difficult to anticipate the data collection and lack of available data until further into the project than with a domestic marketing project.

Team member characteristics such as "openness" among Americans, who often have the image of being overly-talkative, overly-aggressive extroverts, can have the effect of intimidating international students or client contacts, causing serious communication problems for the team and project. Another issue is recognizing that impact of one's self-reference criterion on the ability to truly see and understand a foreign market (Cateora and Graham 1999). In other words, "not knowing what we don't know". The problem of failing to understand deeper cultural issues in the international market cannot readily be assessed by a student team with no direct

experience in the country of interest.

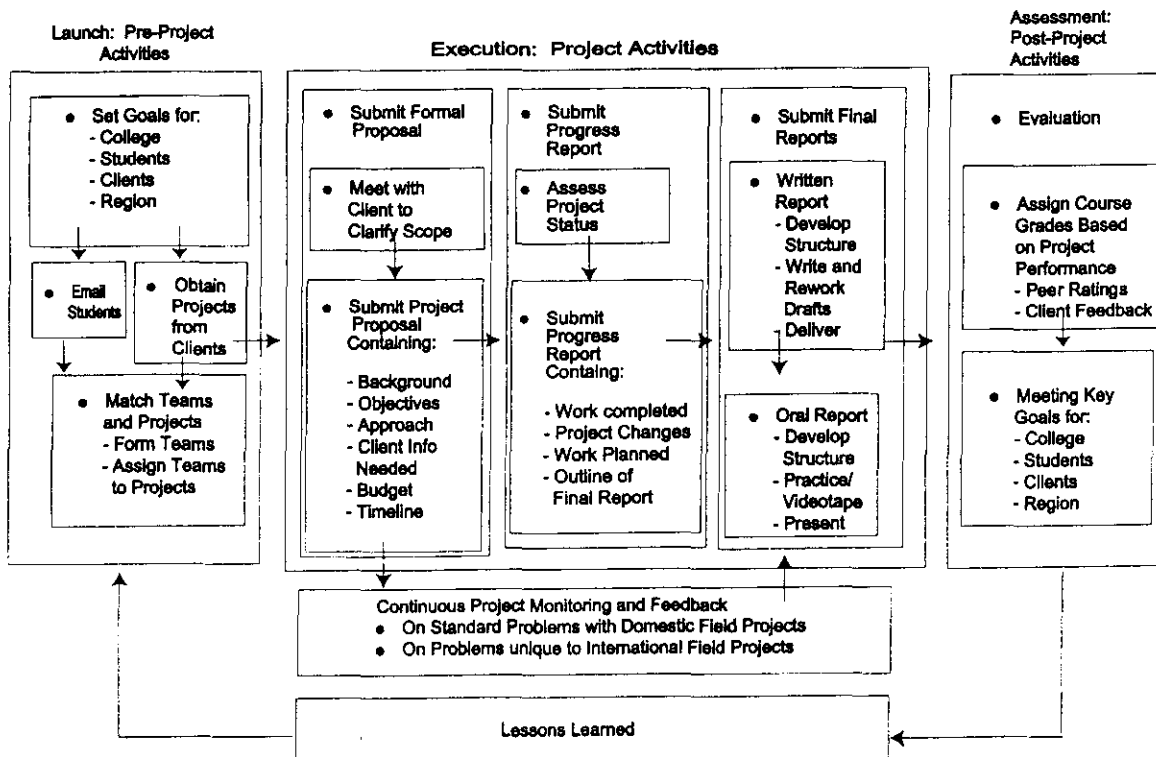
While planning ahead is important for any field projects, it is particularly important when the information necessary for the project may need to be obtained by interviewing or surveying key informants internationally. Call backs and following up on information collected can be far more difficult.

Sequence Of Project Activities. As shown in the large middle box in Figure 1, written project deliverables typically include a formal proposal, progress report, and final report.

Formal Proposal. An international project team's initial meeting with the client involves special problems of defining and clarifying the project scope. What kinds of secondary data in reports or on the Internet are available? What language(s)? Do members of our student team have these language skills? What kinds of access to personal contacts in the country or countries under study can our client provide? Do we access them by telephone, or e-mail, or fax? If by telephone, are the time zones or costs a problem? Given the data likely to be available, should the project be a full-fledged marketing plan or is a market research study a better choice? Also, how many countries and product(s) can reasonably expected to be studied? Answers to many of these questions are far different for an international field project than for a domestic one.

The actual elements in the project proposal, shown in Figure 1, are common to both domestic and international field projects. Especially for small US manufacturing firms, the most common project

Figure 1. Activities in Managing an International Marketing Field Project



starting point is not identifying a strategy to enter a single country, but rather the issue of identifying one or several countries that seem to hold the greatest opportunity for success.

Figure 2A shows the trade-offs usually made in international marketing field projects done by student teams: go into limited depth in an analysis of, say, six countries or go into twice as much depth in a study of only three countries.

Figure 2A. Phase Project: Width Versus Depth

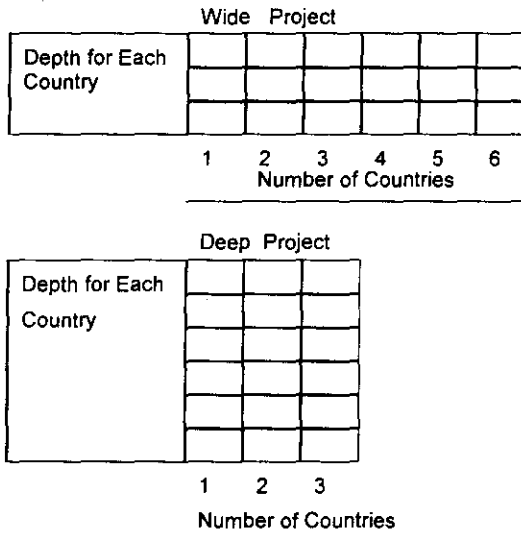
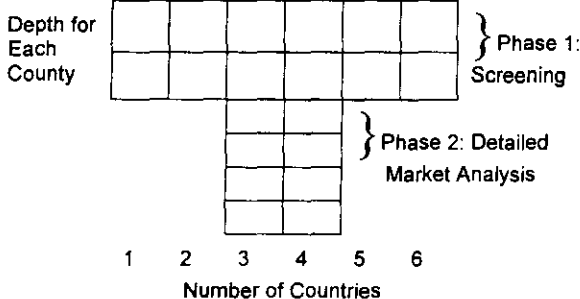


Figure 2B shows what is often a preferred alternative to the two options shown in Figure 2A: a two-phase approach. Note that in all three scenarios the area of the rectangles is equal – representing equal numbers of student hours.

Figure 2B. Phase Project: Width and then Depth



Many academic papers and business studies have suggested ways to apply screening criteria to choose countries. Criteria range from economic and customer factors to those dealing with political stability, corruption, and attitudes toward foreign companies. This "weighted-factor method" appears in Figure 3, as applied to a medical device. Note the presence of a strange factor here – "percentage of airport runways paved" – that is largely irrelevant for this study but is typical of the kind of creative (!), curious (?) factors we have all encountered in student reports. Multiplying the "factor weight" – often specified by the client – by the "grade" given that

factor by the team for the specific country gives the "weight X grade" total. A look at the bottom-line totals shows Country A to be the apparent clear winner. But this "winner" faces the limitation of all such linear, compensatory types of models: winning in a grand total can mask one or two absolutely critical factors. In this case it is factor #5, "government-required approval," that is critical to marketing a medical device in a foreign country. If it does not have the country's medical "stamp of approval," marketing the device may be impossible in that country, so the device could probably more likely be marketed in Country B, not in Country A – the reverse of the weighted results.

Figure 3A: Two Approaches to Screening – Countries to Consider for Export, Weighted-Factor Method

Factor	Factor Wt.	Country A		Country B	
		Grade	Wt. X Grade	Grade	Wt. X Grade
1. Per Capita GDP	8	9	72	3	24
2. Physicians/100 population	10	7	70	2	20
3. Annual economic growth	5	5	25	8	40
4. % Airport runways paved	3	8	24	1	3
5. Government-required Approval	10	1	10	9	90
Total			201		177

Figure 3B: Top-Down Method of Estimating Annual Profit

Factor	Country A	Country B
1. Units sold in country last year	1,000,000	2,000,000
2. % of geographic area with our distribution	50%	25%
3. % first year market share in our distribution	2%	3%
4. Average retail price to consumers (\$)	\$35/unit	\$34/unit
5. % of retail price going to our resellers	40%/unit	45%/unit
6. Delivered cost to our first distributors (\$)	\$15/unit	\$12/unit
7. First year before-tax profit (\$)	\$84,000	\$100,500

Figure 3B shows a top-down method of estimating annual profit that might be achieved the first year in entering a new country with, say, an electrical appliance. While more difficult than the approach in Figure 3A, this top-down method focuses on key variables tied directly to an exporter's likely profitability in a new country – factors such as likely market share, the fraction of the country in which distribution is likely to exist, reseller margins, and so on. Our simple example does not contain other marketing expenses like promotion, but embedded in the analysis is a forced look at factors like import duties, present in the "delivered cost" estimate. Both the methods rely heavily on subjective estimates, but at least the top-down approach forces an analysis to

provide the common denominator across all countries of "first-year, before-tax profit."

Progress Report. No real-world project goes from proposal to final report, without glitches: new events, data that are available or aren't, a client's changing mind – all require changes from the picture contained in the proposal. This is the reason for a formal two or three page progress report describing work completed to date, project changes in objectives or approach necessitated by new information, and work planned for the remainder of the project – the middle block in the execution box in Figure 1. As part of this process, student teams should provide a detailed report outline (or rough draft table of contents) halfway through the semester. While often painful, forcing them to identify data gaps before that last midnight session saves huge amounts of time in the project. We've found an outline with four columns is most useful: (1) sections of the report shown to second-level and third-level headings, (2) estimated page length for each topic, (3) table(s) or figure(s) to use in each section, and (4) team member responsible for writing each section.

Final Report. The international field project culminates in having the student team deliver a final oral and written report to the client. For most of us teaching this course, these final reports are anti-climatic. The battles fought getting to this point are critical. Some lessons learned fighting these battles include:

Reviewing basic materials. Capstone international marketing courses build on knowledge that students should have received earlier in both regular and international marketing courses. With graduate field project courses often containing many students with diverse backgrounds in terms of work experience and course preparation, some of this basic knowledge may be missing or forgotten. Mini-lectures and mini-cases to cover key concepts like market segmentation and questionnaire design are usually necessary. For undergraduate international marketing courses, the only prerequisites for the course may be the principles of marketing course and the challenge is greater. Nonetheless, a careful integration of course material and a client-sponsored team project can be extremely effective in anchoring key international marketing concepts.

Overcoming "blank page psychosis." Even graduate students panic when asked to get that first word on a blank sheet of paper. We have found that fill-in-the-blank section handouts for the proposal, data collection plan, and executive summary of the final report give students a much-needed jump start. Providing a template for the report and making copies of past reports available as examples is extremely helpful.

Getting one-third of the paper early. Forcing students to submit part of the paper before they think they are ready pays big dividends in recognizing gaps early enough to be able to correct them. This also enables a team to fine tune their work and agree on formats for report headings, tables, figures and so on. This

enables student teams, often with members having widely divergent backgrounds and writing experiences, early help in finding these common structures.

Having a data collection plan. Requiring each project team to submit a written data collection plan. This helps students focus on the particular demands of an international project as well as industry and client specific research demands.

Videotaping oral final report practice presentations. Letting students see their trial final oral report on videotape saves many instructor words and much embarrassment later on. International students are often especially reluctant to participate in the final oral presentation because of concern about their skills in spoken English. Our rule is that whenever feasible, every team member does about equal parts of the final oral report to give them valuable, much needed experience. When project teams get larger than four or five members, it is often impractical to have every member involved in the final oral presentation. In these instances, it is often possible to get all students involved in some sort of oral project presentation such as a presentation preliminary findings or a presentation on alternative markets though they might not all have opportunity to make the final oral presentation personally.

Professional editing of the final written report. This is invaluable if the client's budget permits. Both US and international students can benefit from the word-by-word scrutiny of a professional business editor.

ASSESSMENT: POST-PROJECT ACTIVITIES PROJECT PERFORMANCE

Project evaluation from the instructor is an ongoing part of a successful project. The instructor serves as a mentor and coach to the student teams throughout the term. The emphasis is on feedback and comments focused on how students can improve their work to raise it to a professional level. (Gaidis and Andrews 1990) This often means the instructor evaluates the overall quality of the final product with a grade but evaluates intermediate products on the path to the final project with lower-weighted grades or perhaps without grades but with extensive written comments to guide the team in improving upon the project.

Client evaluations provide value in assessing how well project objectives were met and to track satisfaction with the processes and program for field projects. However, it is often inadvisable for the client to "grade" a student team project. Often clients are not knowledgeable about group dynamics, instructor efforts to "save" a disaster-ridden project, frantic 11th hour efforts to pull things together. Also, the client may have lost objectivity on the project due to working closely with a student team. Client evaluations of student projects do have value for gaining insights into the project process that can improve and facilitate future client, faculty and student interactions.

Peer Evaluations

Team member evaluations are an important part of determining individual project grades (Beatty et al 1996, Gaidis and Andrews 1990). It is important for students to understand at the onset of the project how peer evaluations will be conducted and used in calculating project grades. Strong and Anderson (1990) advise anonymous individual evaluations of team members. We use anonymous individual peer evaluations and have developed our own instruments for this purpose. While methodologies exist for comparing peer evaluations for an individual team member or against self-evaluations, the results largely identify the extremes in performance on individual teams and recognize the extremely high and low performing team member with an adjustment in their project grade.

Meeting Stakeholder Goals

Colleges often are interested in measuring the number and type of projects completed and the number of students involved as part of its outreach and community service mission. Student evaluations for the course and for the project can routinely be completed at the end of the term. While these evaluations are generally quite positive, we have found that often students do not fully appreciate what they have gained from the project until after they have recovered from the final presentation. A survey of field project participants--both clients and students--one or more years after the experience is a better way of finding out how worthwhile the experience was in retrospect. Client evaluations can be conducted after the final presentation but again this does not allow for any assessment of how the study results were utilized.

Many organizations tap into student field projects as a means of extending their own limited marketing staff and resources. An important part of a successful field project is "closing the loop" for the client--putting them in touch with resources that can help them act on the results of the study. This could mean tapping into the university internship program for assistance, matching up state and local economic development, trade and marketing resources so that the client can take the appropriate steps to pursue international opportunities. This expands the college's reach and involvement in the region beyond the client that can in turn lead to new projects for the next term.

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CROSS-NATIONAL MARKETING LEARNING ACTIVITY USING THE BLACKBOARD WEB SOFTWARE PLATFORM

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ABSTRACT

This article presents the results of a cross-national marketing learning activity using the Blackboard web software platform. The joint global exercise was designed for business and marketing undergraduate students to better understand the marketing process in other countries, to analyze a cyber marketing case study in conjunction with business students from other countries, and to share marketing knowledge and resources with business students from other countries. Integrated into the curriculum since 1997, United States and Slovak Republic marketing and business college students have collaborated on case studies, business plans, and marketing plans. A six-step approach is introduced to illustrate the international learning activity and to assist marketing educators in developing international web-based learning activities. The article also offers insight into the implementation and assessment of Blackboard to facilitate the international learning activity.

INTERNATIONALIZING THE CURRICULUM VIA BLACKBOARD.COM

Step 1 - Purpose of the International Learning Activity

The overall purpose of the international project for the U.S. and Slovak students was to better understand the marketing process in another country, to analyze a cyber marketing case study in conjunction with business students from another country, to share marketing knowledge and resources with business students from another country, and to learn or enhance their Internet navigation skills.

Step 2 - Analysis of the Learning Activity

Students of Central Washington University (CWU) in Washington state, experiencing a free market economy, collaborated with students of City University (CU) in the Slovak Republic, Central Europe. The Slovak students, experiencing developmental stages of establishing capitalism and a free market economy within their country, provided a unique perspective on the development and implementation of capitalism to the CWU students. Alternatively, the CWU students provided qualified insights about their developed, capitalistic market-driven society.

Step 3 - Design of the Learning Activity

Online education relies on powerful, customizable, and easy to use systems. While bringing curriculum online is still a critical component of online learning, the Internet offers tremendous potential for enhancing academic programs and communities beyond the walls of the classroom or campus. Most important to this project was creating a cyber environment that facilitated easy communication, active dialogue, and clear outcomes and expectations. Blackboard went beyond the instructors' expectations by providing a web-based program that featured a user-friendly discussion board where students could asynchronously communicate with each other about course assignments and a virtual chat room where faculty and students had real time discussions. Visit: <http://Courses.cwu.edu:8080/courses/ME467-RL/> (Username: MEAROCKS Password: MARKETING)

Step 4 - Development of the Learning Activity

The students were randomly assigned into groups of two to three students and matched with a counterpart group from the other country. The instructors took digital pictures of the groups and posted them on the website utilizing the Blackboard area, allowing each group to visually see who they were collaborating with in the other country.

Step 5 - Implementation of the Learning Activity

Weekly, instructors evaluated and scored the students participation in the discussion board, evaluated and scored students assessment of the case study, and worked with students having technical difficulties.

Step 6 - Assessment of the Learning Activity

To bestow the importance of this international learning activity, both instructors included the activity in their overall course assessment. This project was designed to supplement other assessments including examinations, quizzes, and projects. Fully participating in the activity, each student receives 10 percent towards their final class grade. The students' ability to successfully use the web technology demonstrated that students from both countries were able to easily and quickly adapt and utilize the user interface guided by pictures and clear descriptions of functions.

THE EXTREME UPS AND DOWNS OF TEACHING ABROAD IN A LESSER AFFLUENT NATION BEING INTEGRATED INTO THE GLOBAL ECONOMIC SYSTEM

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ABSTRACT

This inquiry examines what was learned by a U.S.-born, U.S.-based marketing scholar while teaching abroad in Mexico. Data indicate that the researcher's experience can be characterized as being both highly gratifying and deeply disheartening. Data further suggest that understanding this bi-polar situation is predicated significantly on understanding that Mexico is a lesser affluent national being integrated into the global economic system where both the role of education and academic life differs markedly from that in the United States.

INTRODUCTION

Recent years have seen a surge in the number of U.S. college students gaining cross-cultural experience by studying abroad. The value of this experience has been and continues to be well documented. At the same time, however, the value of teaching abroad (for U.S. scholars and their students) has gone largely undiscussed.

The present research ethnographically examines what was learned as a result of serving, for three semesters, as a Visiting Professor of International Marketing at a large private university in southwestern Mexico. Data indicate that this valuable experience can be characterized by a series of both extraordinarily gratifying and deeply disheartening events and discoveries. Data further suggest that the occurrence of this bi-polar situation can be understood by taking into account the fact that Mexico is a lesser affluent national being integrated into the global economic system where the role of education and academic life differs significantly from that in the United States.

RECENT (U.S.) TRENDS IN STUDYING AND TEACHING ABROAD

The number of U.S. college students studying abroad has grown dramatically in recent years. The most recent statistics available from the Institute of International Education (IIE) indicate, for example, that the number of U.S. students doing academic work in foreign nations has risen from 62,341 in 1987-88 to 113,95 in 1997-98

(Desruisseaux 2000a). This surge can be accounted for by considering the fact that U.S. students now both can increasingly afford the study-abroad experience and have growing interest in gaining this experience. Reasons cited for the dramatic escalation in studying abroad include: 1) the strength of the U.S. dollar overseas, 2) the strong U.S. economy, and 3) the "growing desire on the part of many career-minded students to acquire international knowledge and experience" (Desruisseaux 2000b, paragraph 3). The importance of acquiring this experience--for both students and scholars--is summarized by the president of the IIE as follows.

The most critical factor for the success of nations in the new millennium will be a population whose minds are open to the world. As a consequence, many countries support programs that facilitate international exchanges of students and faculty members. Indeed, America's place as a world leader has been built as much on the foundation of such programs as on military and economic power (paragraph 1)... RAND studies of corporate hiring preferences show nearly universal agreement among personnel directors that their companies need managers and employees with greater international knowledge--and experience abroad--than the ones they are hiring now. Only such knowledge and experience will allow employees to work in cross-cultural teams to develop new products, they believe (paragraph 13)... I urge the working group to consider ways to elevate the importance we give to educational exchanges. Only in that way will we preserve America's leadership in making students and scholars citizens of the world (Goodman 1999).

While the trend in gaining cross-cultural experience and knowledge via studying abroad is positive from a U.S. student perspective, the same thing cannot be said with regard to their faculty counterparts. U.S. scholars, as well as some top university administrators, appear to myopically fail to understand the importance of the study abroad experience. IIE president Allan Goodman contends that this lack of understanding can be attributed both to ethnocentrism and a dysfunctional emphasis on the publication of academic research. According to Goodman:

Faculty members... do not appear convinced about the value of overseas experience for themselves. Senior scholars often discourage younger faculty members from applying for Fulbright or other fellowships that would place them abroad for periods of longer than a few months. Last year, the president of Duke University, Nannerl Keohane, focused attention on the parochialism that seems to be contributing to that attitude. In a speech at Oxford University, she said that 'since English is the dominant language of international scholarship... there is little incentive for American scholars to learn other languages.' She added: 'Because American scholarship is recognized as pre-eminent in many fields, there is little incentive to be current in the work done in other countries for many faculty members.' Young faculty members may also be reluctant to risk a sojourn abroad when a tight job market puts a premium more on timely publishing than on extensive fieldwork (Goodman 1999, paragraph 12).

This reluctance on the part of U.S. scholars to teach abroad creates a situation which is both unfortunate and ironic. Students apparently understand the importance of gaining cross-cultural experience and knowledge. Those persons entrusted with the responsibility of educating these students appear not to share this view. Further, U.S. academicians, unlike their student counterparts, appear not to be willing to take the action needed to acquire important international knowledge and experience. However, it is these same people who frequently both preach the importance of this knowledge and must educate their students of cross-cultural issues. This suggests that we should question the ability of many if not most U.S. scholars to effectively educate their students with regard to critical international and cross-cultural matters. It also suggests that we should question the ability of U.S. scholars to produce valid and otherwise meaningful information on these issues.

The present inquiry is an ethnographic examination of both: 1) what it is like to teach in a culturally and developmentally dissimilar foreign nation, and 2) what can be learned about educational systems in such nations. Below, we briefly discuss our methodological approach. We then present the findings of our research along with their implications.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The essence of the ethnographic method is that the researcher immerses him/herself "in the midst of whatever it is they study" (Hill and Stamey 1990, p. 305 [see also: Atkinson and Hammersley

1994; Lincoln and Guba 1985]). Ideally, this immersion results in the elucidation of human experience as lived in the inquiry's particular physical and historical context. Also central to ethnographic inquiry is the notion that research activities are guided by an emergent design wherein the researcher's specific focus is determined by a real-time understanding of the focal phenomenon as it exists in its natural environment. Ethnographic data collection typically involves some combination of researcher observation and formally or informally discussing focal issues with locally situated persons. Also central to the ethnographic method is the keeping of detailed and often introspective researcher fieldnotes (see: Fontana and Frey 1994; Richardson 1994; Wallendorf and Belk 1989).

Data was ethnographically collected, by one member of the research team, while serving as a Visiting Professor of International Marketing at "The University of Southwest Mexico" (USWM), a large private university in Guadalajara, Jalisco (Mexico).¹ The researcher served in this capacity for three semesters--two summer semesters and one fall semester--in the middle and late 1990s. Two of the three semesters, both summer sessions, were spent working out of USWM's foreign exchange office teaching classes to foreign exchange students from various universities across the U.S.. The remaining (fall) semester was spent as a member of the USWM business faculty teaching courses to Mexican international business students. Finally, it should be noted that the immersed researcher taught independently during all three semesters in that he was employed by USWM and was not officially representing any U.S. university.

A total of approximately 12 months were spent ethnographically immersed in Guadalajara.

¹ Guadalajara, one of the Mexican Republic's three major regional centers of business, governmental, industrial, religious, and agricultural activity, is often referred to as "the hub of Western Mexico." Guadalajara is Mexico's second largest metropolitan area with a population of between six and eight million persons. Culturally, it has been described as "the most Mexican of all cities in the republic" due to its being the home of such distinctive cultural phenomena as tequila, mariachi music, and the jarabe tapatio (i.e., the Mexican hat dance) (Logan 1984, p. 16). USWM--not the real name of the university--is owned and operated by a wealthy Guadalajara-area family with both national and global business connections (in several industries). The university is also heavily dependent upon foreign exchange from the United States, Canada, and several Western European and Asian nations.

Ten of the 12 months were spent working and living in (as opposed to merely visiting) the area. The vast majority of this period of total immersion was spent living with a lifelong Guadalajara resident as a member of a local family (by virtue of marriage to a local resident just prior to the beginning of data collection). Primary means of data collection include: 1) interviewing and/or talking informally with over a dozen USWM faculty members, administrators, and students, 2) participant and non-participant observation of the education process (involving both Mexican and U.S. foreign exchange students), 3) extensive daily reading and analysis of local, regional, and/or national newspaper articles, and 4) the keeping of detailed and often introspective researcher fieldnotes.

Data analysis followed guidelines set forth by Spiggle (1994). The primary analytical operation employed was categorization, a labeling or coding process involving the identification of a unit of data (e.g., a passage of text) as being exemplary of some more general phenomenon.

FINDINGS/DATA: THE EXTREME UPS AND DOWNS OF TEACHING ABROAD

Five education-related categories emerge from our data. These categories, along with their component subcategories, are summarized in Table 1. Our discussion focuses on data exemplary of our experience of teaching abroad in Mexico as being characterized by a series of both extraordinarily gratifying and deeply disheartening events and discoveries. We first address the gratifying aspects of our experience. We then discuss data exemplary of the down side of our teaching abroad experience. The latter discussion takes place in the context of Mexico being a lesser affluent nation being integrated into the global economic system.

TABLE 1
Emergent Categories and Subcategories

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1. Cultural influence on educational system makes it "different"/difficult to teach in.

- A. Cultural tradition more important than class: e.g., students miss class to attend cultural events--no excuses nor advance notice often given.
- B. Bribery: e.g., to get grades and offset poor attendance.
- C. Cultural events form the basis of extracurricular activities: e.g., death rituals (i.e., Day of the Dead), traditional festivals, and holidays.
- D. Teachers treated differently by administration: e.g., teachers closely monitored and controlled via 'punching the clock' and signing in and out of class.

- E. Junior college system functions differently: e.g., terminal degrees.
- F. Staff paid poorly and treated badly.

2. Lacking resources in educational system.

- A. Technology: e.g., severe lack of computers for staff and students; extremely limited search capabilities in library.
- B. Information: e.g., online and offline (e.g., book-based) information hard to find.
- C. Textbooks: e.g., old and outdated if simply not available (on many topics); few recent editions available in Spanish language.
- D. Students don't have money to buy books and supplies.
- E. Poor faculty work conditions: e.g., very low pay; all business faculty in one non-air-conditioned office open to students.
- E. English-speaking support lacking.

3. Mexican faculty and staff highly dependent upon and servient to foreign exchange students and their universities.

- A. Forced toleration of rude, arrogant, scheming, and overly demanding (and ethnocentric) U.S. foreign exchange students.
- B. U.S. administrators put off looking into student misbehavior until after students return home.
- C. On-site coordinators who either don't seem to know about student misbehavior or, if they are aware of it, don't seem to care.

4. Sense of achievement in helping Mexican students succeed.

- A. Mexican students must work extra hard in English-language classes.
- B. Many Mexican students have overcome lacking resource issue: e.g., success despite often extreme lack of financial resources.
- C. Helping give Mexican students the opportunity to move up in the (extremely bi-polar) Mexican social hierarchy.
- D. Mexican students highly appreciative of teacher effort.

5. Learning about and educating on (misunderstood and under-researched) Mexican marketing and consumer behavior phenomena at the level of the lived human experience of local people.

- A. The globalization-driven transformation of local systems of exchange.
 - B. Culture-based difficulties faced by foreign marketers and the sometimes creative manner in which these firms try to overcome them.
 - C. Globalization's consumer choice-related consequences.
 - D. Globalization's consumer nationalism-related consequences.
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Extreme Gratification

Numerous data incidents exemplify the fact that our teaching abroad experience in Mexico was highly gratifying (and highly informative with regard to both the Mexican system of higher education and various Mexican marketing and consumer research phenomena). Most exemplary in this regard is data contained in Categories 4 and 5 (see Table 1). As

indicated in data from Category 4, the immersed researcher experienced a great sense of achievement by helping (typically underprivileged) Mexican students to succeed in their classes and improve their chances of moving up in the highly bipolar Mexican social hierarchy. In addition, our data suggest that these Mexican students are extraordinarily appreciative of teaching efforts--more so than previously experienced by the immersed researcher. These sentiments are summarized in the following verbatim excerpt from researcher fieldnotes entered immediately after the final meeting of one of his classes taught to Mexican international business students.

SADNESS AFTER LAST CLASS: I have just left my last class with my lower-level (MR) [marketing research] students and am waiting outside an auditorium to attend a folkloric dance festival. All 3 of them got 100 on their last test and all I did tonight was hand back the tests. They were very happy, especially the man who made it over the 85% level by 2 points (and gets an A and does not have to take the finals).

THIS IS REALLY SAD... I have never felt like this after a class--not even close... I am usually just glad to be done... They did not speak English well and didn't understand me all that much better in what is traditionally a difficult class... They tried very hard and were far more appreciative of me as a teacher than any class I have ever had before. After class they were shaking my hand and thanking me repeatedly. I do not feel that they viewed this class as just something to get finished...

I never imagined being able to get this much satisfaction from teaching before... I can see, with the responsibilities and demands we face, how it can be easy to get jaded and forget about the importance and benefits of teaching. Tonight makes all the trouble of the semester worth it. (original parenthetical text [bracketed text added for clarity])

Also exemplary of the fact that our teaching abroad experience in Mexico was highly gratifying is data concerning Mexican marketing and consumer research phenomena seldom if ever discussed in scholarly research, the popular business press, or mainstream media outlets. Data in this regard concerns: 1) the globalization-driven transformation of local systems of exchange (e.g., the influx of transnational corporation [TNC] manufacturers, retailers, and products), 2) culture-based difficulties faced by foreign marketers and the sometimes creative manner in which these firms try to overcome them (e.g., Wal-Mart's use of outdoor taco stands and dance-based events to overcome a variety of inconsistencies between their core product and Mexican consumer preference), 3) globalization's consumer choice-related

consequences (e.g., the limiting of both product-level and store-level consumer level choice with respect to the consumption of tortillas), and 4) globalization's consumer nationalism-related consequences (i.e., the apparent fact that consumer nationalism is alive and well in Mexico despite disciplinary claims that it is extinct). All of these issues were the subject of course lecture and discussion while teaching in Mexico and are currently in the process of being worked into academic research and instructional materials in the United States.

The Equally Extreme Downside

Data suggest that our teaching abroad experience in Mexico was anything but a painless, joyful undertaking. Data in this regard concerns the fact that Mexico is a lesser-affluent nation currently in the process of being extensively integrated into the global economic system. Perhaps of equal importance is the fact that USWM is highly dependent upon foreign exchange, mainly from the U.S., for income. Most exemplary in this regard is data comprising Category 3 in Table 1. This data suggests that Mexican faculty and staff are not only highly dependent upon but also, as a result of this dependence, very servient to U.S. foreign exchange students and their universities. This data suggests, specifically, that Mexican university faculty and staff--and teachers independently teaching abroad in Mexico--have little choice but to tolerate: 1) at times rude, arrogant, scheming, and overly demanding (and ethnocentric) U.S. foreign exchange student behavior, and 2) U.S. administrators and study abroad coordinators who are often indifferent to student misbehavior.² Take, for example, the case of the immersed researcher's troubles with a group of exchange students from

² This statement is not meant to suggest that all U.S. foreign exchange students (nor all exchange students from the named university) are rude and arrogant--they are not. This statement is also not meant to suggest that all U.S. administrators and exchange coordinators are indifferent to student misbehavior (when it does occur)--they are not. This statement (and subsequent discussion) is meant to imply both that student behavior and administrative/ coordinator indifference do indeed occur and that Mexican faculty and staff--due to a high level of dependence upon U.S. foreign exchange students and their universities--(sadly) have little choice but to tolerate it (when they do occur). This conclusion is based on countless hours of personal observation and personal experience--observation and experience possible only if intimately immersed in the Mexican system of higher education. Further, the data here presented in support of this assertion represent but a small percentage of such data collected for purposes of the present inquiry.

educational systems--to challenge themselves by teaching abroad.

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THE EDUCATOR AND INTERNATIONALIZATION

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ABSTRACT

Universities everywhere are seeking to internationalize themselves. However, many are doing so without fully understanding what this might entail. One dimension that often is misdirected by business schools is the individual educator and living and working in a foreign environment. This paper discusses this very timely topic and presents some guidelines for those who undertake a foreign assignment.

THE EDUCATOR AND INTERNATIONALIZATION

Introduction

Internationalization and internationalizing are terms being used with greater frequency, and in some instances urgency, in the halls of institutions of higher education – universities, colleges and other types of institutions offering tertiary education. But, what do these terms mean and how are they internalized? Universities in the United States at least have seen an increase in the number of foreign students enrolling in regular programs. This also is true elsewhere as universities from Australia to Europe have sought out so-called “overseas students.” One advantage of these actions is that typically such students are “full-fee paying.” One effect of having foreign students is that educators are dealing with multi-culturalism in the classroom. This places a burden on the educator to develop cultural empathy, which goes beyond being able to recognize cultural differences. Cultural empathy also entails being able to understand others in a manner that permits effective communication and effective direction of human efforts in the direction desired. We need to help those from other cultures adjust into their new culture and assimilate into the educational system.

But, internationalization goes beyond simply having more foreign students. One obvious dimension is curriculum, which must be brought up-to-date to reflect the global nature of business, particularly the marketing activities of firms. Yet another dimension is to expose students to other cultures and educational systems through the

various types of exchange programs that exist. Finally, the educator himself or herself can become an active part of the internationalization process either through an exchange or unilaterally. It is this last dimension that is the main thrust of this treatise.

In my experience the best way to develop cultural empathy and fully understand the multiculturalism educators are finding in their classrooms at home is to live and work in a foreign environment. Attending seminars at home on such topics as “multi-culturalism in the classroom and how to adapt” at best defines some of the issues and maybe begins to scratch the surface. This is an approach many deans are inclined to use. If funds permit, deans also like to set up a so-called study tour for selected faculty, which may be funded by a grant from some government or nonprofit organization. A typical study tour can be characterized by “If it is Tuesday, this must be Belgium.” Most, not all, of these ventures do not achieve much by way of internalizing into the participants internationalization and cultural empathy.

The purpose of this paper is to present some thoughts about what it is to be an educator in a foreign environment. Education is a major dimension of culture. As such, formal education systems have developed to reflect the values, attitudes, etc., of those in a country. The educator who accepts a teaching/research assignment in a foreign country must always be on the alert to make sure that he or she does not apply the self-reference criterion (Lee, 1966) and make value judgments about an educational system on the basis of his or her own system. My comments will be based on working in a foreign educational environment having mostly—and in many cases totally – local students. I do not include an exchange program where one teaches students from his or her own country nor do I include so-called study trips, with or without students. Herndon (1998) provides some tips about the non-academic environment when teaching in Asia, discussing such issues as language and customs, food and dining, health, safety and politics and religion.

When starting an assignment in a foreign country, the educator has a transition period in which he or she must adjust to a new country, culture and perhaps legal/political system, a new academic culture, a new education structural system, a new class format, and so forth. In particular, language could be somewhat a barrier in terms of interaction with students, staff, and administrators as well as in everyday living.

In writing a paper of this type there is a high risk of presenting too much anecdotal evidence of the "war story" type. I apologize in advance for any of this. The comments I will make are based on teaching assignments during the period 1986-2000 that ranged from two weeks to several months in the following countries: New Zealand, Australia, Indonesia, Hong Kong, France, Denmark, Turkey, and Finland. These areas represent varying psychic/psychological/ cultural distance from my own, the United States. In most instances English was the language of instruction in the entire program while in a couple of instances it was used only for the course I was involved with.

SOME GUIDELINES

Following are some generalizations that can serve as guidelines for behavior in the unfamiliar environment the educator finds himself or herself for the first time and even subsequent times:

1. Borrowing from Nancy Adler (1991, p. 67), *assume difference until similarity is proven.*
2. *Expect the unexpected.*
3. *Be adaptable.*
4. *Be prepared to be frustrated.*
5. *Keep an open mind and learn.*

This is not intended to be an exhaustive set of guidelines or lessons but they do cover a wide range.

Different or Similar?

To a large extent, students are students throughout the world. In addition, educational systems and individual universities may appear to be similar, or logic might indicate they should be similar, in countries that are psychologically close and/or those coming from the same "womb." Often this is not the case. While the systems in New Zealand and Australia are similar in some ways with those in the United Kingdom, universities in the United States and Canada are not. There

appears to be a transformation going on with more and more business schools adopting features of the so-called North American model.

But, there are differences. Many non-U.S. programs are three years in length and are heavily business-oriented with little liberal arts education. Thus, students may be younger and not have the broad education background that we from the U.S. expect our students to have. In some cases, students may be older as secondary education lasts longer.

A major difference can be that students are used to listening. Thus, lecturing is what they expect. Attempts to get them into a discussion mode may shock them. Consequently, the case method may be difficult to implement, particularly when one approaches a case from the problem/alternatives/decision/defend-your-decision perspective rather than simply having students respond to specific questions. This can be true for graduate as well as undergraduate education. In short, a "cultural conflict" may arise over the discussion vs listen difference.

What to Expect

In the best of all possible worlds nothing unexpected would happen. Such a world would be totally deterministic. Higher education does not exist in this type of world. To illustrate the unexpected, there is a university where the student culture is such that when a major assignment is due in another class, most students quit attending all their classes for a few days before. In one instance, my marketing class with an enrollment of near 30 students had four people attend class; there was a case assignment due in a Finance class. The four who attended were not enrolled in the Finance class. This behavior was repeated throughout the term. Behavior like this is totally unexpected to the "outsider" from another culture and system of education.

The main point is that we all "grow up" in a system of higher education that puts certain demands upon us. We should not expect to find a teaching (and learning) environment that is the same as ours. Can we anticipate the unexpected? The answer is, only partially. If we do our homework and learn about the culture before we leave home we might be able to spot something as it is about to happen. Beyond that, we are engaged in a type of "on-the-job training," and we see things as they happen. This means that we must be adaptable

and prepared to be frustrated, have fun, and keep an open mind and learn from our experiences.

Be Adaptable

Being a university professor in a foreign country is interesting as there is a certain prestige attached to the profession in some countries. So, one must be adaptable to being looked upon with respect and admiration, something that is rare in the United States. At the same time, we must accept the fact that specific rank is a differentiating factor more so than in North America. A full professor in many European and Asian countries is the only person to be called Professor. Also, there is a distinction between a "regular" Professor and a Chair Professor (not necessarily endowed as in North America). In short, although the profession is "higher up" in the social order, there is a ranking-type class system operating within the profession.

Another example of the need for adaptability is in how a class is run – the discussion vs lecture approaches. When faced with a culture that is "listening" oriented we must adapt and lecture more than we like. At the same time, we should continue trying to develop a discussion mode of operation. By the end of a semester the strangeness of two cultures clashing usually has worn off and some discussion begins to evolve. Another technique that seems to work for case discussions is to have an oral presentation of the case by one or more class members. Then, the students will react to each other more so than to the "outsider" instructor. When asked a specific question a person will usually respond – perhaps the foreign instructor is viewed as an authority figure or there is respect for an elder being shown.

As with any human interaction, the parties must adapt to each other if the interaction is to be successful. Since there is communication between people from two cultures involved, the so-called Primary Message Systems (PMS) identified by Edward Hall (1980) come into operation. As the outsider, the educator must be willing and able to adapt to the culture that is being communicated through the PMS. And this must be done in spite of an often-stated comment by those hiring us – "we want you to do what you do at home." What this means is "do not lower your standards!" But, we often have to adapt our behavior to fit the host culture.

Adaptation in course structure, content and approach may also be necessary. Much of the

text, and research material, is published in the English language and is based on experiences from the U.S. The examples used involve companies and other institutions that are "foreign" to most of the students. Thus, as instructors we need to familiarize ourselves with local, national companies so our examples are meaningful to the students. In addition, the substance and concepts must be applicable. For example, in my first venture to Hong Kong. I was teaching the introductory Marketing Management course to MBA students. When the topic of Sales Management was being discussed, I was about to go over some models of sales force routing, when it suddenly hit me that in Hong Kong this was not a major problem given the size of the entity and its geographic structure. So, the topic was skipped! This illustrates the need for on-the-spot adaptation.

Another example comes from my teaching International Marketing in Turkey. One topic covered is means of payment for exports. Typically, I introduce bills of exchange (i.e., drafts, letters of credit) by starting with a normal, regular check, and then showing how the draft differs. While doing this, I noticed a class of bewildered students. It then dawned on me that being a strongly cash-oriented economy then, most – if not all students – had never had their own checking accounts. Again, on-the-spot adaptation was required.

Frustration

Being an educator anywhere can be frustrating at any time. Not only does the appearance of the unexpected and the need to be adaptable lead to frustration, but language as well can create some problems. Teaching in an English language program does not always mean that students can communicate easily in English. In business we often justify the need for using English as the language of instruction on the basis of it being the "universal" language of business. Local students come into our classes with varying levels of English skills. Some are very good while some are very bad. We should be used to this as we find a similar situation for our own native-language students; this, however, is a lack of ability to communicate properly rather than lacking understanding of the basic language.

Typically, students have to demonstrate their ability to handle English by passing some type of examination. Some language examinations leave "much to be desired," so we cannot always

assume that language is not a problem. Of concern is reading ability and oral and written communication. The latter is helped somewhat by the use of word processors. In Turkey, institutions with English as the language of instruction force students who cannot pass a language entrance examination into a one-year program in English.

Another aspect of the frustration that can arise is when the support staff do not speak English. This occurs with varying degrees of intensity. The worst that this causes, typically, is inconvenience as one might have to find a colleague – or a student – to help out or use a type of “sign language.”

Open Mind

As mentioned earlier, the educator who is going to teach in a foreign country must watch that he or she does not enter the experience by applying the self-reference criterion. This means keeping an open-mind and recognizing that perhaps there is something to be learned from another educational system. For example, in one European university in a program that is beyond the BA/BS but less than the MBA/MS one requirement is that each student prepares a seminar report which represents one school year's work. This paper is presented before a small group (10-12) of students with an educator/evaluator present. All people will have had the paper in advance. The “teacher” must in open seminar present his or her grade of the paper and defend the grade. Although this is illegal in the U.S. without the written consent of the student, it is most challenging to the educator, and definitely represents a learning experience. Naturally, there are other practices and procedures used in systems of higher education throughout the world that the “outsider” can benefit from. There is always something new that I learn with every foreign assignment that I attempt to use at home. Sometimes it works, othertimes it does not!

CONCLUSIONS

There are many benefits to be gained by teaching in a foreign environment, both professionally and personally. This essay has only scratched the surface. Living in a foreign environment is exciting. There are many new things and places to explore.

One thing that we all can do when teaching abroad is have fun. Try to relax and enjoy yourself. As educators, we all too often take ourselves too seriously and push our contribution to societal welfare way out of proportion. This is not to say

that what we do is unimportant. Rather, it means that we must realize that within the “big picture of life” our work is but a small segment or microdot. There is nothing written saying that having fun and educating people are incompatible.

Professionally, we often times have a chance to gain benefit from colleagues that we otherwise would not come into close contact with. There are seminars to attend and projects to develop. Personally, I make it a point to develop a research network within the country I am visiting, preferably with colleagues at the university I am at. Another potential benefit is the chance to visit other universities in different parts of the country or even neighboring countries. One can invite “himself/herself” to give a research seminar and/or lecture(s) and request only expenses as compensation. The worst that can happen is that a “no thank you” is given.

In closing, it can be said that working and living in a foreign environment teaching “local” students is a powerful, and perhaps the best way to internalize true internationalization and cultural differences within ourselves. By doing this we are much better able to adapt to and cope with the increasing multiculturalism we face in our classrooms at home. As stated by Hunt (1992, p. 310), marketing is a university discipline that aspires to be a professional discipline that has responsibilities to society, students, marketing practice, and the academy. This is what binds us to marketing and marketing education in other countries and cultures.

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THE INDEPENDENT CONTRACTOR PROBLEM: CAUSES AND SOLUTIONS

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Abstract

This special session discusses the issue of the independent contractor problem. This is the term we used to describe the situation where the individual faculty member views his or her association with the university as one of independent contractor rather than that of member of university's faculty. While this problem has existed for years and affects all ranks of faculty, it appears to be more prevalent today than at any other point in time. Virtually every administrator has been confronted by a faculty member that refuses to perform a service activity unless it "counts" at merit, annual evaluation, or promotion. These faculty members often ask, "Why should I?" and "What's in it for me?" They do not see these activities as part of their job nor do they see any value in performing them.

The expert panel we have assembled have a wealth of both faculty and administrative experience in dealing with the issue. They tried to provide some insights into the causes and solutions pertaining to this issue. A few of the issues discussed included:

1. Are more faculty adopting this model today than in the past? If so, why?
2. Is this really a problem or simply a reflection of the times?
3. Has the ability to work from home increased this problem?
4. What are the factors that increase the likelihood that this model of behavior will be adopted?
5. How are different schools dealing with the issue?

Gary McKinnon provided insight into the issue from an associate dean's point of view. He also shared some insights into what is done at BYU to alleviate this problem. In addition, he discussed some of his recent experiences in

Eastern Europe where faculty members have a different relationship with the university and each other than we have here in the U.S. Paul Hugstad discussed the history of the problem and some of the theoretical reasons for its increase. He also discussed the role that changing university missions and goals have played in exacerbating the problem. Doug Lincoln discussed the role that technology has played in allowing faculty members to be more self-sufficient and collaborate with researchers and teachers from outside the university. Shirley Stretch and James Peltier discussed the role of department chair in reducing (or increasing) the adoption of this work behavior. They also discussed the problem from the perspective of faculty members at schools where almost no faculty members live in the same location as the school. Richard Lapidus talked about some of the psychological theories relating to this behavior and explored possible solutions. He also provided some insights from his recent work in sales management where a number of independent contractors operate. Rich discussed the role rewards and superordinate goals play in alleviating this problem. James Cross looked at the issue from the social welfare perspective where there is a large literature on why people prefer to remain on welfare and let others do the work. Finally, Jack Schibrowsky discussed the topic from an adaptive consumer point of view building on his research in the area of how consumers adapt to the environment in which they exist. He argued that the increase in the adoption of this behavior is direct result of changes in the academic environment in which faculty members are asked to work.

While the panel provided some ideas and insights, this was a working session where attendees were encouraged to participate in the discussions.

INTERACTIVE TOOLS OF THE TRADE: EXPERIENTIAL EXERCISES TO ENHANCE TEACHING MARKETING

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ABSTRACT

Today's marketing educator functions in a dynamic environment. The subjects matter is changing rapidly. The students are changing as well.

Given this dynamism, teaching marketing requires continuous improvement and experimentation with fresh approaches. This proposed session consists of a panel of instructors who have over 150 years of combined experience but who continue to incorporate innovative approaches into the classroom. They recognize the need not only to experiment but that today's students benefit from interactive approaches and "learning by doing".

The tools they developed can be used across a variety of marketing classes like international marketing, marketing strategy, consumer behavior, sales management. Several of the panelists focus on teaching International Marketing and how to grapple with explaining cross-cultural differences to their classes. This is a particularly difficult concept because most students despite their varied ethnicity have little experience traveling abroad. They share exercises that have worked to broaden cross-cultural understanding. Others share how to utilize students as mentors thus increasing their ability to learn from each other.

In "Innovative Use of Group Dynamics in the Classroom," Dr. Hopkins discusses variations she used in the use of groups. In the course of ten weeks in the classroom, her students were assigned to three different groups to accomplish three different tasks. She shares her successes, failures and strategies for improvement.

In "Requiring Cross-Cultural Communication Utilizing New Media," Dr. Roxas describes a project she assigns students, using e-mail and the internet to communicate with students in another country. The main purpose is to force American students to try to communicate and cooperate with students from another culture, experience the trials and tribulations of differing terminology, time zones, sense of time, and priorities between cross-cultural partners.

In "Cross Cultural Show and Tell," Dr. Czepiec describes her experience of assigning students the task of teaching the international marketing class

something about a culture. She provides examples of the kinds of presentations her students developed. A team of students was required to demonstrate some activity that would teach the class about the culture of the country from which it came. The activity had to involve the rest of the class. Activities included teaching the students Latin dances; cook cactus; and prepare Vietnamese tea.

In "Revisiting The Case Method," Dr. Stauble shares his unique perspectives on the use of the case method. He first requires students to visit facilities engaged in international trade and to interact with decision makers. Students are exposed to the particular mind-set necessary for role-playing using the case method. He will describe how he requires the use of indicators to tie-in students' conclusions as well as the use of technology to provide a degree of currency in case analyses.

In "Actions Speak Louder Than Words," Dr. Barsellotti discusses an exercise she uses to teach students about cultural values. She starts with the students' American values and how they reflect those in their behavior. She then applies that to her discussion of cross-cultural value systems.

In "Organizing Student Run Trade Shows," Dr. Schaffer presents a class project in which an international marketing class puts on a trade show for marketing strategy class. Each student in the International Marketing class is assigned a country for which they prepare a trade show "exhibit" as if they were working for the country's economic development agency. Each student in the Marketing Strategy class must prepare a marketing plan for a product. They are expected to get their information from the trade show.

In "Using Student Mentors To Teach Sales Management," Mr. Taylor develops a new method for teaching sales management. It utilizes student teaching assistants to act as advisors to the project teams in the sales management class. The students are given the responsibility for revising the team project based on their interaction with students involved in the project. The students are thus better able to understand the role of teams in the sales/sales management process.

INTEGRATING MARKETING INTO THE ENTREPRENEURSHIP COURSE: THE ENTREPRENEUR'S MARKETING TOOLKIT

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ABSTRACT

The search for integration in the business school curriculum has been given additional thrust by entrepreneurs. In this paper, a framework is presented to facilitate integrating marketing into the entrepreneurship course. Managerial and educational implications are discussed.

In recent years, the search for entrepreneurial relevance in business schools has been given additional impetus. Entrepreneurs complain that academia often fails to meet their needs. Business schools are under attack for lacking relevance.

The purpose of this paper is to address several issues regarding entrepreneurship and marketing education. The focus is the development and presentation of the entrepreneur's marketing toolkit to assist students and entrepreneurs in recognizing opportunities and then developing marketing strategies for such opportunities.

The entrepreneur's marketing toolkit evolved from a course in Creating and Managing New Ventures at our business school. A primary objective of the course is to help students develop and write business plans for new ventures. The course was developed by and is team-taught by professors of Finance, Management, Marketing, Operations Research, and by Entrepreneurs in Residence.

In the early 1990s, the Marketing faculty realized that traditional marketing management courses were fine for preparing students for marketing positions in Fortune 500 companies, but did not equip the budding entrepreneur for challenges in creating and managing new ventures. Feedback from entrepreneurs confirmed this concern. A joint venture between Marketing faculty and Entrepreneurs in Residence at our business school

resulted in the entrepreneur's marketing toolkit to help entrepreneurs and students recognize opportunities and then develop responsive marketing strategies to exploit them. The objective was to develop a toolkit that has theoretical, empirical, and/or anecdotal support. The toolkit has evolved from several iterations by using the relevant marketing literature and by collecting feedback from entrepreneurs, Marketing faculty, and former students (now entrepreneurs).

Although we continue to teach the fundamentals of marketing planning, such as industry analysis, competitor analysis, customer analysis, company analysis, and marketing mix strategy, we have found that the toolkit augments the fundamental analyses.

The basic premise of the entrepreneur's marketing toolkit is that information about the marketplace has value to entrepreneurs in competitive markets. Such information can be used to identify opportunities and to frame responsive strategies. The information and analyses required to create value for the entrepreneur are: (1) identify opportunities; (2) have a vision and competitive angle; (3) target your customers; (4) communicate with your customers; (5) reach your customers; (6) know the numbers.

At this stage we are not claiming that our framework is complete. Our purpose is to initiate a process of identifying and categorizing various approaches, techniques, and methods that might be useful in guiding students in recognizing market opportunities and then developing responsive marketing strategies. Furthermore, the classification framework provides a means of organizing strategic decision-making activities into groups that are amenable to systematic investigation.

THE CHALLENGE OF CREATING INTEREST IN MARKETING AMONG GRADUATE ACCOUNTING STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

A major challenge of teaching marketing to Master of Accountancy students is to create interest in a topic not generally recognized as an important part of the accounting profession. Recent reports suggest that major changes in accounting education are needed and students need more breadth outside of specialized accounting topics. This paper discusses the use of student "current events presentations" in creating interest in marketing and providing opportunities of utilizing creative skills in a non-structured team project.

INTRODUCTION

A recently published report by the American Accounting Association (Albrecht and Sack 2000) suggests that accounting education must change if it is to remain relevant and add value to accounting students' curriculum. The major conclusions are as follows:

- We are not using the right methods to expose students to highly relevant concepts such as globalization, technology, and ethics.
- Our pedagogy often lacks creativity and does not develop the students' "ability to learn" skills.
- Our rule-based memorization, test-for-content, and prepare-for-certifying-exam model is inefficient, but more importantly it does not prepare students for the ambiguous business world they will encounter upon graduation.
- There is too much lecture and reliance on textbooks as course drivers.
- We are reluctant to develop creative types of learning, such as team work, assignments with real companies, case analysis, oral presentations, role playing, team teaching, technology assignments, videos, writing assignments, the involvement of business professionals in the classroom, and studying current events.

Within the past decade, over 35 states have changed CPA requirements to include graduate-level courses beyond the baccalaureate degree. While most programs require increased

specialization in accounting topics, few schools have changed curriculum to include broader management education to prepare students for future careers. The American Accounting Association report cited above will likely encourage additional schools to make significant curriculum changes in the near future.

The major challenge to those providing the broader management exposure while using less structured pedagogies is to develop a high level of interest and excitement about broader management topics to students who traditionally are focused on becoming excellent accountants. This paper should be of special interest to those teaching marketing to accounting students and to other non-marketing majors.

On the first day of the marketing class, composed of accounting students only, (August 1999) students were asked to submit written comments regarding their opinions about their enrollment in a marketing class. The following questions are representative of the responses given:

- Why do we have to take a marketing class?
- Why do auditors need to know about marketing?
- What does marketing have to do with being a tax accountant?
- Why don't marketing cases have specific answers and only one correct course of action?
- Why can't we focus more on accounting topics in the marketing class?

THE MASTERS OF ACCOUNTANCY PROGRAM AT BYU

An integrated accounting program was introduced at Brigham Young University in 1991. The program consists of a five-year educational experience that leads to both a Baccalaureate and Master of Accountancy (MAcc) degree. This program exceeds the educational CPA requirements of all states. The competition for admission to the program is intense; the average GPA for the entering students over the past five years is 3.7. All of the "Big Five" firms recruit graduates of the program for national placement. Over the past decade graduates have had virtually 100 percent placement. The Public

Accounting Report (July 31, 1999) ranked the program number 3 in the U.S. at both the graduate and undergraduate levels.

After completing basic business courses and general education courses at the end of the sophomore year, students enter into the "junior core," consisting of integrated and fairly rigorous accounting courses. During these classes, students are exposed to a wide range of accounting topics. During the "junior core" they are especially encouraged to "think like accountants."

THE MANAGEMENT CORE

Following the two-semester "junior core" experience, students are enrolled the following fall semester into 12 credit hours of MBA courses consisting of finance, operations, organizational behavior, and marketing. These courses are similar to the introductory courses in the full-time MBA program. At the completion of the one-semester broadening experience, students finish the next three semesters focusing on specialized accounting courses.

In the fall semester, 2000, one hundred sixty-three MAcc students were assigned to one of three sections for the management core (54 students per class). Students were with the same classmates for all classes. Students were randomly assigned to one of eleven groups in each section by the accounting office staff. Students were therefore members of the same study group for each of the four classes. Group assignments were made in each of the four classes, including written cases and homework assignments. In two courses the final examination was a group project.

As suggested above, in past years the accounting students often questioned the need for the non-accounting experience. The intensive use of the case method, with the resulting "there may not be a right answer" to the case analysis, is particularly frustrating to accounting students. They spend a whole year searching for and finding only one right answer to various accounting problems. The pedagogy employed in the management core courses was very different that that employed in the accounting classes.

THE CHALLENGE OF THE MARKETING CLASS

There are numerous studies that explore marketing education for accountants (Blanchette 1996). Other studies examine the role of marketing educators in designing appropriate courses. The content of the MAcc marketing course is similar to that offered in

the MBA program, and the major challenge was to create and maintain interest in the marketing topics when students are so focused on accounting.

The following objectives of the MAcc marketing course were developed and then shared with the accounting students the first day of class:

1. To learn the vocabulary of marketing and business
2. To learn marketing principles, models, and analysis
3. To provide opportunities of applying marketing principles, analysis, and models so that they become second nature throughout a professional career
4. To learn the essential elements of excellent marketing management, including the fit between marketing and gospel principles
5. To build confidence in the skills of problem identification, analysis, and decision making
6. To be aware of the changes in the environment and the impact on marketing practices
7. To appreciate the insight, experiences, and abilities of other classmates
8. To learn how marketing can be helpful throughout a professional career

The overall challenge is to change the thinking orientation of the accounting students. Mr. Jack Welch, CEO of General Electric, states "The secret of success is changing the way you think." The students spend years learning to think like accountants. The objective of the marketing class is to show them how to think like marketers.

To illustrate the change in thinking, a question is asked the first day of class: "When is a product sold?" Answers include the standard accounting responses such as; (1) when the title to the product is exchanged; (2) when money is transferred; (3) when it is recorded on the books as a sale, etc. After some probing questions students begin to look at other alternative answers to the question. Students begin to understand that a marketing response could include the response, "when the customer is satisfied." Students are told that even the marketing response to that question has evolved over time and will likely evolve in future years. Ten years ago the emphasis was on meeting the needs of customers, which then evolved into exceeding customer satisfaction, which further evolved into the notion of first anticipating customer needs and then exceeding their satisfaction.

METHODOLOGY

A questionnaire was administered the first day in the marketing course in August 2000.

The questionnaire was designed to provide a more quantitative data than had been gathered the previous year. One hundred sixty-three students responded to ten statements, with (1) representing "strongly agree" and (7) representing "strongly disagree." The results are as follows:

- Marketing activities are less ethical than accounting activities 4.01
- I believe that a marketing class should be required of all accounting students 2.39
- Marketing topics are probably more interesting than accounting topics 3.01
- I expect to receive an "A" grade in this class 1.54
- I believe the marketing class should be an elective offering for accounting students 4.53
- If the marketing class were an elective course I would probably not be enrolled 4.64
- I look forward to learning new marketing principles, models, and ideas 1.91
- I have heard positive things about the marketing class from students enrolled last year 3.83
- I am excited to be enrolled in the marketing class 2.33
- I believe a marketing class will benefit me throughout my professional career 1.86

There were no statistically significant differences between the response rates of accounting students enrolled in the three emphases (tax, professional, and information technology).

A PREFERENCE FOR STRUCTURE

Student feedback from the previous year suggested that the MAcc students preferred to be told what to do and how to do assignments. For over one year they were exposed to daily accounting homework where they were taught that all accounting problems have a "right answer." Because there is not always a "right answer" to marketing cases, most MAcc students were uncomfortable with the case method. To help alleviate some discomfort, reading material and several approaches to case preparation were provided. The instructor provided as little guidance

as possible so those students would struggle with the case method. The "right answer" was not the objective of the course. Rather, the emphasis was placed on problem identification and analysis. Course evaluation (discussed later in the paper) suggests that students became more accustomed to the unstructured approaches as the semester progressed.

The grading system for the course was intentionally flexible and somewhat ambiguous. In many of the accounting courses a point system is used, with daily or weekly feedback. Students liked knowing their standing in the class from the beginning to the end of the semester. Feedback was provided in the marketing class, but only in relation to positive comments on performance and suggestions for improvement; feedback did not relate to expected course grades. Again, this supported the objective of helping students understand that professional success does not rest on a point system.

The following statement was included in the course outline:

How many points do you need to be successful in your employment? How many points are needed to be successful in your marriage or family? Will you receive daily or weekly feedback throughout life to measure your performance? Many students prefer a specific point system, but it just doesn't work that way, even in accounting firms. Now that you are moving from an undergraduate experience to entering into the MBA Core classes, it provides an opportunity to move from a point system to a less structured grading system. I am happy to provide feedback along the way, but not related to grades. You are encouraged to come to my office and visit as often as you care to.

THE CURRENT EVENTS PROJECT

During the past decade there have been numerous articles that outline the advantages of team projects in marketing classes (Williams, Beard, and Rymer 1991; Deeter-Schmetz and Ramsey 1996; Haws and Wotruba 1990; Gaidis and Andrews 1990; Bacon, Stewart, and Stewart-Belle 1998). Such articles, along with the teaching experience of the instructor, suggest that a team approach should form the structure to increase interest in marketing topics among graduate accounting students.

In addition to the team approach, the instructor was interested in creating a high level of creativity among

the MAcc Students. The Albrecht-Sack report strongly suggested the need to develop opportunities for accounting students to develop creative skills (Albrecht and Sack 2000). Students were given much flexibility and very little guidance with only the following information provided about the current events presentations.

The current event presentations will be evaluated by the following.

1. The topics should be current and of great interest to the class members
2. Creativity will play a major role in determining the product grade
3. The presentations should show extensive use of primary and secondary research
4. Electronic presentation aids (power point, videos, the network, etc.) should be used
5. The topic should relate to marketing in some way
6. All members of the group should participate in the oral presentation
7. Presentations are limited to 20 minutes

A few examples of the current events projects in 2000 include:

- Marketing planning for the 2002 Winter games
- Marketing techniques used to promote professional wrestling
- Monitoring the opposition to the opening of a new Super Wal-Mart in a rural community
- Marketing new colors for the athletic teams at BYU
- Examining the marketing implications of the retirement of LaVell Edward, BYU football coach for the past 29 years
- Marketing of various e-businesses
- Marketing of a new SUV by Saturn
- Examining the effect of a new regional shopping mall in the area
- Advertising at the 1999 Superbowl
- The current marketing programs of CPA firms
- Advertising plans for the 2002 Olympic games
- Marketing the XFL

Every project utilized power-point presentations (or similar software) and most were accompanied by video, internet connections, and various displays. Class members received numerous gifts and tokens related to the presentation topic.

THE SUCCESS OF THE CURRENT EVENTS PROJECT

Qualitative feedback has been gathered since the introduction of the current events assignment two years ago. An evaluation of the course evaluations

reveals that although the majority of students did not mention the current events project specifically, all comments formally made by students about the project were positive. No negative comments were received on the forms. The 35 comments (143 student evaluation forms were submitted) regarding the current events project are represented by the following:

The current events presentations were very interesting. (8)

I enjoyed working on the group projects, especially the current events project. (13)

The current events projects were really fun. (8)

It was fun to use our creativity when developing the projects (6).

On numerous occasions students mentioned the current events project raised their interest in marketing. The informal office discussions were always positive and no negative comments were made during the past two years of using this approach.

In order to gather more quantitative data, a questionnaire was administered at the mid-point of Fall Semester 2000, with the following results (1="Strongly Disagree", 5="Strongly Agree"):

- The current events projects are interesting and informative. 4.07
- Working in teams is a major benefit of the current events project. 4.42
- Creativity is an essential part of the current events project. 4.35
- I wish we were provided with more direction for the project. 2.35
- The project has caused me to become more interested in marketing 3.67
- Class members look forward to the current events presentations 3.89

It appears that the accounting students value creativity and teamwork. A similar questionnaire will be distributed after the completion of the semester and responses will be compared to those provided by this survey.

IMPLICATIONS

Using team projects in marketing classes is not a new idea. However, when teaching accounting students it appears that current events projects are a useful way to provide for (1) team work (2) creativity, and (3) increased interest in marketing topics. Some

students were able to gain new insights on how marketing can assist in an accounting career. It also appears to be a good way to provide opportunities for developing creative skills and escaping the "rules" of how to do a project. A side benefit of the current events project was that the instructor learned a lot about the current changes in business, especially in the technical environment and in new e-businesses.

Several of the concerns raised in the Albrecht-Sack report are addressed by the current events presentations.

- Students are given an ambiguous assignment to which they must provide their own structure
- Creativity is encouraged in both the topic and the manner in which it is presented to the class
- Work is performed in teams, and all members of the team are encouraged to participate in the oral presentation
- Teams effectively use technology (power point, the inter-net, video, etc.)
- The topics are very current, dealing with events happening within the past few months

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USING THE THEORY OF CONSTRAINTS AS A CROSS FUNCTIONAL TEACHING TOOL

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ABSTRACT

The Theory of Constraints (TOC) (Goldratt, 1988) is introduced as a classroom tool for cross functional exercises. TOC might be viewed as a global managerial methodology that helps managers focus on the most critical issues by emphasizing the importance of a system's constraints and their exploitation according to the goals of the organization. After discussing the performance measures used by Goldratt, we present the 5 step process used for decision making in the TOC. Next, we present a classroom exercise that uses the TOC approach for evaluating a series of decisions with different functional constraints including production, marketing and finance. We conclude with a homework exercise that is used to reinforce the classroom presentation.

INTRODUCTION

Most business textbooks suggest a generic model for decision makers that includes a 5 step process similar to the one given in Figure 1. However, while this approach offers a reasonable description of how decision makers might go about making a decision, it suffers from a number of shortcomings particularly in a cross functional setting. The first step in this process provides no guidance for how decision makers should recognize the existence of a problem. Furthermore, it seems to imply that there may be times when no problems exist. In addition, no performance measures are incorporated to guide students on how to select a course of action from the list of alternatives generated. Finally, the model seems to imply that implementation of a decision ends the process. This paper outlines an alternative model for teaching about decision making that can be applied in any of the functional teaching areas in business and is an excellent alternative for cross-functional teaching. An example used by the author in a team taught, cross-functional, curriculum is used to illustrate the approach.

THEORY OF CONSTRAINTS

Goldratt (1988) has suggested a more comprehensive and intuitively appealing approach that he refers to as the Theory of Constraints (TOC). TOC emerged as a result of Goldratt's earlier work on a software system referred to as Optimized Production Technology or

OPT (see, for example, Goldratt (1984) and Goldratt and Fox (1988)). The software was intended to assist managers in making decisions about production mix, equipment scheduling, and capacity. While the software proved successful commercially, Goldratt became frustrated by what he viewed as a lack of decision making skills in many of the managers from client firms, and turned his attention to innovative approaches for teaching decision making in a cross functional setting. His first effort, a novel about manufacturing, was a radical departure from traditional management education. The novel, *The Goal* (Goldratt and Cox, 1988), has been an enormous success and is used in many accounting and production/operations classes around the world. Subsequently, Goldratt has written a number of other novels, toured with an acting company, and opened the Avraham Goldratt Institute. More recently, Goldratt has funded efforts to introduce TOC in elementary schools. His foundation has funded the non-profit TOC for Education Foundation (<http://www.tocforeducation.com/>).

TOC might be viewed as a global managerial methodology that helps managers focus on the most critical issues by emphasizing the importance of a system's constraints and their exploitation according to the goals of the organization. A constraint may be broadly defined as anything that limits a system from achieving higher performance relative to its goal. There are four different types of constraints - physical constraints within the business, a supply constraint, a market constraint (the market will not buy all we can sell) and policy constraints, the way things are done, are probably the most important and least understood.

The goal of any for-profit organization should be to *make money now and in the future*. However, Goldratt realized that this goal did not offer sufficient guidance to managers and so proposed three performance measures for evaluating alternatives that differed markedly from those used in practice (Goldratt and Fox (1988)). A managerial action should result in either (1) an increase in throughput, (2) a reduction in inventory, (3) a reduction in operating expenses, or some favorable combination of these global operational measures. However, the definitions that Goldratt and Fox (1986) have developed for these measures are somewhat different than those that are typically used in manufacturing. Throughput is defined as the rate at

which the system generates sales not production. If a firm produces to stock, throughput is zero until the goods are actually sold. Inventory is defined as all the money that the system invests in purchasing things it intends to sell. Notice that this definition of inventory excludes the added value of labor and overhead and includes capital items like furniture and equipment. Operating expense is defined as all the money the system spends in order to turn inventory into throughput. Defined this way, operating expense would include all cash outlays exclusive of material expenditures like direct labor and overhead. These performance measures run counter to traditional full absorption cost accounting measures, and more closely resemble decision making using marginal rather than average cost criteria (Noreen, et al. 1995)

The core of the TOC philosophy consists of the five step process outlined in Figure 2 (Goldratt, 1990). The first step helps students to think about a business as a system of interdependent functions. It helps them look at a business as a chain - with many interdependent links. All a manager has to do is to look for the constraining function of the business - the weakest link. There will always be one. What is the most frequent response to a physical constraint? Often it is to invest in more capacity. The second step then gets students to focus on "what decision(s) must I take to exploit the constraint?" This decision will, if implemented, ensure that the output of the system is maximized. To implement the exploit decision we must now subordinate everything else to the above decision (Goldratt's third step). This is a huge paradigm shift for many managers. How often will a sales director subordinate to manufacturing, or vice versa? How often does the constraining resource determine what will be done? If the constraint is still in the same place after it has been fully exploited, it is time to elevate capacity by investing money (the fourth step). Only now after constraints have been fully utilized in generating throughput does one know they are investing in the right place.

When a business adds capacity or breaks market constraints through segmenting or price discrimination, the whole situation changes - all the things a manager knows about a business need to be re-evaluated. The last of Goldratt's five focusing steps is simply: If during any of the above steps the constraint is broken go back to step one. BUT do not let your inertia (your paradigms about your business system) become the systems constraint. This caution is extremely important. Managers must re-evaluate all their assumptions about the system or risk expensive

mistakes.

COURSE EXAMPLE

Our faculty team has used a number of different exercises to illustrate TOC. The setting for this exercise is our integrated business curriculum (IBC). The IBC is an 18 credit hour curriculum that team taught by faculty members from five different functional areas and makes use of a comprehensive case. A series of course modules has been developed which is cross functional in nature and focuses on major business decision areas such as product and process planning (see Stover et al. 1997 for a more complete discussion of the IBC program). The program makes use of a year long integrative case firm that serves as the basis for the course example given in Exhibit 1.

Classroom Preparation

Students are given approximately 1 month to read *The Goal* prior to classroom discussion in our *Business Operating Decisions* course module. Our faculty team then spends 3 class hours introducing TOC and developing a case scenario for our case firm. In addition, our marketing faculty member spends approximately 2 classroom hours on price discrimination. Finally, our finance team member discusses the use of capital budgeting for making capacity expansion decisions. The combination of these lectures sets the stage for our case exercise.

Case Firm Background

Micron Technology, Inc. (MTI) was our case firm for the last academic year. The case is introduced in the fall semester and students are required to develop an industry analysis as a fall semester project. The project provides students with an in depth look at the case firm that faculty build on throughout the year. One of MTI's subsidiaries produces custom printed circuit boards for a variety of customers in a batch operation and serves as the focus for the exercise given in Exhibit 1.

TOC Classroom Lecture and Discussion

Students are first introduced to the basics of TOC including the general 5 step process and performance measures. Next, we introduce the product/process information for our case as outlined in Exhibit 2. The information is an adaptation of a problem presented in *The Haystack Syndrome* (Goldratt, 1990). Students teams are then asked to address the following

question: "How much profit can Micron make in this market?" Even after 3 hours of lecture on TOC, students typically begin by using traditional cost accounting measures as outlined below.

Product: MME Board
Sales Price per unit: \$90
Material Cost per unit: \$45
Gross Margin: \$45
Direct Labor: 60 minutes

Product: XKU Board
Sales Price per unit: \$100
Material Cost per unit: \$40
Gross Margin: \$60
Direct Labor: 50 minutes

Their analysis typically ignores capacity constraints at Resource B and students are led to the conclusion that they can make a profit of \$1500 after subtracting operating expenses of \$6000 from the \$7500 in possible revenues. Next, we ask the student teams to observe the capacity constraint, and ask them to reconsider their answer. On the second pass students use the products' gross margin and typically respond that MTI should produce as much of the XKU product as possible, and allocate remaining capacity to the MME board. This time they are led to the conclusion that Micron will lose \$300 on the product mix of 50 XKUs and 60 MMEs.

At this point we start a systematic analysis using the 5 step TOC process to arrive at a conclusion that is exactly the opposite of the students' intuition. In step 1 we identify Resource B as the capacity constraint. Next, in order to "exploit" the constraint we calculate the throughput (sales revenues less material cost) per minute of time required on the constraint resource as follows.

MME Boards

Throughput per unit = Sales Price - Material Cost

(TPT) $\$90 - 45 = \45

Bottleneck Time required = 15 minutes

TPT per Bottleneck minute =

$\$45 / 15 \text{ min} = \$3 / \text{min}.$

The correct answer is to produce as many MMEs as possible and to allocate remaining capacity to the XKU product. This produces a product mix of 100 MMEs and 30 XKUs resulting in a net profit of \$300.

Next the Finance faculty member discusses how to analyze capital investments to break or elevate the system constraint using net present value and capital budgeting techniques. We motivate this section of the material by asking the following question:

XKU Boards

Throughput per unit = Sales Price - Material Cost

(TPT) $\$100 - 40 = \60

Bottleneck Time required = 30 minutes

TPT per Bottleneck minute =

$\$60 / 30 \text{ min} = \$2 / \text{min}.$

How much would you be willing to invest in an engineering idea that increases the direct labor by 1 minute?

Generally, the students respond saying that the engineer should be fired or ignored. We then point out that if the idea produces savings in the time required at the resource constraint by offloading work to another non-constraint resource, the investment may have merit. We use gain in throughput as the basis for cash flows used in the net present value analysis and conclude that the investment should be made.

Finally, we motivate the homework assignment given in Exhibit 2 by concluding with the last step in the TOC analysis- *Do not let inertia become the constraint.* Now

that the resource constraint has been broken, an analysis of marketing alternatives should be considered. Goldratt (1994) focuses on market constraints in his follow-up novel to *The Goal*, another novel entitled, *It's Not Luck*. In this novel, Goldratt examines marketing strategies for breaking market oriented constraints. In particular, he discusses price discrimination and niche markets, service after sale, special product features, and promotes an extended product view similar to that found in most introductory marketing texts (see Berkowitz et al., 2000). We introduce the total product view given in Figure 3 to generate ideas about how to exploit and then elevate the market constraint.

Students are then asked to complete the exercise given in Exhibit 2 as a homework exercise. In this exercise, Micron's sales force has used price discrimination to expand the company's market overseas to Japan and students are asked once again to decide on the product mix that Micron should use to allocate capacity to its markets. The additional market demand for Micron's products puts pressure on production resources and again result in a capacity constraint starting the TOC cycle again.

Student and Faculty Reactions

We have been very encouraged by student participation in this exercise. Students thoroughly enjoy reading *The Goal* and become immersed in the characters and storyline. During the course of the semester we rarely hear students ask: "When we will get to Chapter X in the text? I really enjoyed reading that material." However, it is not uncommon to have our students ask about material they have read in *The Goal* prior to coverage in class. Students also find the TOC framework intuitive and easy to transport to other classes.

Our faculty team has found this exercise and the TOC methodology in general to be one of the better integrative vehicles that we use during the semester. The material that we present would be hard to include in a conventional course setting due to the difficulty in coordinating the schedules in three or more classes (i.e., marketing, finance, and operations management). In addition, it is helpful to have a champion for this exercise who has read more extensively about the TOC and is willing to structure the exercise for a given case firm.

SUMMARY

The Theory of Constraints offers an excellent methodology for making business decisions. Students generally enjoy reading about this approach in *The Goal* and perform well on subsequent exam questions that reflect the material. In addition, TOC promotes the cross-functional implications that decisions in one functional area have on other areas.

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A JOINT U.S. – CANADIAN APPROACH TO TEACHING CONTEMPORARY NAFTA ISSUES IN MBA PROGRAMS

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The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) is the most significant trade agreement ever signed by each of its three participants: the United States, Canada, and Mexico. It is also the first time developed nations (U.S. & Canada) have negotiated a trade agreement with a less advanced country (Mexico.)

From an international trade perspective, NAFTA has been a huge success for all three members. According to the Office of the US Trade Representative, forty percent of U.S. trade now goes through NAFTA. The United States and Canada have the world's largest trading relationship. Similarly, Mexico has surpassed Japan as a U.S. trading partner, even though Japan's GDP is 10 times that of Mexico.

According to the Mexican Embassy and others, U.S. criticism of NAFTA can be attributed to the fact that the pact was oversold to the American public. The same may be said about the more recent congressional votes on China trade. During the NAFTA debate, it was argued that the U.S. would gain a million jobs. In fact, a follow up study by UCLA claims that the U.S. actually lost 500,000 jobs to Mexico, and 700,000 jobs to Canada.

Developing a Joint U.S. Canadian Travel Course

The importance of NAFTA is discussed in a variety of business school courses; for example, economics, marketing, international business, and finance. The coverage ranges from brief mention in basic courses to several lectures in courses with significant international content. In marketing courses, NAFTA is typically integrated into the international marketing coverage.

The Walton College of Business Administration of the University of Arkansas – Fayetteville (UAF) has invested considerable faculty and administration time, as well as money, in an array of international initiatives. The generosity of the late Sam Walton's family funded many of these programs.

Three years ago, the UAF teamed up with the University of Quebec at Montreal (UQAM) to offer a joint NAFTA-based travel course for MBA students. In the most recent offering, the author of this paper

taught the course jointly with Roy Toffoli, a UQAM marketing professor. UAF's and UQAM's Mexican counterpart was DUXX, a highly selective master's only program based in Monterrey.

For the first two years, only UAF MBA students participated in the program. However, UQAM professors lectured on the Canadian perspective of NAFTA and arranged travel events within Canada. Similarly, DUXX arranged the Monterrey itinerary.

This past year both UAF and UQAM had students in the NAFTA course (4 UAF; 3 UQAM). DUXX continued as the cooperating Mexican institution. Unfortunately, because of the tightly scheduled nature of the DUXX program, no Mexican students were able to participate.

Both U.S. and Canadian students received financial support for their studies. In the case of UAF, this support consisted of airfare, hotels, and a limited number of taxi and airport transfer expenses. UAF students also got academic credit. For the UAF students, this 3 ½ week travel course was the end of their MBA program.

Setting the Academic Requirements of the Course

As if 3 ½ weeks of constant travel including several 12 hour days is not enough, UAF MBA students were required to prepare four papers for the NAFTA program:

-- Background questionnaires – developed by the author -- on Canada and Mexico. These papers included questions related to each nation's history, geography, politics, legal issues, and commerce.

-- A daily log of what the group did. These diaries included notes on what various speakers and lecturers discussed.

-- A final report outlining the student's views on the future of NAFTA. Readers might be interested to note that these final reports reflected how the student processed the information provided in our various briefings. For instance, the students quickly dismissed some of the trade arguments that were offered. A particularly interesting one was the

Canadian trade ministry's speculation that Columbia and the U.K. might be offered membership in some future NAFTA expansion.

Scheduling Processes

The first questions facing instructors in such a course concern: Who does what; and when do we do it. In the first instance, Professor Toffoli handled the Montreal and Ottawa itineraries, while this author was responsible for class time in Washington, D.C. and Fayetteville, Arkansas. Both instructors coordinated with DUXX for the Monterrey segment of the course.

Let me offer a couple of observations for schools considering similar programs:

1. It probably helped that both Dr. Toffoli and this author were marketing professors. In short, we readily agreed on what was significant, and what was not.
2. And undertaking of this nature would have been impossible in pre-E-mail days. It was not uncommon to receive six or more NAFTA related e-mails in a single day.
3. Scheduling weekends and holidays can present some interesting problems. In our case, we used these days for travel days and cultural visits.
4. Hotels are particularly important to students. The UAF students cited "business centers" with free e-mail as essential.

Canadian Briefings

The Canadians had several schedule conflicts; classes, academic conferences, and Victoria Day (a national holiday). To accommodate these concerns, it was decided to start the program at UQAM. Arriving on Victoria Day allowed the two groups to meet socially, go on a city tour, and the like.

The primary academic content of the Montreal itinerary was 7-8 hours of lecture by UQAM professors, including Professor Toffoli. This immediately got the students into the unique perspective of Quebec. The UAF students found this material very enlightening. The author's students were fascinated to learn tidbits like:

-- Texas can fit into Quebec seven times.

-- Quebec's population (24% of Canada) is roughly 80% French language only, outside of metropolitan Montreal.

Afternoons in Montreal were spent on plant visits. These included a small wood production company, a cement company that now successfully exports pre-cast concrete into the U.S. thanks to the 40 percent exchange differential. The other plant visit was to a high tech company that was the world's dominant producer of flight simulators.

The class also visited the Montreal-based Commission for Economic Cooperation (CEC), an international agency set up through NAFTA. At least from a U.S. perspective, the original intent of the CEC was to monitor environmental standards. However, CEC now seems to have suffered from what we sometimes call "mission creep." For instance CEC is now promoting "shade grown" coffee for small scale farmers and the development of elaborate environmental data bases.

The Canadian itinerary also included a day in Ottawa. The highlight of this stop was four briefings at the Canadian Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade. These briefings were very detailed. For instance, they involved various trade controversies between the U.S. and Canada. Soft woods is one such instance. Overall, these briefings clearly illustrated Canada's strong support of NAFTA as well as the government's future concerns about Canadian-U.S.- Mexican trade.

Washington, D.C. Briefings

Summer is a busy time in Washington, D.C. There are a lot of demands on the city's bureaucrats. It seems like everyone wants a briefing. Persistence paid off, and the classes benefited from some excellent briefings and discussion. The Mexican and Canadian embassies – symbolically the only embassies on Pennsylvania Avenue – were particularly noteworthy.

Our first stop was the U.S. International Trade Commission. USITC is an independent federal agency. Along with conducting economic studies for Congress, USITC enforces U.S. trade laws such as those involving dumping, countervailing duties, support surges, and patent infringement.

Other visits included the Office of the U.S. Trade Representative (USITR), the International Monetary Fund, and the Office of Arkansas Congressman Asa Hutchinson. The congressman's office was

particularly helpful. For instance, this author was unsuccessful – despite numerous efforts – to get a USTR briefing. Later, Representative Hutchinson's staffers secured an excellent briefing for us. For some reason, however, they were not able to get us passes for the White House tour.

Fayetteville Briefings

For the UAF students, this was an excellent break after two weeks on the road. There were lots of jokes about laundry and the like. By contrast, the Canadians were just in the middle of their travel.

The classroom component of the Fayetteville segment was the author's lecture attempting to tie all of our earlier briefings together. Ideally, this would have occurred at the start of the course rather than at the midpoint.

The students also had excellent briefings at Wal-Mart, Tyson, and Procter & Gamble – all of whom have significant operations in Mexico and Canada. All of these firms provided top executives with considerable NAFTA experience. Overall, the objective was to begin to switch our study orientation toward Mexico.

Monterrey Briefings

Naturally, Professor Toffoli and I were disappointed that DUXX was unable to send students to our study tour. But, this premier Mexican business graduate program was a most hospitable partner, even providing drivers for our study group. The Dean's office set up briefings by the U.S. Consul and three Mexican firms. One – a Canadian firm – was a maquiladora producing Dell Computers among other products.

DUXX also allowed our students to visit one of their classes; all of which are conducted in English. DUXX also arranged a social event for the three student groups to mingle.

Since the conclusion of this class, the DUXX Dean invited the author of this paper to teach a two week class in Monterrey. UAF and UQAM are most grateful for the cooperation of our colleagues at DUXX.

A Concluding Comment

Courses of this nature have a steep learning curve. The bulk of the work is in arranging briefings that

would be appropriate to the study topic. Good notes, reliable personal contacts, adaptability, and continuity are essential to pulling a program of this nature together.

ETHNIC COMPOSITION AND PERFORMANCE IN MARKETING STUDENT GROUP PROJECTS

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ABSTRACT

Students often complain that they have more difficulties working with students of different ethnic heritage in group projects. However, a comparison between the group project grades and individual work grades of 518 students in 96 international marketing project groups over five years reveals that student group performance does not appear to be adversely affected by the ethnic mix of group members.

INTRODUCTION

Universities in Canada have a substantial number of visible ethnic minority students. In the author's Faculty 15 years ago, there were about 15 to 20% of students being visible minorities. Over the years, this percentage has steadily increased, and has now doubled to between 30 and 40%. Among visible minority students, about one-half is of Chinese ethnic origin (from China, Hong Kong, Singapore and Taiwan), one quarter of other Asian origin (from India, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, and the Philippines) and the remaining one-quarter of Latin American, African, Eastern European and Middle-Eastern origins.

Fifteen years ago when the author first joined the Faculty, most of the visible ethnic minority students were foreign students. But today this is no longer the case. Instead, the majority of visible minority students in the classroom are naturalized or second generation Canadians who are registered as local students. In Canada visible ethnic minorities constitute a substantial proportion of the population. Because of an open door policy, a large number of new immigrants were admitted into Canada in the 1970s and 1980s, and this contributed to the rapid increase in ethnic minority students in Canadian universities in the last several years. On top of that, the drive toward more internationalization in its curriculum and in its student population has resulted in the author's Faculty getting into formal student exchange programs with close to a dozen foreign universities in the last five years. In the course instructed by the author (International Marketing) about 10 to 15% of students are foreign exchange students.

The presence of so many visible minority students in the course has drawn the author's interest on how

well they work together with local students in group projects. The purpose of this paper is to examine whether student group project performance is affected by the ethnic mix of group members.

BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE

Group projects are widely used in teaching marketing courses. As an instruction tool group projects have certain benefits and limitations, and these have been well discussed in marketing, education and socio-psychology literature. There have also been numerous studies comparing group behavior of individuals with different socio-cultural backgrounds. For example, when compared to individual behavior, group productivity in groups from collectivist societies is found to be either the same or higher (Earley 1989, 1993; Gabrenya, Latane and Wang 1983). In contrast, compared to individual productivity, group productivity is diminished in groups formed in individualistic cultures. Even within individualistic cultures, individual group members' inclinations toward collectivism or individualism affect intra-group cooperation. Wagner's (1995) study using U.S. students found that differences among individual students with respect to their individualism-collectivism have both main and moderator effects on cooperation in those groups. Students attending competitive business schools in individualistic cultures may lack the necessary interpersonal skills and cooperative attitudes needed to make group work successful (Sutton 1995). While diverse groups may produce higher quality solutions, these groups generally have greater interpersonal and communication problems to overcome (Kirchmeyer 1993). Weighing the pros and cons of diversity in groups, Bass (1980) suggests that if a task requires a single skill, then a homogeneous group will perform better. However, if a group's task is more complex and requires multiple skills and creativity, a heterogeneous group is preferable.

There is also no shortage of discussions on what affects group project quality and how to improve group performance. Because group project quality is strongly affected by problems of specialization of labor and collective actions, McCorkle et al. (1999) suggest that instructors should re-examine the effectiveness of group projects in developing discipline related knowledge and skills. To better monitor group project work, they recommend the use of interim reports,

individually assigned roles, personal contribution files, progress reports, peer evaluations and time sheets. As to how individual members' characteristics are related to group project quality, the study by Bacon, Stewart and Stewart-Belle (1998) reveals that group size and gender diversity have little or no effect on group performance. Among graduate student groups, those with moderate amount of national diversity outperform those with high or no national diversity. Also, and not surprisingly, group performance can be predicted by the average ability of the group members.

In the study by Bacon, Stewart and Stewart-Belle (1998), the second hypothesis states that: "The relationship between nationality diversity and team performance will follow an inverted U-shaped pattern where teams with a moderate level of nationality diversity will outperform teams with high or no nationality diversity." This hypothesis is based upon the beliefs that increased diversity offers direct experiential benefits to students by exposing them to different points of views (Mello 1993), by enabling them to have a multicultural experience (Williams, Beard and Rymer 1991) and by generating more alternatives to consider in problem solving. According to Bacon, Stewart and Stewart-Belle (1998), this hypothesis is supported at the graduate level, but not at the undergraduate level. Among the graduate groups, a slight level of diversity (with about 17% foreign students) results in greater team performance than does a high level of diversity, while no diversity at all (0% foreign students) is associated with a lower performance level than a moderate or high level of diversity. A high level of diversity (e.g., 100% international) is not significantly associated with higher or lower performance.

Bacon, Stewart and Stewart-Belle's (1998) graduate sample consists of 49 groups of 122 graduate students over a 7-year period. This averages only 2.5 students per group, 7 groups a year. Because of the small numbers, one may question how valid are the findings. Also missing in the analysis is the students' age, work experience and family status that may conceivably have a greater impact on their behavior and attitudes in graduate student groups than nationality or gender. Finally, 'nationality' is not a useful variable in this context in the U.S. environment. The U.S. students, though they are of the same nationality, may be of different ethnicity. It would be somewhat dubious to assume that they have the same individual behavior and attitudes when they work in groups because they are of U.S. nationality.

The examination in this paper is parallel to but not the same as the one by Bacon, Stewart and Stewart-Belle (1998) in their second hypothesis. Instead of

'nationality', what is examined here is 'ethnicity'. The belief is that, if at all, what influences one's work attitude, behavior and effectiveness in groups within a national environment is 'ethnicity', not 'nationality'. This is particularly true in the Canadian environment. Canada has a multicultural society and, unlike the U.S., encourages its people to maintain their ethnic cultural heritage and does not adopt policies to enhance or enforce cultural assimilation.

SAMPLES

The samples used in the analysis consist of 518 students in project groups in an international marketing course taught by the author from 1995/6 to 1999/2000. The group project forms part of the course requirements. With few exceptions, all students in this course are final year students in the B.Comm. program and they are quite homogenous in age, work experience and family status. Though the group project requirement details changed somewhat during the years, it is essentially an examination of the business environment in a selected foreign country, its prospect as a market for Canadian products, and the marketing mix considerations for Canadian companies marketing to/in that country. The work requires mostly library research. Field work is not required though the groups are not precluded from interviewing government officials or company executives who are familiar with the foreign country or have had experience marketing to/in that country. The group project constitutes 25% of the final grade. Students self-select their group mates, but the instructor has the right to assign students to groups when they cannot form their own, or when it is necessary to make up a group.

In the author's institution, senior marketing courses have an enrollment cap of 35 students. Each group is supposed to have five members each. Because the actual class size may be more or fewer than 35 and students may drop out of the course after project groups are formed, some groups have ended up with having four or six members, and a few with only three members. In order that group performance comparisons are not affected by group size, only project groups with either five or four members are included in the sample. (In the study by Bacon, Stewart and Stewart-Belle (1998), group size does not seem to have a significant effect on group performance; but in their sample of 221 groups, there are 39 groups with only one member, and 51 groups with just two members.) The samples used in the analysis are given in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Samples

	Class Sections	Students	Project Groups
95/96	3	98	17
96/97	3	89	18
97/98	3	113	18
98/99	2	72	19
99/00	4	146	29
Total	15	518	96

Note: There are a total of 105 project groups, but 9 groups are excluded in the sample because they have more than five or less than four group members.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In analysing the association between group project performance and the ethnic mix of group members, the project groups are classified into three types -- local student groups (LSGs) with all members being of Western European origin mostly locally born and educated, mixed ethnic groups (MEGs) having at least one visible ethnic minority member in the group, and ethnic minority groups (EMGs) with all group members being of visible ethnic minorities. The nationality of the ethnic minority members is not considered, and there is no distinction made between MEGs with one, two or three ethnic minority members. In the final sample of 96 project groups, 29 are LSGs, 54 are MEGs and 13 are EMGs.

In order to eliminate the effect of intellectual qualities and abilities of individual members on group work performance, a weighted group performance score is used in comparing group performance. This score is obtained by dividing the group project mark by the average of the individual members' marks in quizzes, mid-term test and the final examination that together comprise 65% of the final grade. (The remaining 10% of the final grade is for attendance and participation.) For example, if the average of the individuals' marks is 80% and the group project mark is 80%, then the group performance score would be 1.0. Any group performance score greater than 1.0 would indicate that the group as a whole has performed better than the members as individuals, and vice versa if it is less than 1.0. A higher group performance score does not mean the individuals in the group have received a final grade higher than those in a group with a lower group performance score. For instance, if the average of the individuals' marks is 70% and the group project mark is 77%, then the group performance score is 1.1. This is

higher than the 1.0 in the previous example, but it only indicates that the second group on the whole performs better in group work than as individuals compared to the first group with a group performance score of 1.0. The group performance scores for all the groups in the sample are given in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Group Performance Scores

Scores	LSGs	MEGs	EMGs	Total
Below 0.850	4	4	0	8
0.850 - 0.899	1	2	0	3
0.900 - 0.949	2	4	4	10
0.950 - 0.999	5	7	4	16
1.000 - 1.049	7	14	3	24
1.050 - 1.099	2	9	1	12
1.100 - 1.140	3	6	1	10
Above 1.140	5	8	0	13
Total	29	54	13	96

Note: LSGs -- local student groups; MEGs -- mixed ethnic groups; EMGs -- ethnic minority groups.

A couple of observations can be made on these scores. For 40 groups, or more than 40% of all the groups, the group project marks are within 5% of the individual members' average marks. Another 22 groups are between 5% and 10%. Taken together, this means that 62 groups, or about two-thirds of all groups, have group project marks that do not deviate from the individual members' average marks by more than 10%. In other words, group performance is closely related to group members' individual intellectual qualities and abilities, and this is consistent with the finding by Bacon, Stewart and Stewart-Belle (1999; Hypothesis 1).

There is even greater tendency for the EMGs to have comparable group project marks and individual average marks. Only one out of 13 groups has a deviation of more than 10%. On the whole, group members in these EMGs perform not as well in groups as they are as individuals -- there are 8 groups with scores below 1.000 versus 5 groups with scores above 1.0. For the LSGs and MEGs the group project marks are on the whole higher than individual members' average marks, indicating that members in these groups as a whole perform better in groups than as individuals. This is particularly true for the MEGs. Thirty-seven out of 54 or more than two-thirds of the MEGs have group performance scores above 1.0, compared to 17 with below 1.0 scores.

Statistical tests on the distribution of the group performance scores for the three different groups reveal that the scores for the MEGs are significantly better than those of the EMGs. And even though the differences between the MEGs and the LSGs are not statistically significant, the scores are also clearly better in the former than in the latter. Hence, the results lend support to the belief that increased diversity on balance contributes positively to group work (Mello 1993; Williams, Beard and Rymer 1991; Kirchmeyer 1993).

LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

There is an obvious limitation to the preceding analysis that poses a question mark on its validity. This concerns how the ethnicity of a student is identified and how a group is classified. Because of the crude identification of ethnicity, even those visible ethnic minority students who were born in Canada and have fully assimilated into the local culture are considered as ethnic minority students. At the same time, a new immigrant from the U.K., for example, would be considered as 'local'. Even though such incidence is rare, it can be argued that the sample subjects are not 'pure'. Unfortunately, probing further into the degree of cultural assimilation and the different ethnic origin of students is an impossible task given the proprietary nature and sensitiveness of the information that is required. In the end, the author only relied on the appearance, the family name and registration record (for exchange students) to identify whether or not a student is an ethnic minority student.

In these days of heightened political correctness, ethnicity is a sensitive subject of investigation especially when one tries to associate it with abilities and performance. But there is no hiding from the fact that one's ethnicity, and consequently one's cultural heritage, has significant influence on one's mentality and behavior in work groups. It also affects whether one works better as individuals, or in groups.

In the many years as instructor of an international marketing course that has attracted many students of different ethnicity, the author's interest on this subject was aroused by the comments he received from students on group work and on their group mates. These comments are either expressed orally in private conversations, or in confidential peer evaluations (submitted before the group project marks and final grades are posted). For project groups with members of different ethnicity, the comments are more often negative, and are complaints on the difficulties of working together with group mates of different cultural mentality. Clearly,

there have been more conflicts in these heterogeneous groups than in groups with ethnic homogeneity. This has prompted the author to look into the grades to see if such conflicts have a negative effect on group project performance. This does not appear to be the case. Instead, in most instances the conflicts have motivated the group members to put more effort into the group project and to do a better job. From the teaching perspective what the author has learned from this exercise is that project groups with members of different ethnicity are often a good learning experience for students and should be encouraged.

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ASIAN-AMERICAN MEDIA CONSUMPTION PATTERNS

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INTRODUCTION

Asian Americans are the fastest growing segment of the American population, projected to grow from 10 million in 1997 to 40 million by the year 2050. Three-fifths of these people in 1999 lived in just five states: California, Illinois, New York, Washington, and Hawaii. As marketers develop products and services specifically for the Asian American market they must deliver their messages in an effective and efficient manner. In addition, many mass market products and services are consumed by Asian Americans and marketers need to understand more about their media habits in order to build effective long-term relationships.

FOCUS FOR THE STUDY

This study focused on San Francisco Bay Area Asian Americans and their media habits. The Bay Area has a particularly attractive Asian American market. San Francisco is about 29 percent Asian Americans compared to the nation's proportion of 4.1 percent. San Francisco County had a per capita personal income of \$39,249 in 1996, 55 percent higher than the California average. It is important to understand what media should be used to communicate effectively product, price, and distribution information to an Asian American customer. The Bay Area has a strong Chinese television presence along with a large number of Asian newspapers and magazines. There are three stations running Chinese programming and 13 Chinese newspapers.

METHODOLOGY

A convenience sample survey of 307 university students in the San Francisco area was conducted in fall 1997 and spring 1998 using a paper questionnaire in English that asked questions about media consumption patterns. It had a list of 13

Chinese or Asian interest newspapers for the respondents to check. Respondents could indicate that they watched various television programs from a list of entertainment shows and news programs directed at Japanese, Korean, Filipino, and Mandarin or Cantonese speaking people of Asian ancestry. The respondent's country of birth and her family's ancestry were both asked because it is common for people to be born in one country, for example, Vietnam, but consider themselves Chinese not Vietnamese. Age, sex, and the number of years the respondent had lived in the United States were also asked.

CONCLUSIONS

Our study found that country of origin, although important, was not as significant an influence on media consumption as the number of years that people had lived in the U.S. There was a rather strong negative relationship between the number of years respondents had lived in the United States and their readership of a major Chinese language daily newspaper, Sing Tao. We also found that our relatively young sample overwhelming preferred the mainstream English language television channels over a Chinese language channel. Our study suggests that advertisers could reach a variety of Asian consumers through mainstream English language media supplemented by a targeted ethnic media, mainly newspaper, purchase. Although country of origin plays an important role, it need not result in an expensive narrowcast approach when making a media buy to reach the Asian American market.

The full paper may be found at
<http://online.sfsu.edu/~perttula/asiar4.html>

MEETING THE NEEDS OF ADULT STUDENTS: A PRELIMINARY CATERGORIZATION OF MARKETING DEPARTMENT MISSIONS

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ABSTRACT

Between 1990-2000, the number of adults enrolled in higher education institutions increased by 40%. The needs of this growing segment of students are different from traditional students in that they require time flexibility, program flexibility, and a stronger emphasis on the practical. To understand the importance universities place on educating this non-traditional student, in this preliminary study we conducted content analysis on the mission statements of eighteen California universities. Four categories emerged that demonstrated varying degrees of emphasis on serving adult students.

INTRODUCTION

Shifting demographics and the changing nature of marketing and business are converging to create a large new segment of students of higher education. They are adult and often already in the workforce. Between 1990-2000, the number of adults enrolled in higher education institutions increased by 40%, while total population enrollment increased by 9% (National Center For Education Statistics 1999). The needs of this growing segment of adult students are different from traditional students in that they require time flexibility, geographic flexibility, program flexibility, and a stronger emphasis on the practical (Tucker 2000). What types of schools are focusing on meeting the needs of these students? One method to determine this is to look at the mission statement of the school and or/department. Mission statements are the articulation of an organization's identity, purpose and direction (Leuthessor and Kohli 1997). By studying the mission statements of higher education institutions, we can determine which institutions are focused on meeting the needs of higher education and where our respective institutions stand in relation to these education providers. Therefore, the objective of this paper is to study the mission statements of higher education institutions to determine if their mission is inclusive of meeting the needs of these students. Given the rapid growth of non-traditional higher education institutions like the University of Phoenix and Devry, both

traditional and non-traditional higher education institutions are studied. A typology of school missions is developed and several implications are drawn. Finally, areas for future research are discussed.

The Changing Nature of Business, Marketing, and its' Students

Two forces are converging to create a new student with new needs. The first force is the aging student. As the Baby Boomers age, the bulk of the population is aging. Additionally, as a result of breakthroughs in medicine and fitness, adults are living longer, healthier lives - which has lead to longer working lives. The effects on higher education are significant. Statistics quoted here include 2-year colleges, 4-year colleges and universities, and non-degree granting institutions. Between 1980 and 1990, the number of individuals enrolled in higher education institutions increased by 14% from 12,097,000 to 13,819,000 students. Between 1990 and the end of 2000, that number is expected to increase by 9% to 15,072,00. Simultaneously, the growth in adults (24+) in higher education has also increased - but at an astronomical pace. Between 1980 and 1990, adult higher education enrollment increased at a rate of 90% from 2,384,000 to 4,535,000 students. Between 1990 and the end of 2000, enrollment is expected to grow by 40% to 6,347,000 students. The impact of these numbers has been reflected in recent articles, which have stressed the need for higher education institutions to respond to the changing demographic profile of students (Koch 1996; Pearce 1999).

The second force is fast changing knowledge. Just-in-time knowledge is more than just a catch-phrase, it is something that companies want for their employees. For example, if the gurus of marketing pronounce Green Marketing as a significant force, organizations want to send their managers on an intensive course on Green Marketing. If Services Marketing is declared different from Product Marketing, then organizations immediately want to send their managers to a services marketing conference. On a more long-term basis, traditional marketing topics have been supplanted or complemented by new courses such as services

marketing, business-to-business marketing, e-commerce, and database marketing. A survey of several schools reveals that 85% of courses currently offered in business school didn't exist 45 years ago (Tucker 2000).

Linking the demographic changes and the changes in marketing knowledge creates a new large segment of working adult students that need training and re-training in basic skills and knowledge. The delivery of this knowledge cannot follow the traditional model owned by traditional schools. First, these adult students are working and may have a family. Thus they are less flexible in the times that they can attend. They need to choose their learning time as opposed to the school scheduling their time. Second, for the same reasons, they need geographic flexibility. Learning that can be done at home or while out of town on business better meets their needs. Third, as many of these adults work – and are being sent by their organizations, the 4-year degree program may not be appropriate. They need faster degrees and certificates – or degrees where they can work at their own pace. Fourth, organizations may be sending these individuals to learn a specific skill (Microsoft Access, e-commerce areas, etc.). Thus they need a concentrated course that focuses on these specific needs. Finally, as many of these adults are in the workforce, an emphasis on practical is necessary. In a study performed by Smart et al. (1999), 107 of the marketing discipline's most well-regarded educators were asked to reflect upon changes to come in the future. Respondents agreed that the marketing discipline must become more practical and relevant to students and practitioners. In the next section we will examine the link between the Internet and the education needs of these adult students.

The Internet & Adult Education

In their seminal article, Ives and Jarvenpaa (1996) state that, "a knowledge revolution is being propelled by the twin engines of computer technology and communication technology...the World Wide Web lets anyone, at a moderate cost, publish information accessible to others anywhere in the world." The web is a built in distribution system for knowledge, and as the price of PC's and Internet access come down, the web enjoys greater and greater penetration. Among their predictions, Ives and Jarvenpaa (1996) envision the rise of virtual learning communities, demonstrated skills (versus certification), just in time versus just in case education, and business education and business practice together.

These themes developed by Ives and Jarvenpaa (1996) tie in to some of the needs of the adult student

segment. The web allows adult students to have greater access in two ways. First, an online course can be accessed at any time. Individuals seeking knowledge on the net are not constrained by the hours that the library is open or the hours that classes are scheduled. Therefore it meets the time flexibility needs of adult students. Second, the web allows access from anywhere. Therefore it meets the geographic access needs of adult students. It does all of this in the context of connectivity by linking students to students, students to instructors, and students to business creating a virtual business learning community.

Thus the web meets two of the five needs of adult students – geographic flexibility and time flexibility. Although the other needs can be facilitated on the Web, the characteristics of the Web do not inherently meet the criteria of different forms of degrees, more focused learning needs and an emphasis on the practical. These criteria can be met online or offline.

How are traditional higher education institutions responding to this dynamic new teaching medium? A study of 263 members of the Academy of Management found that faculty were supportive of more technology-assisted pedagogy and increases in the business-work component. However, they show little enthusiasm for investing in distance learning, preferring not to compete fully in this major growth market in higher education. They also showed little enthusiasm for allowing business executives to partake in the curriculum development (Pearce 1999). It should be noted that this research does represent a general overview, and there are traditional higher education institutions that are tackling some of these issues. For example, the Extension School at U.C.L.A. offers a variety of online marketing courses geared towards adults and several schools like Cal State Fullerton and Cal State Northridge are beginning to develop some online marketing curricula.

Non-Traditional Schools

A Smith Barney study (Tucker 2000) concluded that the established system is failing to fully supply the post-secondary education market. As a result, the private sector has stepped in. They are aggressive, independent and for-profit. While they still account for a small proportion of the higher education market (less than 3%), they are opening new institutions quickly. Between 1996-1997, their rate of growth was 18.4% compared to a growth rate of less than 1% for traditional higher education institutions (Reeves 2000).

Simultaneous to traditional schools wetting their feet with online distance learning, non-traditional higher education institutions like the University of Phoenix, the DeVry Institute and National University are designing full online degrees and courses. For example, the University of Phoenix offers an online Bachelor of Science in Business and E-Business and several different MBA's. They use the Internet to respond to the time flexibility and geographic flexibility needs of adult students. Additionally, class times are designed to fit around busy workdays.

While the Internet helps them meet two of the needs of adult students, they are also geared towards meeting the other needs of adult students (shorter degrees, focused skills, and an emphasis on the practical). At employee training schools such as Learning Tree International, rather than get a degree, students go to these schools to learn a specific skill in a short time, such as HTML, coding or how to use the latest version of Windows. Additionally, some of these non-traditional schools offer shorter degrees in the form of certificates and have an inherent focus on the practical. For example, the teaching model for the University of Phoenix is that the teacher must be working full-time in their industry. In addition to these types of schools, there has been other private sector intrusion. Cable operators and telecommunication companies are aggressively developing virtual classrooms. Publishers and software houses are developing multimedia products that will substitute for, rather than complement, traditional classroom education.

These non-traditional higher education institutions share one characteristic in common – they are student and employer-oriented and answer the needs of the fastest growing segment of students. By answering these needs, they will continue to exhibit extraordinary growth rates. Hence, they may be viewed as competitors to traditional higher education institutions.

In a strategic context, traditional schools need to evaluate their position versus the competition and determine whether they need to situate themselves as competitors in relevant segments. One way to understand how a school or department is positioned is to look at their mission. In the next section, we develop a typology, or general classification of the different school missions. This will allow schools to understand where they stand versus the competition – and to assess whether they need to develop a strategic response.

Mission Statements

A mission statement has been defined as the articulation of the desired organizational culture (O'Halloran 1988; Campbell and Nash 1992). There is a strong consensus in the literature that the development of a mission statement is fundamental for the survival and growth of any business (Drucker 1973; Peters and Waterman 1982). Mission statements are widely seen as necessary in helping an organization form its identity, purpose and direction (Leuthessor and Kohli 1997). Domick (1990) established that, "A statement of mission is a statement of intent, of direction...a well articulated and successfully embodied statement of purpose can essentially define an institution." Thus the mission statement describes the focus of the institution. Several studies that examined the relationship between mission statements and organizational success have produced mixed results (Pearce and David 1987; Germain and Cooper 1990; Rarick and Vitton 1995; Bart 1998; O'Gorman and Doran 1999). In any case, the mission statement is a revealing articulation of the company's strategy.

In an attempt to better understand the different positionings of the traditional and non-traditional schools, it was decided that an exploration of their mission statements would be useful. This is a pilot study to a larger study that will segment/categorize major schools with marketing departments according to their mission statement. The purpose of this study is to determine whether there are distinct segments of schools based on mission statements and to develop a preliminary list of categories by which to categorize other schools in the full study.

METHODOLOGY

In this research, we examined the mission statements from the websites of four-year degree granting colleges and universities. In our sample, we included traditional public and private universities, as well as non-traditional schools. We selected specific schools using three criteria. First, to limit our scope, it had to be located in California. Second, it had to be an institution of higher learning offering a degree in business with courses in marketing at either the undergraduate or graduate level. Finally, either the Marketing Department or the College of Business had to have a mission statement (if the mission statement of the Marketing Department was unavailable, we used the mission statement from the College of Business). We selected a non-representative sample of universities fitting these criteria that included eight private universities, two University of California institutions, five of the California State Universities,

and three non-traditional universities. These four groups seemed to represent the various types of four-year degree granting institutions and an attempt was made to select a representative cross section of institutions fitting each of these categories. Table 1 shows the specific universities included in this study.

Content analysis was used to analyze each of the mission statements from the above institutions. Content analysis is a "systematic attempt to codify the matter contained in a defined set of communications" (Angell, Dunham, and Singer 1964 p. 133). Content analysis was chosen because it has been proven as an objective, systematic and quantitative description of communications by past empirical investigations (Carrigan and Szmigin 1999; Cook 1992; Berelson 1952). Utilizing this methodology, we identified the different elements of the mission statements. Based on shared elements, we then classified the universities into thematic categories. The ultimate goal was to reveal the positioning of these universities with respect to their focus on the non-traditional student, broadly defined as adult and often already in the workforce, and typically requiring time flexibility, geographic flexibility, program flexibility, and a stronger emphasis on the practical (Tucker 2000).

Results, Discussion, & Strategic Implications

The content analysis revealed that each of the mission statements included a statement about the importance of academics. Representative examples of these statements included "the encouragement of learning" and "academic excellence" as important strategic goals. Because this element was present in all of the mission statements, we excluded it from further analysis, as it did not help differentiate the institutions. Based on the analysis of the remainder of the content in the mission statements for each of the universities, the following elements emerged as important: Being multicultural, being global, focusing on values, targeting a career adult market, providing geographic flexibility, providing time flexibility, maintaining a practical emphasis, utilizing active learning, emphasizing a cross-functional curriculum, using technology to facilitate learning, and integrating ethics into the classroom. The specific elements found in the mission statements are listed in Table 2.

We examined the elements present in each mission statement and classified the institutions based on commonalities in their strategic focus. Based on the content analysis, we identified four thematic categories of schools, which we have labeled "adult-oriented," "techno-cultural," "values oriented," and "not oriented."

The "adult-oriented" institutions were those that specifically targeted the adult market, and included California Coast University, National University, and the University of Phoenix. These schools tended to have geographic and time flexibility, and a strong practical emphasis. The mission statements of the universities in this category focused on students with "geographic limitations and/or time constraints" using instruction to serve these students that "does not require attendance at any specific location." It is not surprising that these institutions have emphasized serving the needs of the non-traditional students in their mission statements because they view these students as their primary target market.

The "techno-cultural" universities included all of the Cal State Universities (Bakersfield, Fullerton, Long Beach, Los Angeles, and Northridge) and the DeVry Institute. All of these institutions identified the use of technology as important in educating their students in their mission statements. Additionally, many of the schools in this group also have a practical emphasis, are multicultural, and/or have a global focus. These mission statements acknowledged the importance of "maintaining an up-to-date technology infrastructure" and building skills in "the application of research technology." While these universities do not have an explicit goal of serving the non-traditional student in their mission statements, their techno-culture makes them well suited to address the needs of these students.

The "values-oriented" institutions (Chapman, Loyola Marymount, Pepperdine, the University of San Diego, and the University of San Francisco) had a primary focus of imparting a particular value system on their students, and with the exception of the University of San Francisco, all of these universities have a religious orientation. These institutions focus on "faith and the promotion of justice" and "value-centered personalized learning." Another common element in three of mission statements is a global focus. Overall, this group of universities has not addressed the needs of the adult student as articulated in their mission statements, and instead has positioned themselves as educators of the soul.

The "not-oriented" schools were those that had one or none of the elements in their mission statement (UC Davis, UC Riverside, Stanford, and USC). All of these schools had a very strong emphasis on goals such as "being the leading academic school of management in the world" and being a "premier academic institution." The positioning of these schools (as expressed in their mission statements) was elitist and did not consider other factors than academic excellence as important in the education of

their students. While some are addressing the needs through extension schools, their core business departments are not focused. This category seems the least prepared and least willing to focus on the needs of the adult segment of the market.

These four categories of schools demonstrate that a continuum exists in the importance that business schools and marketing departments place on addressing the needs of the growing non-traditional segment of the higher educational market, ranging from an intensive focus on serving their unique needs, to a complete generalization of the needs of this emerging segment. As this segment of the market rapidly grows in numbers and importance, the universities that have positioned themselves as preeminent scholarly institutions, while ignoring the needs of the non-traditional student, may find themselves (at this level) at a significant disadvantage in the marketplace.

There are several implications to our findings. First, this research reveals that university missions can be segmented into at least four categories. Thus universities have direct competition within certain mission segments, and indirect competition across mission segments. Second, by establishing the different segments of universities, the growth of each segment (beyond just adult-oriented) can be tracked over the medium and long term. This will help universities better understand if they are positioned for growth. Third, certain segments of business schools and marketing departments may want to consider changing their strategic focus in order to satisfy the needs of this growing segment of adult students. For example, the "not-oriented" universities may seek to form strategic alliances with the "adult-oriented" institutions to strengthen areas in which they are weak. Another option for the "not-oriented" universities is to strategically reposition the university to better serve this market by focusing on the adult students using their own resources. Universities selecting this approach might develop a new university brand or extend their brand to new facilities/campuses. An important related issue to all of these implications is whether a university *should* reorient their strategy to serve new emerging markets or focus more on traditional intellectual ideals.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The purpose of this research was to help understand how universities can be segmented based upon their current positioning in the marketplace. We analyzed the mission statements of eighteen California universities and used content analysis to help understand the importance that universities place on

educating the non-traditional student. Four categories emerged demonstrating varying degrees of emphasis on serving the needs of these students.

This was a preliminary study limited to a non-representative sample of private and public institutions in California. We intend to collect additional data to extend our findings across a larger number of institutions in other geographic locations. We also plan on further examining and segmenting the non-traditional student based upon demographic characteristics like age and family situation. We expect our four categories to be further validated as well as the possible emergence of additional categories. Once this larger sample is obtained, we will analyze the data using correspondence analysis, which is an interdependence technique that can describe the association between the different elements of the mission statements and the distinguishing characteristics of the university. We hope to help universities better understand these different segments and identify strategies that they can use to better serve the needs of these students.

Tables available upon request.

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EVALUATING RESEARCH: CURRENT PRACTICES AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

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Abstract

The evaluation of research is a topic that should be of interest to every marketing faculty member. The criticism of business schools' research by both academics and business has continued for five decades. The criticism ranges from Gordon and Howell (1959) arguing that business school research was too descriptive and lacked academic rigor to the Porter and McKibbin report (1988), commissioned by the AACSB, which concluded that most business schools' research was simply self-gratifying and largely ignored by business since they viewed it as not useful. The debate has continued.

As business schools become more mission and goal driven, the evaluation of research needs to be revisited. It seems logical that the evaluation of research should be based in part on the degree to which it helps the college to meet its mission and goals. Two basic questions continue to be asked, "How can we incorporate the college's mission and goals into the evaluation of research?" and "How should we evaluate the quality and quantity of research output for individual faculty members?" This session attempts to address the following research evaluation issues among others:

1. What is considered to be research or intellectual contributions or scholarship? While these terms are often used interchangeably do they mean the same thing?
2. What is the purpose of conducting research? What should the final outcome be?

3. While the term quality of research is an oft used phrase, "How do various schools and faculty members define 'quality of research'?"
4. What are the alternative ways to evaluate the "quality" component of research? Some ways that immediately come to mind are journal rankings, citations, number of subscribers of the outlet, the kind of research article (basic, applied, and pedagogy or empirical vs. thought pieces), acceptance rates, number of authors, order of authors, number of pages, etc.
5. How is research currently being evaluated at the schools represented by the panel?
6. What is the role of research in the modern business school?
7. What are the factors that should impact the criteria for evaluating research?
8. What are the opportunities afforded to a new school of business that has the opportunity to start with a clean slate and get it right.
9. How has the evaluation of research evolved over the past two decades?
10. How does the evaluation research differ at doctoral granting schools?
11. How do schools develop research evaluation criteria and procedures to meet the University's mission and goals, the College's mission, goals and the resources

The current and past views of the AACSB will be discussed along with the issues raised by Boyer in his book, "Scholarship Reconsidered."

INVOLVING STUDENTS IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH PROJECTS AS A TOOL FOR TEACHING AND SCHOLARSHIP

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This special session examines the teaching of qualitative research methods that go beyond the focus group. The presentations address what students can expect to gain through employing the qualitative techniques they are learning and how involving students in qualitative research projects can further the scholarly pursuits of the professor. This last point is particularly important for the busy professor who has a significant teaching load but must also do research. While the debate still rages as to whether research activities enhance or detract from quality teaching (see, e.g., Udell, Parker, Pettijohn 1995), clearly, faculty research that actually involves students should be beneficial to the students (see Andre and Frost 1997).

Deborah Cours opens up this special session with a discussion of how she employs qualitative research as a part of her marketing principles course. Cours requires her principles students to work in small groups in developing marketing plans as a term project. In the situation analysis phase of these projects, Cours assigns the members of each team to do consumer research using different research methods. Each member of a team must, however, use a different research technique: either literature review, survey, interview, observation, or web-site review. The use of the various research methods facilitates group and class discussion on the strengths and weaknesses of the various modes of research. Cours reports that students are often surprised to find that their qualitative interview data are more insightful and useful than their survey data.

Brian Jorgensen next presents his use of depth interviewing for class projects in sales and marketing research classes. In the sales class, students interview practicing salespeople. This is an important project for at least three reasons. First, it allows students to rub shoulders with sales practitioners. Second, meeting with a successful salesperson can build the student's enthusiasm for eventually taking a job in sales himself or herself. Third, having students conduct interviews, which they tape and transcribe, provides a constantly-growing source of quotes and stories that can be used for class illustration, both in the semester the data are gathered and in subsequent semesters.

For his marketing research class, Jorgensen has designed a depth interview assignment that affords students the opportunity of hands-on experience with an important qualitative research tool in addition to the traditional survey project. As compared to a focus group assignment, a depth interviewing assignment can be done without the student having to coordinate a group of researchers and respondents. However, perhaps the most compelling reason for employing an interviewing assignment is that by choosing a research topic that is of interest to the professor, he or she can provide the students with an important experience while also allowing them to take part in the actual research process.

Deborah Heisley next presents her experiences using depth interviewing projects in an MBA consumer behavior course. In this course, Heisley has her students work in groups, with each group addressing a consumer behavior issue of its own choosing. For these projects each student performs multiple interviews. Students also code and analyze the transcribed interviews. They then write up their reports and present them to the rest of the class. Heisley addresses how she trains students for effective interviewing and analysis. Heisley also discusses how students from her consumer behavior class are prepared to subsequently step into the role of research or teaching assistant.

Richard Celsi introduces and wraps up the session, commenting on the other presentations and suggesting new ideas, directions, challenges, and opportunities with regard to employing qualitative methods in teaching and research.

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AN EXPLORATORY INVESTIGATION OF THE INTERNET AS AN INTERACTIVE MEDIUM: DESIGN AND OPERATION ISSUES

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ABSTRACT

The interactivity of the Internet makes it potentially the ultimate direct marketing channel. This study reports the results of a study of the design and operational aspects of the web pages of the Fortune 500. The results indicated many of the web pages were lacking their ability to interact with the audience.

INTRODUCTION

The Internet offers several advantages to the marketer (Clemente 1998). First, it provides an information conduit and sales channel that presents an opportunity for instant, measurable feedback from the customer. Second, although recent concerns about privacy have caused these practices to undergo a great deal of scrutiny, it allows customers to be tracked and mined (Simpson 2000). Third, it facilitates the development and expansion of a global business. Lastly, it is an interactive medium that can help build marketing relationships. However, no marketing tool is without its weaknesses. In the case of the Internet, its audience is limited to those businesses or consumers that are connected to the Internet. Second, search and navigation over the Internet is sometimes difficult. Third, many Internet users are connected at a rate of 28.8 kbps so connection time is slow and web sites with complex graphics may not load at all. Lastly, privacy is a concern both in the U.S. and in foreign countries (Heckman 1999; Stepanek 2000).

Myths about how the Internet is going to completely change the marketing of products have been exposed (Barker, Borrego and Hofman 2000). Problems during the 1999 Christmas season illustrated the "build it and they will come" mentality is not a viable Internet marketing strategy. A study that examined 50 web sites ranging from eToys to L.L. Bean to Toys-R-Us to Wal-Mart reported shoppers were unable to place orders 25% of the time, 36% of the sites had unhelpful customer-service numbers and 20% of the packages arrived late. Furthermore, the study found 88% of the online shopping carts were abandoned before checkout (Chen and Lindsay 2000).

Business-to-business marketing may be the most fertile ground for penetration by the Internet (Burke 1997). The basic concern a customer has in

business-to-business marketing via the Internet is whether a supplier's web site will streamline its purchasing process (Strout 1999). Can a customer set up an account? Can a customer find out if an item is in stock? Is there customer support that allows a customer to ask a question and how fast is the response time? Can a customer track an order through the web site? Does the site load and process an order or inquiry? Is the site easy to navigate? This study investigates these questions by exploring the following web site design and operations that may be important in facilitating customer interaction.

1. *Identify the company* – To enhance credibility and facilitate communication a web site should identify the company name and logo (Sterne 1999).
2. *Easy navigation* – A 1999 survey found that 54% of web user respondents felt the most important factor in deciding which web business to patronize was ease of navigation and whether the site was user friendly (Anders 1999). This result suggests links should exist on every page to take the visitor back to the home page or to other related pages. Visitors stuck on "dead end" pages don't remain on a web page very long. In addition, Krauss (1999) reported that only 10% of web site visitors were found to scroll beyond the part of the web page that fits on the computer screen.
3. *Information rich* – A web site should include information about products and services, and should be updated regularly as the lack of fresh information is a common complaint of web site visitors (Anders 1999).
4. *Contact information* - The web site should provide a telephone number and/or address in case the customer wants to contact the company.
5. *Load time* – The web is an interactive medium that uses visual images to attract and hold a customer's attention. The more detailed the images, the slower the web site will load. A 1999 study indicated 24% of respondents would take their business elsewhere because of slow response time (Anders 1999). Sixty-five percent of respondents in another 1999 survey stated

increased transfer speed would increase the effectiveness of the Internet as a way of doing business (Peterson 1999).

6. *Inquiry response time* – The rule of thumb for responding to an e-mail message is 24 hours (i.e., same as a telephone call). A 2000 survey found 23 of the Fortune 100 companies could not be contacted by e-mail through their home web page (including Hewlett-Packard and Intel). In the 77 cases where e-mail was available, 38 responded within 2 days. However, 20 companies had not responded to multiple inquiries after 3 months (nua 2000b).

METHODOLOGY

During February and March of 2000, a convenience sample of web sites consisting of the Fortune 500 companies were content analyzed for common design format and operational characteristics (e.g., links, navigation bar). The web pages were printed in black and white. In hindsight data richness was lost by not printing the pages in color. Two judges independently examined and categorized the information from each web page. Interjudge reliability was 83.5%. Disagreements over categorization of information were resolved through discussion after an independent assessment by each judge.

RESULTS

The results of the study are presented in Table 1. The most common links included in the web page were: About the Company (84.1%); Product/Service Information (82.6%); Company News (71%); Investor Relations (64.3%); Contact Us (59.6%); Employment Opportunities (56.6%); Privacy Statements (49%); Search Option (41.9%); Public Affairs (35.2%); Purchase Information (33.4%); and Customer Service (22.2%). In an effort to gain insight into industry differences in the design of web pages, a convenience sample of three industry groups was selected based on the degree of penetration of web marketing. In the business-to-consumer arena, retailers have little to modest penetration, while financial service organizations have experienced more penetration (28.9% in a 2000 *Wall Street Journal* survey) (Bulkeley 2000). Wholesalers are business-to-business operations where web penetration has been quite successful (Gomes 2000). The comparison of the three industries also can be found in Table 1.

Financial service organizations (82.6%) were found to be more likely to include information about the company than were retailers (76.7%) or wholesalers

(70.8%). The difference may be explained by the fact that customers of financial service organizations want to know more about these companies because of the high level of financial risk associated with investing one's money with a company. In addition, financial service organizations (43%) were twice as likely to have a customer service link on their web page compared to wholesalers (20.8%). However, nearly 70% of the retailers offered a customer service link. Perhaps decades of intense competition has led retailers to extend what they know about customer service to their web pages faster than the other two industries. Somewhat surprising is the apparent lack of a customer service focus by wholesalers where the Internet has had the greatest penetration. Perhaps the lack of customer service on wholesaler web pages is in part due to the fact that many wholesalers have sales forces and management hasn't determined the appropriate balance between providing service via the Internet and in person via a salesperson.

Seventy-three percent of retailers provided a link to purchase products, compared to 37% of financial service organizations and only 25% of wholesalers. This result is somewhat surprising given the growth of business-to-business Internet sales. Wholesalers (70.8%) were more likely to include contact information than either financial service organizations (63%) or retailers (30.7%).

Although retailers appear to have a better handle on facilitating product purchase and customer service, they lag behind financial services when it comes to including a search option (42.3% vs. 56.5%). However, they exceeded the number of wholesaler web pages that had a search option (33.3%).

Privacy statements were part of almost 50% of the web pages. This is not surprising given the recent emphasis on privacy as a customer concern related to doing business over the Internet. This is especially true for financial service organizations as 78.2% included a privacy statement on their web page.

The average amount of time it took a retailer web page to load over a LAN was 23.98 seconds. This compared to 38.88 seconds over a 28.8 kbps modem. Financial service organizations loaded slightly faster, 22.25 seconds for the LAN and 33.89 seconds via a 28.8 kbps modem. Wholesaler web pages loaded the fastest, 10.32 seconds for LAN and 30.92 seconds for a 28.8 kbps modem.

TABLE 1

Components of Fortune 500 Web Sites

Link	All Companies		Retail		Wholesale		Financial Services	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
About the Company	413	84.1	20	76.7	17	70.8	38	82.6
Contact Us	293	59.6	8	30.7	17	70.8	29	63.0
Customer Service	109	22.2	18	69.2	5	20.8	20	43.0
Employment Opportunities	278	56.6	10	38.4	18	75.0	32	69.5
Investor Relations	316	64.3	10	38.4	14	58.3	28	60.8
Privacy Statement	241	49.0	11	42.3	14	58.3	36	78.2
Company News	349	71.0	13	50.0	15	62.5	29	63.0
Product/Service Information	406	82.6	21	80.8	19	79.1	35	76.0
Public Affairs	173	35.2	6	23.0	8	33.3	19	41.0
Purchase Information	164	33.4	19	73.0	6	25.0	17	36.9
Search Option	206	41.9	11	42.3	8	33.3	26	56.5
LAN Load Time in Seconds			23.98		10.22		22.25	
28.8 Modem Load Time in Seconds			38.88		30.92		33.89	
Percent Responded to E-mail Inquiry			50%		25%		53%	
Average Response Time to E-mail Inquiry in Hours			6.5		16		18.4	
Percent of Sites with Navigation Bar		72.9%		85.7%		75%		76.9%

A key part of using a web page that would facilitate interaction with a customer is the time it takes to respond to an inquiry. An e-mail question was sent to the companies that provided the capability of sending an e-mail message through their home page. Fifty-three percent of the financial service organizations and 50% of the retailers responded to the e-mailed question. However, only 25% of the wholesalers that provided e-mail capability responded to an e-mailed question. In the case of wholesalers, it could be that the message was forwarded to the sales force for a response, and given the fact that the messages were sent from a home computer, there was no way for a sales person to make a call. The results appear to be consistent with the results of a 2000 survey of 1,000 small U.S. businesses that reported a growing dissatisfaction with online customer service offered by business-to-business vendors (nua 2000a). In the survey, 61% of the small business respondents

expressed satisfaction with online customer service in 2000, down from a 73% satisfaction level in 1999.

The response time to the e-mail inquiry was interesting. Retailer responses averaged 6.5 hours (Home Depot responded in 9 minutes), while wholesalers (16 hours) and financial service organizations (18.5 hours) took longer to respond but did so within the 24-hour rule.

Seventy-four percent of the Fortune 500 sites had a navigation bar. Retail companies were more likely to have a navigation bar (85.7%) than either financial services organizations (76.9%) or wholesale companies (75%).

DISCUSSION

The Fortune 500 companies were found to be lacking in many areas relative to the web design and

operations investigated in the current study. It could be that at the time when this research was conducted many of these companies were in industries where the Internet has had little impact other than to provide information. However, even the web sites of companies in industries where one might expect to be designed and operated to facilitate interaction were found to be lacking on several key points. It may be that when it comes to web marketing these companies just make it a bit harder for visitors to get the information on products or services that they seek. Furthermore, these companies have a physical presence (i.e., retail stores, brokerage offices, sales forces) where customers can purchase products or obtain service may be not as concerned about losing customers to a virtual dot com company.

The results also may be partially explained by the fact that many companies have felt pressured into having a web presence, yet management is not quite sure how to incorporate the web as part of the company's marketing strategy. How is a company suppose to know what to do? The first step is for the company to set objectives for its web site that might include maximizing customer interaction. Only then can a company design and operate its web site to interact with the audience it is attempting to attract.

LIMITATIONS

The results of this study must be interpreted in light of its limitations. First, the Fortune 500 was selected as the sample. Many of these companies are from old-line industries where web marketing is a relatively new phenomenon. It is possible that over time these companies will make dramatic improvements in their web site design and operation. Quite different results may have been observed if experienced e-commerce companies such as Amazon.com were investigated. Second, because developments in web marketing move so quickly, the observations made during the spring of 2000 could be very different from the first three months of 2001. Therefore, a longitudinal study needs to be implemented to track the changes in strategy used by these companies.

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TECHNOLOGY-ENHANCED LEARNING: THE NEXT WAVE

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ABSTRACT

The word technology conjures up a whole spectrum of connotations and meanings in the world of academia. While some view it as a means of reviving and rejuvenating education as we know it, others treat it as a superfluous, over-hyped means of dazzling students without really contributing to their learning experience. Proponents of technology argue that educators can use it to transform the learning experience by making it more interactive and engaging. Those opposed to technology see it as an intrusion into the student-teacher relationship, where face-to-face in-class learning is threatened by a faceless, virtual, and spiritless commercial exchange between buyers and sellers of bits and bytes of information. We argue that the role of technology has been misunderstood and overly focused on "distance education." We paint a more optimistic picture of the role of technology in improving the teaching/learning process.

INTRODUCTION

The word technology conjures up a whole spectrum of connotations and meanings in the world of academia. While some view it as a means of reviving and rejuvenating education as we know it, others treat it as a superfluous, over-hyped means of dazzling students without really contributing to their learning experience. Proponents of technology argue that educators can use it to transform the learning experience by making it more interactive and engaging. Those opposed to technology see it as an intrusion into the sacred domain of student-teacher relationship, where face-to-face in-class learning is threatened by a faceless, virtual, and spiritless commercial exchange between buyers and sellers of bits and bytes of information.

Which of these two sides is correct? Is technology a boon or a threat to educators and education? Are the ivy-covered walls of traditional universities in imminent danger of being replaced by the classrooms and firewalls of the virtual world? Will technology lead to the creation of a substitute to the conventional classroom education or will it help conventional education evolve into a better product? Specifically, will technology make the "distance education" model the dominant model of higher education, or will it help

the current "campus education" model retain its dominance through change and evolution? As we argue in this paper, the answer really depends on what aspect of technology we are talking about, and what outcomes we are examining. We build on Richard Celsi's presentation of discontinuous innovations in education (Celsi 2000; Celsi and Wolfenbarger 2000) to explain how technology may change the role faculty play in the teaching/learning process without necessarily threatening their existence. Rather, faculty who embrace technology developments may be in a better position to make a real impact on the lives of their students by providing them with knowledge that they are more likely to retain and use in their lives.

WHAT IS DISTANCE LEARNING?

A review of the definitions of the term is enlightening. The University of Wisconsin Distance Education Clearinghouse offers a compilation of several definitions of the term (UWEX 2000). The definitions range from one with an emphasis on the *distance* (e.g., "the process of extending learning, or delivering instructional resource-sharing opportunities, to locations away from a classroom, building or site, to another classroom, building or site, by using video, audio, computer, multimedia communications, or some combination of these with other traditional delivery methods.") to one that emphasizes *learning* (e.g., "Distance education is not simply the addition of technology to instruction; instead, it uses technology to make possible new approaches to the teaching/learning process."). Steiner (1995) is careful to even distinguish between distance *learning*, which is a student controlled process and distance *education*, which is an institution/instructor controlled process.

Statistics seem to suggest a shift away from a "campus education" model to a "distance education" model. One study reports total college enrollments rising at the rate of 1% to 2% annually, but distance education enrollments rising at 30% per year (Murphy 2000). One expert predicts that 10% of existing public colleges and 50% of independent colleges will close in the next 25 years merely as a result of the growth of distance education (Dunn 2000). Even management legend Peter Drucker believes that distance education will dominate a significant

segment of the education market. In a recent interview, he says, "The continuing professional education of adults is the No. 1 gross industry in the next 30 years, but not in the traditional form. In five years, we will deliver most of our executive management programs online. The Internet combines the advantages of both class and book. In a book, you can go back to page 16. In a class, you can't, but in a class there is a physical presence; and on the Internet you have both." (Daly 2000; p. 134)

While these numbers are impressive, it does not imply that academics have whole-heartedly embraced the role of technology and distance learning in higher education. In their blistering critiques of distance learning, authors such as Marilyn Dyrud (2000) and David Noble (1997, 1998a, 1998b, 1999) have condemned distance education as being pedagogically unsound, opposed to intellectual integrity, and almost a conspiracy between educational institutions and commercial organizations to turn present "thinly-veiled field trials for product and market development." (Noble 1998; p. 11). Dyrud (2000) asks "Is Distance Education Really Education?" and answers with a clear NO!

TECHNOLOGY AND DISTANCE EDUCATION

The term "distance education" has long been used in the context of correspondence courses and open universities (Steiner 1995). While correspondence courses have been around for a long time, they have never threatened to replace the "campus education" model. Correspondence courses thrived in their niche and served to meet the skills-based needs of individuals unable, for a variety of reasons, to attend a traditional college or university.

The infusion of technology, however, has dramatically changed the use of the term "distance education." Suddenly, academics conjure up visions of a few top professors from brand name schools dominating the education field and being able to teach thousands or millions of learners around the globe. These ideas have led to fears among some faculty that they were becoming increasingly irrelevant. Sweeping statements made by some participants in the distance learning arena fed these fears. For example, Larsen (1999) quotes William Hornbeck, a VP at Vcampus, "Distance learning can reach the widest, most diverse and most widely dispersed group of adults in ways never before possible."

However, even an interaction between a single professor and a single student geographically separated may be thought of as engaging in "distance education." Distance education, thus, does

not automatically imply a "broadcast" approach to teaching that minimizes the need for faculty or eliminates the ability of a teacher to customize their message to individual student needs. The role of technology in education is much greater than simply bridging the geographical divide between teachers and learners. Further, technology has an important role to play in a traditional, on-campus teaching and learning. Many faculty currently engaged in innovative efforts at using technology in the classroom are not necessarily involved in distance education at all.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In their research on the shifting role of technology in education, Celsi and Wolfenbarger (Celsi 2000; Celsi and Wolfenbarger 2000) discuss faculty adoption patterns for technology. They suggest that the adoption of a new technology takes place in waves. In wave 1, technology merely serves as a *support function* that improves efficiency, but not teaching. For instance, using spreadsheets to record grades or word-processors to type out lecture notes would be considered support use of technology. In the second wave, technology is used to *replicate* traditional teaching models. For example, faculty putting their paper syllabi online, or using PowerPoint slides instead of transparencies are "mirroring" their traditional activities in a new technology. In the third wave, technology plays a more active role in actually significantly *improving* the teaching/learning process. The unique properties of the technological innovations are used to develop innovative learning models that alter the actual teaching and learning of knowledge. We use these three stages of technology as the independent constructs of our framework.

The impact of technology on education can broadly be classified into four dimensions — where, when, who, and how. The "where" aspect refers to the spatial distribution of teaching and learning. This is also the traditional use of "distance education" — courses delivered to off-campus students. The "when" dimension refers to the temporal disconnect between the production and consumption of learning. In a classroom setting these two activities are simultaneous, whereas in a distance context, the two can be temporally separated. The "who" refers to two groups — producers and consumers of learning. Traditionally, these groups have been referred to as teachers and students. The fourth dimension, "how" refers to both the learning content as well as style of delivery. We next examine the impact of three levels of technology adoption (the three waves) on the four dimensions of education.

WAVE 1 AND HIGHER EDUCATION MODELS

Wave 1 of technology adoption involves usage of technology as a behind-the-scenes support tool. Using technology to manage day-to-day classroom activities would fall under this category. Wave 1 has minimal impact on the spatial or temporal distribution of learning, and therefore presents little threat to the "campus education" model. At the same time, it does not radically enhance the learning experience of on-campus students either. The instructor continues to be the sole producer of the learning experience and students are consumers of that experience. The wave 1 technology adoption affects neither the content nor the delivery of learning material. Thus, wave 1 does little to threaten the "campus education" model by way of supporting the "distance education" model.

WAVE 2 AND HIGHER EDUCATION MODELS

Wave 2 technology adoption involves using technology to mirror what one would normally do without it. This is where we see a lot of debate regarding the role of technology in replacing "campus education" and the conflicting claims that the two camps make. Wave 2 has major impact on the four dimensions of the education environment. Putting an existing course online can change a lot of things. First, the need for a classroom suddenly disappears. Students and instructor do not have to be in the same room or even at the same time the instructor puts it online. Thus, wave 2 provides flexibility in terms of temporal and spatial distribution of learning.

Wave 2 technology also affects the "who" dimension. One of the oft-cited advantages of distance learning is its convenience for executives and other "time-challenged" learners. Distance education using wave 2 technology can enable such individuals to take courses without significantly affecting their ability to work full-time and spend weekends with family (Larsen 1999). Thus, non-traditional students looking for alternatives to in-class instruction can benefit from "mirror" technology. In this sense, "distance education" is not really a true competitor of "campus education" as it is tapping into a different customer segment, one that could not be tapped by the "campus education" model. It is however, the impact of wave 2 on the fourth dimension ("how") that offers a distinct advantage to "campus education" model over "distance education" model.

If an instructor fails to go beyond wave 2, the "distance education" course will suffer from several weaknesses. The course, in effect, will be a correspondence course equivalent, delivered using

modern technology. The course would be impersonal, dry, and for most part, intellectually non-stimulating. A recent article in the Wall Street Journal (Parker-Pope 2000) pointed to some of the problems with replacing face-to-face professor-student contact with a wave 2 virtual classroom. Referring to the failure of online dieting sites, the article says, "Early indications are that dieters who just use the Internet for diet information, without any kind of counseling or feedback, don't have much success." (p. B1) More direct evidence of the importance of the personal relationship between teachers and learners comes from the astounding statistic that the dropout rate among virtual learners is almost 60% (Lewis et al. 1999). Several explanations have been offered for this high dropout rate including the idea that online learning students feel a "lack of connectedness" with their instructor and fellow learners (Zielenski 2000).

WAVE 3 AND HIGHER EDUCATION MODELS

As the saying goes, it is easier to change the course of history than change a history course. Under waves 1 and 2, technology is not exploited to its fullest potential and the same old courses are dressed up in new technology clothes and offered to on-campus and off-campus constituents. In this format, both "campus education" and "distance education" can peacefully co-exist; the same way brick-and-mortar stores have in face of competition from catalogs. Most of the recent controversy, however, stems from the wave 3 applications of technology in educational settings.

Wave 3 technology adoption involves "discontinuous" changes in content and style of delivery. Technology goes beyond mirroring the traditional content. It is used to experiment with and integrate new course material to enhance the learning experience. Celsi and Wolfenbarger (2000) discuss the example of having an embedded link in a PowerPoint presentation to Alan Greenspan's video explaining the latest Fed action. However, it is our opinion that even such uses of technology fall within wave 2 of the adoption process. While PowerPoint with integrated video is innovative, it is not clear how such use of technology transforms the learning process for students. We feel it is time for academics interested in technology to think more creatively on its use in the classroom. With the rapid pace of technological innovation, upcoming breakthroughs will make standardized PowerPoint slides obsolete. For example, instead of presenting a single PowerPoint slide with embedded video to students, intelligent tutoring systems may adapt their teaching models to fit the learning style of the learner.

In addition to impacting the where and when of learning, the third wave also has a major impact on who and how. First, it diffuses the distinction between the provider and the receiver. The instructor is not the sole "producer" of knowledge. For example, in a virtual discussion group, students could be encouraged to post news articles relevant to a topic, and other students can post their reactions to these articles. Thus, students are learning in an environment where the instructor acts more like a moderator or a facilitator. Similarly, if the discussion group permits alumni or business experts to participate, the distinction between provider and receiver gets even muddier. Several groupware applications have the ability to extend the boundaries of learning beyond the walls of the classroom (Wheeler 1998).

Next, third wave technology also changes the content and style of education. For example, research shows that the use of email exchanges changes the mood and tenor of the classroom. Students feel that the interaction is more open (Wallace 1999), and they feel closer to the instructor as well as other students. Some of the obstacles typically faced in wave 2 adoptions can now be countered in wave 3. For example, the lack of a "personal touch" in virtual settings can be countered by "tele-immersion," where one can converse with ultra-realistic holograms. Although its current incarnation requires bulky headgear and multiple cameras, it will, in the future, allow distance-learning students to have personal contact with their "distant" professor like never before (Scanlon 2000).

It is important to note, however, that some developing technologies like tele-immersion resolve the problem of spatial disparity between the locations of teachers and learners, but does not attempt to address the problem of individualization or personalization of learning. That is, tele-immersion will not make it any easier for a single "star professor" to have thousands of students worldwide. Thus, while wave 3 may make "distance education" more realistic, it does not replace campus education.

We feel some of the greatest developments in technology-enhanced education are still ahead of us. It is too early to condemn distance education or technology-enhanced learning in education as a whole. Even viewing multimedia, interactive PowerPoint slides as wave 3 innovations may be thinking too narrowly. The Internet allows us to connect learners like never before. There is currently no broad mechanism to combine the broad learning experiences of millions of learners to build a better learning model. In the future, intelligent neural-

network-based adaptive learning systems may use the combined experiences of all the system's learners to determine the best teaching method for a new learner to the system. Technology can allow students to better experience business situations and use the theory they learn in their classes to address these situations. Thus, simulations of the future may go beyond the analytical manipulation of numbers to allow students to interact with the players in a business to improve their decision making abilities. Textbooks may develop from being mere e-books to becoming intelligent study partners that help students go from reading to understanding.

CONCLUSIONS

Technology, as we have argued above, can benefit both "distance education" and "campus education." Thus, we ought to be focused less on "distance education" or "campus education" and more on the broader issue of technology-enhanced learning. With some fascinating breakthroughs in technology and in the understanding of how learners learn, it is more interesting to shift our focus from examining how technology can be used to reach a greater number of learners to studying how technology can improve the actual teaching-learning process. In this light, the physical location of the teachers and learners are irrelevant. We ought to embrace technologies that show the potential to improve the learning process whether the interaction between teachers and learners is remote or face-to-face.

Despite all we continue to hear on the shift in the educational paradigm towards distance learning or even remote education, the tidal wave has not swept over academe as rapidly and violently as was predicted by some. While several virtual universities have sprung up and traditional universities have rushed to offer courses and degrees online, the shift hasn't been as dramatic as forecast. In the eagerness to predict how the Internet would lead to the rapid demise of the traditional classroom environment, the role of technology in the traditional education process has been given less attention.

We believe we are currently firmly entrenched in Wave 2 and the time is ripe for thinking innovatively about how technology can be used to actually improve student learning. Using technology simply to reach learners and perform time and space shifting functions, although useful, is now passé. Wave 3 utilization of technology, both for distance education and campus education has become important because of the following:

- The Internet has transformed the manner in which we deliver and access information in temporal, geographic, and stylistic terms
- Related to this trend is a swift shift towards a knowledge-based economy. Information is power and lifelong learning is key
- Because of the quickly transforming, dynamic environment within which we all operate, individuals and organizations are beginning to realize that learning cannot stop with the end of an academic program. For a variety of reasons, all related to this new and different world in which we live, the term lifelong learning has truly taken on an important role

Ultimately, the battle between campus education and distance education will be decided on the basis of who makes the wave 3 use of technology better to enhance the learning experience itself. There is currently no indication that faculty will be any less relevant in a wave 3 world. In fact, the years of experience faculty have in personalizing the educational process may put them in a better position to develop better learning solutions in the years to come.

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DISTANCE LEARNING OF ENTIRE COURSES: FOUR MAJOR ISSUES

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ABSTRACT

Colleges and universities across the country have invested in distance learning technology in order to exploit its benefits and stem the rising costs of traditional classroom learning. Along with its benefits come monetary and non-monetary costs to students, faculty, as well as for courses and facilities. Proper assessment of those costs and benefits will permit higher education institutions to make wise strategic decisions concerning the extent to which distance learning should replace traditional classroom learning for their target markets.

INTRODUCTION

Distance learning as an alternative to traditional classroom learning has been used in education for many years (James and Wedemeyer 1959). The development of effective 2-way (interactive) television, and more recently the growing proliferation of personal computers connected through the Internet, has generated renewed excitement about the potential which these technologies offer for distance learning (Hiltz 1994; Holmberg 1995; Lockwood 1995; McClenahan 1997; Piirto 1993). Additionally, rising costs of higher education have motivated taxpayers, tuition payers and college administrators to find more cost effective learning methodologies by harnessing those technologies.

Besser and Bonn (1996) warn that many involved in higher education have pressured themselves to adopt distance learning without asking themselves beforehand whether they teach the kind of material to the kind of students with the kind of faculty resources that will lead all stakeholders to benefit from a shift to distance education. The purpose of this paper is to review four issues impinging upon the effective use of distance learning as an alternative to traditional classroom learning, and to share personal experience.

FOUR MAJOR ISSUES

Student Needs and Non-Monetary Costs

Most learning necessitates more than simply listening or observing. Especially applied learning, a critical goal of business schools (Porter and McKibbin 1988), requires skills like critical thinking

and understanding situational variables affecting the practical use of concepts. Those skills utilize visualization and constitute a higher order of learning (Zoller 1993). Such higher order learning, in turn, demands great motivation from each student, particularly from those not in the upper echelons of ability.

Motivation for education relates to the clarity of a student's educational goal. An investigation by James and Wedemeyer (1959) into reasons for non-completion of correspondence courses revealed the interrelated factors of motivation, clarity of educational goal and understanding of the self-discipline required by that type of distance education. To the extent those findings can be extended to current forms of distance education, successful distance learners must be clearly focused on the purpose for their education and must have developed self-discipline, possibly from prior educational experience, for study in a more independent, remote setting.

Magiera (1994) determined, "The telecourse student tends to be over 26 years of age, highly motivated, goal oriented, and unable to attend the traditional classroom setting" (p.274). Indeed, Clow's (1999) comprehensive study of interactive television (ITV) distance learning and its effect on student evaluations of instruction found that undergraduate students experienced many more problems with that instructional methodology than did graduate students. He recognized that student perceptions of the technology were salient.

Student participation, already difficult to generate in the traditional classroom among students with certain cultural backgrounds or personalities, becomes even more challenging with distance learning (Comeaux 1995; Pool 1996). Those students will be more reticent to speak when they must press a microphone button, possibly activating a camera image of themselves on the screen in an ITV distance learning environment.

Even if a healthy amount of student participation can be generated in distance education, it suppresses two benefits sought from that delivery format. As most who have taught ever-increasing class sizes know, more students mean more questions and student comments. The goal of cost effectiveness to reach greater numbers of students at distant

locations leads to an overabundance of student participation at the expense of breadth of concepts covered and excessive competition for recognition of individual participants. Additionally, the transcending-of-time benefit to students attending cyber-class or a recorded video class at a personally convenient time precludes student questions early in a class, to which timely response permits understanding of later portions of the material.

Faculty Capabilities and Convictions

Instructors proficient with computers and who enjoy utilizing cyber-based technology, or those captivated by ITV technology may be well suited as distance educators. Flaschner (1999) exudes such enthusiasm for cyber-education and the exhilaration of talking with students worldwide that he gave up a tenured position to join a start-up cyber-university. Two instructors, each at a different site team teaching with ITV technology, worked so well interacting back and forth and stimulating student involvement at their respective sites, that they volunteered to teach another distance learning course the following year (Comeaux 1995).

Conversely, some faculty members require the stimulation of face-to-face contact, as do many stage and concert performers, in order to be effective. Other instructors believe the extent of learning in certain courses from distance education does not justify the extra workload of teaching exclusively with technology. Those educators may be less eager to adopt that instructional method.

Instructors experienced in distance education agree that much more planning and preparation are necessary to keep students involved and participating at remote sites (Pool 1996). In two different studies, approximately 30% of the "experienced and highly trained" distance instructors did not want to teach another distance class, faulting amount of advance preparation required, poor transmission quality from the remote sites, lack of adequate training, lack of student interaction, and the perception of being under-compensated for ITV teaching (Barrett et al. 1995; Kendall and Oaks 1992).

An instructor's locus of control represents another cost of distance education. Knowing whether students are paying attention or if they are even connected to the host site persist as problems with many forms of distance education. Making eye contact with students in a conventional classroom setting permits an educator to change the pace of delivery in reaction to non-verbal cues from students, or to puzzled looks. Besser (1996)

alternated the origin of an ITV class between two sites, noting "students in the same classroom as the instructor invariably paid careful attention, while students in the remote site were constantly fidgeting and not as attentive." Comeaux (1995) noted the same phenomenon.

Faculty, who must adapt their teaching styles to the level of optimal intra-student and student-professor interaction for particular courses, must further adapt their pedagogy to the level of interactivity permitted by the technological infrastructure. "For example, one cannot try to teach a seminar if the infrastructure provides only the level of interactivity designed for a lecture" (Besser 1996, p. 817). Certain instructors may be unable or unwilling to adapt so extensively. Others might not possess the personalities, such as a sense of humor in dealing with technical problems and a relaxed interpersonal style generating student interaction and involving students personally in course content, deemed essential for effective distance education (Comeaux 1995).

Course Suitability

Massy and Zemsky (1996), directors of Institutes for Higher Education Research at Stanford and University of Pennsylvania respectively, believe that subject areas most able to profit from information technology delivery systems are those with large volumes of students, standardized curricula, content over which faculty are less possessive, and outcomes which can be easily delineated. They suggest remedial and basic math, general education courses and composition courses, with faculty monitoring student motivation and providing support at critical junctures. Courses containing many complex demonstrations also seem appropriate for cyber-based and interactive television learning technologies due to the need for close-up visual observation. Examples include systems design, health care procedures, computer programming, chemical processes and experiments.

Because of the widespread success of distance learning for training rather than teaching, Besser and Bonn (1996) suggest distance delivery is best suited for communicating a fixed and narrow set of skills and goals to students with a strong desire for those specific skills. Courses consisting primarily of behavioral concepts may be better learned through oral instruction in which students visualize in their own heads the motivations, conditioning, and environmental circumstances underlying the behavior. Portraying behavioral influences in a dynamic, visual mode like videotape or cyber

streaming video is difficult to accomplish in a timely way.

Facility Requirements

A key goal of distance learning is reducing the cost of education. By expanding reach to students and utilizing remote sites or students' own workstations, proponents suggest capital investment in classrooms and instructional cost per student will be lessened (Chow 1999; Massy and Zemsky 1996; May 1997; Pool 1996). While the former savings appear valid, considering costs to students and faculty explained above and costs of equipment, discussed below, it remains questionable whether cost per student will be lower while maintaining quality.

For ITV-based distance learning, classrooms must be equipped with expensive cameras, monitors, sound and artificial lighting. Natural light can lack uniformity, predictability, and can cause glare on monitors. Additional technology such as computers with PowerPoint capability, VCRs, equipment tying together and controlling all this apparatus, plus wiring and transmitters constitute necessary components. Frequent technological advancements warranting upgrades in the infrastructure must be recognized, as well.

Flaschner (1999) discusses the benefits and efficacy of cyber-based education including 2-way video and audio for case-based courses with 12 students. Each student and the instructor can be seen and heard by all parties by dividing the computer screen into multiple windows of rows and columns. Even if the instructor of such a minimal size cyber class can identify from those small windows non-verbal cues of one or a few students not understanding some material, the economies of scale sought through distance education are obviously precluded. Scale economies also become stymied by frequent interaction and collaboration among students and professor which emerge as essential in distance learning (Bailey and Cotlar 1994; Comeaux 1995; Kendrick 1998).

In reality, for distance independent learning to justify itself solely in dollar terms, it seems likely that either its potential for being individualized and interactive or its potential for reaching a large audience will be sacrificed (Besser and Bonn 1996, p. 881).

PERSONAL EXPERIENCE

The author taught two graduate, marketing management courses two years apart, employing

ITV technology, and utilizing a lecture-discussion format as recommended by Bland et al (1992). The facility used for these courses employed 2-way audio, consisting of one microphone placed between each pair of students at the host site on-campus, and one microphone shared among ten students one semester and six students another term at a single remote site. On/off switches controlled microphones at both sites.

Four cameras operated by a student assistant at the host site on-campus broadcasted the 1-way video to a large screen television receiver at the remote site. Two cameras in the back of the host classroom provided wide angle and close up images of the instructor. One camera in front of the classroom focused on each student pressing the "on" switch of a microphone. The fourth camera functioned as an overhead projector displaying hand drawn or preprinted images on a large screen television facing students in the host classroom, on the television at the remote site, and on a small television monitor for instructor adjustment of images. The instructor verbally directed the student assistant when to switch to the overhead camera, an optional video tape player, the back-of-room cameras, or a computer controlled by the instructor.

Despite rather extensive investment in facilities, numerous problems affected students and instructor. Frequent reminders throughout the semester to host-site students to utilize their microphone switches so they could be heard at the remote site broke continuity, impeding the free flow of dialog. Exacerbating that impediment, students at the remote site wishing to speak were required to get up from their seats and walk over to the microphone. The high cost of equipment to tie multiple microphones together precluded buying additional microphones. Additionally, distinctly hearing students' comments from the remote site was problematic (also see Comeaux 1995).

Surprisingly for graduate students, classroom decorum at the remote site posed another problem. An undergraduate student assistant with responsibility to monitor the remote site's classes and examinations did not command sufficient respect to minimize frivolous conversations.

Those problems and various technical difficulties resulted in decreased material covered and increased distractions from effective learning—and speak directly to the high cost of ITV facilities. Students raised with the Muppets, MTV and sophisticated television programs including the news expect fast, smooth-running presentations to hold their attention with that medium. Yet such

presentations require hundreds of man-hours from numerous production specialists to develop just one hour of programming. If extensive human resource and technical equipment expenses were unnecessary to maintain viewer attention, would profit-seeking television programming companies invest so much?

Due to small sample sizes of distance learners, focus groups were conducted at two on-campus meetings of all students each semester. After refinements based on prior meetings' feedback, the majority of **host site**, on-campus students found the technical difficulties and interruptions of continuity irritating and distracting. Most stated they did not wish to participate in another ITV class. Except for one student each semester who complained about classroom decorum, all **remote site** students praised the ITV format for its convenience and stated they would definitely enroll in another ITV class.

Anonymous, end of semester, student evaluations and final grade point averages provide a different perspective. Figure 1 shows that **remote site** students earned slightly lower GPAs than their **host site** counterparts both semesters. The **remote** learners also rated their instructor slightly lower than **host site** students' evaluations of the same instructor.

Interestingly, **remote site** students rated their instructor the same or lower than **host site** learners both terms on each individual evaluation question except one in Spring 1999. That semester **remote site** students rated putting "sufficient effort" into the class slightly higher than their **on-campus** counterparts. "Instructor was helpful," "Gave good examples," "Prepared for class," "Gave relevant assignments," "Knowledgeable in field," and "Explains materials well" emerged as items rated slightly lower by **remote** learners even though all students were taught by the same professor at the same time in the respective semesters. Having the instructor physically present had a positive effect on student evaluations of the learning experience.

CONCLUSION

Tradeoffs between traditional classroom learning and various forms of distance learning must be carefully analyzed before a higher education institution commits to distance learning as an alternative to on-campus classroom learning. New forms of information and video technology offer great potential for enhanced education, including reaching students at distant and more convenient locations than traditional classroom settings. Further

study of costs and the true extent of benefits actually realized from replacing face-to-face classroom learning with cyber-based or interactive television (ITV) learning technologies must clarify the circumstances and the extent to which utilizing those technologies for distance learning will optimize stakeholder goals.

The preponderance of studies to date demonstrates that distance education satisfies some needs of a significant segment of post secondary students. Several course specific studies indicate no significant differences in exam performance between distance education students using ITV technology and students taking classes using traditional methods. Mixed and conflicting results from existing distance learning studies, coupled with issues concerning caliber of students in those studies and whether self-selected distance learners constitute a biased sample, call for further study.

This author's findings and those of Clow (1999) indicate that the physical presence of the instructor has a positive effect on student perceptions of the learning experience. Certainly **remote site** students' perceptions of distance learning constitute salient information as they affect alumni support and national rankings of schools (e.g., Business Week). The perceptions of distance learning by **on-campus** students attending the host-site classroom from which a distance education class originates also represent important considerations.

As the engines driving education delivery, faculty must believe in the efficacy of distance learning and in their potential to utilize it effectively. Success with distance education partly depends on having a sufficient number of discipline specialists who are willing and possess personalities capable of properly re-engineering their pedagogy to adapt to the technology.

Further study of student performance and of the type of courses best suited for distance education, combined with student perceptions of distance learning, an institution's assessment of its own faculty's abilities and personalities, plus accurate monetary and non-monetary cost analyses constitute information necessary for determining tradeoffs. That complex set of information will allow a higher education institution to make a wise decision about the extent to which distance learning should supplant that institution's traditional classroom learning, given its unique characteristics and goals.

References Available Upon Your Request.

TEACHING DATA MINING AND OTHER DATABASE RESEARCH METHODS IN MARKETING RESEARCH CLASSES: AN INTERIM ASSESSMENT

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ABSTRACT

Continuous growth in computer storage capacity has led to the development of methods to investigate large databases directly, rather than taking samples of the database population. However, while industry is heavily involved in using databases for marketing purposes, the academic component of the marketing research discipline has not yet caught up with industry practice. Literature review and the result of an industry survey form the basis for assessing the impact of this phenomenon on teaching marketing research.

BACKGROUND

My first introduction to Data Mining [DM] was several years ago as a reviewer for a University research grant program when one of my colleagues in Management Information Systems proposed a grant to use DM. In my mind, DM had the pejorative meaning as noted by Berry and Linoff (1997): "selectively trying to find data that will support a particular hypothesis". Out of ignorance, since the colleague did not define what DM was, I was not very favorable to his application.

Time passed, and I began to see the Data Mining term mentioned in marketing contexts, but never fully defined. After two decades of teaching research methods, my feeling was that any method that was "just another exotic methodology" was of little relevance to my undergraduate and MBA research classes. In these classes, it is rare that a student can even explain how to do a single sample t-test at the start of the semester, so there is more than enough material to cover during the semester without getting into the more exotic methods.

However, changes in computer technology have allowed the accumulation of large quantities of data in digital format, and business (and other) organizations have taken advantage of it. At the midpoint of the 20th century no company had more than the equivalent of 30 or 40 megabytes of data [in paper format] in its ledgers, books and file cabinets. By the end of the 20th century, however, things have dramatically changed; UPS, for example, has 17 million megabytes [17 terabytes] in the database of package level detail it uses to track

shipments. This is about the same amount of storage as contained in the books of the Library of Congress, the largest repository of information in the world (Berry and Linoff 2000). Changes in methods of data analysis induced by storage of this order of magnitude led me to take another look at this "Data Mining" methodology.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Journals

Thinking that perhaps I had been remiss in my currency, I turned to the leading marketing, marketing research, and marketing education journals for help in explaining to me what I had missed. While there were faculty admonitions to "stay in the front of technological change and take a true leadership role in helping students develop business skills necessary for success" (Smart, et al. 1999, p. 206), and to "enhance the relevance of research inquiries" (Day and Montgomery 1999, p. 12), very little was found to accomplish this "true leadership role" relative to DM.

First I reviewed the 1997 through 1999 Journal of Marketing Research and Journal of Business Research, the journals primarily related to the courses I teach. Only one article on DM was found, by Ying, Platt and Platt (1999), which was not on a marketing topic (it investigated reasons for business bankruptcy). The article compared the discriminating power of neural networks (one of several DM methods) to discriminant analysis, finding slightly better results with the latter. However, their entire dataset consisted of only 122 cases, so the results are not surprising, as DM methods are designed to be utilized on very large databases.

The small dataset used in this study is exacerbated by the requirements of neural networks, typical of several DM methods, which require more than one set of data for development. For neural networks, three datasets are needed: a training set, a validation set, and a test set (Berry and Linoff 1997, Yang, et al. 1999). These 122 records thus had to be divided into three, thereby seeming not to provide a suitable venue for a comparison test. It would be interesting to replicate this investigation with a more suitable set of data.

Further investigation of journals carrying relevant articles was carried out. A search of the *Journal of Marketing's* "Marketing Literature Review" for the three volumes in 2000 yielded only two articles on DM, and those in *Stores*, an industry journal. They were not pursued, as the point had been made that there was insufficient literature to develop a solid grounding in database analysis and DM.

Textbooks

An examination of several current editions of marketing textbooks for application examples indicates that many of the books, but not all, have begun to include mention of DM. For example, Berkowitz, et al. (2000) do not mention Data Mining, while Solomon and Stuart (2000) do. Those marketing textbooks which do discuss DM (e.g. Czinkota, et al. 2000) typically discuss it in conjunction with Direct Marketing and Database Marketing, at most devoting a paragraph or two to DM specifically. The heavy involvement of Direct Marketing in utilization of DM is understandable, as Hughes (1996) notes that this form of retailing began in the 19th century with catalogs, and has continually adopted new approaches as technology has changed.

The current editions of marketing research textbooks, and business research textbooks, have typically begun to contain discussions of databases and DM in their sections on decision support systems [DSS], or secondary data. For example, Churchill (2001) vs. Churchill (1996); Aaker, Kumar and Day (2001) vs. their 1998 edition; Cooper and Schindler (1998) vs. Cooper and Schindler (1995); and Zikmund (2000) vs. Zikmund (1997) all have DM discussions in their new editions, but not in the previous ones. However, there is typically not enough discussion included to give an instructor confidence in answering student questions on the topic.

INDUSTRY SURVEY

Still a bit uncertain about how much database research utilizing DM methods was actually taking place in the marketing research industry, it was decided to ask some research practitioners. A survey of the "Honomichl 50" marketing research organizations was undertaken to find the level of interest and utilization of DM applications among marketing research consultants. The Honomichl listing in the *Marketing News* (1999) was used as the sample frame, with the assumption that the larger of the research organizations would be the ones most likely to adopt the new methods. Given the small sample (including three questionnaires returned as "undeliverable"), the response rate of

23% makes projections of the results to the entire marketing research industry somewhat tenuous.

The most important finding of the survey was that some marketing research organizations (45% of the respondents) were using DM in their consulting activities, and had been doing so for several years. Others were in the process of developing DM for future use (27%), while still others were not using DM, and had no immediate plans for doing so (27%). All of the organizations that were using DM were utilizing in-house expertise; none of the respondents were contracting out those services.

The survey indicated that the primary applications of DM methods were in the areas of customer relationship management and market segmentation, followed by product configuration development. Those organizations not using or developing DM cited lack of customer demand for the methods as the main reason for not doing so, rather than either expense or a belief that DM is a fad.

The Data Mining family of methods includes a number of mathematical techniques that investigate the entire set of data in a large dataset, rather than using samples as traditional statistical methods do. The DM tools most widely used by the survey respondents were cluster detection and decision trees, followed by market basket analysis, neural networks, and rule induction.

Respondents to the survey were not significantly different from the entire Honomichl 50 population with respect to organization size and proportion having revenues from outside the United States. Somewhat surprising was the finding that those organizations using or developing DM methods were independent of organization size. That is, the smaller of the research organizations were proportionally just as likely to be using DM methods as the larger organizations in the Honomichl 50 list.

WHERE TO FIND MORE INFORMATION

Professional Seminars

The paucity of literature on marketing applications of DM methods may be changing. Within the last year, DM has begun to appear in seminars primarily aimed at professionals. For example, AMA's (2000) Advanced Research Techniques (ART) Forum includes sessions on DM, which the 1999 ART did not; the 2000 Applied Research Methods Conference and School of Marketing Research also have sessions or tutorials on DM. Non-AMA research seminars also have begun to include DM in their list of offerings; e.g., Neilsen-Burke (*Marketing News* 2000). Unfortunately, the cost of

attending these seminars, and the relative brevity of the presentation and the complexity of the topic, do not hold forth much promise of developing a level of expertise comparable to what most professors have in traditional statistical research methodology.

Professional Books

This category of DM information currently appears to be the most useful. Several professional books which directly address DM, its database context, and marketing applications, are available. The original Berry and Linoff (1997), their updated version (2000), and Groh (1998) are all very helpful (the original Berry and Linoff contains some useful material not in the later version). There are also professional books more oriented toward applications and less on methodology (e.g., Hughes 1996) that may provide some useful material.

SOME TECHNICAL DETAIL

With a new and evolving discipline, definitions are not firmly established, and DM is very much in accordance with this model. For this discussion, DM will be defined as: "the process of exploration and analysis of large quantities of data in order to discover meaningful patterns and rules" (Berry and Linoff 2000, p. 12).

Database Data

Hair, et al. (2000) note that the second half of the 20th Century has seen two shifts in the "fundamental character of data analysis" (p. 671). The first was the mid-1970s, when mainframe and (later) personal computers allowed multivariable methods to gain widespread acceptance and use. The second was in the 1990s, with the development of large-scale databases, and the development of new methods to analyze the "information avalanche".

The preparation of data warehouses (large sets of data accumulated from different sources) for DM analysis is no simple task. In fact, it can be the most time consuming part of any DM analysis, as noted by Groh (1998):

"The biggest challenge business analysts face in using data mining is how to extract, integrate, cleanse, and prepare data to solve their most pressing business problems. This issue is a formidable one, and can take the bulk of the time in the data mining process."

Insofar as a data warehouse may not even exist in any given research application, one may have to be developed using Information System methods to merge sets of data from a variety of sources, or query tools to create files from existing databases (Groh 1998).

Data quality is also an important issue, so much so that it is advised to "beware the consultant or data-mining product that does not address (or downplays) how to get the data ready for analysis." (Pettit 2000). In addition to redundant data, and incorrect or inconsistent data, there is an issue of data format. Data from operations tends to be either continuous or categorical (ratio or nominal, in typical marketing research terminology), and some of the DM methodologies do not handle continuous data; they must be made categorical (ordinal or nominal) to be used. All this is assuming that the existing database is sufficient to use without adding any additional data from other sources (e.g. consumer credit card information).

Database Analytical Tools

The following is a brief listing of analytical tools which may be applied after a suitable database has been prepared.

Standard Statistics: a sample of a database may be obtained and inserted into spreadsheet format; therefore, all of the "traditional" statistical techniques are potentially available for use (Hair, et al., 1998). Since there is access to the entire "population", very large samples, to the limits of the capacity of the statistical package employed, may be obtained. As with all samples, however, the existence of very small "segments" may still be too small to yield useful information, even though they may be profitable in the marketplace. Further, the concept of statistical significance becomes less useful with large samples, as findings are increasingly likely to be "significant", even if they are of little managerial importance.

Queries: queries are investigative questions relating to specific items in the database, and may be in the form of Structured Query Language (SQL) for use in On Line Analytical Processing (OLAP) methods (Berry and Linoff 2000). A simple query may look at the entire database for questions such as "how many times has Brand X been purchased concurrently with Brand Y?" A more complex query may first require the formation of a new and smaller dataset consisting only of the variables of interest, thus allowing faster examination of relationships, and the use of a variety of DM tools to examine the relationships.

Data Visualization: methods of displaying data for visual review have been found to be useful, and have been increasingly developed for assisting managerial decisions (Hair, et al., 1998). Visualization methods range from simple graphs and charts to quite complex multidimensional

structures, which are combinations of art and mathematics. Shape, color, line and artistic graphics are all used to convey what is hopefully informative material. Query software may use visualization methods to answer the question asked.

Data Mining Tools: Data Mining, as contrasted with queries and visualization, includes the following methods: Market Basket Analysis, Memory Based Reasoning, Genetic Algorithms, Cluster Detection, Link Analysis, Decision Trees, and Neural Networks (Berry and Linoff 1997). The tasks performed by these methods may be classified as Directed methodologies (which are generally referred to in statistical analysis as dependence methods), and Undirected methodologies (interdependence methods). The former include classification, estimation and prediction tasks, and the latter include affinity grouping or association rules, clustering, and description (Berry and Linoff 2000). Each of the DM methodologies indicated above may be useful in performing both undirected and directed tasks.

CONCLUSIONS

The last two decades have seen an explosion in the capacity of business organizations to retrieve and store operational data. When combined with customer data, these massive databases constitute a valuable source of information for marketing purposes. Businesses are increasingly using this information in their marketing efforts, particularly in promotion.

Development of methods of researching these databases has paralleled the expansion of storage capacity and access. While it is possible to obtain samples of the databases and use traditional statistical methods, the newly developed database investigation methods have some unique advantages. In particular, they have the capacity to discover very small segments that may not exist in sufficient sizes in a sample to be uncovered, but which may still be profitable to management to pursue.

Developing the expertise necessary to teach basic DM concepts in a marketing research classroom context is increasingly necessary. However, there are some important barriers to developing this expertise, including:

- Lack of marketing literature information
- Complexity of dataset preparation
- Complexity of the investigation methods
- Costs of software

Some of these barriers may be addressed with minimal difficulty; others are less tractable. This

paper is titled "An Interim Assessment" because, at its writing, the author had not yet surmounted these barriers.

The usual academic information sources of journal articles and academic conferences do not seem to be very helpful at the present time. The acquisition of appropriate textbooks is also currently a problem. The few DM marketing discipline-oriented books available are written more for a managerial or professional audience than an academic one.

Data issues are far more complex in database investigation than they are in data used for statistical analysis. While databases appropriate for analysis are becoming more common in business data repositories, there still may be a substantial amount of data preparation necessary prior to any investigation using either traditional statistics or the newer data mining methods.

The net result is that, even when the investigator has a good grasp of the function of the various tools, their application for research purposes will require some additional expertise. The data complexity will require either that the researcher be well versed in information technology, or work closely with an IT person. It is anticipated that this situation will continue to exist for some time.

Fortunately, this aspect of the task for the marketing research instructor is potentially not quite so difficult. "Groomed" datasets may be developed for classroom purposes, so that the more technical problems involved could have already been rectified, and only research decision issues be unresolved (e.g. where to define category limits in order to make a continuous variable into a discrete variable).

Developing some level of expertise in the tools still remains a barrier to classroom inclusion, due to both the information shortages and the substantial complexity of the investigative tools used. Insofar as the roots of the tools lie in different disciplines, it is more difficult to find an "expert" in all the tools than in statistical methods. However, these tools are increasingly becoming more "user friendly". Software for classroom purposes is also a problem, as the commercial versions of available software are quite expensive. "Student editions" of data mining software seem to be only in the initial stages of development.

The American Marketing Association has, since its inception, been an organization that has recognized that the cooperation of both professionals and academics is necessary for the development of a

strong discipline. This necessity appears to be especially true in the area of database research methodologies. It is to industry's benefit to have marketing graduates who are aware of, and familiar with, database research methods. To achieve this, those academics who teach the students need to be brought "up to speed" in this area. It is hoped that the AMA leadership will work toward methods to achieve this goal, e.g., substantial faculty discounts for professional training programs in database research methods, and "student editions" of software and prepared databases.

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TEACHING MARKETING RESEARCH USING THE INTERNET: A LIBRARIAN'S PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

The Internet has caused an explosion in the amount of data available for marketing research. Course-integrated instruction by a librarian is an excellent method for teaching students how to develop strategies for finding marketing research on the Internet. Techniques for conducting marketing research on the Internet are presented. Free and fee-based sources of marketing research are identified and critiqued. Methods for determining the authority of information retrieved and ways to mine the "invisible" Web are discussed.

The Internet has changed the face of marketing education. Students expect – as do the companies that will hire them – to have extensive training and experience in the use of the Internet. The challenge for marketing education is to teach students the current capabilities of marketing research on the Internet while acknowledging that these capabilities often change daily. Equally important is to teach what can not be had via the Internet, and how to find useful data on the unindexed, or "invisible" web. It is a rare university that can afford to purchase professionally produced market research reports, which often run into the tens of thousands of dollars per report. The alternative is to acquire marketing research from free sources like government agencies, free or fee-based databases available via the Internet, or traditional print resources which are widely available in university libraries. (Staninger, Goshorn, and Boettcher, 1998) Teaching strategies for retrieving relevant data from these sources is essential for effective marketing research. Integrating library instruction with marketing research is an effective way of teaching these vital skills.

As any Internet user knows, it is quite easy to retrieve mass quantities of information. The challenge lies in assessing quality and determining relevancy to the research project at hand. This is a frequently underemphasized research skill. Traditional marketing research methods courses focus on instructing the students how to retrieve data. With the Internet and several search engines of varying quality available, retrieving data is no longer a problem. The challenge lies in learning

how to focus searches so that relevant data is retrieved. Once assembled, this data must be assessed to determine its accuracy and relevancy to the project at hand. Internet resources are widely used in marketing education, but the focus is usually on interpreting the data found. (Siu and Chau, 1998) Instruction on strategies for finding quality marketing data and accurately assessing its authority is a vital - but seldom thoroughly taught - aspect of marketing education.

Even the best Internet search engines retrieve somewhat less than 40% of available web pages. (Sullivan, 2000) Web search engines index words found in HTML format. They usually index titles, but not content. Homepages of databases are found, but not the content contained in the database. These search engines also do not index any documents in PDF (Adobe's Portable Document Format), which is the format of many business related electronic publications. The result is that this often valuable information is "invisible" to popular web search engines. (Snow, 2000)

The chaos of the Internet is starting to be brought under control by search products that classify and catalog information like a traditional library. The most prominent of these is Intelliseek's *Invisible Web* [<http://www.invisibleweb.com>]. Invisible Web lists over 10,000 sites in classified, searchable databases. These sites are content rich databases, instead of simply homepages of dubious value. Other relatively new services that are helping to classify and catalog the invisible web are *The Big Hub* [<http://www.thebighub.com>], *Internet Oracle* [<http://www.internetoracle.com>], and *Webdata* [<http://www.webdata.com>]. Of particular interest to marketing researchers is iMarket's Zapdata [<http://www.zapdata.com>]. It provides an impressive collection of marketing data for free, although users must first register online. These sites for searching the invisible web should be not be considered a replacement to popular search engines such as *Alta Vista* [<http://altavista.com>], *Lycos* [<http://www.lycos.com>], *Web Crawler* [<http://www.webcrawler.com>], and many others too numerous to mention. The important lessons for marketing students are to understand how search engines work, and be aware of their inherent

limitations. Equally important is to explain what constitutes the invisible web, and to provide sites and strategies for finding this information. The Internet, its content, and the means of finding electronic information changes daily. Fundamental strategies of keyword searching, classification schemes, and cataloging practices change very slowly, if at all, and students must be taught these skills to become effective researchers.

Information retrieval and assessment is one of the primary functions of a university business librarian. Librarians, through formal training, daily experience, and continuing education, have a keen sense of how to retrieve and assess information. Students are well served when librarians are included in a course-integrated program of instruction in marketing education. A one or two day seminar taught by the librarian in lieu of the regular class meeting is usually sufficient for introductory database instruction. Research is a vital component of marketing education, and the inclusion of library instruction in the curriculum provides students with the necessary skills to conduct effective marketing research.

When instructing students in doing marketing research via the Internet, the most important concept, from a librarian's perspective, is determining authority. In order to accurately assess the quality of the marketing research retrieved from the Internet, the student must be able to determine with reasonable certainty the authority of the data. The author can be personal, corporate, or governmental. In any case the identity and perceived reliability of the author is absolutely crucial in determining whether or not the data retrieved can be considered valid.

Almost any search for marketing data using any of the popular Internet search engines will retrieve tens of thousands of sites. At the University of San Diego, marketing classes often include a library instruction unit. The librarian, in consultation with the marketing professor, creates a course-integrated instructional seminar wherein students are taught strategies for successful marketing research. One instructional tool used to help students to see the importance of determining authority is the fictitious "Bob's Marketing Homepage". The students are instructed to ask the following questions:

- Who is Bob?
- Where is he getting this information?
- How do you know if it is accurate?

- Why is Bob putting this up on the Internet for free?
- Is this information going to be here tomorrow?

The honest answer to all of these questions is, of course, "I don't know!" This exercise has proven to be quite effective in getting students to be suspicious of data found for free on the Internet. The questions listed above are a good way for students to assess the authority of any information they retrieve. These questions can be easily answered when the author is a government agency, a marketing association, or a well-known marketing research firm or periodical. There are many ways to refine the results of research: careful selection of keywords, using Boolean operators (and, or, not) to focus the search, and limiting by year, languages, or material type. None of these are, in the opinion of the author, as useful as questioning – then determining – the authority of the data retrieved.

Because of the tremendous amount of information readily available via the Internet, students need a method that will allow them to focus their research before they begin searching. The goal is not to retrieve marketing data, but to retrieve just that data relevant to the current research project. An effective way of bringing focus to a marketing research project is the traditional outline. It need not be a formal Roman numeral I, section A outline, but simply an organized list of research objectives. Creating an outline forces the student to think through their research objectives, and determine the specific goals of their search. Many students simply search for "marketing research" and are overwhelmed when tens of thousands of items are retrieved. Prior planning encourages thoroughness and precision, two qualities necessary for doing effective and efficient marketing research.

Students often have unrealistic expectations of the type of marketing research available in university libraries. Although libraries typically subscribe to a wide variety of electronic and paper publications that contain data relevant to marketing research, it is quite rare for libraries to acquire – either electronically or in paper - marketing research reports sold by private consulting firms and large marketing research companies. The marketing research that is available in libraries is usually produced by governmental organizations or is material that the library has purchased from an information vendor on a subscription basis. (Poe, 2000) Students need to be made aware of the limitations of this data. It is often the case that the information they are seeking is available, just not in the format they would like. "Turn-key" marketing

research reports are prohibitively expensive and rarely available in university libraries. Course-integrated library instruction teaches students that a market profile can be cobbled together using a variety of free and fee-based Internet sources, as well as traditional paper sources.

With the explosion of distance education, Internet-based research has become an essential part of the marketing curriculum. Indeed, the existence of the Internet has created the means by which an extensive program of distance education courses can be offered. Instruction in the use of the virtual library in distance learning courses must be an integral part of a quality distance learning experience. (Wolpert, 1998) Librarians can identify electronic sources of marketing research, arrange for remote access to subscription databases, and provide reference assistance via e-mail. Instruction on how to determine the authority of web sites and Internet research strategies can easily be transmitted to distance learners. Web-based tutorials are routinely used with good success to impart this information to distance learners. (Flanagan, 1999)

Librarians can be quite effective in teaching students what is available, and more importantly, what is not available and why. Long experience with searching the Internet gives librarians a unique perspective on the constantly changing capabilities and shortcomings of the Internet, a lesson that students of marketing must learn as part of a thorough education. Students must be made aware that not everything they need is on the Internet. Many information products are more easily accessed in book form, or are not even available electronically. Virtually all marketing information is digital somewhere, but access to it is often not cost effective. Many sites request a fee in the form of a credit card number in order to retrieve the data. Often times, libraries have the print form of the data, which is purchased once and available to all library users. Paying for the same marketing research downloaded via the Internet for each user is not cost effective. Availability of electronic information is an area of constant change. As information products become less expensive online, paper subscriptions are abandoned. The best way to keep track of the current status of needed information products is through consultation with the librarian. Databases available via the Internet have a wide variety of methodologies of organization. There are as yet no standard means of indexing, cataloging, and classifying the information resources on the Internet. Subscription databases that many libraries offer such as

ABI/Inform, Dow Jones Interactive, and Lexis-Nexis all have different content and search engines. Effective and efficient research requires that students receive instruction in searching these and other databases.

Course integrated library instruction is a necessary part of quality marketing education. The librarian must keep abreast of the constantly changing formats and availability of the information products used in marketing research. With this knowledge, the librarian can teach the student and marketing professor about new information products and changing search capabilities. (Crawford and Barrett, 1997) Awareness of what is and is not available via the Internet, and understanding of how Internet search engines work and the existence of the invisible web, and how to craft a marketing research project from the available information is a crucial component of marketing education. It is a common misperception that the Internet makes it easier to find information. This is quite definitely untrue. The ability to retrieve tremendous amounts of information requires the researcher to critically assess the information retrieved to determine its authority. The data retrieved must also be assessed to determine if it satisfies predetermined research goals, or if further research is necessary. The researcher must develop the necessary skills to effectively search the Internet using a wide variety of search engines, each of which employ a different methodology of organization. Marketing instructors would do well to form a strategic alliance with the librarian to create a learning environment wherein students can be instructed in both the theory and practice of marketing research.

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REAL-TIME TECHNOLOGIES FOR RESEARCH AND CLASS PROJECTS IN MARKETING

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ABSTRACT

Market research both in the classroom and "real world" activities is facing an evolution of the telecommunications industry and in the way we communicate with each other. This paper examines real-time technology for survey building, data collection and analysis of data... all online, all instantly.

INTRODUCTION

Market research and teaching activities present new challenges in a world where written electronic communications is becoming instant and more predominant than traditional phone call. This ability to communicate not only increases access to customers and businesses, but changes expectations for customer service, customer satisfaction, employee feedback, and competitor tracking.

Taking a simple example of customer satisfaction research, the literature shows that studies of customer satisfaction conducted during the 1990s have one consistent finding: customers are increasingly less and less satisfied with the service they are receiving. In fact, a recent book targeted to business managers consisted of little more than a compendium of customer-service horror stories. Perhaps more interesting is the fact that this decreasing satisfaction is occurring at the same time that companies are claiming to be more customer-oriented than ever before. A Business Week cover story from the beginning of the decade has even proclaimed that the customer was king.

We now look for "7x24, instant, real-time, without waiting, have it your way" service. Access to real-time products, service and information may have created customers that are more demanding. Regardless of the underlying rationale for current perceptions about

service levels, unsatisfactory service creates a gap that can be exploited by a firm's competition. These gaps can be even more pervasive as a company goes global since cultural, regulatory, and infrastructure factors each impact the ability of a company to "meet customers' real needs."

Concurrent with this increased expectation of customer service is the increased need for more

timely and complete information gathered and analyzed for differences by geographic, cultural and other useful segments. As service expectations increase, so do the needs for real-time customer feedback and monitoring.

With the advent of today's online and wireless technologies, we see greater scope and depth of research in our academic research, in our class projects, and in professional research. This paper discusses a new technology that offers a generalized solution for increasing the access and speed of survey research activities.

SURVEYPRO.COM: FOR ONLINE RESEARCH

Surveypro.com is the site of an On Line Application Processing (OLAP) tool for general-purpose survey research that integrates the building, data warehousing, and analysis of on-line surveys into an easy 1-2-3 step process. Templates from a survey library are combined with survey creation wizards to make creating advanced surveys both easy and convenient. To date, one of the major stumbling blocks of Internet research has been the time and expense to "wire" the survey input into a database, after which the database is converted into files for analysis.



Surveypro.com Quick and Easy
Instant Web Surveys

1. Build Your Survey
2. Collect Your Data
3. View Your Results

| Free Survey | Do It Yourself Tools | Tutorials | Marketplace | Help

1. Think a New Survey or Select a Named Survey
2. Build or Edit a Questionnaire
3. Title the Survey
4. View Data Tables/Reports
5. View Survey Progress

One of the breakthrough developments of Surveypro.com is the automatic creation of a database and an icon based analysis tool that operates with a click of the mouse.

The heart of Surveypro.com is a set of advanced tools for sophisticated questioning. Data may be collected using formats for text input, generalized multiple choice, multiple choice batteries, rank order and constant sum questions. Answer order may be randomized and selection options include controls for picking exactly 1 of N, K of N, or as many as K of N possible responses.

**FIGURE 1
GENERALIZED MULTIPLE CHOICE WIZARD**

Multiple Choice Wizard (Specifications Page):

Display Options

CheckBox / Radio Buttons

Dropdown Menu Box

Vertical Horizontal **Scale Orientation**

Specify the Number of Answers: (Help is available below)

Exactly **OR** As Many As...

OF Possible Answers

Check to rotate the order of choice items across respondents

Check to force the respondent to answer

Optional Pre-Question Description or Instruction

HELP

The multiple choice wizard is extremely flexible. You can form simple

Multiple Choice:

Enter text for question and answers...

Question:

Enter the text of the question to be asked.

Multiple Choice Answer Items:

Enter the text of each of the multiple choice answer items

1

2

When the survey questions are developed, the question and response format are automatically mapped to the database builder so that the database is built and completed with the questionnaire. This development is totally transparent to the user. All that remains for the user to do is to distribute the survey URL or the actual survey by e-mail, wait for the completed surveys to be submitted, and then click on the analysis button to produce simple tabulations (counts and percentages), and standard horizontal and vertical bar charts, and pie charts.

Once the survey is constructed, a sophisticated branching algorithm may be used to direct a respondent from any answer to any question that follows. This branching technology enables qualification questions, multiple language formats and the use of alternative in-dept text questions as a follow-up to classification questions.

INSTANT DATABASES

For the researcher, this tool offers the ability to collaborate with colleagues in both development and collection of cross-cultural data, all on a real-time basis.

SURVEY DISTRIBUTION FOR REAL-TIME RESEARCH

There are six ways to link to or distribute a research survey. You will note that the examples given are already setup with links to an individual survey... just change this to your own survey information for the code provided. Note that all of these methods are not equally productive. Industry research shows that method 1, a letter that contains a viewable survey, produces response rates 40% higher than does letters that contain only a link to a survey.

Assume your survey address is:
http://www.surveypro.com/cgi-bin/surveypro/run_survey.cgi?id=29

Method 1: E-mail Survey (Viewable in the E-Mail)

Current browser technology permits HTML web pages to be viewed as part of the content of an e-mail message. Method 1 is basically one of forwarding a viewable survey to your list of respondents. To administer an e-mail survey, follow the following steps:

1. Prepare your mailing list.
2. Prepare your survey. This is done by forwarding the email message containing the survey.

You will note that when you forward the message, the sender information from the original message will appear at the top of the message. Of course you don't want this information in your message, so simply go into the message and edit out this text.

You may also type an additional text message to the top of the survey if you desire (Such as a note asking them to participate in your survey).

3. Test your result by forwarding the original message to your own e-mail address until you are satisfied with your message.

4. Finally, add your e-mail list to the "To:" list and send the message to those on your e-mail list.

Method 2: Adding Text Link to Your E-Mail Letter

A hyperlink may be inserted into your e-mail letter to prospective respondents.

The respondents will receive your e-mail requesting their participation and asking them to click on the "Survey".

Creating a hyperlink:

1. Type your e-mail letter.
2. When finished, highlight (using your mouse) the text you want to have linked (In this example, it is "test").
3. After highlighting, click on "Insert" "Hyperlink" from the e-mail software menu.
4. When it asks you for the link URL or address, enter the address of your survey:

http://www.surveyprom.com/cgi-bin/surveyprom/run_survey.cgi?id=29

If completed successfully, the words "Survey" will be underlined and be a link that connects to your survey.

A new browser window will be opened and the survey is displayed in it.

Method 3: Adding a Button Link to Your E-Mail

The sample button may be added to your to your e-mail message as a way of accentuating the request to participate in a survey.

Note that some e-mail programs are not capable of viewing or inserting graphics as part of the e-mail. If you are using this option, be sure that your e-mail program is capable of sending and receiving graphics.

As a fail-safe for those who will receive your e-mail and do not have a graphics capable e-mail clients, use both a text link and a graphics link (methods 2 and 3 simultaneously).

1. Insert the graphic into your e-mail by selecting "Insert" "Picture" and then entering the picture source as:

<http://www.surveyprom.com/pieces/ssbutton.gif> The button will then appear in your document as below.

2. Next, highlight (using your mouse) the button.
3. After highlighting, click on "Insert" "Hyperlink" from the e-mail software menu.
4. When it asks you for the link URL or address, enter your survey address:
http://www.surveyprom.com/cgi-bin/surveyprom/run_survey.cgi?id=29

The survey button will now be activated as a link to your survey

Survey

Method 4: Adding a Text Link to Your Web Site

A web link would be inserted by you into the HTML of your web page. The HTML for this link appears as:

<AHREF="http://www.surveyprom.com/cgi-bin/surveyprom/run_survey.cgi?id=29">test

In this case the words "Survey" would appear on your web site as a link that would connect to your survey. Under this option, when you click on the link the browser goes to the survey.

Method 5: Open a Separate Browser Window From a Web Site Link

In this case of a web link that could be inserted by you into the HTML of your web page. This JavaScript opens separate browser window for taking the survey and leaves your original browser window pointing at your web site. The HTML for this link appears as:

```
<script language="JavaScript">
<!--
function openWin( windowURL, windowName,
windowFeatures ) {
return window.open( windowURL, windowName,
windowFeatures ) ;
}
// -->
</script>
```

```
<A href="JavaScript: newWindow = openWin(
'http://www.surveyprom.com/cgi-
bin/surveyprom/run_survey.cgi?id=29, ",
'toolbar=0,location=0,directories=0,status=0,menuBar
=0,scrollBars=0,resizable=0' ); newWindow.focus()">
test
</A>
```

The first part of the link in quotes includes the address for your survey and the second "test" is the text that you would like to have your respondent click on.

Method 6: Adding a Button Link to Your Web Site

The sample gray button shown below is added to your site by adding the following html statement to your web site. The lines of this HTML command respectively do the following:(1) create a link to the graphic, (2) identify the source of the graphic, and (3) end the link.

Survey

```
<BR><Ahref="http://www.surveyprom.com/cgi-
bin/surveyprom/run_survey.cgi?id=29">
<IMG alt="" border=0 height=31
src="http://www.surveyprom.com/pieces/ssbutton.gif"
width=88></A>
```

ISSUES FOR REAL-TIME RESEARCH

The ability to conduct real-time research using e-mail, the web, and other electronic media (such as WAP) opens many doors for the researcher. Likewise, the prospect of making class research projects less painful and more direct to the point of completion is certainly desirable. Internet research adds increased points of access, more interactivity, faster communications and time to completion, and greater ease of use. Conducting research throughout the world using Internet communications appears to be a realization of the researcher's dream.

In recent weeks, the author conducted an e-mail survey of holiday shopping activities that included more than 100 questions about lifestyle, computer usage and demographics. 20,000 e-mail surveys were sent with an 11% response rate. All responses were received within a week and because the data was automatically entered into the database, no data entry was required and data cleaning was minimal.

In practice however, there are limitations to this research channel. The Internet brings difficulty in accessing respondents, assuring a representative sample, increasing problematic response rates, breaching the gap of Internet anonymity, and assuring privacy and security in the responses and databases.

The basic issues that impact real-time methodologies for conducting survey research are discussed in detail the presentation of the paper.

CONCLUSIONS

The Online Application Processing approach to survey research opens a new door for not only understanding, but addressing cultural differences in the business world. Furthermore, this survey methodology brings with it the economies of electronic research in terms of cost savings, time savings, and ease (of implementation, coordination, and analysis).

The merging of the research approach discussed in this paper with the study of business, consumer and employee decisions leads one to quickly observe that the methodology discussed is particularly applicable to student projects and faculty research including cross-cultural business and academic research where the populations may be sharply defined (country, smaller geographic areas, language, or ethnic grouping) and encouraged to participate in the studies.

At the time of this writing, Surveypro.com supports academic and student research projects at no cost. For an academic account:

- 1) Register with Surveypro.com and establish a user ID and password and start developing your survey.
- 2) Email your request for an academic upgrade.

Please include

- a) your name, position, and university affiliation,
- b) a one to two paragraph project description,
- c) the approximate number of questions,
- d) the sample size, and
- e) the start and end dates for your project.

Requests should be sent to research@surveypro.com

TECHNOLOGY-BASED ASSESSMENT: PROMISES AND PROBLEMS

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ABSTRACT

Technology can be used to enhance both efficiency and effectiveness in the university teaching environment. This promise of improvement must be coupled with an appreciation of the potential for promoting academic dishonesty. In this paper, we discuss the types of situational and individual difference variables that have been shown to promote academic dishonesty. We then add to the existing literature by identifying technology-based testing as another situational variable that contributes to increased levels of cheating. Our paper makes an additional contribution by presenting a case study from a required core business course where the empirical information on academic dishonesty is based on actual rather than self-reported student behavior.

INTRODUCTION

Marketing departments across the United States are facing increased pressure to improve both teaching efficiency and effectiveness. Larger class sizes and limited resources coupled with the need to provide students with timely feedback are placing greater demands on business educators. While technology offers tools for enhancing educational opportunities in this challenging environment, it may also create situations that encourage academic dishonesty.

The research on academic dishonesty identifies two broad categories of determinants: situational factors and individual difference factors. In this paper, we discuss the types of situational and individual difference variables that have been shown to promote academic dishonesty. We then add to the existing literature by identifying technology-based testing as another situational variable that contributes to increased levels of cheating.

Traditionally, researchers have relied on self-reported measures as the primary means for establishing the prevalence of academic cheating. We

believe that our paper makes an additional contribution by presenting a case study from a required core business course where the empirical evidence of cheating is based on actual behavior. We also describe how technology was used as a surveillance tool to identify both the degree of cheating and the names of students who were involved.

SITUATIONAL FACTORS

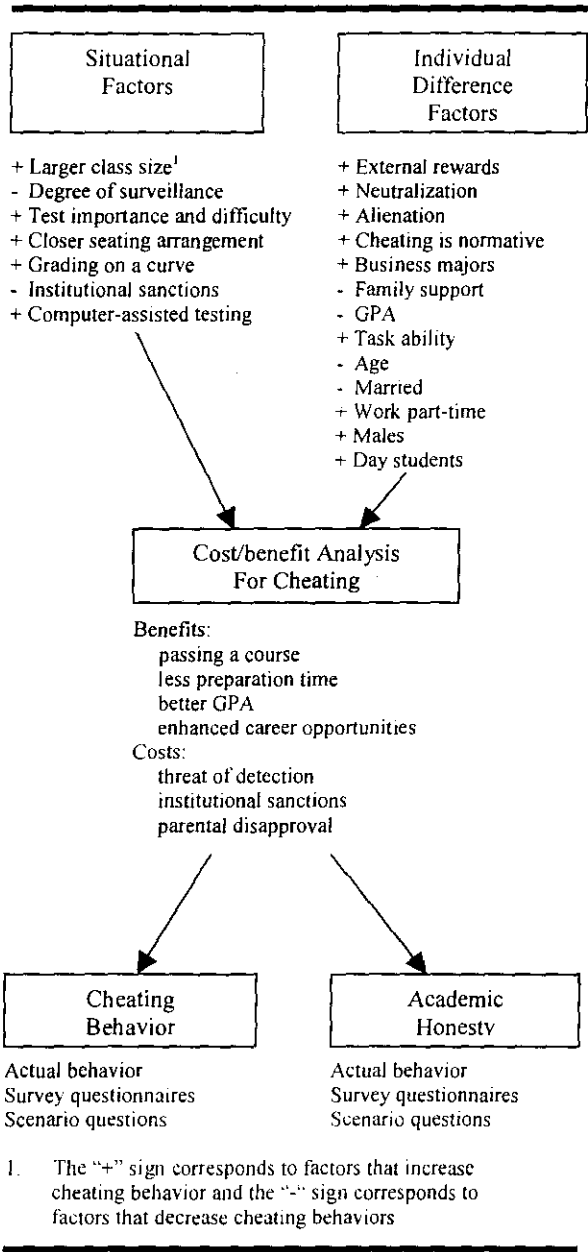
One of the primary areas of research on academic dishonesty is the identification of situational factors that either encourage or inhibit cheating behavior (see Figure 1). Several comprehensive reviews of the empirical research on college cheating (Crown and Spiller 1998; Davis, Grover, Becker and McGregor 1992; Whitley 1998) address these situational factors. The variables that seem to facilitate cheating include increased class size, decreased surveillance, test importance and difficulty, close seating arrangements, and grading on a curve. (See Allen, Fuller and Lockett 1998 and Nonis and Swift 1998 for recent articles in marketing related to this issue). We add to this list by including electronically assisted assessment techniques that are becoming more common as faculty use this type of technology as part of their pedagogy. Although many types of cheating behaviors can be facilitated by technology (chat rooms, plagiarism from the Internet, sharing of test questions via email between classes, the use of cell phones to dial multiple choice answers into numeric pagers, and crib note cheating with cutting edge calculators [see e.g., Kleiner and Lord 1999]) this paper focuses on computer-administered tests.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE FACTORS

The literature on academic dishonesty also focuses on the effects of individual difference factors (see Figure 1). These variables are related to students' attitudes, perceptions, choice of majors, capabilities and demographics. Students who are externally motivated (e.g., by grades or career opportunities) tend to cheat more than those who have an intrinsic

sis desire to learn (Forsyth, Pope and McMillan 1985; Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead 1996; Shropshire 1997). Attitudinal variables like neutralization and alienation have also been linked to cheat-

FIGURE 1



ing (Nonis and Swift 1998). Students who perceive that cheating is normative are more likely to cheat (Allen, Fuller and Lockett 1998; McCabe and Trevino 1993; Roig and Ballew 1995). Business students have the highest incidence of academic dishonesty of any college major (Nonis and Swift 1998; Tom and Borin 1988). Students with lower

GPA's are more likely to cheat (Nonis and Swift 1998), and students who are less capable in terms of course-related task performance are also more likely to be academically dishonest (Antion and Michael 1983; Gardner and Melvin 1988; Whitley 1998). Student cheaters tend to be young, single and work part time, while males and day students cheat more often than females and night students (Allen, Fuller and Lockett 1998; Whitley 1998). Based on these individual difference factors, the undergraduate business students in the case study discussed below would be considered "high risk" for cheating behaviors.

COST-BENEFIT ANALYSIS

Situational and individual difference variables interact when students consider whether to cheat in a specific situation. (For example, Nonis and Swift [1998] found that the relationship between individual difference variables like gender, GPA and age were moderated by in-class cheating deterrents.) Students weigh the potential benefits of cheating against the perceived costs. Benefits include passing a course, less preparation time, better GPA, and enhanced career opportunities. Costs involve threat of detection, institutional sanctions, and parental disapproval. (See Crown and Spiller 1998 and Whitley 1998 for a comprehensive review of costs and benefits). In many cases the decision is easier to make because students perceive very little chance of being detected and think that cheating provides clear advantages (Kleiner and Lord 1999; Whitley 1998).

ACADEMIC HONESTY VERSUS DISHONESTY

The outcome of a student's cost-benefit analysis will lead to a decision to cheat or not. Previous studies (e.g., Allen, Fuller and Lockett 1998; Davis, Grover, Becker and McGregor 1992; McCabe and Trevino 1996; Nonis and Swift 1998; Roig and Ballew 1995) have relied on surveys and scenario methodologies to examine the prevalence of academic dishonesty. These self-report measures of cheating behaviors have been criticized because of the wide variation in study results. Some researchers believe that academic dishonesty is under-reported, while others feel that it may be over-reported (Allen, Fuller and Lockett 1998; Karlins, Michaels and Podlogar 1988; Nelson and Schaeffer 1986).

This suggests a need to "look more at what students do instead of what they say they do" (Dowd 1992, p. 5). A major contribution of this paper is

that our case study identifies actual cheating behavior rather than relying on self-report data from students.

THE CASE STUDY

The course described in this case study was a required core business class that was offered during Spring 2000 at a mid-size western university. The 300 students in the class were predominantly sophomores and juniors majoring in business.

The course included extensive web support with weekly activities and complete on-line course information. Performance assessment for the class included eight on-line quizzes. Since the quizzes were not meant to form a significant portion of the course grade, each quiz was worth only one percent of the possible points for the course. The quizzes consisted of ten items drawn randomly from a database of twenty or more true/false and multiple-choice questions. Each quiz was timed with a maximum of twenty minutes allowed for completion. A quiz terminated when a student signaled completion or when the time limit expired. At this point, the student was presented with a list of missed questions and correct answers.

The quizzes were administered over a secure web server. Students were required to log in prior to taking an on-line quiz. The quizzes were given on an open "web" basis, meaning students were permitted to use written and Internet-based resources but were forbidden from working with other students. This prohibition was made explicit in course policies which stated, "When there is evidence that a student has committed plagiarism, cheated on an exam or quiz, altered class material or scores, or has inappropriate possession of exams or quizzes, or sensitive material, the student will receive an 'F' for the course." Each student had to agree to this policy by checking a box next to the statement during the on-line course registration process. Before each quiz students also consented to the following statement: "You may use your textbook and other materials during this quiz, but you may not work with anyone else. Pressing the button below signifies that you agree to take the quiz entirely on your own."

Students were not restricted to a specific computer or location and could take quizzes on or off campus at any time during a seven-day period. The quizzing system provided the instructors with automated reporting and detailed logging of student activity. For each quiz, data were gathered that

included: student identification number, quiz score, question numbers (because each quiz was randomly generated), responses to questions, IP address (which is a relatively unique identifier for a specific computer), start time and date, and completion time and date.

Near the end of the semester, the instructors were reviewing log files associated with the on-line quizzes when they noticed some unusual patterns in the data. There appeared to be many occurrences of student pairs taking a quiz from the same computer in immediate succession. Further investigation showed a pattern of pairs and larger clusters of students taking quizzes from the same computer in succession where each student improved his/her performance over the previous student and often took less time to complete the work. Over a series of weeks, these pairs and clusters of students typically rotated the sequence in which they took the quizzes. These students seemed to be exploiting a clear shortcoming of the quizzing system, namely the small size of the question database for most of the quizzes. For example, the second person of a quiz-taking pair would, on average, have half of his/her quiz questions in common with the first quiz taker.

Because of these patterns the instructors suspected that some students were cheating. A preliminary investigation of the data consisted of simple queries to the course database on student identification number, IP address, and quiz start/finish times. Analysis of these queries resulted in 68 students (23 percent of the class) being implicated in cheating activity. The instructors confronted these students after the last regular class session of the term. At this time, 24 admitted in writing to cheating and 44 denied cheating, refused to make a statement, or were absent. Of the 44 who denied cheating, 29 were categorized into 18 cases of suspected cheating that involved two or more students (some of whom had confessed). Because of either lack of evidence or the existence of a compelling explanation for the anomalous data, the cases against the remaining 15 students were dismissed.

The instructors' concern over the strength of the evidence in the 18 cases where cheating behavior was denied prompted them to undertake a more in-depth statistical analysis of the quiz data. In this second round of analysis, the responses to questions that pairs of students had in common were analyzed. As of the time of this writing, the disposition of the cases of suspected cheating is as follows: three cases involving five students were dis-

missed based upon a lack of strong evidence in the statistical analysis described above, two cases involving three students were not pursued because of a sufficiently compelling alternative explanation, seven cases involving eleven students resulted in confessions, one case involving one student was uncontested, and five cases involving nine students are awaiting resolution and may result in academic judicial proceedings.

DISCUSSION

Based upon evidence from computer log files, students' written confessions, and statistical analysis, it was discovered that the cheating on on-line quizzes took two broad forms. The first and most prevalent cheating behavior was the sharing of answers (which is consistent with cheating in traditional classroom environments [Nonis and Swift 1998]). This behavior was strongly abetted by the immediate feedback feature of the quizzing system which reported correct answers to missed questions at the end of a quiz session. But it is worth noting that students did not solely rely upon this feature to assist them in sharing answers. Students often worked together to answer questions on the first quiz as well as questions that were not in common on later quizzes. The degree of organization of the answer sharing behavior varied from relatively random encounters that occurred in campus computer labs to well-orchestrated "study" sessions that were repeated weekly during the term. Among the more organized cheating efforts, the most common group size was two although several groups with three or four members were identified.

The second form of observed cheating behavior involved the exploitation of technical weaknesses of the quizzing system itself. One example of this is the impersonation by one student of another by using the latter's password. Another form of quiz hacking exploited the quizzing system's quiz interruption feature that allowed students who were unexpectedly disconnected from the network to reconnect and resume their work. Finally, some students discovered a flaw within the system in which they could gain more time or have the system generate an identical set of quiz questions for the second quiz taker by backing up all the way to the log in page and logging in again.

A powerful phenomenon that is often underestimated but had a major influence on the cheating behavior described in this study is word of mouth. A small number of students stumbled upon a relatively minor system flaw that occurred when ma-

nipulating a browser session. It was fortunate that the students discovered this late in the term, because it took very little time for word of this potential cheating technique to spread among a large number of students.

CONCLUSIONS

This study helps extend the academic dishonesty literature in two ways: by adding technology-based testing environments to the list of situational factors that facilitate student cheating; and by providing an analysis of actual versus self-reported cheating behavior. Our experience with the introductory business class described above suggests that, even under conditions of low test importance, a substantial number of students will attempt to exploit the apparent lack of surveillance associated with an on-line environment.

The results are consistent with years of accumulated research on academic dishonesty in traditional university settings, which underscores the salience of the perceived probability of detection. These findings suggest that extra attention to the veracity of data received from students in electronically administered test environments is warranted. Further, the case study shows that careful monitoring and statistical analysis may be useful in identifying unethical behavior in these situations.

Currently no systematic knowledge exists about student perceptions of the probability of detecting cheating in different types of on-line testing situations, or the extent to which monitoring and instructor intervention may alter these perceptions. It is clear from this case study that technology can affect academic dishonesty both positively and negatively. On the one hand, it adds yet another variable to the list of situational factors that may encourage students to cheat. On the other hand, technology can serve as a powerful tool for promoting assessment integrity.

Technology enhanced learning has tremendous promise for advancing educational efficiency and effectiveness. Future research should provide a roadmap to insure that instructors who use technology-based assessment can capitalize on this potential.

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TEACHING INDIVIDUAL AND CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY TO BUSINESS STUDENTS
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ABSTRACT

There is always much excited debate about the role of higher education in our society. Most universities and colleges have asserted their responsibility is to provide service to society through utilizing their ability to create new knowledge and in training the future leaders of communities and nations. One aspect of training future business and community leaders is to teach civic and global responsibility.

Business schools are increasingly being asked to provide students with diverse experiences outside the classroom. Service learning programs emphasize the accomplishment of tasks that meet human needs in combination with conscious educational growth. They combine needed tasks in the community with intentional learning goals that reinforce skills learned in the classroom. By using service-learning projects, the professor imitates innovative business practices by promoting altruistic behaviors within the context of course activities. Service learning exposes students to a wide range of value-driven strategic alternatives so that they can make more informed choices of where and how to devote their energies and talents. Importantly, it gets the student off campus and into the realities of their community.

A preliminary analysis of business students' attitudes regarding service learning was conducted at a California State University. A total of 137 students were in the sample. The authors found that personal norms, consequence awareness, attitudes toward business' role in society, and gender (females students were more interested), were significant predictors of "I am interested in a service learning experience because it helps the local community".

**TIPS FOR DEVELOPING A SERVICE
LEARNING COURSE**

1. The instructor will have to find a community service project that is a good fit for the students and in which the students are welcome and can become active contributors.
2. Some community agencies, especially schools, may require finger printing and/or tuberculosis tests (e.g. tutoring programs).
3. Develop a pre-test and post test to measure attitudinal changes and/or learning objectives.
4. Plan to have class time each week for planning, organizing activities, and answering questions.
5. If necessary, obtain permission from the university for off-campus student activities.
6. Determine how much course credit will be given for the service learning experience. How will the students be graded?
7. Most proponents of service learning recommend a "reflection" component. Examples: Students could either meet in groups to share their experiences, challenges, and attitude changes or they could be required to write on these topics.
8. Consult a website for helpful information about curriculum development and grant availability. For example, the California State University System has an Office of Community Service Learning. The website is: <http://www.calstate.edu/tier3/csl>

A MODEL OF CONSUMER MISBEHAVIOR: PIRACY OF SOFTWARE AND ENTERTAINMENT PRODUCTS

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ABSTRACT

Consumers were interviewed about unauthorized copying of software and entertainment products. Copying is frequently seen as wrong only when done for a profit. In fact, many people enjoy making copies and do not think that they are harming product producers, perhaps, in part, because consumers do not evidence strong, positive relationships with these producers. A proposed model is presented that differentiates consumers' behaviors and attitudes regarding copying based on their degree of focus on self-interest versus the interests of the producer. Implications for teaching marketing and consumer ethics are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The unauthorized copying of software, music, and video is of great concern to those who produce these products, and lost sales due to "piracy" amount to billions of dollars each year. Most of this copying is done by people making copies for friends. New digital formats and the ease of sharing files over the internet only promises to exacerbate the problem.

This paper addresses consumers' thoughts, feelings, and experiences surrounding the unauthorized copying of software and entertainment products. The results presented here were derived from 39 depth interviews with users of software and other entertainment products. These interviews support the findings of previous survey and experimental studies, while also offering new insights into people's motivations and attitudes. A proposed model that categorizes consumer copiers and non-copiers is also presented.

BACKGROUND

While unauthorized copying is a major problem for producers, the public does not appear to be overly concerned with the problem. Logsdon, Thompson, and Reid (1994) found that people exhibit a great deal of tolerance toward software piracy and concluded that software copying is not an issue with very high moral intensity. Most people do not see the harm in unauthorized copying and any victims are far removed from the perpetrator. Even those who view software piracy as unethical are not found to be less likely to engage in the practice.

In seeking to understand the motivations behind software copying, Glass and Wood (1996) studied the problem in light of social exchange theory, particularly equity theory, and concluded that people are more likely to share less expensive than more expensive software and that sharing is more likely if social or other benefits are likely to result. With regard to students' stated reasons for pirating software, Cheng, Sims, and Teegen (1997) found the expense and affordability of software to be particularly important reasons for copying. Other reasons included trying out the software and simply the fact that copying software is easy to do. Along these lines, Chang (1998) found that the extent of the opportunity to copy is a stronger predictor of copying behavior than is attitude toward copying.

Simpson, Banerjee, and Simpson (1994) found four categories of motivating factors for software pirates: stimulus factors, social/legal factors, personal gain factors, and situational/personal factors. Stimulus factors included having been given the software, needing the software for school, and the affordability of the software. Social/legal factors included the enjoyment of sharing software as well as the ideas that "everyone is doing it" and that one is unlikely to be caught. Personal gain factors included making money off the software and the challenge of being able to make a copy. Situational factors addressed difficulties in acquiring the software product.

PROPOSITIONS BASED IN THE LITERATURE

The existing research in software piracy suggests the following research propositions:

- P1: The copying of software and entertainment products is not viewed as a serious moral issue.
- P2: The copying of software and entertainment products is perceived as resulting in little harm.
- P3: Some of the motivation behind the copying of software and entertainment products is centered on creating beneficial social exchanges.
- P4: Particularly among students, the cost and affordability of software and other products influences the copying of these products.
- P5: Particularly among students, perceived need for a product is used to justify copying of the product.
- P6: The ability to get away with copying products motivates the copying of the products.

METHODOLOGY

Thirty-nine depth interviews with software and entertainment product consumers were conducted by marketing research students. Prior to conducting the interviews, students were trained to encourage open-ended responses from respondents and to probe for elaboration on interesting comments. Student interviewers were also provided with an interview guide that included questions addressing respondents' feelings toward and experiences with unauthorized copying.

Most of the interviews lasted from 25 to 50 minutes. Interviews were recorded and transcribed by the interviewers, yielding 236 single-spaced pages. The author of this paper hand coded the interviews for the above propositions and for emerging themes.

Most of the respondents were students themselves (29 out of 39). Two of the respondents were Latino, one was Native American, and the rest were white. All of the respondents were in their 20s except for four respondents in their 40s and one 12-year-old. All 39 respondents were unmarried. Median household income, which was based on parents for the student respondents, was \$65,000, and ranged from a low of \$13,500 to a high of \$150,000.

FINDINGS

Findings Related to Propositions

P1. Most respondents indicated that they had no problem with engaging in the practice. While some clearly acknowledged that copying was illegal and unethical, the common sentiment was that copying was okay and inevitable and that everyone was doing it. Also, most respondents felt that the majority of others would share their views on the subject. Some further expressed the opinion that the issue was not worth discussing in the light of "worse crimes" being committed in society.

P2. Many respondents expressed the opinion that no one was harmed by unauthorized copying. However, some recognized that companies are going to lose sales that they otherwise might have had. Some further noted that the consumer might be harmed, as well, since prices might be raised to compensate for the illegal copying. Taking this idea a bit further, a few respondents expressed the opinion that particularly upright consumers who refuse to copy would be most likely to suffer.

P3. Social exchange practices do appear to play a role in many copying situations. With regard to the

copying of music, Robert (wm,22) noted, "I do it fairly often. It is a mode of communication among my friends . . . It is a way of [reciprocating] gifts, which I often receive from people."

Exchange may be less likely if the product was expensive, although social obligation can still be compelling. According to Jimmy (wm,22), "[T]he individual might feel a little resentment, maybe because their friend is walking out the door with a hundred dollar statistical analysis program and you paid a hundred bucks. But . . . you know that the person would do the same thing for you."

P4. Respondents, most of whom were students, frequently referred to their perception that software and other products were overpriced, and that they simply couldn't afford to pay. Sam (wm,21) comments, "They charge such high prices on videos or software or CDs that I think you should copy it if you can. If there were more reasonable prices then I could see a problem with it."

P5. In addition to high prices, the *need* for a product sometimes supplies the justification for making an unauthorized copy. Aaron (wm,24) notes, "I got Minitab from school. . . . I used that all the time for [a class]. If I didn't have that here I would've had to use the school computers all the time for that stuff."

P6. Copying is also done because one can get away with it. Many respondents noted the small likelihood of getting caught with copied software. Some, like Jimmy (wm,22) suggested that if the shoe were on the other foot, they would make stronger efforts to prevent copying: "[I]f I was one of these companies, I would be definitely working in researching and developing ways to prevent software piracy. I believe that it is a major issue for these companies, and they need to stop people from pirating software, such as people like myself."

Emergent Findings

In addition to the support for the propositions, a number of new insights were also discovered here.

Positive feelings. Although some experienced negative feelings, many respondents were delighted to be able to make copies and felt little to no regret. In response to how he felt about getting a bootleg recording of a concert he just attended, Maynard (wm,21) enthused, "Euphoric!" Bob (wm,24) noted, "Most people I know feel about the same way I do. When they get the program, they're glad to have it. When they get the video they're glad to have it. When they get the music they're glad to have it."

While some respondents expressed a bit of guilt associated with copying, many felt no guilt whatsoever. Negative feelings were more likely to be associated with problems in the copying process, such as poor copy quality, lack of documentation or technical support, or simply an inability to successfully make the copy.

When copying is wrong. Respondents were specifically asked, "When is it okay to copy, and when is it not okay?" Most responded that copying was fine for one's own personal use, or for a friend, but improper for purposes of selling the product. As stated by Gail (wf,26), "If you were not using the process of copying for your own financial gain and more for your own enjoyment, then it's okay."

Two qualifications surfaced to the rule that copying for personal use was acceptable, whereas copying to make money was not. First, some respondents found copying to be unacceptable if it was done in mass quantities, meaning, at least for one respondent, copying something for a large number of friends rather than just a few select friends. Secondly, Elvis (wm) suggested that if the product is going to be used in a profit-making venture, the product should be paid for: "If I have a business, and I have Excel or MS Office, and I use that, I'm using that as a tool to produce something. And I think I need to pay for that tool."

Enough money. A justification for copying that was raised by a number of respondents was that the producers of products are already making enough money. James (wm,21) expressed it this way: "I think stealing is wrong, but I see copying differently than stealing . . . Besides, those people are making millions and perhaps billions of dollars. Most of us are poor. That's why we copy things."

Sometimes the thought that software and music producers are making *too much* money led to expressions of hostility toward the producers, particularly those at Microsoft. When asked what harm might come from individuals copying software for themselves or others, Maynard (wm,21) responded, "Some pissant isn't making his 18 million; he's only making his 16 million." Bob (wm,24) stated, "Usually it's Microsoft products and that bastard is rich enough. I don't really care."

For their own good. Many respondents rationalized that the copying of software products was in a producing company's own best interest. Copying allowed people to try products, which, if they liked them, they might purchase in the future. Elvis (wm) stated, "I have it for free, or I don't have it at all. At

least if I have it, then I can introduce it at my workplace. Or if I go into business, it will be worth it to me to actually buy the program."

Different from shoplifting. As mentioned above, informants were specifically asked how copying products is different from shoplifting. One distinction raised was that the copying of products takes place in one's home, rather than in a store or a public place. Thus, it seems less like stealing and getting caught is much less likely.

Another difference between shoplifting and unauthorized copying is that shoplifting involves a real, tangible product that is viewed as a real expense for the retailer. Bob (wm,24) stated, "If you steal from a store, then you are hurting a store. Usually shoplifting hurts the mom and pop stores, while copying isn't going to hurt Bill Gates." A retailer seems to have a face to it, while software does not.

A MODEL OF SOFTWARE BEHAVIORS, ATTITUDES, AND EMOTIONS

Despite the generalizations presented above, in reality, individuals express a number of different reactions to unauthorized copying. One important basis for differences in individual reaction seems to be the extent to which the person doing the copying is focused on his own gain versus being focused on the interests of the product producer. The Table presents a proposed categorization model.

While the table divides consumers into four categories, these categories actually represent a simplification of a continuum of behaviors, attitudes, and emotions. The left-hand column addresses copiers who have a high level of focus on the benefits they receive from copying with virtually no thought to the product producer. On the opposite end of the spectrum are those who are less concerned about what they would gain by copying and more concerned with fairness to the producer, not to mention the illegality of unauthorized copying. Despite the clear benefits of copying, these people would be unlikely to do it. Most evidence suggests that these non-copiers form a small minority.

The two middle Table columns describe two groups of unauthorized software copiers who desire the benefits of copying, but recognize that it is not entirely right. People in each of these groups of copiers use rationalizations to justify their copying behaviors. However, as expressed in the Table, the nature of the rationalizations is expected to differ based on the desire for personal benefit versus consideration of the producer's interests.

IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Lost sales figures indicate that the unauthorized copying of entertainment products is an important problem for the manufacturers of these products. Determining the extent of the problem is, however, difficult, since manufacturers do sometimes benefit from the expanded publicity garnered by their products through copying. Companies need to determine to what extent their efforts in preventing or punishing copying are worth the costs.

Further research in this area could involve following up on some of the findings here using survey or experimental methodology. More interviews could also be conducted to more precisely investigate the parameters of some of the more interesting findings. The model presented in the Table could be tested to determine whether the expectations based on one's focus on personal gain versus fairness to producer are correct.

Recently, some software providers have begun advertising campaigns to educate the consumer to view software copying as stealing. An interesting study would be to test whether this assertion is credible to the consumer, and whether, if the consumer does agree with the assertion, that this is enough to change attitudes and behaviors.

Since the topic and findings of this paper are interesting to college age people, it can be used for class discussion of marketing and consumer ethics. Students could be encouraged to break into groups and discuss their own views on unauthorized copying with other group members. Another

approach might be to divide the class into two groups, one wearing the hat of the marketer and another wearing the hat of the consumer. Members of each group could express their opinions and concerns, after which an attempt could be made to reach a compromise. Regardless of the discussion's structure, students will be able to see how differently people can react to a difficult ethical dilemma.

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TABLE

A proposed model of categories of potential unauthorized copiers based on degree of focus on personal gain and degree of focus on the interests of the product producer

General focus:	High focus on personal gain and no focus on interests of producer	High to moderate focus on personal gain and low focus on interests of producer	Moderate focus on personal gain and moderate focus on interests of producer	Low focus on personal gain and high focus on interests of producer
Behaviors and attitudes regarding unauthorized copying:	Copying without reservation	Copying with company-blaming rationalization	Copying with self-justifying rationalization	No copying
Emotional reactions:	Delight	Pleasure/Satisfaction	Uneasy satisfaction	Satisfaction
Typical expressed reactions to unauthorized copying:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "Friends share things with one another." "It's not hurting anybody." "It's easy to do." "Look how much money I saved!" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "These companies charge too much." "These companies are making more than enough money already." "I like the challenge of being able to do it." 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "I need the product and can't afford it." "I'm only using it for personal use, not selling it to anyone." "I'm trying it out to see if I should buy it." "Everybody's doing it." 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "It's just not right." "Everybody pays when people copy."
Emotional reactions to failed copying attempts:	Surprise/Disappointment	Frustration/Anger/Redoubled desire to do it	Disappointment/Resignation	Vindication

COMPARATIVE ASSESSMENT OF RESUME AND PERSONAL STRATEGIC MARKETING PLAN:
STUDENT PERSPECTIVES

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ABSTRACT

A resume is said to be the most important part of the job prescreening process, while a Personal Strategic Marketing Plan is described as a vehicle to assess and position an individual in the context of one's personal career objective and the changing and competitive job environment. This study compares business students' perceptions of both a resume and their preparation of a Personal Strategic Marketing Plan (PSMP). The results indicate that students perceive the resume as the more important tool in the job search and in securing the job interview, and the PSMP is viewed as more useful in career planning and advancement, and in the assessment of career options. The study concludes that human resource specialists should emphasize increased usage of the PSMP instead of the traditional resume. This will both improve the efficiency of the prescreening process, and enhance the likelihood of employment decisions that are congruent with the strategic human resource needs of the organization and the career objectives of the employee.

INCREASING THE VALUE AND INTEREST IN MARKETING INTERSHIPS

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ABSTRACT

This paper looks at the value of a student internship in marketing for students, professors and employers. Increasingly employers are looking at quality work experience as a desirable quality for potential employees graduating from a university. The criteria that have changed the most in recent years for admission to MBA programs has been quality work experience. Although graduate schools and employers both want their applicants to have quality work experience, some students are unwilling to do an internship. Quality internships are very different from part time jobs. It is important to consider what can be done to insure students get a quality experience that will be of benefit to students, professors and future employees.

WHO WANTS STUDENTS TO HAVE AN INTERNSHIP EXPERIENCE

There are four stakeholders that have an interest in students doing undergraduate internship. First are future employers at which the student did not do an internship. These potential employers are interested in what the student learned while interning. They also have a student who is less likely to find out that he does not like employment in the business world. The student has already had a taste of what is expected and what happens at corporations. Therefore, the risk of hiring an employee that terminates his employment is reduced. The potential employer also has the opportunity to contact the company at which the student worked to get a reference about the student's performance.

The second group that has an interest in having marketing students have an internship experience is companies that provide the internship. These companies get several benefits from internships. They get to know the personality, work habits and abilities of a potential employee. They can

determine if there is a good fit between an intern and the company at which he is working. The risk of hiring former interns is less than the risk of hiring other students. The company also gets work performed at a relatively low price. Companies could view hiring interns as an alternative to hiring temporary employees.

A third group that benefits is the professors. The students who have been on internships are generally more interested in the material and can contribute to class discussions when what is being taught relates to what the student experienced as an intern. One author had the experience of teaching sales forecasting to a group of students. While many of the students seemed to exhibit the same high interest in learning, there were students that became fanatical about learning the material. One of the students made the comment to the effect that the material being presented would have been extremely valuable to him in his internship last summer. The enthusiasm of these students, who are motivated by their internship experiences, rubs off on other students and makes the learning experience richer. When a number of students in a class have had an internship, the professor may feel the challenge to prepare material that is more relevant to what happens at companies. This is a positive contribution to the students' education.

The fourth group that is interested in students having had an internship experience is the students. One major benefit to students is that many of the companies will offer the intern permanent employment. The student then has an offer in hand, which she can use in negotiating with other companies who want to hire her. The student is also relieved of the pressure of finding a job and the fear of graduating without employment. The intern also has had a chance to observe the culture of the company that provided the internship. He can determine if it is a place that he would

like to work without committing to the company for permanent employment.

REASONS STUDENTS DO NOT DO INTERNSHIPS

There are several reasons that students do not do internships. First, some feel that it may be a low quality experience not much different than a part time job. Second, the student may not want to delay her projected graduation date by going on an internship. This is particularly true when the internship cuts into the normal academic year. Third, some students may already have a job waiting for them when they graduate and see no value to them in doing an internship. Fourth, some students do not want to relocate. Fifth, some students have a hard time finding an internship on their own.

INCREASING THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS DOING AN INTERNSHIP

The marketing group at BYU was able to dramatically increase the number of students going on an internship and registering for an intern class. The following shows the pattern of growth:
1996/1997 = 32, 1998/1999 = 73,
1997/1998 = 66, 1999/2000 = 175
There were two major steps that were responsible for the growth. The dramatic growth from 1998/1999 to 1999/2000 was due to having the internship count as a class that was useful for meeting graduation requirements for most emphasis (majors) for the degree in business management. The Marriott School of Management at BYU only has two undergraduate degrees one in accounting and the other in business management.

The class was structured to provide an education experience for the students and to encourage the company employing the intern to provide a quality work experience. Requiring students to write a major report about the company before the internship, During the internship, the students are required to write a weekly report about what they are doing as an intern did this. At the conclusion of the internship the students are required to write a major report about their internship and they are encouraged to

include any proposals or reports they had produced for the company.

By continually monitoring the internship, the company employing the intern is motivated to assign the intern tasks that provide the intern quality experiences. The interning companies are usually anxious to hire BYU graduates and want to maintain a good reputation with faculty and advisors to the students. The class removed two of the reasons for student not going on an internship. The internship class counted toward graduation requirements. The internship class provided a quality experience.

NAME CHANGE

Several years ago the marketing group at BYU was given the task of setting up a retailing institute in response to a major donation. Large numbers of retailing companies recruited at BYU. In 1996, The name was changed to "The Institute of Marketing: Retail, Sales and Services." The institute is often referred to as the "Marketing Institute." The change in the name made students who were not interested in retailing willing to let the institute find them an internship. The marketing institute has a director who has a major objective of finding permanent jobs and internships for students. The Marketing Institute does all the reading and grading of the reports produced by the students as interns.

CONCLUSION

Internships can be of great worth to students, employers and professors. In order to get some students to go on an internship, it becomes necessary to provide someone that can find internships for them. It is also important to provide a way of insuring that students have a quality experience. This can be done by having an internship class that counts toward filling graduation requirements that keeps track of what students are doing on their internships.

A SYSTEMATIC APPROACH TO OUTCOME ASSESSMENT IN MARKETING EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Assessment has become a topic of growing importance for marketing educators. Recent conceptual work has provided a foundation for the development of assessment approaches and has called for implementation and evaluation of the many assessment alternatives. To facilitate the evolution of assessment in marketing education this paper provides (a) a review of factors contributing to the importance of assessment, (b) a conceptual model based on current literature, (c) the results of the model's implementation, and (d) implications from the results of the assessment.

INTRODUCTION

Assessment has received substantial attention from marketing educators in recent years. In fact, the topic has become one of the key challenges facing the marketing discipline (Welberg 1999). Authors have reviewed the current state of assessment, discussed possible performance standards, proposed alternative conceptual models, and encouraged implementation efforts. The next phase in the evolution of assessment in marketing education will be the accumulation of information regarding the implementation of the steps of assessment processes. These steps include the specification of educational objectives, identification of assessment alternatives, matching of objectives with alternatives, and implementation of the program (Hartley, Cross and Rudelius 2000).

The purpose of this paper is to report on the design and implementation of an assessment model. Factors which contribute to the importance of assessment in marketing education are reviewed. In addition, the paper describes the design of an assessment model which integrates current literature and institution-specific elements. The results of the initial test of the assessment model are reported and discussed. Finally, implications of the results are presented to facilitate future assessment program implementation efforts.

THE IMPORTANCE OF ASSESSMENT

The growing importance of assessment is related to several factors including the "integration" of the business and marketing curricula, AACSB guidelines and standards, and new educational technologies. These are discussed briefly below.

Curricula Integration

As business schools attempt to develop programs and courses that reflect contemporary practices of organizations, there has been a general shift toward integrated approaches to business education. Many of the changes reflect a shift from a "functional perspective which focused educational efforts on majors such as marketing, management, finance or accounting" (Hill 1997) to integrated courses which cover content from several functional areas. These curriculum changes create the need for improvements in traditional assessment procedures.

AACSB Guidelines and Standards

The importance of assessment has also increased as legislative and political attention to the issue has grown. The topic is not completely new, however, as it has been emphasized by the International Association for Management Education (AACSB) for over a decade:

Performance assessment, when based on clearly defined missions and objectives, provide important information that aids decision making in individual schools. Such information helps schools improve their quality, distinctiveness and competitiveness. Indeed, viewed in this fashion, outcome measurement and assessment naturally demonstrate concepts emphasized in modern business education—organizations should plan systematically to assess their performance and should adjust behavior in light of the results. In this sense, business school efforts should parallel those of business institutions by regularly

reassessing their effectiveness in a highly competitive world (AACSB 1989).

More recently, researchers have begun to evaluate the impact of AACSB standards on assessment efforts. Marks, Beckman and Lacey (2000), for example, report on the use of four types of assessment—measurement of individual learning, measurements of professional competence, course evaluations, and evaluation of progress toward instructional missions.

New Educational Technologies

The growing availability and use of new educational technologies has raised many questions regarding "the usefulness of technology in achieving student learning in marketing (Karns 1999)." While early uses of technology in the classroom were focused on using technology as a support function (Celsi 2000), today's applications include the use of technology as a pedagogical tool, as curriculum content, and as a distance learning mechanism. New forms of assessment, of course, must recognize the increasing influence of educational technologies.

AN ASSESSMENT MODEL

Assessment alternatives differ in terms of the attributes they measure and the methods they utilize to obtain the assessment information. Attributes can include knowledge dimensions related to functional areas such as marketing, skills such as verbal communication, computer, or interpersonal skills, and personal characteristics such as leadership and integrity. The variety of methods available to collect information include surveys, personal interviews, focus groups, and panels. The methods differ in terms of dimensions such as reliability, validity, cost, and ease of administration. An assessment process must balance the combinations of attributes and methods to achieve the objectives of the process.

The overall objective of the model designed for this study was to facilitate improvement in student learning. While the focus of this effort was to move from conceptual designs available in assessment literature to a working application, the model was also designed to allow an incremental implementation. The model, depicted in Figure 1, is based on three process elements – input, assessment activities, and output. The inputs include student-related data (such as placement test scores, and entrance exam results), and unit goals and objectives. Inputs also include college practices such as degree programs, curricula, teaching

approaches, advising, faculty, and the physical environment. Assessment activities include student assessment activities (e.g. student satisfaction surveys), and faculty assessment activities (e.g. performance evaluations). The output includes the results of the assessments and provides the basis for adjustments to the model. Subsequent applications may focus on departmental (e.g. marketing) assessment.

Implementation

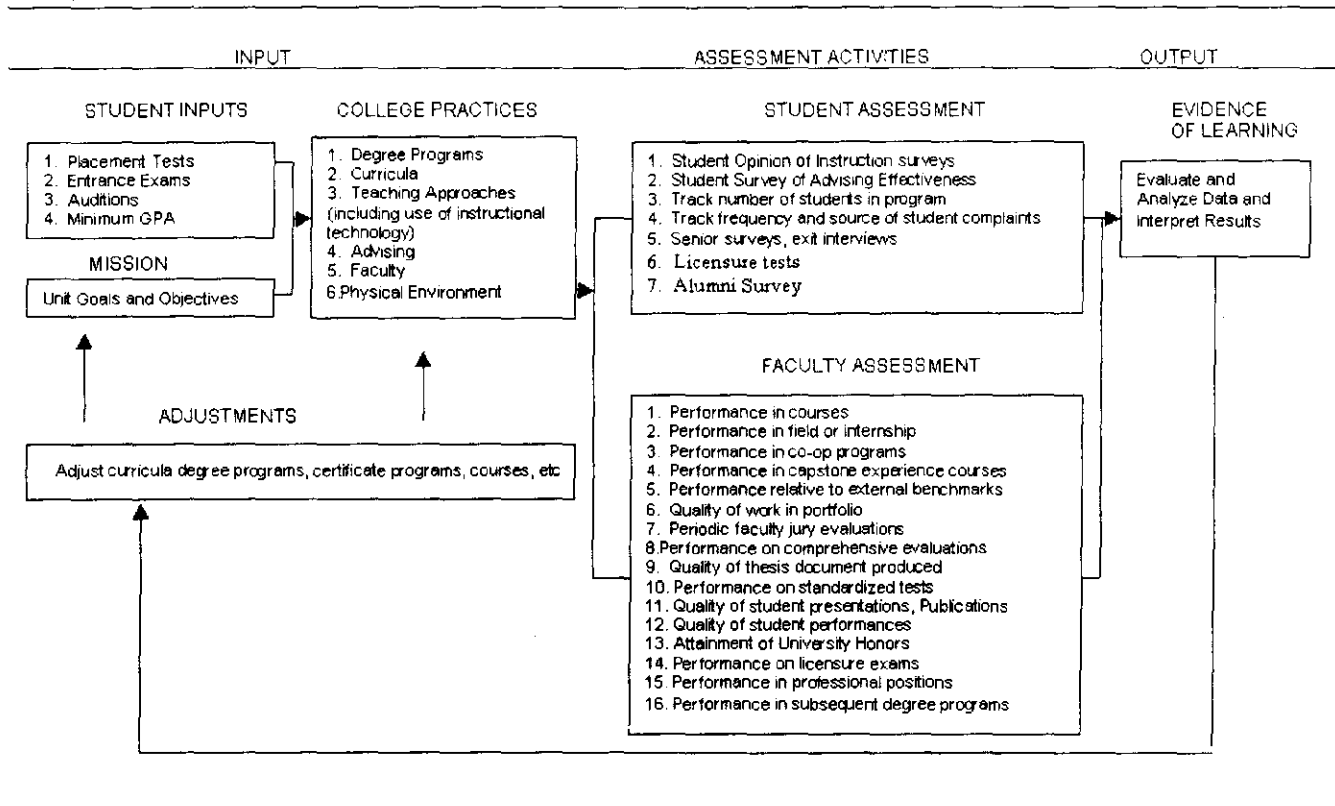
The initial implementation of the model focused on the student assessment element. A survey of student satisfaction was designed for graduating seniors (marketing and other disciplines). During the graduation application process, students must have their application reviewed by the college advising center. This is an audit to verify that the students have the appropriate credits to fulfill degree requirements. At this point, the students were asked to complete the satisfaction survey. During the 1999-2000 academic year, roughly half of all graduates of the College of Business in a large western university were asked to complete the survey. A total of 398 surveys were completed.

Likert scale questions (5 points) were used to measure the level of agreement with a variety of questions pertaining to student satisfaction. The questions addressed two levels of satisfaction. First, students responded to general questions regarding their overall satisfaction. Second, many questions were aimed at department level issues, since students have more interactions with departments than the college as a whole. Demographic and classification data were also collected. Basic descriptive statistics were derived from the analysis and they are presented below.

RESULTS

The mean score (as shown in Table 1) for overall satisfaction was 2.1 (1=very high), a score indicating a relatively good level of satisfaction. The data also show high levels of satisfaction with student activities (2.6) and social activities (2.7). The respondents also reported satisfaction with the advising office (see Table 2). A variety of data was also collected on the experiences in each major (see Table 2). The major department as a whole (2.13) and teaching ability of the faculty in the major (2.03) were viewed positively. The respondents also reported satisfaction with course grading and opportunities for evaluation of faculty.

FIGURE 1
A COLLEGE-SPECIFIC ASSESSMENT MODEL



CONCLUSIONS

The first phase of the implementation of this assessment model provided several general and several specific conclusions. From a general perspective the development of the conceptual model provided a focus for all college assessment activities. The model attempts to represent the potential assessment activities of the entire college. In addition, because of the large number and variety of assessment activities identified, the need for incremental implementation became immediately apparent. Other surveys related to alumni and employers are planned for use in the future. Finally, the results of the survey reported above have provided useful feedback for making adjustment to the assessment process, particularly with regard to college practices.

Specific conclusions are also possible. For example, in this application of an element of an assessment model, College of Business students

were generally satisfied with their experience. In addition, it appears that if there are problems with student satisfaction they are closely related to department issues. Possible strategies could include more involvement with career planning and improved faculty/student interactions. Grading fairness is also an important issue. Finally, a rigorous survey process and a student census is a possibility since every student has to be processed by the advising center.

This study reported on the implementation of one element of a comprehensive assessment model. Combining additional survey results from other assessment tools will yield the type of comprehensive assessment that AACSB recommends. In addition, the study provides an example of the transition from conceptual efforts to implementation likely in the marketing discipline in the future.

TABLE 1

Overall Measures of Satisfaction

Attribute	Mean*	Standard Deviation	N
Satisfaction with academic experiences	2.10	.64	391
Satisfaction with student activities	2.63	.83	377
Satisfaction with social activities	2.71	.85	378

*1 = very high, 5 = very low

TABLE 2

Specific Measures of Satisfaction

Attribute	Mean*	Std. Deviation	N
I am satisfied with academic advising in my college.	2.18	.96	382
I am satisfied with my department.	2.13	.88	383
I am satisfied with the teaching ability of faculty in my department.	2.03	.80	386
I am satisfied with the professional expertise of departmental faculty.	2.01	.72	385
I am satisfied with opportunities for evaluation of classroom instruction in department.	2.17	.84	382
I am satisfied with the fairness of grading in departmental classes.	2.14	.81	383
I am satisfied with the opportunities for interaction with departmental faculty.	2.23	.90	384

I am satisfied that the courses in my department prepare me for employment.	2.40	.98	383
I am satisfied that the courses in my department prepared me for graduate or professional school.	2.70	1.12	384
I am satisfied with information provided about internships, practicums, or co-op experiences.	3.02	1.22	383
I am satisfied with opportunities to participate in internships or practicums.	2.90	1.24	386
I am satisfied with computer training for my career. my	2.91	1.28	385
I am satisfied with departmental assistance in planning my career.	3.20	1.15	382
I am satisfied with departmental assistance in obtaining a job.	3.36	1.24	383
I am satisfied with Career Placement assistance in learning about job opportunities.	3.10	1.27	382
I am satisfied with the availability of required courses in my major.	2.88	1.30	385
I am satisfied with the academic ability of other students in my major.	2.33	.90	251
Satisfaction with Career assistance and internships.	2.95	.8236	373
Satisfaction with Academic Department	2.11	.5881	375

*1 = strongly agree, 5 = strongly disagree

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ADVERTISING AND MEDIA PERCEPTIONS AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN THE U.S., PHILIPPINES AND AUSTRALIA

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ABSTRACT

Introduction

College students worldwide represent a sizeable target market with significant disposable income. However, college students have proven elusive to reach. The study measured the attitudes of college students in the United States, the Philippines, and Australia towards advertising and the media

Methodology

A written questionnaire was administered to three convenience samples, consisting of 100 students from the West Coast of the U.S., 100 students from the Philippines and 23 from Australia. These countries were selected because the number of college age students in these countries is increasing significantly and English is the primary medium of instruction.

Findings

The students were generally positive toward advertising. Responses to the statement "Advertising insults my intelligence" showed that students in all three countries perceived advertising to be somewhat useful and reliable. Sixty percent of U.S. students disagreed with the statement compared to seventy-seven percent of the Philippine students and fifty-two of Australian students. Seventy percent of the U.S. students indicated that information from advertising helped them make better buying decisions compared to eighty percent in the Philippines and forty-three percent in Australia.

Among the U.S. students, radio ranked first in media usage with 18.5 hours per week followed by television with 17.5 hours and the Internet with 7.0 hours. Australian student media consumption was quite similar to the U. S. The students listened to radio 16.8 hours followed by television at 11.4 hours and the Internet at 10.9 hours per week. In the Philippines, on the other hand, students spent more time watching television with 17.3 hours followed by radio at 14.6 hours and the Internet at 4.8 hours.

Magazine readership across the three countries was not very popular. When asked whether they agreed with the statement, "Magazines are more interesting than television.", nine percent of U.S. students

strongly agreed compared to nine percent of Philippine students and eight percent of Australian students.

When students responded to the statement, "Television is my primary form of entertainment," twenty seven percent of U.S. students and forty-eight percent of Philippine strongly agreed. Only thirteen percent of Australian students responded the same way.

With regard to the statement, "I read the newspaper everyday.", seventy eight percent of U.S. students disagreed with that statement compared to fifty-nine percent of Philippine students and sixty-one percent of Australian students.

On the statement "I use the internet everyday," there were major differences among the countries. Seventy four percent of U.S. students agreed with the statement compared to only twenty-five percent of Philippine students and forty-two percent of Australian students. With regards to the use of the Internet, the statement "I use the internet primarily for entertainment purposes" also yielded interesting results. Across the three countries, a majority of students disagreed with the statement. Fifty-five percent of U.S. students, sixty-three percent of Philippine students and sixty-six percent of Australian students all indicated varying degrees of disagreement. When students were asked to indicate the number of times they purchased products on-line in the past year, more U.S. students (52%) indicated they purchased at least once in the past year while than Philippine students (8%) and Australian students (26%).

Conclusions

College students in various parts of the world were receptive to advertising. The traditional, less involving media, including radio and television, were found to be the most popular across the three countries. Magazines and newspapers were consistently found to be the least used. Although internet usage varied across the countries and still ranked lower than traditional media, it was significant.

THE ADOPTION OF MARKETING BY THE IRISH HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

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INTRODUCTION

Given substantial research on the marketing orientation of manufacturing organizations, and its wider acceptance in non-traditional areas, research on the adoption of a marketing orientation in the hospitality sector of the tourism industry remains scant. The purpose of this paper is to explore the concept of a market orientation and to present the results of a study concerning the adoption of a marketing orientation by the Irish hotel industry.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The overall aim of the study was to examine the marketing orientation of hotel organizations in the Irish tourism industry. In the study, market orientation is measured by examining a number of key marketing variables: approach to business, market segmentation, customer feedback processes, coordination of business activities, market research, organization of marketing, and marketing planning. A postal survey was used for the investigation. A total of 207 responses was obtained, giving an overall response rate of 29%

CONCLUSIONS

The study attempts to give some insight into the extent to which Irish hotel operators have adopted a marketing orientation. The evidence suggests that a large number of operators see themselves as operations-centred. It is clear that such an approach does not place a high degree of importance on customer needs and requirements. While many respondents claim to identify potential customers and segment markets, the low use of market research would seem to suggest a lack of customer/market focus.

Of the relatively low number of organizations who have marketing departments, most tend to exist in higher hotel grades than in group operations. However, hotel groups and higher grades only constitute a small percentage of the overall profile of the industry. For those organizations without a formal marketing organization, marketing responsibilities were generally undertaken by general managers/owner managers. It was surprising to find the relatively large numbers of marketing staff who possessed no formal marketing qualifications. Allied to the low levels of qualifications was the minimal use of training in marketing.

While in general terms the findings are somewhat disappointing, certain operators tend to exhibit a marketing orientation. Hotel groups, more than independents, operating in the top end of the market, tend to respond to market information, co-ordinate business activities, and have a clear market focus. In addition, they are more likely to record customer suggestions and segment markets.

The future development of marketing practice in the industry will depend on the acceptance of three essential characteristics:

- Ensuring that all customer contact staff are trained in the fundamental principles of marketing as a means of satisfying customer needs.
- Recognizing the need for an integrated marketing approach using marketing information on which decisions should be based.
- Top management commitment to marketing.

A COMPARISON OF AMERICAN AND FILIPINO NEGOTIATION STYLES

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ABSTRACT

The US remains as the no. 1 export market for Philippine products. Bilateral trade relations between these two countries show a balance of trade surplus in favor of the Philippines (Department of Trade and Industry Report, 2001). Trade relations between these two countries remain crucial as ever. Thus, knowledge of American and Filipino negotiation styles will be useful in exploring international marketing opportunities in these countries.

International marketers negotiate on many aspects of the business. It can cover the product, price, promotion and place or other details. The ability to negotiate successful cross-cultural negotiations is crucial in a world, which has become global (Deresky, 2000). Failure to negotiate successfully may lead to delays, confusion or lost business. Cross-cultural conflicts may also occur.

In 1995, a study was conducted on the Filipino exporters' negotiation style. The Filipino exporters who attended the Manila FAME International, an international trade fair, served as respondents. The Filipino negotiation profile developed in the 1995 study was compared to the American negotiation profile (International Trade Center Negotiating Handbook, 1995). This comparison showed similarities and differences between American and Filipino negotiation styles.

Another study on the Filipino exporters' negotiation profile was conducted in 2000. Just like in the 1995 study, the Filipino exporters who joined the Manila FAME Trade Fair held last October 2000 served as respondents. The Filipino negotiation style was again compared to the American negotiation style.

The aspects of the negotiation style studied in 1995 and in 2000 covered the business introductions, offers, concessions, strategy, approach, commitments, deals, leadership, status definition, etc. In the 2000 study, however, new aspects of the negotiation style were added. These aspects were as follows; priority (deal before relationship or relationship before deal), time (strict or flexible), communication style (reserved or direct) and language (direct or indirect).

Table 1 compares the American and Filipino negotiation styles.

TABLE 1
American and Filipino Negotiation Styles

	American	Filipino
Attitude	Very Impatient	Patient
Approach	Informal	Fairly Formal
Introduction	Straight to the Point	Straight to the Point
Offers	Fair Offers	Reasonable Offers
Concessions	Little Concessions	Moderate Concessions
Negotiation Strategy	Item By Item	Item By Item
Authority	Total Authority	Moderate Authority
Tactics	Aggressive	Persuasive
Commitments	Makes Threats	Makes Commitments
Deals	Best Deals	Long Term Deals
Focus	Winning	Succeeding
Leadership	Personal Leadership	Personal Leadership
Status	Status is by Material Success	Status is by Background
Priority	Deal Before Relationship	Deal Before Relationship
Time	Strict	Flexible
Communication Style	Expressive	Expressive
Language	Direct	Direct

Table 1 shows similarities and differences in American and Filipino negotiation styles.

Both negotiators use direct language and expressive communication style. They are similar in their business introduction and strategy. Both negotiate straight to the point. The similarities reveal that the Filipino negotiation style has been influenced by the American rule in the Philippines (Gesteland, 1999).

American and Filipino negotiators differ in attitude, approach, tactics and authority. American negotiators are very impatient, informal and

aggressive. In decision-making, they can decide immediately as they are given total authority (ITC Negotiating Handbook, 1995). In contrast, the Filipino negotiator is patient, fairly formal and persuasive. In decision making, they may not be able to decide immediately as they are given only moderate authority (Esguerra and Suplico, 1998). The differences indicate that the Filipino has remained Asian inspite of Western influences (Guthrie, 1981).

The American negotiator belongs to a deal-focused culture while his Filipino counterpart belongs to a relationship-focused culture (Gesteland, 1999). Deal-focused cultures are open to dealing with strangers while an introduction or referral is important in a relationship-focused culture. Deal-focused negotiators can build rapport right at the bargaining table. The priority is deal (or task) at hand. In relationship-focused cultures, it is important to develop a relationship first before you make a deal. It is interesting to note that results in Table 1 reveal that both Filipino and American negotiators prioritize the deal before the relationship.

It is hoped that this study will help Filipino and American negotiators to understand themselves and to respect each others' similarities and differences.

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CONTEMPORARY ISSUES ABSTRACTS

MARKETING STUDENTS: WHO ARE THEY AND WHERE DO THEY GO?

Brian K. Jorgensen and Joe G. Baker, Southern Utah University

A degree in marketing should, presumably, open the door to many satisfying career opportunities. However, students have sometimes found that a marketing degree, in and of itself, does not necessarily lead to a marketing job, and many who work in the area of marketing and sales have degrees in other fields or no degree at all. So, what are typical career paths of students with undergraduate degrees in marketing? How many of them work in jobs that are related to their degrees? And what kind of salaries do they earn? To what extent do demographics such as race and sex, affect marketers' careers? This study examines these kinds of questions by analyzing a nationally-representative sample of college degree holders.

The results of this study indicate that most marketing students work in either marketing or management after they finish their education. Thus, job mobility appears to be fairly low, at least with regard to business-related careers. For those students who do leave the field of marketing, "pay and promotion opportunities" was the most often selected reason for choosing to work in another field. However, other reasons, including a lack of job in the degree field, career interests, family-related, and working conditions, were also fairly frequently selected. Many of those who choose, or become obligated to work in other fields, suffer financially for having made the move. Only those working in computer-related jobs average higher salaries. In answer to the question of at what point in their careers marketing students leave marketing for management or other careers, future studies of the data used for this research can eventually shed more light.

Another interesting finding from the research is that while students traditionally graduating in marketing were predominantly white males, that tendency is coming to an end. Among recent graduates, females are as prevalent as males. And participating in marketing careers by minorities is also growing. Blacks who hold marketing degrees appear less likely to be working in careers related to sales, marketing, or management than degree holders from other groups.

Both marketing educators and students should take note that among the non-management marketing jobs, sales jobs dominate. Marketing educators can use this information to continue to advise students as to the importance of studying selling and sales management. Students can use this information as motivation to begin viewing sales career opportunities in a more positive light. In addition to the inherent benefits of a career in sales, the fact remains that this is where many marketing degree holders find their careers. Further, most non-retail selling jobs appear to pay similarly to management jobs, and sales managers appear to earn more than other types of managers.

GLOBAL MARKETING EDUCATION AND SURFING THE FOREIGN PRESS

James "Bim" Beckman and Norton E. Marks, California State University, San Bernardino

The discussion centers upon the role of the foreign press, as accessible via the internet, on students' learning. We are most concerned with the matter of factuality and honesty, both from the standpoint of the provider of information on individual foreign countries and from that of the student, should they be drawn into email discourse with the providers of such economic, marketing, cultural and political insights.

A one or two week assignment can be based upon a small group of students surfing the foreign press in one or more countries, using one or more internet service providers. One could, for example, surf Brazil and Argentina as they are working through certain marketing and political issues, to ascertain differences of both interpretation and apparent factuality. The same comparative approach using different ISPs, and their likely differing selection of press sources, might be appropriate within a particular country. Levels of perceived anger need not be an issue, although students often learn an enormous amount from stepping to a "buzz-saw" of emotion within the press.

Within the customary model given by Marketing Management for "Environmental" factors is the very real need to have good information, both cognitive and affective. Surfing the foreign press can support this need in this era of increasing globalization.

Our discussion will be open and frank, with several current situations offered, to point out challenges to factuality and matters of differing interpretation.

ONLINE SHOPPING IN THE U.S. AND IN THE PHILIPPINES

Farrah Ramos and Rodelon Del Mundo, De La Salle University

Electronic commerce is a familiar word particularly to business and the organizations that have incorporated this concept into their strategies to assure their survival in the competitive marketplace. E-commerce includes all business transactions that use commerce applications in business-to-customer transactions, and includes purchasing products online. Businesses make themselves more accessible to the rapidly growing online population with a strategically designed site at the World Wide Web.

Online shopping is receiving attention in business publications because of the desire to interface with customers at their point of need than at the retailer's point of convenience. Online customers want static displays of textual information about products, and have the flexibility to interact with the multimedia online content.

In the United States, most companies believe that e-commerce is a viable and complementary retail channel with an estimated 135 million Internet users. Like the Gold Rush of 1849, which brought would-be miners from around the world to prospecting fields of California, the Internet Gold Rush is a mixture of opportunity and peril. Many retailers have offered online shopping and leading the pack is Amazon with its \$32 billion market capital selling books, music and video. Despite the problems posed by doing business on the Internet, the traditional "big box" stores like Wal-Mart, Sears and K-mart have now accepted the power of online shopping.

On the other hand, e-commerce in the Philippines is currently in its infancy, as resistance to new technologies and legal matters still hamper the development of a fully functioning online commercial system. However, a number of Philippine enterprises have taken the leap into cyberspace. These firms, however, are saddled with a number of disadvantages that their competitors in more developed economies do not face. Not all these sites offer online shopping, some are merely advertising their products and services. Moreover,

among those with online order capability sites, many are based in other countries particularly in the United States. Products are priced in US dollars catering to the Filipino community abroad. Online shopping in the Philippines still has much to improve on. But in the online marketplace, no company is too big or too small.

It would be interesting to find out the current situation of online shopping in the Philippines compared to the United States. Among the recommended areas of study are the following: a.) usage and buying behavior of Internet users; b.) environmental factors that affect Internet users in engaging in online shopping and c.) marketing mix strategies that marketers could use to sell over the net effectively.

THE ROLE OF A CHANGE AGENT IN THE ADOPTION PROCESS OF SERVICE-LEARNING AS AN EDUCATION INNOVATION FOR MARKETING EDUCATORS

Natalie A. Lupton and Robert A. Lupton, Central Washington University

Service-learning is a unique pedagogy that benefits many in an educational institution. Yet, many marketing faculty choose not to integrate service learning within the curriculum because of lack of awareness, personal barriers, or system barriers. Proponents of service learning and change agents face the task of diffusing the innovation of service-learning in all disciplines.

This roundtable aims to explore the following: the concept of service-learning as an education innovation, the adoption process of service-learning in marketing education as explained through Rogers' diffusion of innovation theory, and a communication model to increase the adoption of service-learning by marketing educators. Marketing educators interested in increasing the number of service-learning educators will leave this roundtable with a discussion and resources for effective modeling through application of the diffusion of innovation theory.

COMPETITIVE INTELLIGENCE AND ITS PLACE IN THE MARKETING CURRICULUM

Paul Dishman, Brigham Young University

The topic of Competitive Intelligence is emerging as an important topic in Marketing Research and Marketing Strategy. From a heritage of Environmental Scanning, Market Intelligence, and Information Management, Competitive Intelligence has emerged as a significant marketing and management construct where information is analyzed into intelligence for strategic and tactical decision-making.

CI differs from Marketing Research in its utilization of Internet sources, secondary data and human intelligence gathering techniques as well as specific analysis and synthesis of information.

Topics included in the CI course include lecture and discussion on the importance of intelligence in business, legal and ethical issues, the intelligence cycle (collection, direction, processing, and dissemination), managerial and marketing intelligence, foreign intelligence collection, and business security/counterintelligence.

Thirteen universities in the U.S. and 26 world-wide, including McGill, AGSIM, BYU, Rutgers, Indiana, the University of Pittsburgh, and UCLA, are offering one or more courses in CI. At least two Business Schools, Drexel University and Simmons College, are offering MBA degree programs in the field. This Special Session would address the following questions and issues.

This Contemporary Issue Session will address the following:

- What is Competitive Intelligence?
- What is its relationship to Market Research?
- What is its relationship to Marketing Strategy?
- How (and why) should I fit it into my already packed lectures?
- What cases are available to teach CI concepts?
- What models exist for the implementation of CI within the Curriculum?

Each participant in the session would leave with an understanding of concepts related to CI and Marketing.

DISTANCE LEARNING IN MARKETING COURSES FROM THE STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVE

**James P. Beaghan, Central Washington
University**

At present, the SB&E/CWU is delivering upper level business courses at the main campus in Ellensburg and three remote sites in the state of Washington. Most of these classes are delivered live using instruction from a professor present in the classroom. Approximately five years ago (1994-95), SB&E began an experiment with distance learning whereby a few selected business and marketing classes were delivered electronically to remote sites with the instructor physically present in a traditional classroom setting on the main campus. This approach to distance learning enabled the School of Business to cover multiple sections with fewer teaching resources.

The objective of this study is to look at distance learning from the marketing student's perspective. Research questions include differences in student expectations, as well as differences in comprehension, performance, and student satisfaction between live instruction and remote sites. Specific questions dealt with such issues as quality of instruction (live vs. remote) from the marketing student's perspective.

A research instrument (questionnaire) was developed and administered to students in several marketing courses, which were delivered live at the main campus and electronically to remote sites in real time. The results of the survey were then analyzed for these two different student groups (main campus vs. remote sites) providing insight from the students' perspective of their distance learning experience with implications for electronic delivery of marketing courses through distance learning in the future.