

INTERACTIVITY IN ELECTRONICALLY-DELIVERED DISTANCE EDUCATION

Paul D. Larson, University of Nevada, COBA, Mail Stop 028, Reno, NV 89557; (775)-784-6993 x308

Electronically delivered distance education (EDDE), or virtual education, is evident when course-related communication between teachers and learners is primarily transmitted via Internet, e-mail or modem.

Table 1 contrasts traditional and virtual education in terms of one of the oldest concepts in marketing education—the four utilities (form, time, place and possession). To provide utility to consumers/users, a product or service must be available in the right form, at the right time and place. The Internet is available to anyone, at any place and any time. Thus, people can stay in touch *asynchronously* (at different times). Its asynchronous form is the single most controversial aspect of EDDE. Critics cite its lack of face-to-face, two-way interaction as EDDE's key limitation. In this view, virtual education limits interactivity. However, technology can be used to foster interaction between students and their professor.

TABLE 1
Utilities: Traditional vs. Virtual Education

| Utility | Traditional | Virtual |
|----------|----------------|------------------|
| Form | Synchronous | Asynchronous |
| Time | Scheduled | Anytime |
| Place | Classroom | Anywhere |
| Possess. | Prof.-centered | Student-centered |

Traditional course sessions are limited to scheduled times in fixed classrooms, while EDDE "sessions" can occur anytime, anywhere, at students' convenience. Furthermore, traditional education is centered on the professor, as fountain of knowledge. To a large degree, the professor controls the exchange of information, i.e. the creation of possession utility. In contrast, EDDE is inherently student-centered. S/he makes exchange happen, drawing on a variety of resources, such as textbooks, WWW sites, work experiences, fellow students—and the professor.

Experts suggest that one benefit of EDDE, compared to the classroom, is more equal participation among class/group members. A 1998 AACSB report states that: "On-line learning allows everyone to participate equally, unlike the classroom where three or four may dominate a discussion based on their verbal ability or their presence." This inspires the first proposition—

P1: EDDE facilitates equal participation.

There is controversy among scholars on the issue of gender differences in student response to EDDE. It has been suggested that North American females are socialized to avoid revealing their intelligence. Also, the computer "nerd" stereotype is distinctly male. So, males should out-shine their female peers in virtual education situations. However, several studies have found no significant gender differences in terms of student satisfaction with or anxiety toward distance education. This leads to a second proposition—

P2: The sexes participate equally in EDDE.

Almost all educators agree that increased student participation and interactivity is desirable. However, educators disagree on the ability of EDDE to foster interactivity. Some are concerned on-line education obscures the professor's presence. Even advocates admit it is challenging to foster interaction on-line.

Among the key variables available to educators, for fostering on-line interactivity, are: student group size and degree of professor involvement. The Virtual-U at Simon Fraser uses groups of 10 students in its textbook conferences. One expert suggests structure provided by the professor is the key to increased interactivity. The lack of published results on these variables inspires two exploratory propositions—

P3: Interactivity increases with group size.

P4: Interactivity increases with professor involvement.

This session reports results of a field experiment on some determinants of interactivity and treatments to increase interactivity in an electronically-delivered Strategic Marketing course. Within-group student participation rates in a "Marketing Forum" database were found to be relatively level. Furthermore, no significant gender differences were found in student participation rates. Finally, while greater involvement by the professor had a positive impact on interactivity, group size had no significant impact.

For more details, e-mail the author: plarson@unr.edu

DEVELOPMENT OF A GLOBALIZED E-COMMERCE PROGRAM

Pat Fleenor, Gail Lasprogata, and Peter Raven
Seattle University, 900 Broadway, Seattle, WA 98122; (206) 296-5763

ABSTRACT

E-commerce has grown rapidly and is already becoming a global phenomenon. Unfortunately, business curricula have not kept up with this new business model. A framework is advanced within which to develop a systematic approach to a Global E-commerce curriculum. This framework differs from traditional international business curricula in that it specifically addresses key issues from which Global E-commerce departs from that curricula. These specific issues are listed and briefly discussed

INTRODUCTION

The potential for E-commerce is enormous. Estimates are that Internet sales will reach \$1.2 trillion by 2002 (Real Numbers 1998). Approximately 75% of Americans aged 16 to 60 have access to the World Wide Web either at home or at work. While the growth potential for E-commerce in the United States is huge, the potential worldwide is nearly unimaginable, particularly in the business-to-business sector. The Internet and World Wide Web are, of course, global already and E-commerce is set to explode as a global phenomenon. Consequently, pedagogical questions arise on how to best meet the needs of students who will enter this largely unknown arena.

BACKGROUND

Determining the world Internet population is an inexact science, but Commerce Net Research Center (1999) estimates the total at 120.5 million, including 79 million in the US and Canada, 23 million in Europe and 15 million in Asia/Pacific. There are about 3.5 million users currently in South America, the Middle East, and Africa combined.

Data on E-commerce revenues are spotty, but business-to-business (B2B) transactions totaled \$7.5 billion in 1997. Piper Jaffray estimates that B2B transactions will reach more than \$201 billion in 2001, while Forrester Research predicts B2B business will reach \$327 billion in 2002 (Department of Commerce 1999).

To realize the potential, E-commerce companies and their managers must shift from a U.S. market

perspective to a global one. Unfortunately, most companies engaged in this sector are poorly equipped to deal with the special nature of international markets and operations. -E-commerce startups tend to be very small, with the founders focused on the domestic, technical, financing, and marketing aspects of their business. There is a significant need for these entrepreneurs to learn about the marketing, legal, ethical, and cultural issues that make international business so challenging. Established companies entering global E-commerce as an extension of their existing businesses require similar education.

The Internet and especially commerce on the Internet, has brought about significant changes to the marketing of products and services over the Internet. The Internet has great potential for bringing international businesses and consumers together, but there are issues that need addressing. As Thomas Friedman (1999) said:

"The minute you start to do business on the Web, you now have to think globally. You have to think about your competitors as global, your readers as global, your suppliers as global, and your partners as global."

GLOBAL E-COMMERCE CURRICULUM

The requirements for a Global E-commerce curriculum were identified initially through conversations with founders of small E-commerce ventures, entrepreneurs seeking funding, and a venture capitalist. Further discussions followed with faculty colleagues versed in Entrepreneurship, International and E-commerce law, International Management, and International Marketing. Finally, we sought advice and insight from members of our business school advisory council. This led to secondary research about E-commerce and issues raised by the collision of geographically unbounded electronic commerce with the legal, cultural and business practices of other societies.

The framework within which a Global E-commerce curriculum was developed includes examining general and specific issues unique or specific to E-commerce.

General Issues

Many major knowledge issues face E-commerce entrepreneurs, including marketing, legal, ethical, and cultural differences encountered in international commerce. Some examples include, customs, tariffs, and taxes; currency and pricing; methods of payment; fraud; local laws and cultural prohibitions; and privacy.

International Marketing Issues

As with any successful international or global business, functional areas must be integrated. However, in teaching Global E-commerce, marketing, because of its direct interaction with the customer, requires special attention. Specific international issues an E-Marketer must consider include the nature of the consumer and access to different markets, the ability to research using the Internet, the changing nature of distribution functions, how transactions are conducted and secured, cultural implications, and advertising and promotion, and customer service. Over all these issues are the strategic issues of why and how a firm should utilize the Internet.

Strategic Planning

The use of the Internet should be consistent with a firm's long-term strategic planning. The Internet is only one method for entering foreign markets, including exporting, licensing, strategic international alliances, franchising, and joint ventures, and foreign direct investment (Cateora and Graham 1999).

Market Access

Because all Internet users are potential customers of E-marketers, marketers must understand the diversity of these customers to better satisfy their needs. For example, Australia is going through some of the same demographic changes that have been evident for some time in the U.S. The typical user is no longer a professional male earning \$32,000 a year, but is more like the general population.

In Russia, typical users are likely to have the following profile: 27.5% are managers, 36.6% are specialists, and 81% have higher education. In addition, they are heavily weighted to the 25-35 year age demographic (eMarketer 1999b).

As these examples illustrate, understanding the diversity of global E-customers will require teaching

new ways of determining customer profiles and customer needs. Segmenting the market, for example, will at the same time be easier, but also more complex. Paradoxes such as this will increasingly be found in global E-commerce.

Market Research

Already a vast amount of information is available on the Web. Some is useful for evaluating markets and segmentation, but just because there is a large amount of it does not mean it is valid, reliable, or appropriate. Teaching E-marketers how to optimize their search for information on the Web will be challenging, but necessary in a global E-commerce curriculum.

Distribution

Some experts see distribution as playing a key role in global E-commerce, but not necessarily just in its traditional functions. The function of the middleman has changed. Now, the web site is itself the middleman, providing many of the functions of a traditional middleman, including offering buyers information and sellers access to buyers (Maddox 1998).

Because it is so easy to be on the Web, many U.S. businesses have established a Web presence without planning for customers not residing in the U.S. This issue has, and will continue, to present problems of transportation, documentation, pricing, tariffs, payment, and other issues, unless E-marketers are taught the basics of global E-commerce.

Transactions

Shopping -- Consumer use of E-commerce has had the most press, but it is business-to-business (B2B) E-commerce that generates the most volume. Business to business E-commerce is generally further developed than the consumer market because businesses have better access to computers, faster connection speeds, and a support staff to make sure the network and software are functioning properly.

For consumers as well as businesses, the nature of shopping is changing. Online shopping results in the following benefits (Hanson 2000):

- **Price** – online buying is often cheaper than more traditional forms, especially when time and transportation are considered.
- **Assortment** – the range of products better matches consumer desires.

- **Convenience** – the timing, location, and buying process are superior. For example, kozmo.com recently established a video delivery service, along with your favorite foods, within an hour of ordering.
- **Entertainment** – buying online is more fun than alternatives.

Clearly, the use of the Internet for shopping, both for consumers and businesses, is growing at a dramatic rate. However, the nature of shopping has changed and E-marketers will need to thoroughly understand these changes in order to manage them.

Payment and Pricing – payment and pricing are key issues for which the traditional marketer may be ill prepared when facing the challenges of global E-commerce. While the use of credit cards is ubiquitous in the U.S., many foreign societies are still cash-driven. Even though security issues are being improved through technological advancements, overcoming cultural resistance to using *any* credit card will take time.

With the euro becoming the common currency of much of the European Union, the ability for Europeans to transact business over the Internet will improve. On the other hand, it will also make pricing strategies important, as pricing differentials will be much easier to spot (Stewart-Allen 1997).

The problems of being paid are compounded as geographic distances increase between customer and seller. Letters of credit or other common payment schemes used by international businesses may be inappropriate for individual consumers and inadequate for businesses requiring the speed of online purchasing. These issues will need to be addressed in any program addressing global E-commerce.

Cultural Changes

The Internet has the capacity to change cultures and to be changed by them. Understanding the cultures of the various global markets is critical for success. It is difficult enough when that culture is being purposely targeted, but is even more complex when a global customer can represent almost any culture. Developing the strategies an e-marketer needs to not only understand, but also to reach the diverse global cultures are critical.

Customer Service

Marketers face exceptional hurdles in delivering appropriate customer service levels to their individual foreign markets. When the customers are unknown, these issues become more complex. Global E-marketers will need to develop policies and procedures for maintaining customer service levels expected by each of their foreign markets. A first step, of course, is in understanding who and where the customers are and what their specific needs might be.

Advertising and Promotion

Advertising and promotion on the Web has evolved even over the few years the Internet has been used for commerce. As computers and access speeds have increased, Web advertisements have evolved from the static to the dynamic. Some other differences are well described by Bill Dunlap, Managing Director of Global Reach (1999). "Web business is pull marketing par excellence. Marketing stood on its head. Instead of someone going out and actively selling something to someone, pull marketing attracts people to a Website, when they are looking for a particular item. Attracting people's attention, when they are in the browsing/buying mood. This obviously has to be done in their own language. Make your Website such that its gravitational field pulls in people who are interested in its subject... and they can quickly read it in their own language. That is the key to today's shift in marketing."

Besides advertising, there are numerous other promotional opportunities available on the Web. In these most visible of marketing activities, however, there are both cultural and legal issues that must be addressed in a global E-commerce curriculum.

Legal Issues

New models of commercial interaction are developing as businesses and consumers participate in the international electronic marketplace. These new models may revolutionize global business, but they also raise challenging legal issues. Both the United States and the European Union have approached the legal challenges by encouraging market-driven solutions (Clinton and Gore 1997). In other words, any regulation necessary should be minimalistic, consistent and simple. The law should establish technology-neutral, framework principles to provide a uniform legal environment against which the international market may work. Such a framework would witness the dismantling of existing legal barriers to electronic commerce and the

enactment of new rules to support the use of technology to facilitate global trade (O'Rourke 1999).

Existing Legal Barriers

The accelerating pace of business activity over the Internet raises specific legal issues related to jurisdiction, contract enforcement, protection of intellectual property, export controls, taxation, consumer privacy and online dispute resolution, to name just a few. However, the lack of a uniform law, or framework, to govern electronic commerce is considered the foremost legal barrier to international free enterprise over the Internet. In the absence of such a framework, there is no predictable legal environment supporting commercial transactions over information systems. A course in "cyberlaw" would provide business students with a comprehensive understanding of existing and evolving E-commerce law sufficient to allow them to create successful international E-commerce strategies.

Recent Legal Developments: A Sampling

Electronic Signatures The harmonization missing in "cyberlaw" is obvious even in the approach governments adopt in response to the new challenges created by electronic communications. For example, some of the more persistent commercial law questions raised by business activity over information networks concern transaction authentication. Typically, these issues are resolved through the use of a signed writing evidencing the transaction. Of course, there is no uniform approach to what constitutes a signed writing in cyberspace. A new model law, the Uniform Electronic Transactions Act ("UETA"), has been proposed for countrywide adoption. (National Conference 1998). In the European Union, the European Commission ("EC") has proposed a directive on electronic signatures known as the E-Signature Directive (Proposal 1998). Neither the E-Signature Directive nor UETA favor a particular electronic authentication technology. In contrast, several member states of the European Union ("EU") (notably Germany, Italy and France), like many of the states in the United States have enacted technology specific legislation (e.g., digital signatures) (Church, Pullen, and Winn 1999). The E-Signature Directive and UETA are both recent propositions requiring official enactment. Thus, it may be years before there is resolution on just this one issue (McBride, Baker, & Coles 1999).

Enforceability of Contracts Related to the authentication issue is the issue of general

enforceability of contracts formed electronically. The United Nations Commission on International Trade Law adopted a Model Law on Electronic Commerce in 1996. Its intent is to facilitate electronic commerce by providing for essentially the same treatment of electronic and paper records. The EC followed suit with its Proposal for a European Parliament and Council Directive on Certain Legal Aspects of Electronic Commerce in the International Market ("EC Proposal"). The EC Proposal directs member states to ensure that their legislation allows contracts to be concluded electronically. In the United States, the proposed revisions of Article 2 of the UCC would apply to electronic purchases of goods while the proposed Uniform Computer Information Transactions Act ("UCITA") would cover computer information transactions (Kunze 1999).

Consumer Privacy Finally, it is worth noting the development of law in the area of consumer privacy. In 1995, the Council of Ministers and the Parliament of the EU adopted the Data Protection Directive that prohibits the transfer of personally identifiable data to countries outside of the EU that do not provide an adequate level of privacy protection. This approach to privacy rights is markedly different than that taken in the United States. As a result, U.S. firms collecting or using personal information about individuals in Europe are very concerned about the prospect of business interruption (due to interruption in data flows) and enforcement action that could be taken by officials in the EU (Church, Pullen, and Winn 1999).

CONCLUSIONS

In developing a Global E-commerce curriculum to meet the needs of the new millennium, we have developed a framework to include those issues that differ from more traditional methods of international business. In particular, the strategic management, marketing, and legal issues unique to global E-commerce need to be incorporated in a Global E-commerce curriculum.

This framework will serve as a basis for developing the curriculum, but it is obviously a "work in progress. The challenge is to design a curriculum that can transcend the rapid growth of the industry, the technological changes that occur, and the different business models being implemented through and because of E-commerce.

REFERENCES

(Furnished upon request)

RE-THINKING THE CONTENT OF A ONE-UNIT, FIVE WEEK COURSE IN INTERNET MARKETING

Les Harman, School of Business, Biola University, 13800 Biola Avenue,
La Mirada CA 90639; (562) 903-4770.

ABSTRACT

In the fall of 1999, Biola University's School of Business introduced a new three-unit course called "Seminar in Marketing Technologies." This class, taught directly in the computer lab, was split into three separate one-unit, five week modules entitled Internet Marketing, Introduction to Graphics, and Web-page Design. The purpose of this paper is to offer specific recommendations to the teacher for the first class--the internet marketing course. The material includes a thorough examination of necessary marketing decisions prior to actually putting up a web-site. This paper will offer recommendations for six aspects of the internet marketing course: evaluating web-site, web-sites, unique benefits of internet marketing, traditional marketing, expectations of internet customer promotion--driving traffic to your web-site, and teaching

Objectives of the Internet Marketing Course

1. At the completion of the course, students will be able to effectively communicate, in regard to creating and/or managing a web-site, with web designers, graphic designers, webmasters, management and other individuals or organizations that could be involved in the decision making regarding an organization's internet marketing strategies.
2. Understanding of the unique advantages of internet marketing.
3. Understanding of the content choices of a web-site either as an extension of current marketing strategies or as the primary marketing strategy.
4. Awareness of several creative strategies that will enhance the value of a web-site's content and design.
5. Awareness of various strategies to drive traffic to the respective web-site.

EVALUATING WEB-SITES

Evaluating "great" and "bad" web-sites worked well as homework questions in which students were requested to "surf the net" to identify various web-sites that they believed were very well done, as well as web-sites that were poorly executed. One of the primary reasons for the success of this is the fact that in a computer lab classroom, unlike in traditional classroom settings, the computer is directly in front of them, "on-line and ready

to go." Therefore, the student has a very strong desire to use his/her computer and is not as interested in any "lecture" time that is not "hands-on" with the computer.

I would recommend creating a class web page where students can copy in URL addresses of web-sites that they have found from their homework that were either very good or very bad. This way the whole class can easily go directly from one web-site to another web-site by just clicking on the class web page. Therefore, the instructor does not have to write each entire web address on the board for the students to then copy. In addition, having three questions for each web-site to be very valuable. 2) What are the 3) How has the internet marketing strategy at ast.com, Tide and discussion purposes.

E

ent of creating a organization that national organization internet marketing with teaching and in and out of immediately applied the students' web-sites. In addition, it allowed for a variety of answers for homework questions and class discussions because each student applied his/her answers to his/her unique web-site project. The following format for the final report was suggested:

- I. Briefly discuss "why" your organization needs a web-site.
- II. Briefly discuss who your precise target market is.
- III. Discuss how your proposed web-site will relate with the overall marketing strategies of the organization.
- IV. Discuss primary objectives of the web-site (both qualitative & quantitative).
- V. List out specific internet marketing strategies for your web-site with explanation and "why" for each of the following specific strategies:
 - A. Discuss strategies for how you want

to obtain information from visitors and how you will implement it.

B. Web-page content and design how does this relate to your objectives. Be sure to include domain name, and an overview of what material you specifically want on "home page."

VI. How will you "drive traffic" to your web-site?

A. Internal Strategies - within the internet

B. External Strategies - outside the internet

VII. Budget Proposal

Points were primarily based on providing specific internet marketing strategies as well as providing a defense for "why" the decision was made. Broad, all-encompassing strategies that attempt to include everything are not what the instructor desired at all.

I would definitely recommend introducing and utilizing the concept of an individual project web-site as early as possible into the class. The advantages of being able to customize homework answers to the students' specific web-sites and then being able to discuss their many different answers was very valuable. Secondly, I would suggest creating advisory teams where students are put into a groups in order to brainstorm and discuss various internet marketing strategies for their projects.

UNIQUE BENEFITS OF INTERNET MARKETING VS. TRADITIONAL MARKETING

The purpose of this material was to clearly illustrate the unique marketing tools available to the internet marketer, especially compared to other forms of traditional marketing. By assessing both the similarities and differences between internet marketing and traditional marketing, the class can easily identify the incredible capabilities that the internet provides for a wide range of marketing strategies.

An excellent way to analyze different internet marketing strategies is to examine how different types of organizations utilize their web-sites. For example, in class, compare and contrast a company that is solely web-based and has no physical storefront with organizations that have a have both a web presence and a physical storefront. It is also useful to compare internet marketing strategies of those organizations that have a physical storefront and a global presence against those organizations that have a physical storefront but are targeting a local market. Each of these examples illustrates a wide range of powerful and different internet marketing strategies.

EXPECTATIONS OF INTERNET CUSTOMERS

Internet customers, as of today, exist primarily in a narrow target market in which they have extremely high expectations for the web-sites that they selectively choose to visit and even more selectively choose to return. The reality is that these individuals value their time and know that they are in control, therefore your web-site better be fast, easy to navigate and meet their high expectations the first time and every time they visit it (Bruner, 1999). Furthermore, it must be predetermined if the target market is visitors working from business computers, which are usually faster and more powerful, or from home-based computers, which usually have smaller screens and slower modems (Bruner 1999).

One of the primary objectives of nearly every web-site is to become a bookmark of their customers; customers who they know have a choice in this extremely competitive internet marketplace. Discuss in class the concept of "why and why not" students themselves have chosen to "bookmark" a specific web-site. What are the characteristics that a web-site must provide so that it is deemed valuable enough to be one of the selected few that is bookmarked for return?

PROMOTION -- DRIVING TRAFFIC TO THE WEB-SITE

The primary purpose of this part of the course was to discuss strategies for promoting the web-site from within the internet. For example, the lecture discussed various ways to move a web-site "up higher" on various search engines (Bruner 1999). Specifically, this included discussion on choosing and registering a domain name, as well as utilization of a page name, meta-tags and keywords. In addition, the advantages and disadvantages of developing link relationships with other sites was explored. Finally, various advertising and public relation strategies were discussed, including e-mails, on-line communities and newsgroups as well as the use of various contests or sweepstakes to drive traffic to a web-site.

In order to better teach this concept, I would suggest having the students in class conduct research on the internet by using the exact same keyword or phrases in the search title, but have students use a wide range of different search engines. This will allow the students to see which web-sites make the top ten in some, all or none of the different search engines. Discussion of why this is the case is a great way of showing the value of keywords as well as illustrating the importance of the subject matter to be discussed. Furthermore, students can create and try their own keywords and phrases to

match page titles for their respective project web-sites (Methvin 1999).

In addition to discussing internal promotion strategies, I would also recommend spending equal time on promoting the web-site using external promotion strategies. This can be anything from just listing the URL and/or e-mail address on business cards to the other extreme of television commercials that push the audience to log on to their web-site. Finally, one of the best conclusions from class discussion on promotion of web-sites was to have the internet marketer ask the question, "What can we give away free so that visitors will come to our site?" This may include prizes, expert information, etc.

TEXTBOOK?

"The rate of development in this field of study is simply overwhelming. It is an understatement to say things are moving fast. If you didn't know, in this dynamic virtual market 'space,' we have redefined time. A Web year is at most two to three months in human terms. So, my point is, it is virtually impossible to know everything that is developing on the Internet at any point in time. Rather we will learn how to keep abreast of the technology and be able to evaluate its potential as a business tool. Our goal will be to develop an awareness and understanding of relevant issues, advantages and disadvantages, and specific techniques involved in using the Internet as a marketing vehicle." (Chakraborty, Internet Marketing Syllabus, 1999).

Although the course was only five weeks, it was originally thought that a textbook for the course would work well in order to substantiate lectures as well as provide a resource for learning the material. However, given the reality that the internet has literally thousands of articles on every single internet marketing subject discussed, it is recommended not to use a textbook. I would instead recommend the Net Marketing, Strategies and Techniques for Web Marketers web-site (<http://netb2b.com/>). This web-site is designed for educational purposes and has a current accumulation of a wide range of internet marketing articles that are easily categorized by various by lecture topics. These internet marketing articles are applied to several different industries, are very practical, and cover material not found in many of the textbooks.

This author agrees and believes a textbook will never be as current and complete as the internet itself. I recommend eliminating a textbook and utilizing web-sites, like Net Marketing, to be your best source. Furthermore, conducting research on the internet to find and examine various strategies is a skill that needs to be

continually practiced. I would recommend that homework questions surrounding a specific strategy like promotion include the student going to the Net Marketing web-site and having them find and read three articles about a specific subject matter, cite the source, and then discuss what they learned in class. This will give all students in the class a wide range of practical and current perspectives of internet marketing strategies in various industries.

CONCLUSION

Because of the reality that a "live" on-line computer is just 12 inches away, staring into the students' faces, I strongly recommend that in-class discussions utilize content from the internet. I would eliminate the textbook and have the students review articles on various internet marketing strategies. The project web-site served its purpose and the more specific the requested content of the sections, the better the result. In conclusion, this class served well as an opportunity to examine the "pregame strategies" to having a web presence. Furthermore, this works well since the next two five-week courses in "Seminar in Marketing Technologies" deal specifically with the more technical issues of graphics and web-page implementation and design.

REFERENCES

- Bass, Steve (1999). Setting Up Shop ONLINE. PC World. (May): pp. 181-192.
- Bruner, Rick E. & US WEB (1998). Net Results - Web Marketing That Works. Indianapolis, IN: Hayden Publishing.
- Direct Marketing Association (1999). Faculty Notebook of Direct Marketing Resources from Direct Marketing Association Internet Conference, Los Angeles, CA.
- Chakraborty, Goutam (1999). Oklahoma State University. Internet Marketing Syllabus.
- Chase, Larry (1998). Internet World - Essential Business Tactics for the Net. New York, NY: Wiley Computer Publishing.
- Methvin, David W. (1999). Succeed in Business. Windows Magazine. (August): pp. 99-105.

MARKETING MANAGEMENT PROJECTS: ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENTS OR DEVELOPMENTAL BUILDING BLOCKS FOR TOMORROW'S LEADERS

Debra A. Haley, Southeastern Oklahoma State University, Durant, OK 74701; (580)745-2374

Abstract

Corporate employers continue to complain about the written and oral communication skills of our university graduates from business schools across the nation, even going so far as to hire liberal arts majors with few or no business courses. Would a greater emphasis regarding the application of theory in a final project create both a more confident and competent graduate? Further, with various accrediting institutions emphasizing outcomes assessment, would a different emphasis in teaching a capstone Marketing Management course yield an improved final project with greater emphasis on acquiring the communication skills necessary to succeed? A module approach has been shown to build an exemplary final quality project that benefits all stakeholders; student, professor, employer, university and the community at large.

INTRODUCTION

A variety of factors near the millenium have converged to demand a more competent and confident graduate in both undergraduate and graduate business programs. Indeed:

- students are reluctant (even resistant) to traditional educational pedagogy that requires the student to acquire knowledge not in the required text nor covered in-depth in class,
- faculty are faced with a wave of students who want their business classes to be highly relevant and have little patience for theory unless they can immediately grasp the practical application of it,
- accrediting agencies are requiring that universities address outcome assessments, (AACSB 1994)
- legislative bodies are demanding accountability for monetary resources allocated, and
- recruiters want graduates that can come aboard and immediately begin to contribute to the firm's success(AACSB 1996).

In light of these demands, a different approach to the capstone class in Strategic Marketing Management was developed and has yielded a number of benefits beyond that of the traditional project. The purpose of this paper is to share the structure and results of this class with other marketing educators as well as address the concerns of the aforementioned stakeholders.

DESIGN OF THE PLAN

In order to provide students with an opportunity to develop the skills needed to successfully navigate corporate America, a three pronged approach was developed. The approach utilizing a "living" case, student demonstrations using power point presentations (if technology at university is adequate, otherwise acetates will do) presenting the highlights of a contemporary book and a final strategic marketing plan on an existing corporation. The results to date have been significant and demonstrably better than the traditional class approaches emphasizing either a multiple case orientation or objective tests. The results will be discussed at length in the results section of this paper.

Objectives of the Course

There are multiple objectives in achieving mastery of the elements of a strategic marketing management course. Among them to:

- guide students in the development of executive presentation skills as well as encouraging critical thinking skills in a major project,
- emphasize oral and written skill development
- expose students to contemporary business books or articles in the field of marketing through individual reading assignments and vicarious learning, and
- promote learning approaches requiring analysis, synthesis and application.

A "Living Case"

Undergraduate (large class). In order to illustrate the major concepts in the text, a "living case" is selected for analysis. The case might be a corporate choice, such as "Apple" but much more success has been had using the home university as a "living case." For example, a SWOT analysis is performed by student teams on the home university. As a precursor to that assignment, students are required to identify customers (not just themselves) but faculty, alumni, business community, community at large, recruiters and potential employers, etc. It is often an eye-opening experience for the class. Consultant teams compete for the "best" and most complete analysis and one team is selected to act as a board of directors questioning the consulting teams. Then, the faculty member poses

decision-making questions to the board members and they must determine if they have been able to acquire both the quality and quantity of information that would result in a "good" decision. Finally, the board of directors must "hire" a consulting team and justify their choice to the class.

This approach is especially valuable in the first few weeks of class when students need to begin to "think like consultants" instead of a student in search of an "A." The team that is designated the "board of directors" rotates each session in order for all class members to have had the experience of judging proposals as well as preparing proposals for presentation. Since there is but one case, "the university;" teams begin to compete for "best proposal." Thus, information as well as the ability to present persuasive and compelling arguments for a particular course of action creates a lively level of participation and interaction among the class members. Since the case is "live" and there is not a "right" answer, participants begin to understand the "risks" of certain strategies, how uncertainties affect decision making and the opportunity costs inherent in following Strategy "A" vs. Strategy "B."

Graduate (small seminar class). Students are required to bring a one-page analysis of the main topic (customers, competitors, SWOT analysis for example) with enough copies for all members of class. In a class of 12-20, students are divided into teams of four or five and must select the best analysis (their own analysis are removed from consideration in their own group so that they have no vested interest in the outcome). The "best" analysis of each group is examined as a whole and students discover that a variety of good analyses exist. In participating in this exercise, students get a "peek at the competition" and realize that although critical thinking skills are essential, there is much to be said for format, attractive "executive" presentation and compelling data obtained by secondary research. Although the first round is full of uncertainty, students get in the "spirit of discovery" and friendly competition the second time around as the quality of the analysis vastly improves.

The "winners" of the best analysis are treated as consultants and are required to stand in front of the class and must field questions from the group that selected their paper as the best. Each member of the team that selected the consultant is required to ask at least one question of the "consultant." The spontaneity, "the hotseat" is both a challenge and an honor. Further, those students asking questions not only enjoyed the "power" of asking but also realized the importance of "experiencing a logical thought

process in forming a question..." for the consultant on the hotseat.

Student Presentations

Students are required to do two presentations; text and contemporary book or article. Whether the text presentation of material is a team or individual presentation is highly dependent upon the number of students in the class. Undergraduates often present as a team, graduate students as a two member team or individually. While graduate students gravitate to power point presentations and undergraduate students to acetates, much depends upon the available technology of campus facilities and/or portable units, which might be owned by the graduate students or loaned to them by their corporate employers. At any rate, there is considerable vicarious learning that occurs as the best laid plans can go awry...and often do. But in a kind and constructive learning atmosphere the errors are handled with lightness and humor as students struggle in an environment where the "error" is not a career disaster.

Contemporary business book presentations must be approved by the professor, be related to some component in the subject matter of strategic marketing management, and provide additional knowledge to the individual as well as his/her classmates. Graduate student classes are often small enough that individual presentations add a rich base of applied knowledge to class and provide a forum for discussion of contemporary business issues. Undergraduate students in a small forum might likewise present a contemporary book, but given the size of most undergraduate classes, a contemporary article from an approved list of periodicals enhances the educational experience without being too overwhelming for the undergraduate presenter or the audience in the time allotted.

Strategic Marketing Plan-Modules

Far too many times students will turn in a strategic marketing plan that needs additional work, sometimes minor revisions, sometimes major. At this juncture, the semester is over; the students are racing around the halls asking if you are through grading yet. Sound familiar? It was with this challenge in mind that a module approach was implemented with a commitment of increasing the quality of a plan within the usual course structure.

Project Selection. The students are allowed to select the company for which they will complete a strategic marketing plan. Graduate students often select the company for which they are currently working. The employers often welcome the project and as they might

be supporting the student in grad school, have more than a passing interest in the results. On occasion, firms have deemed their company's information to be "proprietary" and are reluctant to share internal data outside the executive ranks. If the student senses that the information is considered "too sensitive" an alternative is considered. At this juncture, I often suggest the student select a firm they might like to work for in the future. This maintains the "realism" of the project and provides for a basis of strong commitment on the part of the student. Undergraduates will often select the company they would like to work for as part of developing an overall portfolio to share with the recruiters of that firm. With such care in selecting, the projects are not "just for class" and are taken quite seriously. A far better "quality" project results from the selection as well as greater interest in application of strategic theory.

Team or Solo Structure. Undergraduates are often working in teams of four and are simultaneously working through the expected "team" challenges. Graduate students in a small seminar class often work individually due to full time job constraints. Although in a large class teams of two can be used very effectively.

Works-in-Progress (Partial Drafts) of Final Project. At the end of the first third of class, one-third of the course material has been covered and the students are required to turn in the first third of their papers. After the first round of papers are assessed and the teams meet with the faculty member for feedback, one might expect that the material covered in the second module and integrated into the second draft would show vast improvements over the first third. Ideally, it does. Pragmatically, there tends to be three categories of papers that emerge. One group is "outstanding;" so very good that the professor looks forward to a project that will be of value to the firm. A second group is still struggling but making advances in the right direction, as expected. Finally, a very few papers will still need considerable guidance and direction. More seriously flawed papers in this last group might still lack vital information on a major section. At this juncture, it is important that the professor underscore that his/her feedback is seriously compromised by the lack of information in the paper and that this is the last opportunity to receive individual guidance and direction. At some point, it is essential that this point be made, otherwise, the students with the poorest papers will all want feedback within the same 24 hours prior to the project deadline. If individual feedback can not be provide for all members of the class than unfair discrimination results. The

professor must be prepared to answer all questions in class and refuse individual consultations with select members of the class after the deadline has been publicly announced. Otherwise, charges of favoritism might be asserted and a promising pedagogy becomes an ordeal for all parties concerned.

Assessment of Projects. It is essential that both of these papers accrue points towards the final project. Generally, the first and second "third" of the paper receive 25% each of the component of the final grade. For instance, if the paper is worth 160 points total, the first third will receive 40 points, the second third 40 points and the "complete" final paper will be worth 80 points.

RESULTS

As a capstone class for undergraduates, this course provides as opportunity for students to polish their presentation skills, further develop critical thinking skills, communicate in an extemporaneous mode by fielding questions from the "board of directors" provide a strategic analysis and propose recommendations in the role of consultant. For graduates, all of the aforementioned benefits result as well as a project, which has the potential to advance their career.

But most importantly perhaps is the appreciation of the application of marketing strategy to "real life" corporate/academe problems. Eventually, the final project is assessed as a part of the final grade in the class. But the intermediate work-in-progress drafts as well as the individualized feedback combines to produce a much higher quality paper and students who both understand and can articulate the application of strategic marketing theory to their peers as well as current and/or prospective employers. The class project becomes a tool to develop their skills, not just another assessment instrument or hoop they have to jump through.

LIMITATIONS

This course structure is best suited to a small, graduate seminar class. Although it can be modified in a number of ways, the major constraint is the additional time spent in preparing not only written comments but the individual "coaching" necessary in order for the student to address deficiencies in the project. The advantage of a "live case" as a major component of this class is perhaps the greatest benefit of using this type of pedagogy. Students generally have such a good time with it that there are really very few drawbacks.

In a large class that has been divided into teams, it is important to keep the competition between the teams "light" so that learning is enhanced. Generally, since each team will rotate one time to the "board of directors," comments, though direct, are overwhelming constructive and kind. Setting the tone is critically important, but not a difficult task. In a graduate class (small, seminar) the students act as a board of directors with individual members on the hotseat presenting their perspectives of competitors, customers, etc. The greatest benefit of using the "live case" is the unpredictability, the uncertainty, and the many different perspectives that will arise that must be addressed.

The different components of this class require the professor to be very well organized in order to stay on track. But in a three-hour night class (graduate), the change of pace is most welcome and helps the class to stay alert, focused, and involved in a participatory way. The first time through requires confidence that the "live case" will work. After that, it gets easier each time.

BENEFITS TO STAKEHOLDERS

Students

Perhaps the benefits to the students can best be captured by sharing a selection of their comments from a debriefing instrument.

"I liked knowing what I was doing wrong. Most of the time with other professors, one does an assignment and then get a grade. The paper has a letter grade, but provides no feedback so that one can know what was done right ..and what things needed to be worked on...."

"The feedback provided by have three separate modules for the Marketing Plan was very beneficial for me. The first module provided the necessary input to show whether I was actually doing the right thing. The second module not only reinforced the fact that I was 'on track' but it helped in keeping a focus on the project. The required material is quite overwhelming in content and application. The three-part presentation made the project more doable for me and helped to keep the information fresh in mind when working on the next part."

"This is my first MBA class and my undergraduate degree was obtained in 1984. I needed the individual assessment/input to make sure I was headed in the right direction."

"It is very beneficial for me to receive feedback...and guidance....I feel my final paper will be something that I can be proud of and can share with others. The bottom line is I learned."

"After doing the first 2/3 of the project I have found that it is a really challenging task....It really helped me to broaden my power of thinking about a corporation. I believe that after completing this marketing plan, it will help me a lot in my professional life."

"This was an enjoyable break from the typical case analysis. This had much more meaning to me personally because I had the opportunity to research, filter and digest a topic which was of interest to me. So many times a dry, drab case is assigned, it is worked on, and then forgotten. This will be a learning experience that I can reflect on and actually put to use for my real job outside of the school setting. I appreciate the opportunity to receive the feedback on each module. I like having the chance—early and midway to change direction or regroup if necessary."

Faculty

The "live case" approach provides an opportunity for students to begin thinking like decision makers early on and asking pertinent questions of one another as to the quality of information that is being offered by the teams. This is a very important foundation for the written project to follow as the focus is on providing information for a "quality" decision, not a game of "just throw everything into the paper...the thicker, the better" attitude. Although the module approach does incrementally increase the grading load, the students who most need guidance and direction are provided feedback in a timely manner so that the end result is a far better quality paper.

But perhaps one of the best outcomes is an understanding of the importance of "revision;" a concept that appears quite foreign to many students accustomed to turning in a paper and never having to go back and reconstruct where needed. I know of no field that does not utilize some form of revision, reconstruction, etc. Yet, out students often leave the university with the impression that revision and collaboration are somehow "outmoded" concepts that do not apply to their work; if they think about the concepts at all.

University

The President of the University visited class and fielded questions regarding the mission, goals, and strategic plan with the graduate students. He was invited by the students about three weeks into the class at a point where students were becoming more knowledgeable about customers, competitors, and had completed a SWOT analysis. The question and answer session provided ample opportunity to discover weak linkages in their analysis and consider new perspectives as well as new information. Many indicated that they were "very impressed" that the President would take the time to visit with the class. (If the President is not predisposed to interactions with students, other administrators could be invited, who would be knowledgeable) This opportunity for administrators to engage in a meaningful dialogue with informed students increases communication while advancing the goals of the class.

Community

Some of the projects selected were non-profit community organizations that have a very real need for a strategic marketing plan but neither the funds nor expertise on board to fulfill the need. The student's project is most welcome and needed. As the projects are selected by the students there is generally a strong motivation for completing an excellent project that will enhance the viability or effectiveness of the community organization. Over time, this can build goodwill within the community and is an extension of the university's involvement with the community.

Recruiters

Firms are requiring that students bring applicable skills and knowledge into the workplace. For those students interviewing, a project on their future employer denotes more than a passing interest or "just looking for a good paycheck." It differentiates them in a very positive manner. But perhaps even more, by the time the project has been completed, the student has attained a more realistic perspective of the firm's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats that will enable him/her to assess the viability of a good employment match.

COMMENTS

This class structure has been extremely well received by the graduate students. The integration of a "live case" has resulted in a much more participative interaction than in the traditional case course, while retaining the importance of the development of critical decision making skills. Mostly, it sets the stage for the project to follow. Further, the final quality of the projects has been significantly enhanced. Although the module approach to the project is time consuming, students begin to view the project as an interesting challenge and less as a punitive device or problem to be surmounted. Especially notable is the interest and commitment the students take in a project that their manager has shown an interest in as well. This extends to those students who have selected a non-profit community organization, often desperate for marketing help and heavily dependent upon volunteers in the community. The outcome of the project is important, not simply a trial to be endured. The attitude is one where "real learning" becomes important once more and being the "guide" on the path of knowledge is fun, not contentious.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

AACSB. 1996. *The Corporate University Boom*. Newsline. Spring

AACSB, 1994. *Achieving Quality and Continuous Improvement Through Self-Evaluation and Peer Review: Standards for Business and Accounting Accreditation*, St. Louis: American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business.

Chonko, Lawrence B., and Marjorie J. Caballero. 1991. Marketing Madness, or How Marketing Departments Think They're in Two Places at Once When They're Not Anywhere at All (according to Some). *Journal of Marketing Education*. 13 (1): 14-25

Kelley, Craig A., Jeffrey S. Conant, and Denise T. Smart. 1991. Master Teaching Revisited: Pursuing Excellence from the Students' Perspective. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 13 (2): 1-10.

USING FIELD RESEARCH TO EXAMINE THE ETHICAL ISSUES OF CUSTOMER SERVICE AND TARGET MARKETING

Regina P. Schlee, Seattle Pacific University, School of Business and Economics,
Seattle, WA 98119; (206) 281-3638

ABSTRACT

Does a middle class consumer get better service at a retailer targeting the middle class, or at retailer targeting the upper-middle class known for good customer service? Does an upper-class consumer get better service at an upper-middle class retailer or at middle class retailer? Do lower class consumers get good service anywhere? While the benefits of segmentation are well documented in almost all Principles of Marketing and Consumer Behavior textbooks, the effects of segmentation and target marketing on customer service have not been fully addressed. In fact, when it comes to customer service, most management and marketing experts favor a non-segmenting approach where all consumers who come to a retail establishment are treated with respect. But, when it comes to customer service received by real people in retail establishments targeting a specific socio-economic group, which approach dominates? Do salespeople treat customers who belong to different socio-economic groups differently, or do all customers receive the same level of service?

This article summarizes the results of a field study measuring customer service assigned to ninety-eight upper division business students enrolled in Consumer Behavior classes at a private university in 1992, 1997, 1998, and 1999. The field research had with two goals: (a) to allow students to observe how retailers targeting different socio-economic segments changed their product mix and their service to satisfy the needs of their target customers, and (b) to observe how salespeople respond to a potential customer who is not in the store's target market. Students working in small groups were asked to select (a) a product category they had a genuine interest in, (b) visit stores where they would have to interact with a salesperson to receive service, (c) vary their appearance so that

some group members appeared to be of higher socioeconomic status than others, and (d) visit several stores each targeting a different socioeconomic group. The categorization of retailers was decided jointly by students and the supervising professor. Students had to agree among themselves as to the appropriate attire and grooming to reflect different socio-economic groups. In appearing as customers belonging to a certain social class, students considered not only their clothing and shoes, but also accessories such as watches, jewelry, and eyeglasses. They also altered hairstyles, grooming, language, and mannerisms to reflect the desired image.

As expected students pretending to be lower class consumers received far worse service than those pretending to be middle or upper-middle class consumers. Students pretending to be lower class consumers received poor service in the majority of retailers they visited, regardless of the retailers' target market. Students had not anticipated the high incidence and magnitude of poor customer service directed to lower class consumers. At the conclusion of the field project, students were asked to evaluate the customer service they received both from in terms of business effectiveness and ethical principles. The article discusses the implications of target marketing for customer service, and examines the conflict between business efficiency and the ethical issues involved in providing good customer service to all customers regardless of likelihood of purchase.

SERVICE-LEARNING IN MARKETING EDUCATION: INTEGRATING CLASSROOMS AND COMMUNITIES

Charles S. Sherwood, Department of Marketing and Logistics, Craig School of Business, CSU-Fresno, Fresno, CA 93740-8001; (559) 278-4972; skips@csufresno.edu
Richard D. Nordstrom, Department of Marketing and Logistics, Craig School of Business, CSU-Fresno, Fresno, CA 93740-8001; (559) 278-2215; richardn@csufresno.edu

ABSTRACT

California's Governor, Gray Davis, recently called on all public colleges and universities in the state to institute some form of mandatory community service as a graduation requirement. The Governor's call is supported by others who feel that higher education should do more than prepare graduates for a useful career. Advocates feel the university should also prepare graduates to become responsible members of a community. However, not everyone agrees that mandatory service is the appropriate way to encourage young people to give back to the community. Others have noted that incentives and opportunities are more appropriate ways of fostering an ethic of service. One of the opportunities to incorporate more service into the academic curriculum is through the use of service-learning.

Service-learning is a form of experiential learning that utilizes community based service activities as a tool for learning. Service-learning has the dual benefit of broadening the student's knowledge of an academic discipline while at the same time developing a sense that any individual can make a contribution to the community. One of the academic disciplines that can greatly benefit from this type of pedagogy is marketing.

It is well known that the functions of marketing are applicable in social service organizations. Working at one of these organizations nearly always exposes the student to a variety of marketing applications. Service-learning activities can provide marketing students with an opportunity to: (1) Improve communication, presentation, leadership, creative, and computer skills; (2) Get first hand knowledge of career opportunities, challenges, and benefits associated with employment in the social service sector; (3) Allow students to leave their own personal comfort zone to learn about and experience the value of diversity; and (4) Experience situations calling for unstructured problem solving and decision making under uncertainty.

While there are a variety of ways to incorporate service-learning into courses and curriculums, the most common are: (1) An added credit option; (2) An activity or project that constitutes a substantial

portion of a student's course grade; (3) A minor course component which is normally presented as an alternative assignment to a short research paper, team project, or other activity with a focused objective; and (4) A marketing internship.

Outcome assessment tools for service-learning are similar to those applicable in a non service-learning course (e.g. analytical papers, class discussions, or presentations). However, a tool that results in the greatest payoff in service-learning is critical reflection. Only when the student critically reflects upon their experience in terms of course content, their own feelings, and community involvement can the "learning" part of service-learning occur.

Business and marketing faculty tend to be supportive of the concept of service-learning but often feel that it belongs in liberal arts or social science courses. Thus they fail to make the connection between individual course content and service to the community. Even when the value of service-learning is accepted, additional resistance takes the form of alleged time constraints. Ironically, the use of service-learning doesn't exacerbate the problem; it provides a solution. It allows the instructor to develop student behavioral skills and apply course concepts through community based, value added activities. By addressing multiple learning objectives, service-learning activities expands the offering without eliminating content.

Whether it is as a major or minor course component, every course in the marketing curriculum can benefit from the use of service-learning. Consider these benefits: (1) As a form of experiential education, it permits students to apply course content and develop valuable communication and behavioral skills; (2) Service-learning helps answer the challenge to develop graduates who are more socially aware and have a sense of community; (3) Students benefit by gaining a broader view of the value of marketing activity; and (4) Students learn to see the relevance of what they are studying.

EVOLUTION OF CLASSROOM INNOVATION: WAVES OF CHANGE

Richard L. Celsi, California State University Long Beach, Department of Marketing, College of Business Administration, 1250 Bellflower Boulevard, Long Beach, CA 90840-8501; rcelsi@csulb.edu.

ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the stages of technology adoption in classrooms, specifically computer technology and the Internet. All too often, however, the use of technology in the classroom is confused with the more important concept of classroom *innovation*. Administrators and faculty alike are interested in an improved classroom experience; however, the confusion between mere use and innovation impedes both technology optimists and pessimists from achieving breakthroughs that will improve the learning-teaching experience in significant ways. Technology is not synonymous with innovation; it only enables innovation given the right environment and openness to possibilities.

The broad goal of this paper is to explore the evolution of innovation in the classroom made possible by these new e-technologies. The specific objectives are (1) to provide language and a framework with which to discuss classroom innovation, and (2) to explore the process of faculty adoption of technology in the classroom. A number of areas are explored where change and innovation are evolving in the classroom, some mirror existing functions, and some have the potential to be truly innovative. This process follows three general "waves" of change: (1) technology-as-support, (2) mirroring, and (3) discontinuous innovation.

Wave1: Technology as a Support Function

In this initial wave, technology is used to support the classroom largely by performing tasks such as word processing of lectures and tests, spreadsheets, and data storage, or by providing support software like SPSS that helps students to gain hands-on-experiences. Nevertheless, these innovations are typically incremental and not directly student facing. They facilitate and enhance teaching, yet they do not significantly alter the teaching model.

Wave2: Mirroring

In Wave2, teaching functions are "mirrored." (Rayport and Sviokla 1995). For example, an activity performed in physical space (preparing lecture transparencies) is now performed in virtual space (using PowerPoint to prepare lecture slides). In this

mirroring stage, efficiencies in production, storage and presentation occur and are more student-facing than in Wave1, yet there is still little significant learning change as transparencies, for example, while more efficient on PowerPoint, are still used to perform the same function.

Wave3: Discontinuous Innovation

In Wave3, new and innovative applications are developed, primarily as a result of faculty/student experimentation that begins to fundamentally change the classroom experience and outcomes. Wave3 innovations help to create an increasingly interactive classroom that (1) leads to stronger relationships with students and alumni and (2) enables increased achievement of learning and assessment goals. Here, classroom innovation is discussed that increases **student-faculty-alumni interaction**, as well as helping to achieve desired but difficult to attain **learning outcomes** such as lifelong learning, maintaining contact, and remaining current. In Wave3, students begin to assume an initiating and interactive role in their educations and acquire a sense of ownership and role in the classroom.

CONCLUSIONS

Discontinuous classroom change occurs as user knowledge evolves and as technological mediums become more transparent to later adopters. Faculty and student experimentation, largely trial and error, plays a major role in the adoption process. These innovators exhibit a willingness to engage in "bricolage" or play with new technologies (Turkle 1995). As such, classroom innovation evolves in fits and starts as successive waves of adopters engage the process out of interest and involvement, peer pressures, and student expectations. The innovations examined in this paper are seen as augmenting, extending, and creating a new dynamic and interactive classroom. A classroom today's eighth graders might expect upon entering college.

Rayport, Jeffrey F. and John J. Sviokla (1995), "Exploiting the Virtual Value Chain," *Harvard Business Review*, Nov-Dec.

Turkle, Sherry (1995), *Life on the Screen: Identity in the Age of the Internet*, Simon and Schuster, NY: New York.

AN INTERNATIONAL INTERNET ASSIGNMENT FOR PRINCIPLES OF MARKETING

Robert Zimmer and Scott Greene
Marketing Department, California State University, Fullerton, CA 92834
zimmer@fullerton.edu; sgreene@fullerton.edu

ABSTRACT

Marketing educators have been clamoring for the introductory marketing course to contain Internet-based assignments for accessing and retrieving marketing information, as a means for internationalizing the course. This paper presents a global Internet research assignment. It requires students to scan the globe in order to select a country in which they would like to work or to start their own business after graduating college.

During the past five years, the globalization of markets has been accelerating due to the proliferation of companies using the Internet to market their products and services to previously untapped potential customers around the world. Global markets and information technology are interdependent forces, which are forcing companies to think globally in formulating their growth strategies. The long-term projections for both electronic business-to-business and consumer commerce are phenomenal, as reflected in investors' insatiable appetite for technology-related equities.

In light of this dramatically changing business landscape, these two forces are reshaping the way in which marketing education should be taught (Lamont & Friedman, 1997). As we prepare students to enter the new millennium, they will need to acquire a global business perspective, and to possess facileness in conducting business over the Internet (Atwong & Hugstad, 1997; Holmes & Clizbe, 1997). The purpose of this paper is to:

1. proffer a global Internet research assignment for use in the introductory marketing course, and
2. present some preliminary findings from the pretest of a student questionnaire, which was designed to assess the value of the assignment in helping students gain a global perspective and improve their international Internet research skills.

Approaches to Internationalizing Business School Curricula

To incorporate an international dimension into business school curricula, various approaches, which require different levels of commitment by schools and their faculty, are available. The most dramatic approach would be to add an "Introduction to International Business" course to the core, and to offer an "International Global Strategy" course, in lieu of, or in addition to, the traditional capstone strategy course. This approach also requires the development of courses for each of the functional areas, such as international production, international finance, international marketing, etc. As part of this development process, international databases, simulations, and expert systems designed for teaching an international marketing course are gaining acceptance (Priovolos, 1993; Karakaya, 1993). In essence, an entire new international department is created alongside the other traditional departments in business schools. There is strong support for tailoring academic programs by merely adding international-functional courses, rather than creating new departments (Serey, Lindsay & Myers, 1989; Aggarwal, 1989).

A second approach to internationalizing business school curricula would be to require that the global dimension be integrated into all business courses. Larson (1991) argues that international topics must not be covered in isolated courses, but instead they must pervade the entire business curriculum. Faculty-wide integration of the global dimension into every business course may be difficult and impractical to attain because it requires accompanying voluntary change on the part of faculty members (Fleming, Shooshtari & Wallwork, 1993). Nonetheless, this is the most popular approach, with marketing being the most internationalized, functional business discipline.

Two other approaches for incorporating a global dimension into business school curricula require students to (1) take international courses outside the school of business and (2) go on foreign study tours. Students take either language and intercultural communication courses, or they take comparative or international courses in relevant

social sciences such as anthropology, economics, sociology, etc. (Ivancevich & Duering, 1993). Foreign study tours provide an opportunity to infuse the global dimension into a business course by actually taking the class into the international marketplace, thus providing foreign country exposure to both students and instructors. As part of study-tour programs, lectures are supplemented with guest speakers, class field trips, student projects, and foreign study tours (Gibbs 1994; Kashiak & Jones, 1996).

A final approach—still in relative infancy—involves the use of the Internet and World Wide Web to integrate a global dimension into the curricula. According to Lamont & Friedman (1997), information technology is the most significant force driving change and shaping the future of marketing education. What makes the Internet technology uniquely attractive are three features:

1. Interconnectivity – provides flexible linkages to information sources around the world.
2. Anywhere, Anytime – efficient global access to information sources across geographical boundaries and time zones.
3. Dynamic Multimedia for formatting, presenting or interacting with information (Atwong & Hugstad, 1997).

Consequently, educators are starting to realize the potential that information technology has for enhancing students' learning of international business (Lundstrom & White, 1997; Stull, Bartkus & Richards, 1996).

Obstacles to Internationalizing Business School Curricula

Despite the pressing need to globalize business curricula, three major—but not insurmountable—obstacles hinder the process: (1) many professors lack international business knowledge (formal or experiential); (2) many instructors resist change, and cite the absence of incentive systems to reward their teaching and research in international topics; and (3) students are not interested in international business careers.

In the past several years, the apparent lack of international knowledge of most instructors has received considerable attention (Zimmer, Bruce & Lange, 1996; Tilley, Cudd & Rutledge, 1994). Adding to the problem in marketing is the apparent gap that exists between instructors who want international

business students to have more computer proficiency and negotiation skills, and professional marketers who see the need for more communication skills and cultural-sensitivity training for students (Lundstrom & White, 1997; Lundstrom, White & Schuster, 1996).

The second obstacle to internationalizing instruction is organizational inertia and inherent resistance to change by faculty, department chairs, deans, and other top administrators of universities. The most challenging task may be motivating faculty to embrace curriculum change (Lamont & Friedman, 1997). Also, rivalries for resources between schools and interdepartmental politics can hinder university progress in affecting real curriculum change. Additionally, the limitations of current reward systems, including pay increases, promotion, and tenure, tend to demotivate faculty from investing the time to acquire international knowledge (White & Whitener, 1998; Keating & Byles, 1991). Smuckler and Sommers (1998) posit that curriculum change can be a twenty-year incremental process.

The final obstacle appears to be students' disinterest in international business careers. Results from two studies of undergraduate business school students indicate that a lack of student interest may be a major deterrent to internationalizing business curricula (Tillery, Cudd & Rutledge, 1994; Neubaum, Burden & Bryan, 1997). A possible explanation for this low interest is that only 27% of students surveyed felt that they were well prepared to work in the international business area (Shannon, Turley & Miller, 1996).

Internationalizing the Introductory Marketing Course by Using Global Internet Assignments

In recent years, research attention has been directed at internationalizing the introductory marketing course (Lamont & Friedman, 1997; Johnson & Mader, 1992). One study focused on examining the extent of classroom coverage and the teaching materials used by instructors to cover international topics in the introductory marketing course (Zimmer, Bruce & Lange, 1996). It appears that marketing instructors are sensitive to the need for placing greater emphasis on more rigorous teaching of international marketing. In a survey

of over 400 marketing educators, Jarboe, McDaniel and Lamb (1989) found that classroom coverage of international marketing averaged 1.54 hours, and it would have been increased to 3.72 hours (a gain of 142.3%) if student contact hours were doubled from 45 to 90.

Marketing educators are starting to embrace the Internet, as an invaluable tool for internationalizing the curriculum. Siegel (1996) reported having students in an international marketing course complete a "country book" assignment solely on the Internet. Other educators also have international marketing students conduct Internet searches on a foreign country (Atwong, Lange, Doak & Aijo, 1996). After completing a market research project, students formed cross-national teams with foreign students in their targeted countries. They were required to collaborate and to communicate with their teammates using available technology.

Our assignment for the introductory marketing course involves having students scan the globe, in order to select a country in which they would like to work or to start their own business. Students are required to use the Internet to research their targeted countries. The assignment answers marketing educators who have been clamoring for the introductory marketing course to contain Internet-based assignments for accessing and retrieving marketing information, as a means of internationalizing the course (Siegel, 1996; Lamont & Friedman, 1997 and Atwong & Hugstad, 1997).

Exhibit I presents the two-page form provided to students for recording their information. The primary student learning objectives of this assignment were fourfold:

1. to have students study and learn about the demographics, culture, economy, political system, and geography of a foreign country
2. to familiarize and upgrade student global research and information retrieval skills using the Internet
3. to apply segmentation, targeting and other marketing concepts to the global marketplace
4. to upgrade students' report writing skills.

Administering the Global Internet Search Assignment

The first and most important step is to sell students repeatedly on the benefits of

investing their time on this assignment. The "selling job" begins on the first day of class, when the course syllabus is reviewed. Early in the semester, a one hour library workshop is scheduled outside of class time, in which a librarian will cover global Internet search strategies. A detailed discussion of the assignment occurs after the topic of marketing research, between international marketing and market segmentation/targeting.

It is suggested to students that they view the entire world as the potential market for their services or entrepreneurial ventures. They must decide then on which bases are meaningful and useful for them for dividing this huge market, such as by continent, language, religion or economy (industrial vs. third world). Having determined these significant characteristics, they are asked to evaluate all potential markets based on them and to select one country to target. Students are given three weeks to complete the assignment, and they are graded by graduate assistants. The assignment comprises about 5% of each student's final grade.

ASSESSMENT METHODOLOGY

Though anecdotal evidence from students indicated the assignment successfully accomplished several learning goals, a more formal assessment of the assignment's value was deemed appropriate. To gauge the extent of benefits, how widespread they are among students, and whether certain student characteristics are associated with greater benefits, a written questionnaire was designed, pretested and administered to students who had completed the assignment.

Initially the questionnaire consisted of 12 items, but was expanded to 22 questions upon revision and after review by colleagues. The expanded questionnaire was pretested for clarity and internal validity among a convenient sample of students, and it was determined to take about seven minutes to complete. Necessary revisions were accomplished.

For consistency, all possible questions employed 10 point bipolar or semantic differential scales. These self-assessment measures essentially estimated value-added in seven areas from completing the assignment. Additionally, five areas of perceived complexity/sophistication of and general

satisfaction with the assignment, plus personal characteristics of the students were determined.

Specifically, the value-added items measured:

1. increased familiarity with electronic information sources,
2. increased familiarity with foreign market research using electronic information sources,
3. increased awareness of the amount of valuable information on the targeted country available through electronic information sources,
4. increased awareness of situational facts about the targeted country,
5. increased understanding of applying the concepts of segmentation and targeting the global marketplace,
6. increased knowledge of how to do business (at an elementary level) with a foreign market,
7. increased interest in further study of or a career in international business.

Plus, for reliability purposes for item 2, another question measured increase of electronic information research skills on foreign markets (Churchill 1999, p. 408).

The five areas of perceived complexity/sophistication and general satisfaction specifically measured:

1. diversity of information sources,
2. hours spent on the assignment,
3. search hours invested on the Internet,
4. number of different Internet/Web sites visited,
5. degree of general satisfaction with the assignment.

The five specific, personal characteristics identified:

1. location of the personal computer(s) used to access the Internet,
2. number of international, Internet searches performed in the last
3. major area(s) of emphasis in university studies,
4. gender,
5. number of years of U.S. residency.

RESULTS

The anonymous questionnaire so far has been administered during classtime to 93 undergraduate students and 21 graduate students, who completed the assignment. In order to increase the sample size, students from

next semester who have completed the assignment will also complete the questionnaire. At the time of this writing, data from three particularly salient questions from the 93 undergraduate students have been computer analyzed. Additionally, preliminary analyses of the pretest data are presented, though certainly no conclusions can be drawn from that small sample.

Data from the first of the three salient questions analyzed from the 93 undergraduate students dealt with the amount of valuable information they actually found through electronic information sources about their targeted country compared to their expectations. On a 10-point scale with 1 = much less than expected, and 10 = much more than expected, data demonstrated the widest possible range, all the way from 1 to 10. The average rating was a moderately high 7.0.

The second question analyzed from the 93 undergraduate students focused on one aspect of the complexity or sophistication of the assignment. Asking how many hours were spent searching the Internet for the assignment, again the data showed the widest possible range, from 1 hour to 10 or more hours. Because of the "10 or more" category, a true average cannot be determined. With that caveat in mind, treating "10 or more" as simply 10 hours produced an "estimated average" of 5.1 hours spent searching the Internet for the assignment.

The final question analyzed from the 93 undergraduate students measured satisfaction with the assignment given the benefits gained and time spent on it. On a scale of 1 = extremely dissatisfied and 10 = extremely satisfied, students' rated their satisfaction with a range of 1 to 10. Visual inspection demonstrated only one rating of 1, zero ratings of 2, and four ratings of 3. The average level of satisfaction with the assignment was a moderately high 7.1.

More thorough but preliminary analyses of the pretest data (due to small sample size) indicate highly encouraging findings about the perceived value of the assignment. Among the value-added questions:

1. Familiarity with electronic information sources increased an average of 2.25 points after completing the assignment (10 point scale, 1 = not at all familiar, 10 = extremely familiar). Familiarity before the assignment

- ranged from 3 to 7. Familiarity after the assignment ranged from 6 to 9.
2. Familiarity with conducting research on foreign markets using electronic information sources increased an average of 3.0 points after completing the assignment (10 point scale, 1 = not at all familiar, 10 = extremely familiar). Familiarity before the assignment ranged from 2 to 6. Familiarity after the assignment ranged from 6 to 9.
 3. Increase of electronic information research skills on foreign markets (a reliability measure for item #2, above) had an average rating of 8.25 (10 point scale, 1 = not at all helpful, 10 = extremely helpful). The range was from 7 to 10. Small sample size precludes statistical correlation with item #2. It appears highly positively correlated from visual examination.
 4. Awareness of the information actually available on the targeted country through electronic information sources compared to expectations was rated an average of 8.5 (10 point scale, 1 = much less than expected, 10 = much more than expected). The range was from 8 to 9.
 5. Increase in awareness of situational facts about the targeted country had an average rating of 5.0 (10 point scale, 1 = not at all surprised, 10 = extremely surprised). This item had a rather wide range from 3 to 8.
 6. Understanding of applying the concepts of segmentation and targeting increased an average of 3.0 points after completing the assignment (10 point scale, 1 = almost nothing, 10 = an extreme amount). Understanding before the assignment ranged from 2 to 7. Understanding after the assignment ranged from 7 to 9.
 7. Understanding of doing business in the targeted country increased an average of 4.5 points after completing the assignment (10 point scale, 1 = almost nothing, 10 = an extreme amount). Understanding before the assignment ranged from 1 to 7. Understanding after the assignment ranged from 8 to 9.
 8. Resulting from this assignment, interest in further study of or a career in international business increased an average of 7.25 points (10 point scale, 1 = not at all increased, 10 = extremely increased). The wide range of responses spanned from 3 to 10.

Among the perceived complexity / sophistication and general satisfaction questions:

1. The number of information sources used to complete the assignment was 3 for all pretest respondents. Choices listed included: Lexis-Nexis, Internet, printed library references, others [please list]. The percentage of information obtained from the Internet demonstrated a wide range, from 0% to 60%. However, all respondents used a computer. Twenty five percent of them used electronic information sources other than the Internet, such as CD-ROMs and library-subscribed electronic information sources.
2. The number of hours spent collecting the requested information about the targeted country had a rather wide range from 3 to 10 or more, with 50% answering 10 or more. An average cannot be calculated because of the 10 or more category. Based on pretest feedback, this question was modified on the final questionnaire to ask, "Approximately how many hours did you spend on the entire assignment?" The revised question has greater differentiation from the next question that was asked, and provides better insight to the instructor considering adopting the assignment.
3. The number of hours spent searching the Internet for the assignment averaged 4.5 hours (no one selected 10 or more). The range extended from 3 to 6 hours.
4. The number of different Internet/Web sites visited for the assignment averaged 3.75 sites. The answers ranged from 2 to 6 sites.
5. The degree of general satisfaction considering what was gained and time spent completing the assignment averaged 9.0 (10 point scale, 1 = extremely dissatisfied, 10 = extremely satisfied). The range spanned only positive responses from 8 to 10.

The five questions about specific, personal characteristics of respondents generated:

1. For the assignment, all respondents utilized personal computers located in their homes and at the University Library. No one used personal computers at work or "other."
2. None of the respondents had performed an international Internet search in the last year before this assignment.
3. Fifty percent of respondents had selected a major area of academic emphasis in marketing, while the other fifty percent had chosen accounting.
4. Seventy-five percent of respondents were female, with twenty-five percent male.

6. All respondents had resided in the United States over 10 years.

DISCUSSION AND LIMITATIONS

No definite conclusions can be drawn from the preliminary analyses of the pretest data, because of both a small sample size and bias due to the volunteer nature of sample selection. Nonetheless, the results suggest cautious optimism that formal survey analyses will demonstrate great learning value from this international Internet assignment.

Specifically, preliminary analyses suggest substantial average increases in students' familiarity with electronic information sources, in general and for foreign market research. Despite varying degrees of familiarity before completing the assignment, all respondents expressed increases as a result of the research project. Corroborating their increase in familiarity with foreign market, electronic information sources, respondents reported large increases in their research skills using those sources.

Additionally, the assignment appears to have taught students that electronic information sources offer much more information about foreign markets than they might expect. Surprise at some statistics or facts learned about the targeted country showed a fairly wide range of degrees, suggesting varying levels of prior knowledge by the respondents.

Understanding of applying the concepts of segmentation and targeting of markets, and of doing business in the targeted country increased rather significantly as a result of completing the research project. Porter and McKibbin's (1988) study encourages learning of such practical applications of business theory. Furthermore, the project spawned a large, average increase in interest for further study of or a career in international business. But a wide range of individual responses implies great variation among each student's interest.

Pretest respondents' perceptions of the research project indicated complexity and sophistication in terms of utilizing 3 different types of information sources, all students using electronic information sources both at home and at the University Library, spending between 3 and 10 or more hours collecting information, working on the Internet an average of 4.5 hours,

and visiting an average of 3.75 Internet sites. When asked about their general level of satisfaction considering their efforts and benefits gained from the assignment, students overwhelmingly rated it an average of 9.0, with 10 being "extremely satisfied."

References and Exhibit 1 available upon request.

GETTING AN "A" WITHOUT ATTENDING CLASS: A CASE STUDY IN THE BENEFITS OF A LECTURE ENHANCED WEB COURSE

Ted Mitchell, University of Nevada, Reno,
College of Business Administration, Reno, NV 89557: (775) 784-6993

ABSTRACT

Internet technology is proving to be a superior system for the delivery of interactive exercises for students in Web based correspondence courses. When the syllabus of a Web based correspondence course is merged into the traditional classroom, the result is a lecture enhanced Web course. Busy commuter students like a strongly focused class that can be successfully completed without attending class and by doing all the required assignments on-line. Full time students like the opportunity to attend class and to participate in the traditional learning experience.

INTRODUCTION

Professors always pride themselves on bringing unique value to their courses. They get a nervous twinge when a student manages to earn an A grade without attending class. The question of getting an A without attending class reaches straight into issues about assessment and the basic institution of credit-for-contact hours. When courses are organized around seminars and labs then it is obvious that the student gains value from class attendance. If there are weekly tests and interesting multi-media presentations then the value of regular attendance is enhanced. Attendance has less obvious value when a course is built around standard textbooks, library assignments, and long lectures to large audiences.

At the other end of the spectrum there are university courses that are designed to deliver education without class attendance, e.g., correspondence courses. Classic correspondence courses and independent

study programs have been part of most universities for many years. When a professor designs an independent study or a correspondence course the primary goal is to create a syllabus in which a student can master the same material as a regular student and get an A without attending class.

Although study after study has shown no significant difference between the academic performance of students in regular classrooms and students in distance education programs (Russell 1998), there is a general belief that independent study and correspondence courses are inferior delivery systems compared to the conventional classroom. Because research suggests that students need a high level of maturity and motivation to be successful in an independent study program (Miller, Smith and Tilstone 1998), there is a potential conclusion that a higher quality of the students compensates for an inferior delivery system.

The Web allows correspondence students, who were previously forced to work in isolation, to work together on projects and to collaborate on assignments. The Web also gives correspondence students the ability to use computer assisted learning programs and to submit exercises with instant feedback on their performance. Computer mediation gives students homework tailored to their individual needs and performance levels. Students can use e-mail to ask immediate questions and seek instant help on problems and assignments. Multimedia presentations that used to be restricted to classroom audiences are now available anytime, anywhere on the personal com-

puter. The interactive revolution that the Web has brought to homework and home study exercises in correspondence courses is changing the way traditional courses are taught (Mitchell 1997). It can be argued that the Internet is providing a superior system for delivering exercises and homework assignments.

The convergence between the regular classroom and the correspondence course results in a lecture enhanced Web class. The recipe for a lecture enhanced Web class is to take one Web-only, independent study course, add conventional lectures and sprinkle liberally with inspiring and motivating classroom activities. A pilot project using a lecture enhanced Web course on the Principles of Marketing has proven popular and in the future it may become part of the regular diet at the author's institution.

The Lecture Enhanced Web Class

A lecture enhanced Web class meets in a regular classroom with conventional lectures and classroom activities, but all the homework, assignments, and exercises are done on the World Wide Web.

Web assignments and exercises have several unique features that make them powerful teaching tools. The first feature is interactivity. Interactive exercises are particularly powerful for low level learning objectives where rehearsal is important and multiple choice practice questions can be used. For example, students who are doing practice problems on the Web receive immediate feedback as to their performance and the practice problems can be automatically tailored to the performance of the individual student.

A second feature is the record keeping ability of the computer that acts as the instructor's Web server. The faculty member and

the student can easily review their progress and performance on a day-to-day basis.

A third feature of the Web assisted class is the massive amount of information that can be put on-line to help students with detailed explanations or special questions. For example, the faculty member can publish lecture notes, specific examples and explanations onto the server for on-line viewing.

A fourth feature is that the specific levels of mastery can be programmed into the assignments. That is to say, the instructor can decide in advance that the homework must be correct before the computer will submit it as a completed assignment.

The fifth and most revolutionary feature is that students can e-mail questions or comments to other students or the faculty member at anytime. The usefulness of e-mail as a learning tool has been well documented and with a Web assisted class student participation is not limited to the classroom or to office hours.

The motivational and inspirational benefits of the traditional classroom do much to make it a superior system for delivering complex ideas and concepts. The interactive nature of the Web makes it a superior system for delivering homework exercises and assignments out of class. Combining the benefits of both systems results in an improved learning experience.

Types of Interactive Assignments Used

The Web based exercises over and above simple e-mail assignments used in this pilot study were as follows:

1. The students had blocks of "Jeopardy" style matching questions for every chapter and these were required to be done and done correctly before the computer would let the student submit the assignment.

2. Banks of multiple choice question for the students to practice were available. Students would get immediate feedback on the correctness of their answers and participation was optional.
3. Essay questions were asked on the Web and students could submit trial answers which they type into the Web page and submit. The computer would return hints as to what should be included in a good answer. Participation in practicing essay answers was optional.
4. Students were required to participate in some of the many controlled discussion topics available on the class Web site and their participation was like a conventional newsgroup discussion found on the Web.
5. Students were required to find Web sites that were representatives of very good and very bad marketing practices and to write online reports about their findings.
6. Students were given the opportunity to communicate their reactions to specific lectures using e-mail or guestbooks provided with the instructor's notes and slide presentations.

Results of Student Feedback.

All the students filled in a questionnaire in class after the final exam and 31 filled in the on-line questionnaire at the end of the course. Students would either attend class in a very regular manner or would scarcely attend at all. It was satisfying to the professor that students who attended class did slightly better on the exams than students who did not attend class although the difference was not statistically significant.

The surprising result was found when students were asked if they found the lectures useful for what they wanted out of the course. Approximately half of the students did not think they needed the lectures. Students who claimed they did not need the lectures did slightly better, although not significantly better ($p < 0.05$), on exams than students who claimed they needed the lectures.

The results of the survey taken after the final exam also indicated that some students regretted not attending more regularly. That is to say, approximately half the students who actually attended class on a regular basis and half the students who did not attend class on a regular basis thought they needed the lectures.

Although class attendance was not significantly related to any performance measures, it was found that students who practiced the Web site exercises did significantly better on those exam questions than those who did not practice. This result is a simple confirmation of the old saying "practice makes perfect." There is, of course, nothing here to test the assumption that Web based exercises are superior learning tools to conventional pen and paper exercises. The advantages of using Web based materials lie elsewhere.

CONCLUSION

The Web assisted class combines the advantages of the regular classroom with advantages of the Web for delivering interactive homework and home study assignments. It might be described as a Web only correspondence course with the opportunity to go to class and take regular lectures. The Web assisted class gives students the opportunity to skip lectures and follow an independent study format whenever they find

conflicts with their work or family schedules. Students who wish to work independently have the benefit of attending lectures when they need special assistance or in depth explanations. All students must interact on the Internet and work collaboratively on Web based discussion groups and search assignments. No significant differences were found in the grades of the students who attended class and those who did not attend class.

The Web assisted format places a heavy emphasis on interactive and computer mediated assignments submitted over the Internet. The computer-assisted instruction is particularly effective for learning definitions and memorizing basic concepts. The computer based exercises reduce the time spend in grading homework and the amount of class time devoted to definitions and basic concepts.

Students use e-mail to ask questions outside of class. The amount of time that the Professor can spend answering e-mail can be excessive and tends to grow if students find a responsive instructor. Finding the balance between answering questions on e-mail and saving them for an answer in-class is difficult.

In the future the interactive nature of the Web for hosting simulations and business games will be exploited more completely. Simulations provide another opportunity for students to interact and form relationships outside of class.

The current course did not have sufficient links to materials that students may have forgotten from their prerequisite courses. The number of links to a student's earlier course materials and exercises will grow in the future. The opportunity for on-line review

of materials covered in previous courses is a strategic component in the process of life-long learning.

The Web assisted class is not for all courses or teaching objectives. The Web assisted format is not appropriate for every type of class or teaching objective. There are learning objectives that can be accomplished better with different teaching technologies. The Web based design of the Marketing course described above lends itself to large introductory class that contains a high proportion of students learning a topic outside their major. For example, virtually all Accounting, Management, Information Systems, and Finance majors are required to complete a Principles of Marketing class.

REFERENCES

- Miller, C., Smith, C., and Tilstone, C. 1998. "Professional Development by Distance Education: Does Distance Lend Enhancement?" *Cambridge Journal Of Education*, 28 (2), 221-230.
- Mitchell, M. L. (1997). Using the Web to Improve Instruction. Meeting of the American Psychological Assoc. Technology and Teaching.15p.
- Russell, Thomas L. 1998 "The No Significant Difference Phenomenon" Office of Instructional Telecommunications, North Carolina State University. URL: cuda.teleeducation.nb.ca/nosignificantdifference/

MEASURING THE EFFECTS OF DIRECT MAIL INCENTIVE PROGRAMS ON THE SPENDING BEHAVIOR OF MOST VALUABLE CUSTOMERS

Helena Czepiec, Gregg Kim, Juanita Roxas, Patricia Hopkins, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona, Pomona, CA 91768; (909) 869-4532, Craig Kelley, California State University, Sacramento.

ABSTRACT

This study analyzes the direct mail marketing effort used by a warehouse grocery chain to increase its regular customers' total monthly dollar purchase amount either by offering them either a percentage discount or cash incentive. Its purpose is to assess which combination of direct mail marketing offers (cash discount versus percentage discount) resulted in the largest increase in incremental spending at the highest return on investment from the company's most valued customers. The study is based on a sample of 28,164 customers. Incentives offered to customers through direct mail increase sales among the most valued existing customers in the wholesale and retail food industry. Deciding on the type of incentive (cash versus percent discount) to offer is more difficult. In this case the rate at which customers responded to both the cash discount and the percent discount offers was similar. However, since the net profit the store realized was somewhat higher for those responding to the percent discount offer it should be considered as more effective.

INTRODUCTION

Today most savvy marketers understand the importance of knowing who their customers are, what the customers are buying, when the last purchase was made, how frequently they are shopping, and the amount they are spending. Even food retailers, wholesalers, and service companies, use their customer databases as a source of information to implement marketing decisions and strategies. According to a 1996 survey reported in the Direct Marketing Association's Statistical Fact Book, 94% of the retail executives of grocery companies believe in targeting specific groups of consumers with target messages and advertising (Direct Marketing Association, 1997). In a study conducted by the Cornell University Food Industry Management Program, targeted direct mail was 83% effective in increasing product movements and 84% effective in increasing overall store sales (Blalock, 1997). This move towards database marketing is a result of too many stores and increased competition. In 1998, an article in Grocery Headquarters declared that supermarkets

have been losing their market sales and market shares to mass merchandisers such as Wal-mart, Target, and K-mart and also to drug stores (Donegan, 1998).

This study analyzes the direct mail marketing effort used by a warehouse grocery chain to increase its regular customers' total monthly dollar purchase amount either by offering them either a percentage discount or cash incentive. This study was conducted by a warehouse grocery chain, which operates over 200 stores in California, Arizona, Nevada, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Florida, and Mexico. The company also controls two foodservice distribution centers located in northern California and Florida.

In the past, the company had increased incremental sales through radio advertisements, promotions using non-personalized advertisement sheets (filled with pictures of discounted items) that were mailed out to potential and existing customers, promotions in newspaper ads, and promotions using mailed or hand distributed flyers. Currently, it has phased out newspaper ads and mailed flyers and has concentrated on direct mail marketing tools to increase incremental sales.

There is evidence that monetary incentives are effective in increasing response rates (Brennan, 1992; Chebat, 1993; Gendall, Hoek and Brennan, 1998; Kalafatis and Madden, 1995). Little is published, however, on the effectiveness of monetary incentives to stimulate spending behavior. Moreover, additional research needs to be conducted on which type and level of direct mail incentives are most effective in increasing sales. Some studies have found that increasing the value of monetary incentives improves the response rate but only to a certain point (Everett, Price, Bedell and Telljohann, 1997). Others have found that the discount level of the coupon had no significant effect on response rate (Kalafatis and Madden, 1995).

OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this study is to assess which combination of direct mail marketing offers resulted

in the largest increase in incremental spending at the highest return on investment from the company's most valued customers. Major objectives include:

- To determine among valued customers whether there is a significant difference between the response rate of those being offered the cash discount incentive and those offered the percentage discount incentive.
- To determine whether the response rate to both types of offers decreases as the customers' incremental threshold of total purchase amount increases.
- To determine if the response rate to both types of offers increases as the value of the reward incentive increases.
- To evaluate which groups of valued customers, categorized by average monthly dollar spending, have the highest response rate to the offers.
- To determine which incremental threshold level in the different groups of valued customers generated the highest profit margin.

METHODOLOGY

In November 1998, personalized letters were sent to a total of 28,164 customers requesting that they increase their average monthly spending by 20%, 30% or 40%. Half of the customers were offered a cash discount coupon that was either 10% or 15% off the incremental amount of the current purchase if they met their goal. The other half was offered either a 5% or 10% off their next purchase if they met their goal. Each half of the customers was divided into eight identical categories based on their average monthly spending, namely, 1) \$1,400, 2) \$1,200, 3) \$1,000, 4) \$800, 5) \$600, 6) \$400, 7) \$250, and 8) \$150.

The customers who received the mailing were selected from the company's database using the following criteria: 1) They must shop at least once a month at one of the company's stores, 2) Each customer must purchase a monthly average of at least \$100, 3) Customers must have been a member of the company's program for a minimum of one year, 4) None of the customers received more than a 6.8% saving rate from any purchase, 5) Customers bought products that generated at least 4% profit for the company, and 6) Customers should have indicated that they would like to receive mailing from the company.

FINDINGS

The type of incentive does not make a statistically

significant difference on customers' response rates. The response rate is the number of customers who receive the offers through the mail, shop at the store, and actually meet the incremental threshold requirement of 20%, 30%, or 40% during the 5-1/2 week program. Table 1 shows a comparison of response rates between groups receiving the 10% cash offer, 15% cash offer, 5% percent discount offer, and 10% percent discount offer.

TABLE 1
Comparison Among the Incentive Groups

| | 10% Cash | 15% Cash | 5% Discount | 10% Discount |
|------------------------|-------------|-------------|----------------|-----------------|
| Avg. Response Rate (%) | 9.96 | 10.04 | 10.42 | 10.58 |
| Observations (#) | 684 | 702 | 699 | 687 |

A comparison of response rates from the group receiving the cash discount against the group receiving the percent discount incentive shows the average response rate of the cash discount group is 10.0% while the percent discount group is 10.5% (Table 2). The difference in response rate is not statistically significant ($F = 0.541$ is greater than 0.05).

TABLE 2
Comparison of Cash Discount Response Rate to Percent Discount

| Group | 20% Increase | 30% Increase | 40% Increase | Total |
|---------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------|
| Cash Discount | 11.56 | 10.79 | 8.38 | 10.00 |
| % Discount | 14.44 | 8.82 | 8.25 | 10.50 |

When results are broken down according to the three threshold levels, there is still no significant difference between the two groups at the 20%, 30%, or 40% levels (Table 2). Threshold levels are the three levels, 20%, 30%, or 40%, by which the customers must increase their monthly purchase amount in order to obtain the cash or percentage discount reward. At the 20% incremental level, $F = 0.122$ (is greater than 0.05), while the 30% and 40% incremental levels, $F = 0.306$ and $F = 0.911$, respectively.

The response rate is higher for the lower threshold levels than the higher ones for both types of incentives. There is a statistically significant difference at the $\alpha = .05$ in the response rates for the three threshold level treatments only for the group offered the percent discount. The 5% discount group yields $F = 0.0073$ while the 10%

cash discount group results in $F = 0.0037$ both significant the $\alpha = .05$. The cash discount groups on the other hand, results in $F = 0.063$ for 10% and $F = 0.1223$ for 15%. While not significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ the differences in the 10% group could be considered statistically significant if the parameters were loosened to $\alpha = 0.10$. However, for the 15% cash discount group where $F = 0.1223$, there is no significant difference for either $\alpha = 0.05$ or $\alpha = 0.10$.

The response rates to both types of incentives is higher among customers with the higher monthly purchased rates and declines as the average monthly spending of these groups declines from \$1400 to \$150. There is a parallel pattern of decline regardless of whether they are in the cash discount or percent discount group. There are no significant differences in response rates between groups offered cash discounts compared to percent discounts according to the average monthly purchases of customers. Interestingly, when the cash discount and percent discount groups are combined, the resulting F statistic [0.054] is significant at $\alpha = 0.10$.

Another useful comparison is between categories of customers, i.e. Households, Foodservice, and Organizations. There is a significant difference in response rates among households, foodservice, and organizations ($F = 0.065$) at $\alpha = 0.10$. The foodservice has a higher response rate (11.56%) compared to the households (6.55%) and organizations (9.81%).

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Incentives offered to customers through direct mail can increase sales among valued existing customers in the wholesale and retail food industry. The average response rate to incentives received in the mail among existing customers in this study was 10.25%. Food store management should experiment with offering such incentives rather than more traditional promotions. Moreover, the response rate was higher for customers who spent the most money on a monthly basis (11.58%) than the customers who spent the least (9.75%). In general, response rates declined according to level of average purchase, i.e. groups at the highest level of average purchase (\$1400) had the highest response rates and response rates then declined as average monthly purchase declined.

Deciding on the type of incentive (cash versus percent discount) to offer is more difficult. In this case the rate at which customers responded to both the cash discount and the percent discount offers

was similar. However, since the net profit the store realized was somewhat higher for those responding to the percent discount offer it should be considered as more effective.

Managers should begin any incentive program by offering a lower rather than a higher incentive. Once again the response rate in this case for both cash and percentage discounts did not change regardless of the amount of the discount. However, the net profit was highest for the 5% discount (\$24,129) versus the 10% discount (\$22,923), 10% cash discount (\$22,737) and 15% cash discount (\$22,336).

Customers may be motivated by the possibility of controlling the amount of discount they receive. The percent off incentive provides this opportunity better than the cash discount offer does. Furthermore, these incentives can be used to motivate specific types of customers. In this study, the response rates varied according to type of customer, where food service companies had higher response rates compared to households and organizations.

REFERENCES

- Bialock, Cecelia, "Selling Sales," Grocery Headquarters, (December, 1998): 44-45.
- Brennan, M. "The Effects of a Monetary Incentive on Mail Survey Response Rates: New Data," Journal of the Market Research Society, (1992): 173-77.
- Chebat, Jean Charles and Cohen, Ayala, "Response Speed In Mail Surveys: Beware of Shortcuts," Marketing Research, 5 (Spring, 1993): 24-25.
- The Direct Marketing Association, Direct Marketing Association's Statistical Fact Book, (New York, New York: Publications Development and Marketing, 1997).
- Donegan, Priscilla, "Supermarkets Struggle For Share," Grocery Headquarters, (December, 1998): 14-23.
- Everett, Sherry A., James H. Price, Archie W. Bedell, and Susan K. Telljohann, "The Effect of a Monetary Incentive in Increasing the Return of a Survey to Family Physicians," Evaluation & The Health Professions (June, 1997): 208-210.
- Gendall, Phillip, Janet Hoek and Mike Brennan, "The Tea Bag Experiment: More Evidence on Incentives In Mail Surveys," Journal of Marketing

MARKETING EDUCATION AND "CHILDREN (STUDENTS AND FACULTY) OF A LESSER GOD"

Shirley M. Stretch-Stephenson, California State University, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, California 90032

Rika Houston, California State University, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, California 90032

William A. Cohen, California State University, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, California 90032

(323) 343-2960

Debra Haley, Southeast Oklahoma State University, Durant, Oklahoma 74701-0609

(580) 924-0121

A growing interest in ethnic and/or cultural marketing designed to address the changing composition of the market place is also changing the composition of the classroom as well as marketing faculty. As universities across the nation deal with the demographic shifts in our classroom composition and confront the impact of a 25% plus faculty retirement rate, marketing educators and administrators are encountering a drastically changing work environment. Are we ready to face these changes? Are we capable of addressing them? "Children of a lesser god" is a term we employ to describe the increasing number of marketing students who come from a vast array of disadvantaged backgrounds including immigrant, racial or ethnic minority, gender minority, and poverty-ridden students. In addition, as we attempt to hire new faculty members to fill vacated positions; we sometimes encounter a similar portrait of "children of a lesser god." This portrait often results in isolation and low morale for such faculty members and lower productivity for the schools they join. If we continue to remain oblivious to the different needs of "children of a lesser god," whether they are students or the new generation of faculty members, the future is dim. We will not only fail in the effective delivery of a quality education to all students, but we will also fail in creating and nurturing the future of marketing education and the marketing discipline as a whole.

This session was developed to look at all sides of this pressing issue, heighten awareness about it, acknowledge the different needs that may exist, and suggest conceptual and tactical methods for serving such "children of a lesser god" in the context of marketing education. Over the last few years, several WMEA sessions have focused on innovations in teaching methodology such as active learning, experiential learning, making the most of field cases, and developing self-sustained learners just to name a few. All would agree that these are valuable techniques and that time on task correlates positively to learning. All would also agree that a person's cultural and economic background, etc., has a strong influence upon how they learn. Are there new paradigms that require

different pedagogy and different perceptions of time on task for "children of a lesser god"? If one is not a "child of the lesser god," how does one know the paradigms and pedagogy being utilized to ensure time on task and to meet the needs of these students and faculty? Can we assume that because we are treated a certain way that "children of a lesser god" want to be treated in the same way or will utilize the same logic that we do in determining the attainment of success?

As we move further into the information era, it is critical that we advance from the "banking system of education" to the "transformation system of education". "Children of a lesser god" tend to enter college and the academic arena from an academically challenged background. How do we get them to become active participants in the process of consuming and delivering marketing education? Numerous examples and techniques, some old, some new, and some borrowed were shared as they related to marketing education and "children of a lesser god." Emphasis focused on faculty views as instructors and administrators in addressing student and faculty needs. The panel members discussed successful processes, frustration with tried processes as well as suggested ones. Special emphasis was placed on helping students understand their unique learning styles and the emerging importance of multiple intelligences in enabling them to identify and cultivate their own expertise and abilities. Processes for using critical thinking to foster respect for all intelligences, while focusing on business and marketing paradigms and pedagogy were highlighted.

As marketing educators, we must realize we do not have full command authority in the classroom. Ideally, we must cultivate ways to enable marketing students and faculty, particularly "children of a lesser god," to develop the ability to empower themselves through information. To ensure career success for "children of a lesser god," marketing educators must embrace a holistic model of learning with engaging pedagogy that embraces education as the practice of freedom.

TOWARDS A GLOBAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION: A COMPARISON OF THE ANGLO-SAXON AND CENTRAL EUROPEAN HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEMS

Session Chair

Alexander Nill, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Las Vegas, NV, 89154-6010; (702) 895-3364

Presenters

John A. Schibrowsky, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Las Vegas, NV, 89154-6010; (702) 895-3364

Thomas E. Boyt, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Las Vegas, NV, 89154-6010; (702) 895-3364

Michael Mejza, University of Nevada, Las Vegas; Las Vegas, NV, 89154-6010; (702) 895-3364

James Cross, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Las Vegas, NV, 89154-6010; (702) 895-3364

ABSTRACT

The increasing globalization of markets spurred by modern telecommunication technology has a lasting and profound impact on the way companies conduct business. Many companies join forces and form alliances across national and cultural borders in order to cope with intensified competition and ever more demanding customers. International cooperation necessitates the collaboration of employees and managers from different countries with often considerably different educational backgrounds.

In a global market, where restrictions of movement of employees from different nations are removed, the competition for career advancement as well as for entry-level positions in international companies turns out to become a competition based on different educational systems. For example, take the case of the European Union where citizens of the member states are free to move and to work in any country of the union. Degrees from universities and business schools are mutually recognized. If a student gets a degree in one country, all other countries of the union automatically recognize this degree. Accordingly, students from British universities that follow the Anglo-Saxon tradition compete with graduates from Central-European universities that are influenced by the Roman educational system.

This special session compared the educational system following the Anglo-Saxon tradition as it is found in countries such as the United States, England, Australia, and India with the educational system of Central-Europe. The goal of this presentation was to make a useful contribution to the ongoing discussion about marketing education in the U.S., to build a better understanding of the points of difference and similarity between these two higher education systems, and to gain a greater appreciation of cross cultural differences and their impact on business training and practice.

The German system served as an example for an educational system in the Roman tradition as it is found in Central-Europe. Some of the distinctive aspects of this system that were discussed included the following areas.

- 1) School System
- 2) Implications of the School System
- 3) University System
- 4) Pedagogy in Business Schools
- 5) Implications of the German Business Schools
- 6) Organization of German Business Schools
- 7) Discussion in Germany

For the last five years there is an ongoing discussion about a possible revision to the university system in Germany. The position of most businesses is to adapt the system more to the Anglo-Saxon tradition. Also, many students feel that they are at a disadvantage relative to students educated in the U.S. or British system. Specifically, universities are attacked in the political discussion for being inefficient and not providing a control mechanism for professors. In turn, professors are criticized for their poor pedagogy and their lack of interest to interact with businesses. Advocates of the old system emphasize its value for general personal enhancement of students and argue that the ability to think independently and to cope with new problems is beneficial to businesses in the long run. Also, it is contended that stricter controls of professors lead to erosion of academic freedom.

These distinct approaches to education were discussed in terms of their impacts on the training received by business students and the resulting business practices employed by the graduates of these educational systems.

FACULTY ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS

Beverlee B. Anderson, California State University San Marcos,
College of Business Administration, San Marcos, CA 92096-0001; (760) 750-4248

ABSTRACT

Student evaluations of teaching at universities had their beginnings in the U.S. in the first part of this century. During the early years, student evaluations were almost always voluntary on the part of the faculty. During the late 60's and early 70's, in response to student demands and other forces, mandatory student evaluations became the norm. During this period there were several studies that demonstrated the validity and utility of student ratings and supported their use for both formative and summative purposes.

The propositions that teachers can learn from evaluations, that they help senior faculty judge junior faculty, and that they help administrators judge all faculty have been debated in the literature over the past several years. Regardless of the controversy, student evaluations are a widely accepted and mandated tool used for assessing quality teaching.

Among numerous research projects in the area of student evaluations, a preponderance of studies have focused in four general areas: 1) on associations between student evaluations and characteristics of instructors; 2) course evaluations and attributes of the course; 3) course evaluations and student characteristics; and 4) faculty responses to course evaluations.

The purpose of the reported study was to learn about the opinions and attitudes of faculty towards student evaluations. A survey was developed which was designed to examine three general areas: 1) opinions of faculty with regards to the various uses and weights given student evaluations; 2) whether the anticipation of student evaluations influenced instruction; and 3) attitudes and opinions regarding various student evaluation issues. A series of questions with scaled responses were developed for each of the three areas.

The survey instrument was mailed to all full-time (151) and part-time (144) teaching faculty at California State University San Marcos. The response rate of 35% produced 107 usable questionnaires.

Most of those responding expressed the opinion that student evaluations were most important in periodic evaluations of non-tenured faculty and least important in post-tenure reviews. Most faculty members did not see student evaluations as particularly influential on their own teaching. However, classroom management was the area where student evaluations were perceived as most influential and grades assigned was the area where student evaluations were seen as least influential.

Of the seventeen statements to which respondents were asked to give their level of agreement/disagreement, the statement with which most people agreed was, "Students are more likely to give higher evaluations to instructors who confirm their previously held ideas and beliefs." The statement that produced the greatest level of disagreement was "I choose to teach courses where I believe I will receive higher course evaluations." There were statistically significant differences found in 9 of the 17 Likert scaled statements based on demographic classifications. Gender produced the greatest number of associations (6). Women were more likely to hold the opinion that female instructors are rated lower than male instructors.

The results show a diversity of opinions with regards to student evaluations. Regardless, there is strong consensus that student evaluations should not be the sole determinant in assessing an individual's teaching skill and performance.

REFERENCES

References provided on request.

GROUP PROJECT ASSESSMENT: GRADE INFLATION AND OTHER ISSUES

Richard Davis, Shekhar Misra and
Stuart Van Auken, California State University,
Chico, Chico, CA 95929-0051 (530) 898-5666

ABSTRACT

Despite the plethora of benefits derived from group projects, the area of assessment of group performance continues to be plagued with concerns, especially the assignment of individual grades for group work. This paper reviews group assessment techniques and it examines the grade inflation issue emanating from group work, as well as unjust rewards and penalties. The grade inflation issue is noteworthy in that group grades tend to be higher than individual grades for nongroup work. Suggestions are presented for addressing these issues and future research areas are developed.

Group projects are commonly used in marketing education (McCorkle et al. 1999; Mello 1993). The literature discusses the pedagogical aspects of using group projects and issues of assessing group projects. A number of studies have examined the relationship between collaborative groups and learning. The motivational aspects of collaborative learning have been discussed in the literature (Dobos 1996; Johnson & Johnson 1985; Sharan and Shaulov 1990; Slavin 1987). There is evidence that such learning is more successful in promoting achievement than either individualized or competitive learning experiences (Johnson et al. 1981). The type of learning enhanced by collaborative structures includes both memory (recall) and critical thinking. A study of tasks performed in collaborative groups showed that individuals recall more if they had previously recalled with a group than if they had recalled alone (Weldon and Bellinger 1997). Learning in groups may also facilitate the process of learning from experience (Falchikov 1993; Cell 1984).

Despite the myriad of benefits associated with group projects, the area of assessment continues to be a thorny issue. This paper therefore proposes to review group assessment techniques and to examine issues relating to group grade assignment. It also proposes to utilize anecdotal incidence to foster propositions and discussion. Finally, it hopes to uncover some of the unintended issues associated with group projects that emanate from assessment.

METHODS OF ASSESSING GROUP PROJECTS

A key issue in group projects is how to actually assess group work. The literature reveals that a wide variety of approaches have been taken (Williams, Beard, and Rymer 1991; Conway et al. 1990). In the simplest form of assessment, all team members would be given the same project group score. This form of assessment can occur when the instructor sees no apparent difference between the performance of individual members of the group (Habeshaw, Gibbs, and Habeshaw 1993). Goldfinch and Raeside (1990) developed an assessment technique that divided assessment scores into two parts: one part based on listing names of members who had participated in completing a list of tasks, and one based on a peer assessment of team members' group process skills. The peer assessment score was based on group project score adjusted by peer ratings: $PA = \text{Part 1 score} \times \text{weighting} + \text{Part 2 score} \times \text{weighting}$ (p. 214). Conway developed a similar, two-part assessment scheme with a slightly different formula that produced the same assessment scores. In order to reduce administrative tasks, Goldfinch (1994) reduced the assessment process to group working skills, and revised the formula to read as follows: $\text{Individual student's mark} = (PA - \text{Score})^{0.5}$ (p. 32). This new formula had the effect of lowering marks for students who did little or no work. Beatty, Haas, and Scigliompaglia (1996) developed a nine-item, seven-point scale on which group members made peer and self-ratings. The authors suggest that the individual scale items could be weighted, depending on the importance the instructor wants to assign to each element of the scale. Individual grades can be assigned by using the average of the peer ratings to represent a letter grade. Mello (1993) reports a qualitative assessment technique in which students, depending on the course in which the assessment is used, will write either a few paragraphs about the group experience and participation of individual members; or write a formal paper relating to group dynamics and individual member performance. The instructor assigns a grade based on interpretation of the written assessments. Unless some problem with individual students is uncovered in the writings, each group member gets the same (group) grade. Johnson,

Johnson and Smith (1991) developed a rating method which assigned bonus points if all group members achieved performance above some preset criterion task level. Habeshaw, Gibbs and Habeshaw (1993) describe a method in which students allocate a group score among all group members, as they individually see fit. They also describe an assessment method where members use specific group process criteria to rate group members. A more detailed method of assessment calls for the group to rate peers on performance relative to several tasks necessary to carry out the project (Beatty, Hass, and Scigliompaglia 1996) or include a combination of overall group peer ratings and individual member self-assessment (Haas, Haas, and Wotruba 1998; Goldfinch 1994). Goldfinch is not concerned with self-assessment overrating, assuming that students who overrate themselves will inflate the scores of their peers. She also recommends pulling a student's assessment forms from inclusion in group evaluations if the student in question has not attended many group meetings. Other assessment measures make a distinction between group process and output or product. The instructor assesses the product or output and the process is assessed by peer ratings and self-assessments (Falchikov 1988, 1991). Assessment is also measured by splitting group project output by an element of group activity which is assessed as a group, and an individual component which is assessed as an individual activity (Hindle 1993).

THE GROUP GRADE ISSUE

Regardless of the project assessment procedure used, there may be a question about equity in assigning individual grades based on group projects. Falchikov (1993) notes that one of the problems most frequently faced by teachers in group projects is assessing differential contributions by group members. There are two questions to the issue of group project grades: are grades assigned to the group equitable; and are grades assigned to individuals in the group fair? The first issue has to do with whether the grade assigned to the group equitably reflects the efforts and work of all students in the group. That is, if all students in the group do not have the same level of commitment, do not share equally in the work, and do not provide the same quality of input, then the grade assigned to the group does not fairly reflect the contribution of all group members. Thus, the group grade is unfair. Subsequent attempts to measure the contribution of individual members through peer or self-ratings would simply assign some percentage or partial score to individuals based on an inequitable group grade. The second issue is one of whether grades assigned to

individuals accurately reflect the work and effort on individual group members. Do students honestly and accurately rate their peers?

If grades are to be assigned to group work, how should grades be assigned?

Some authors maintain that all students in a group should get the same group grade (Johnson, Johnson, and Smith 1991). Other authors believe that individual grades should be assigned. Kagen (1995) maintains that group grades are unfair on several counts, that group grades are partially a function of luck of the draw -- who one gets as a team mate; that slackers get more than they deserve while high achievers may get less than they would on their own, and that group grades violate the principle of individual accountability. Resolving the issue of dealing with students who do not do their fair share or work is the primary reason for assigning individual grades.

A major issue involving group project grading is the issue of individual performance versus group performance. An assumption underlying teamwork is that the group will achieve collectively more than individual members could achieve alone or by combination of efforts of group members. This has been called the "assembly effect" or a performance "bonus" (Collins and Guetzkow 1964). The literature on this topic shows mixed findings. For example, Michaelsen, Watson, and Black (1989) found that 97% of the project teams in their study outperformed the best group member. This would imply that group grades would be higher than individual grades and that group project scores would have the affect of raising student grades, depending on the weighting of group project grades in final course grading. Watson, Michaelsen, and Sharp (1991) found a slight increase in gains in the effectiveness of group decision making over time. The group decision tended to increase relative to the "best member" decision, although the best member decision still exceeded that of the group. The authors did find that group decision making effectiveness improved significantly over time. The best (i.e., the most knowledgeable) group members were less important to group performance as the groups gained experience. Thus, over time, students who are not the better performers individually may develop the ability to contribute significantly to good group decisions. This would be consistent with the literature describing the advantages of group projects and student learning. Other studies have not supported the assembly line effect (Hill 1982; Laughlin 1980). Stasson and Bradshaw (1995) found that not only was the assembly line effect not found, but that the average group score was significantly

lower than the best combination of individual scores. Bacon, Stewart, and Stewart-Belle (1998) conducted a study in which same course individual-level grades were used to predict team performance. Examining the relationship between average, minimum and maximum individual ability scores, they found that average student ability was significant in predicting team performance. The authors note that, "Our findings suggest that when a student's grade is based primarily on a team project, the grade may not reflect that individual's ability but instead the average of the abilities of the student team" (p. 69). From this study it appears that project team performance would have the effect of raising scores of students who have low individual scores, and lowering the marks of students who have high individual scores. Habershaw, Gibbs, and Habershaw (1993) similarly note that, "if groups are randomly formed, the average ability of the members of the groups will be similar and will lead to a narrow overall spread of marks" (p. 93). These finding may be confounded by the possibility that grades given a team for a group project may be higher, and have less variance, than grades on individual assignments (Conway et al. 1993; Habershaw, Gibbs, and Habershaw 1993). Whether groups perform better, the same or worse than the average of individuals in the group may depend on the importance of the project (percent of grades) and the length of time the group works together (Michaelson, Watson, and Black 1989).

The issue of slackers or social loafers, or hitchhikers may not be addressed directly by peer rating schemes (Mesch 1991). While team members have the ability to assign a slacker a low score, there is a question as to whether they do, in fact, assign a low score. Results of studies are mixed regarding peer ratings and self-ratings. Some studies show a close association between peer ratings and average group ratings when students are asked to rate the work of others. Falchikov (1993) did a small study in which students rated group members on task functions and on maintenance or process functions of the project. She found no significant difference between individual ratings and mean peer ratings on how individuals assessed task functions. There was a significant difference between mean peer ratings and individual ratings on maintenance functions. There is evidence that students tend to give themselves higher scores than they believe the average of the group will assign them (Isenberg 1986). Williams (1992) found that students tend to inflate marks when assessing the work of other students, and that students said that two main drawbacks of peer assessment are that they do not like to criticize friends and that assessment can be arbitrary. A study by Haas, Haas, and Wotruba (1998) found that

self-ratings were higher than group peer ratings and that the difference was significant. The authors point out that the higher self-ratings might be an attempt to influence performance ratings and grade. In a study of business students Sharrard, Raafat and Weaver (1994) examined the association between average group ratings and individual member ratings on eight independent variables, including GPA, course grade and several demographic variables. They found significant differences only in gender (females tended to peer evaluate groups higher than did men). On the other hand, Krause and Popovich (1996) found that when peer ratings and self-ratings differed, the self-ratings tended to be lower. Because of the inherent confusion in the literature regarding group project assessment issues, especially with regard to individual versus the group's performance, we sought to further investigate the nature of this relationship.

EXPLORATORY RESEARCH

Despite the prior mentioned conflicts, insights can be achieved by looking at anecdotal evidence. Exploratory research was done to examine the relationship between the grades students received on individual assignments not related to group projects and the grades received on group projects. To carry out this investigation, three instructors compared grades for classes in which they taught multiple sections of the course in the same semester. The instructors were not teaching the same course. Each instructor compiled information for two sections and student's individual grades (e.g., homework, quizzes and examinations) on other than group projects were averaged, and compared to their individual group project grades. Group project grades for each student were based on the grade assigned to the entire team, adjusted by group member peer ratings. The results are shown in the tables below.

TABLE 1
Grade Comparisons for Instructor 1

| Individual Grades | Project Group Grades* | | | | Total |
|-------------------|-----------------------|----|---|---|-------|
| | A | B | C | D | |
| A | 1 | 3 | | | 4 |
| B | 3 | 10 | 4 | | 17 |
| C | 3 | 23 | | | 26 |
| D | 2 | 9 | 3 | | 14 |
| F | | 4 | | 1 | 5 |
| Total | 9 | 49 | 7 | 1 | 66 |

*The grade assigned to each student based on the grade assigned to the team, and adjusted by peer ratings.

The comparison for instructor 1 revealed that of 66 students, 48 (72.7%) received a group project grade

higher than their individual average grades, 11(16.7%) received the same grade, and 7 (10.6%) received lower group grades than their individual average grades.

TABLE 2
Grade Comparisons for Instructor 2

| Individual Grades | Project Group Grades | | | | Total |
|-------------------|----------------------|----|---|---|-------|
| | A | B | C | D | |
| A | 1 | | | | 1 |
| B | 8 | 6 | | | 14 |
| C | 12 | 23 | | | 35 |
| D | 6 | 16 | | | 22 |
| F | | | | | 0 |
| Total | 27 | 45 | | | 72 |

The comparison of grades for instructor 2 shows that of 72 students, 65 (90.3%) had higher group project grades than the average of their individual grades, and seven (9/7%) students received the same group grade as their individual average grade.

TABLE 3
Grade Comparisons for Instructor 3

| Individual Grades | Project Group Grades | | | | Total |
|-------------------|----------------------|----|----|---|-------|
| | A | B | C | D | |
| A | 6 | 2 | 1 | | 9 |
| B | 18 | 8 | 5 | | 31 |
| C | 11 | 5 | 6 | | 22 |
| D | 2 | 4 | 2 | | 8 |
| F | 1 | | | | 1 |
| Total | 38 | 19 | 14 | | 71 |

Comparison of instructor 3's grades for 71 students shows that 43 (60.6%) students got higher group grades than the average of their individual grades, 20 (28.2%) students got the same grades, and 8 (11.3%) students received lower group grades.

Discussion of Findings.

Findings from the exploratory research reveal that for the six class sections examined, group grades were higher than nongroup project individual grades. In the aggregate, 156 of the 209 students (74.6%) received group project grades higher than the average of their individual grades in that class. These results could be due to several things. First, the motivational aspects of group work cited in the

literature suggest that working in groups might result in better work being done by students who perform less well on individual assignments. Perhaps these less well performing students are motivated by the nature of the project itself, or are motivated and encouraged by the better students in the group. Thus, higher group grades may reflect true improvements in performance. Second, higher group grades may be a reflection of the effort of the better students alone. That is, students who earn higher grades on individual assignments may carry the group, contributing a disproportionate amount of work. A third reason for the higher group grades may be a reflection of instructor grading. Instructors who mentor their groups and encourage them to perform well may perceive that the quality of group projects is high and, therefore, assign higher grades. Instructors may also believe that the amount of effort inherent in a group project justifies a higher grade.

Based on the literature and the findings from the exploratory research, there may be unintended consequences associated with group work, and the authors elect to express them as research propositions for further study and investigation. These propositions follow.

Proposition 1: Group projects lead to greater grade inflation. If higher grades are awarded for group projects than the average of nonproject related individual grades of all students, then grade inflation may appear in final grade assignments.

Proposition 2: Group projects cause excellent students to devote a disproportionate amount of time to projects in order to help protect their individual grades. At the same time, better students may be penalized by group projects to the extent that the group grade is lower than the average of their individual grades.

Proposition 3: Group projects may unjustly reward poorer students. This may be true either because proposition 1 holds true and/or proposition 2 holds true.

Remedies to the Problem

To address the problems stated in the propositions stated above, the authors offer several possible remedies. These remedies call for further research and investigation into the areas of group grade assignment, and/or additional monitoring practices on the part of the instructor.

1. Research to examine the issue of grade inflation. This may validate the proposition that group project grades lead to greater grade inflation. Work in this

area may foster awareness among instructors of the issue. This in itself may lessen the problem of grade inflation. Still, if the instructor sees his or her mentoring as an important part of group work and if, in fact, group grades reflect the high quality of group output because of mentoring, then grade inflation may be endemic to group work.

2. Research in the area of individual versus group performance. The literature in this area is contradictory. Many studies dealt with short and artificially constructed learning assignments, rather than the group projects that are typically assigned to marketing students and which require the integration of theory and application. In addition to research in this area, the unjust rewards issue (propositions 1 and 2) might be addressed through an examination in which team members are tested on the marketing theory and content (application) of the project. Additionally, instructors might adopt process measurements such as group logs and individual diaries to track individual efforts and contributions.

CONCLUSION

Group projects are an important pedagogical tool in marketing education. Despite refinements in group project management, several issues exist. One is the question of the assignment of grades to the group project and the attendant problems of individual performance in nongroup work versus group performance. Another issue involves possible grade inflation. To the degree that the latter exists, business education may be perceived as having a lack of rigor with its attendant issues.

To address questions of grade equity and possible grade inflation, instructors need to look at these issues through additional research and they need to contemplate procedures (e.g., examinations covering group material and practice, as well as encourage the use of logs and diaries) to help assess individual contributions to group work. Such practices may expand variances in grading and introduce greater rigor in the assignment of group grades.

REFERENCES

- Adams, D., and H. Hamm (1990). Cooperative learning: critical thinking and collaboration across the curriculum. Springfield, Illinois: Thomas Books.
- Bacon, Donald R., Kim A. Stewart, and Sue Stewart-Belle (1998). Exploring Predictors of Student Team Project Performance. *Journal of Marketing Education*. 20 (1): 63-71.
- Beatty, James R, Robert W. Haas, and Donald Sciglimpaglia (1996). Using Peer Evaluations to Assess Individual Performance in Group Class Projects. *Journal of Marketing Education*. 18 (2): 17-27.
- Cell, E. (1984). Learning to learn from experience. State University of New York Press, New York.
- Collins, B. E., and H. Gustzkow (1964). A Social Psychology of Group Processes for Decision-Making. New York: Wiley.
- Conway, Robert, David Kember, Atara Sivan, and May Wu (1993). Peer Assessment of an Individual's Contribution to a Group Project. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*. 18 (1): 45-56.
- Dobos, J. (1996). Collaborative Learning: Effects of Student Expectations and Communication Apprehension on Student Motivation. *Communication Education*. 45 (2): 118-134.
- Falchikov, Nancy (1993). Group Process Analysis: Self and peer assessment of Working Together in a Group. *Education and Training Technology International*. 30 (3): 275-283.
- Freedman, Mark (1995). Peer Assessment by Groups of Group Work. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*. 20 (3): 289-299.
- Habeshaw, Sue, Graham Gibbs, and Trevor Habeshaw (1993). 53 Interesting Ways to Assess Your Students. Melksham, U.K.: The Cromwell Press.
- Goldfinch, Judy (1994). Further Developments in Peer Assessment of Group Projects. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*. 19 (1): 29-35.
- Goldfinch, Judy and Robert Raeside (1990). Development of a Peer Assessment Technique for Obtaining Individual Marks on a Group Project. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*. 15 (3): 210-225.
- Haas, Amie L., Robert W. Haas, and Thomas R. Wotruba (1998). The Use of Self-Ratings and Peer Ratings to Evaluate Performances of Student Group Members. *Journal of Marketing Education*. 20 (3): 200-209.
- Hill, Gayle W. (1982). Group Versus Individual Performance: Are N+1 Heads Better Than One? *Psychological Bulletin* 91. (3): 517-539.

- Hindle, B.P. (1993). The 'Project': Putting Student-Controlled, Small-Group Work and Transferable Skills at the Core of a Geography Course. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*. 17 (1): 11-20.
- Isenberg, Daniel J. (1986). Group Polarization: A Critical Review and Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 50 (6): 1141-1151.
- Johnson, D., and R. Johnson (1985). Motivational Process in Cooperative, Competitive and Individualistic Learning Situations. In C. Ames and R. Ames (eds.), Research on motivation in education: 249-286. Orlando, Florida: Academic Press.
- Johnson, David W., Rogert T. Johnson, and Karl A. Smith (1991). Active learning in the classroom. Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company.
- Johnson, D.W., G. Maruyama, R. Johnson, D. Nelson, and L. Skon (1981). Effects of Cooperative, Competitive, and Cindividualistic Coal Ctructures on Achievement: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*. 89 (January): 47-62.
- Kagen, Spencer (1995). Group Grades Miss the Gark. *Educational Leadership*. 52 (8): 68-71.
- Krause, Jane E., and Nicholas G. Popovich (1996). A Group Interaction Peer/Self Assessment Process in a Pharmacy Practice Course. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*. 60 (Summer): 136-145.
- Laughlin, P.R. (1980). Social Combination Processes of Cooperative Problem-Solving on Verbal Intellectual Tasks. In M. Fishbein (Ed.), Progress in Social Psychology (Vol. 1: 127-155). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- McCorkle, Denny E., James Reardon, Joe F. Alexander, Nathan D. King, Robert C. Harris, and R. Vishwanathan Iyer (1999). Undergraduate Marketing Students, Group Projects and Teamwork: The Good, the Bad and the Ugly? *Journal of Marketing Education*. 21 (2): 136-143.
- Mello, Jeffrey A. (1993). Improving Individual Member Accountability in Small Work Group Settings. *Journal of Management Education*. 17 (2): 253-259.
- Mesch, Debra J. (1991). The Jigsaw Technique: A Way to Establish Individual Accountability in Group Work. *Journal of Management Education*. 15 (3): 355-358.
- Michaelson, L.K., W.E. Watson, and R.H. Black (1989). A Realistic Test of Individual Versus Group Consensus Decision Making. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 74 (5): 834-839.
- Prasad, A., and J. Cavanaugh (1997). Ideology and Demystification: Tom Peters and the Managerial (Sub-) Text -- an Experiential Exploration of Critique and Empowerment in the Management Classroom. *Journal of Management Education*. 21 (3): 309-324.
- Sharan, S., and A. Shaulov (1990). Cooperative Learning, Motivation to Learn and Academic Achievement. In S. Sharen (Ed.), Cooperative Learning: Theory and Research: 173-202. New York: Praeger.
- Slavin, R. 1987. Developmental and Motivational Perspectives on Cooperative Learning: Reconciliation. *Child Development*. 58 (5): 1161-1167.
- Sherrard, William R., Reraidoon Raafat, and Richard R. Weaver (1994). An Empirical Study of Peer Bias in Evaluations: Students Rating Students. *Journal of Education for Business*. 70 (1): 43-47.
- Stasson, Mark F., and William G. Hawkes (1995). Effect of Group Performance on Subsequent Individual Performance: Does Influence Generalize Beyond the Issues Discussed by the Group? *Psychological Science*. 6 (5): 305-307.
- Watson, W., L.K. Michaelson, and W. Sharp (1991). Member Competence, Group Interaction, and Group Decision Making: A Longitudinal Study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 76 (6): 803-809.
- Weldon, M., and K. Bellinger (1997). Collective Memory: Collaborative and Individual Processes in Remembering. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*. 23 (5): 1160-1175.
- Williams, David L., John D. Beard, and Jone Rymer (1991). Team Projects: Achieving Their Full Potential. *Journal of Marketing Education*. 13 (2): 45-53.
- Williams, Eira (1992). Student Attitudes Towards Approaches to Learning and Assessment. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*. 17 (1): 45-58.

HOW TO INCREASE THE PERCEIVED VALUE OF MID-TERMS AND FINALS

Leon Winer, Pace University, Pace Plaza, New York, NY 10038, lwiner@pace.edu

ABSTRACT

Observing that students assigned low value to traditional essay questions exams, a Marketing instructor investigated alternatives. The conclusion was that exams based on the *Authentic Learning* concept might lead to higher evaluations. The resulting exams asked students to define the jobs they would hold 7 to 10 years out and to show how designated marketing concepts might be applied to increase their (or their employers') success. Quantitative and anecdotal evidence point to improved evaluations. A side benefit is that the new exams make for more interesting reading for the instructor than the traditional exams.

WHY CHANGE THE EXAMS?

In teaching the core Marketing course in the MBA program at Pace University, I gave Mid-term and Final exams consisting of essay questions similar to the discussion questions appearing at the ends of chapters in many Marketing text-books. Over the years, I became aware of several problems:

1. It was not at all clear to me or to the students that they derived any benefit from the exams, aside from fulfilling the requirements of the core course.

2. On course evaluation surveys, the exams received low ratings compared to other components of the course. My concern was that the ratings of the exams were pulling down the ratings for the course and thereby impacting negatively on my merit increases.

Comments that students offered, orally and on surveys pointed to a possible solution to this problem. Many students said that since they were not majoring in Marketing they did not see

much benefit in learning all that "Marketing stuff." In one respect they were right. Upwards of 90% of the students majored in Accounting, Finance, Computer Science and Taxation. Regarding the second point, in my opinion, they were partially wrong and partially right. They were wrong in saying that the Marketing stuff was not important for them. However, they were probably right in saying that they did not really understand how the Marketing stuff could help them. The challenge to me was to make the textbook appear to be relevant to many students who were not majoring in Marketing.

THE LITERATURE SEARCH

After some literature search, I decided to use the *Authentic Learning* approach in restructuring the Mid-term and Final exams.

Some distinctions may be useful. In traditional teaching, the focus is on students' acquisition of facts and theories (content). The principal teaching method is lecture, possibly enhanced with discussion and audio-visual aids. *Experiential Learning* creates a more active role for students through case discussions, role-playing and simulations. The aim is still to convey content but make it more memorable by increasing student involvement.

Authentic Learning differs from traditional and experiential methods in that the primary objective is not conveying content but creating learning experiences that are as close as possible to experiences that students encounter in real life. The emphasis is not on acquisition of facts and theories but on increasing students' ability to perform tasks that are valuable to employers and/or to the students themselves. The teacher's role is changed but not diminished. Instead of lecturing, the teacher provides direction, structure, guidance and standards.

Based on these distinctions, it seemed reasonable to expect that non-Marketing majors would obtain (and report) more value from exams based on the Authentic Learning concept. Let us see what specific suggestions and ideas are provided by the literature.

Ricks (1994) is a strong advocate of the authentic learning approach. He asserts that each event that displays the superiority of the teacher threatens learning. Each event that demonstrates the success of the learner makes the learning permanent. In his 1997 paper, he concludes that people who have done a task well and have told others how they did it are nearing skills mastery while people who have been shown or told or "made aware" have not even taken the first step to mastery.

Gordon (1998) defines three types of authentic learning:

- a) Academic challenges: Students produce a paper or a presentation assigned by the instructor.
- b) Scenario challenges: Students make believe that they were hired by a business firm or a government agency to study a situation and to present a plan for solving a problem.
- c) Real-life problems: Students examine a real situation and prepare a plan for solving a problem or achieving an objective.

Cronin (1993) offers suggestions for realizing the potential of authentic learning:

- a) Do not expect complete authenticity.
- b) Exploit available opportunities for authentic learning. Even traditional textbooks contain suggestions for authentic learning assignments.
- c) Start with less complex tasks.
- d) Keep it simple: students' experiences in school should resemble the experiences they encounter in their lives.

I decided that I would design the new exams on the (a) concept suggested by Gordon: students produce a paper assigned by the instructor and I would accept less than complete authenticity and that I would keep it simple, as suggested by Cronin. However, from the point of view of the students' education, a major change would take place. The exams, instead of just being attempts to measure what they had learned, would be valuable experiences in and of themselves. I expected that the students would perceive that and would recognize the higher value of the exams.

THE AUTHENTIC LEARNING MID-TERM AND FINAL EXAMS

The assignment for the new Mid-term and Final exams which are take-home exams, is to study the textbook and to think creatively about applying the concepts presented in the book to real business situations which they might encounter in their business careers. The actual exam assignment follows:

Make an assumption about your position 7-10 years from now. Examples might be: partner in an accounting (or consulting) firm, vice-president in a business or non-profit organization, owner of your business or another management position.

State clearly at the beginning of your paper what you are projecting this future position to be. Write an essay showing how you would perform (or recommend performing) each of the following marketing tasks in your business, the first 8 for the Mid-Term and the second 8 for the final.

For each essay, review the appropriate chapter(s) in the Kotler and Armstrong textbook and use as many as possible of the **Key Terms** listed at the ends of the chapters. In your paper, print the key terms you use in boldface to make it easier for the reader to evaluate your work. Make absolutely sure that you understand the **Key Terms** and that you are using them correctly.

Mid-Term

1. Developing marketing strategies.
2. Responding to the company's environment.
3. Using marketing research.
4. Applying customer behavior concepts.
5. Segmenting markets. Selecting target markets. Positioning your product or service.
6. Developing new products and services.
7. Managing the product over its life cycle.
8. Pricing your products or services.

Final

1. Using advertising.
2. Using sales promotion.
3. Using public relations (differentiate between PR and advertising).
4. Using personal selling.
5. Using direct and online marketing.
6. Creating a competitive advantage.
7. Building customer relationships.
8. Engaging in global marketing.

I grade the exam papers on the basis of adherence to the instructions, amount and quality of work being shown, quality of English language presentation and appearance of the paper. Grade weights are 10% of the semester grade for each exam.

At the class meeting when the exam papers are due, all students discuss their exam papers in class in small group sessions. These discussions are evaluated by students at the end of the term as part of the "Class Contribution" grade component, which is 15%.

EVALUATIONS

In the Fall 1996 semester, two sections had in-class traditional exams. Subsequently, five sections had the Authentic Learning (AL) exams described above. The AL exams were rated by students as being more valuable and the difference in ratings is significant, as explained below.

At the very end of each semester, I distribute a two part questionnaire. The first part is the peer evaluation of "Class Contribution." The second part asks students to evaluate each component of the course on a five point scale, with 1 = "Not at all valuable," and 5 = "Extremely Valuable."

The results for five sections (1996 to 1999), with respect to the exams:

| <u>Category</u> | <u>Average</u> | <u>n</u> |
|----------------------------------|----------------|----------|
| The Authentic Learning exams | 4.22 | 132 |
| The In-class traditional exams | 3.76 | 37 |
| Difference | 0.46 | |
| Standard error of the difference | 0.16 | |
| t value | 2.89 | |

Probability that difference is due to sampling error is less than 1.0%

It was not possible to determine to what extent the improvement was due to the take-home vs. in-class exam and to what extent it was due to Authentic Learning vs. traditional format.

Aside from the statistical measures, there were other encouraging outcomes. The quality of about half the papers was truly impressive. Students were taking the assignment seriously and were developing first drafts of comprehensive marketing strategies for their businesses. Such outcomes were of course impossible in the traditional exams.

Another favorable outcome is the fact that I am not receiving any complaints now about having to study all that "Marketing stuff," suggesting that the students now see value in the "Marketing stuff." This I find truly gratifying.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This paper has presented a new type of Mid-term and Final exam for the Graduate Core Marketing courses. The change was motivated by a desire on my part to increase the usefulness of the exam experience and to improve students' perception of the relevance of studying the textbook and writing exams based on the textbook.

With respect to improving students' perceptions, the observed change was positive and statistically significant. With respect to my objective of increasing the usefulness of the exam experience, the results were generally favorable. The majority of the papers submitted showed that the students took the assignment quite seriously. They made reasonable estimates about their likely positions seven to ten years out showed good understanding of textbook concepts and their application to their projected situations. Some of the best papers, prepared by students with entrepreneurial aspirations showed a good start toward preparing their first marketing plan for their new businesses.

A beneficial byproduct of giving authentic learning (AL) exams is that reading AL papers is more interesting than reading papers in which all students answer the same questions.

REFERENCES

- Adams, M. (1994). Playing for Keeps. Successful Meetings. 43 (8): 48.
- Cronin, J. C. (1993). Four Misconceptions about Authentic Learning. Educational Leadership. 50 (7): 78.
- Cunningham, A. C. (1995). Developing Marketing Professionals: What Can Business Schools Learn? Journal of Marketing Education: 17 (2): 3-9.
- Gordon, R. (1998). Balancing Real-World Problems with Real-World Results. Phi Delta Kappan. 79 (5): 390-393.
- Ricks, D. (1994). Two Lies Trainers Live By. Training. 31 (11): 82.
- Ricks, D. (1997). How Are Your Experiential Components Working? Training. 34 (1): 138.
- Shipp, S., C. W. Lamb, Jr. and M. P. Mokwa (1993). Developing and Enhancing Students' Skills: Written and Oral Communication, Intuition, Creativity and Computer Usage. Marketing Education Review. 3 (3): 2-8.

DIFFERENCES IN PERCEPTIONS OF ROLE OVERLOAD AMONG STUDENTS

Susan Petroschius, Bowling Green State University, College of Business Administration,
Bowling Green, OH 43403; (419) 372-2041

Stephen Newell, Bowling Green State University, College of Business Administration,
Bowling Green, OH 43403; (419) 372-8222

ABSTRACT

One of the biggest problems facing college students today is finding ways to fulfill all of their academic, work, and social responsibilities. More than any other generation, a large number of college students are combining full time studies with working 25-40 hours per week. In addition, they are being directed by parents, faculty and advisors to participate in student organizations, internships, competitions, and professional organizations. The result of these overwhelming responsibilities is often the feeling that they can never do it all; that is, a feeling of "role overload." This notion of role overload has been researched in a variety of fields including marketing, psychology, and sociology and occurs when one is "fulfilling several roles simultaneously" (Coverman 1989, p. 967) and "when the sheer volume of behavior demanded by the positions in the position set exceeds available time and energy" (Reilly 1982, p. 408).

PURPOSE OF STUDY

The purpose of the current study is to add to the sparse research in this area. Specifically, the study examines the degree of overload of business and nonbusiness students at a major state university and whether overload varies by the students gender, major, and/or class rank. In addition, the study investigates whether there is a relationship between degree of role overload and students' involvement with their education.

RESULTS

The results revealed no significant differences between marketing versus non-marketing business students and non-business students in their perceptions of role overload. However, there are significant differences between the sexes in terms of perceptions of role overload. Specifically, women perceive significantly greater overload, are much more educationally involved, and participate in more beneficial learning behaviors than do their male counterparts.

REFERENCES

- Reilly, Michael D. (1982), "Working Wives and Consumption," *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 8 (Winter), 407-418.
- Coverman, Shelley (1989), "Role Overload, Role Conflict, and Stress: Addressing Consequences of Multiple Role Demands," *Social Forces*, Vol. 67 (4) (June), 965-982.

STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR INTERNSHIP EXPERIENCE: A PRELIMINARY STUDY

Brian I. Connett

Department of Marketing, California State University, Northridge
18111, Nordhoff Street, Northridge, CA 91330-8377; (818) 677-2458

ABSTRACT

Formal academic internships are generally agreed to be desirable experiences for students. Much anecdotal evidence suggests that the majority of internship experiences are positive, and that many employers prefer to hire interns. Many employers use internships as an employee selection tool. From a student's perspective, the most positive benefit or outcome of an internship is a specific job offer, while experience gained in a specific field is the next most obvious benefit. The general definition of the word internship is considered inadequate in the context of a formal academic internship, therefore the following definition is suggested:

"An opportunity for a student to obtain real life work experience in an applied environment over a specific period of time, which will be the equivalent of an academic learning experience gained in a typical three unit class."

The basic objective of this preliminary study was to determine students' perceptions of their internship experience. Specifically, a number of factors deemed to be important in determining the "value" of the internship experience were included in the study. The survey was conducted during the Spring semester of 1999, using a questionnaire specifically designed for the study, and 63 valid questionnaires were returned, 52.4% from female students and 47.6% from males.

The results indicated that the overwhelming majority of the respondents (82.5%) worked more than the required number of hours (to obtain academic credit), while only slightly more than half (50.8%) said they were paid. This is encouraging, since it would appear to indicate that financial considerations were not the main motivating factor, and that students probably enjoyed working at their internship sites.

Slightly more than half (52.4%) of respondents said they were provided with a formal job description, which is a concern. If, as one would expect, the internship is intended to provide students with a meaningful learning experience, it stands to reason that a clear understanding of the scope of the position is essential. This can best be accomplished by

means of a formal job description. In the area of supervision and guidance, only 57.1% of respondents said they were assigned a specific mentor, a situation considered somewhat unsatisfactory. Perhaps this accounts for the fact that only 46.1% of the respondents rated the quality of supervision as 'good' or 'excellent,' while 30.1% rated theirs as 'fair' or 'poor.' The majority of respondents, 77.8%, said they were given meaningful tasks to perform, which is somewhat encouraging, in view of the fact that interns are often considered to be menial workers and are frequently given only "grunt" work!

Although 54.0% of the respondents said they were required to wear formal business attire at work, only 47.6% considered the working environment at the internship site to be 'professional' or 'very formal.' It was encouraging that the majority of the respondents, (81%) said their internship provided them with a genuine learning experience. This tended to support the responses by 74.6% of the students who said that their internship contributed to their professional development, and 76.2% who said that their internship related to their major.

While 65.1% of the respondents said that their internship experience enhanced their prospects of employment, only 38.1% said their internship resulted in a specific job offer. The concluding question asked students to give an overall rating of their internship experience, to which 73.0% responded 'good,' 'very good,' and 'excellent.' However, it was disappointing to note that 17.5% of respondents considered their experience only 'satisfactory,' while 9.5% even considered it 'unsatisfactory.' Clearly, it would be important to establish the reason(s) for this dissatisfaction.

In sum, the results were not as encouraging as might have been expected, although the sample size was relatively modest. A much larger follow-up study is planned, and the results of this preliminary survey will be used to refine the questionnaire used in the first study, since the results indicated some areas for improvement. Specifically, respondents in the next study will be asked for the reasons why they respond negatively to some of the questions. This should provide the internship program administrators with guidance for employers in order to improve the overall quality of students' internship experiences.

RUSSIAN AND U.S. BUSINESS STUDENTS' ATTITUDES, PERCEPTIONS, AND TENDENCIES TOWARD ACADEMIC DISHONESTY

Robert A. Lupton, Central Washington University, Administrative Management and Business Education,
Ellensburg, Washington 98926, (509) 963-2611, luptonr@cwu.edu

Kenneth J. Chapman, Bentley College, Department of Marketing, Waltham, Massachusetts 02452,
(781) 891-3151, kchapman@bentley.edu

ABSTRACT

U.S. educators teaching abroad and hosting foreign students locally need to understand the nuances and attitudes of different student populations and the association with classroom management. The better understanding we have of if, and how, international students' attitudes, perceptions, and tendencies toward academic dishonesty differ from American students, the greater the American instructors' ability to communicate with the non-American students and take actions to prevent cheating. This study is the first cross-national study that compares U.S. business college students with Russian business college students on attitudes, perceptions and tendencies toward cheating. Gender differences were also examined.

METHOD

Sample

The American undergraduate sample was collected from Colorado State University and the Russian undergraduate sample was collected from Novgorod State University and the Norman School College. Both Novgorod State University and the Norman School College are located in Novgorod, Russia. A total of 443 usable surveys were collected in the U.S. and 174 in Russia. Nearly 50% of the American students and 64% of the Russian students were male.

The Survey Instrument

Self-report questionnaires were used to collect the data in both countries. To evaluate the attitudes, perceptions, and tendencies towards academic cheating, a 29-question survey instrument was developed consisting of a series of dichotomous (yes/no) and scalar questions, as well as a question that asked students to assess what percent of their peers they believe cheat.

RESULTS

Russian and American Business Students' Positions on Cheating Behaviors

American and Russian business students had significantly different positions on their self-reported

cheating behaviors, on the degree to which they knew or saw others cheat, and on their perception of whether or not cheating had occurred in two case scenarios. There were no significant differences on gender.

A larger share of the Russian students reported cheating at some point. While about 55% of the American students reported they had cheated at some point during college, nearly 64% of the Russian students reported having cheated. Russian students were also much more likely to report cheating in the class in which the data was collected. Additionally, Russian students were more likely to have reported that they knew or had seen a student that had cheated. The percent of students that had given or received information about an exam that had been administered in an earlier section was higher with Russian students. American students, however, reported a greater incident of using examinations from a prior term to study for current exams.

Russian and American Business Students' Differences in Beliefs About Cheating

The Russian students were more likely than the American students to report higher cheating among peers, believe that most students cheat on exams, believe that cheating on one exam is not so bad, and that it is OK to tell someone in a later section about an exam just completed. Students were asked to assess what percent of their peers they believed to cheat. Russian students felt that about 69% of their colleagues cheat on exams, while American students stated that they felt only about 24% of their fellow students cheat. The Russian students seem to have a different position on what is or is not cheating. The American students did not believe that giving someone past exams or using exams for a prior semester was cheating, while the Russian students were more neutral.

Finally, the Russian students were less likely than the American students to feel that the instructor does not play a role in preventing cheating, and were less likely to think merely discussing cheating related issues would reduce cheating.

SPECIAL SESSION ON THE PHILOSOPHY OF AN E-COMMERCE COURSE

CHAIRS

Neil Granitz, California State University, Fullerton, College of Business & Economics, Fullerton, CA 92834; (714)278-3934

Stephen Koernig, California State University, Fullerton, College of Business & Economics, Fullerton, CA 92834; (714)278-3235

PARTICIPANTS

Thomas Matula, National University, School of Business and Technology, La Jolla, CA 92037; (858)642-8421

William Perttula, San Francisco State University, College of Business, San Francisco, CA 94132; (415)338-7431

Daniel Toy, California State University, Chico, College of Business, Chico, CA 95929; (916)898-4823
Lauren Wright, California State University, Chico, College of Business, Chico, CA 95929; (916)898-5666

SPECIAL SESSION RATIONALE

The emergence of e-commerce as a major business force has been both sudden and unexpected. E-commerce is profoundly changing markets, industry structures, products and services and their flows, consumer segmentation, consumer values, and consumer behavior. Marketing practitioners and educators are moving fast to understand how this new environment currently works and how it will evolve. Looking across universities at marketing department web sites, one third of schools offer an e-commerce business course. Interestingly, the vacuum of knowledge about e-commerce has led to many different approaches to teaching e-commerce.

In developing an e-commerce course, there are several philosophical issues that need to be addressed. For example, should it be a marketing course or a business course? What topics should be in the course? Should it be a technical or non-technical course? A list of these philosophical issues appears below.

As marketing educators trying to develop practical and relevant e-commerce courses, it would be useful to discuss these topics. The objective of this special session is not for every marketing professor to create identical syllabi for their e-commerce course. Its end-goal is to create awareness of the issues; the different philosophies that exist on the issues; and the advantages and disadvantages of different approaches to teaching this course.

SESSION FORMAT

The topics listed below have been identified as important in the development and teaching of an e-commerce course. After a discussion of these (and other) topics by the panel members, an open forum discussion will be held with the audience.

Domain of Marketing?: What department(s) should teach e-commerce? Marketing? MIS? Accounting? Or by its very nature is it cross-disciplinary?

Stand Alone versus Integrated Course: Should e-commerce be integrated into existing courses or viewed as a completely new paradigm that necessitates an independent course?

Place in the Curriculum: Should e-commerce be an elective course in the curriculum or should it be a required core course for all marketing students?

Course Topics: A review of e-commerce syllabi shows a wide variety of topics covered. What is the purpose of each and how relevant will they be 5 years from now?

Technical versus Non-Technical: There are two genres of Internet Marketing courses: technical and non-technical. Which type best serves students?

Appropriate Course Materials: Because e-commerce is such a rapidly growing field, is a textbook already out of date by the time it is published?

**MEET THE EDITOR AND EDITORIAL REVIEW BOARD
OF THE JOURNAL OF MARKETING EDUCATION**

**Craig A. Kelley, California State University, Sacramento, Department of Management,
Sacramento, CA 95819-6088, (916) 278-7199**

**Nancy Frontczak, Department of Marketing, Metropolitan State College of Denver,
Denver, CO 80217-3362; (303) 556-3182**

**Bruce Stern, Department of Marketing, Portland State University,
Portland, OR 97201; (503) 725-5850**

ABSTRACT

The *Journal of Marketing Education* is the leading international scholarly journal devoted entirely to issues in marketing education. The *Journal* publishes articles that address the latest techniques in marketing education, emphasizing new course offerings and teaching methods. For 21 years, the *Journal* has served as a forum for marketing educators to exchange ideas, information and experiences.

The readership of the *Journal* is composed of marketing faculty at institutions of higher education. The *Journal of Marketing Education* strives to provide the readership with new ways to teach marketing. It is international in scope, both in terms

of articles published and membership of the Editorial Review Board.

The purpose of this special session is threefold. First, past and present editors of the *Journal of Marketing Education* will assess current and future research trends in marketing education. Second, the special session will serve as a forum for members of the Editorial Review Board to suggest changes in the review process and reporting procedures. Lastly, the session will provide an opportunity for members of the Western Marketing Educators' Association to meet and talk to the current Editor and Associate Editor of the *Journal of Marketing Education*. It is hoped that the forum will result in groundbreaking research in marketing education and new submissions to the *Journal of Marketing Education*.

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF ORAL PRESENTATION ASSESSMENT CRITERIA – A WESTERN AUSTRALIAN CASE

Tekle Shanka, Curtin University of Technology, School of Marketing Curtin Business School, Perth, WA 6102, Australia; (61 8) 9266 2839

ABSTRACT

This paper presents the findings of students' assessment of the oral presentation assessment criteria being used in tutorials in the introductory marketing tutorials in a business school. The criteria contain 14 items of assessment under three headings, namely clarity (5 items), content (6 items) and format and structure (3 items). Three hundred eighteen completed questionnaires from the tutorials were received and analyzed. Factor analysis yielded four groups explaining 63.4% of total variances. ANOVA tests showed significant differences on 8 of the 14 items in relation to gender, age group and home country. Detailed analysis and implications are presented.

INTRODUCTION

Assessments of students' oral presentations have widely been used. Oral presentations are intended to broaden communication skills of students (McDowell 1995). Such skills are required by students in employment and will also influence their career development and will affect employers' views on the appropriateness of the business courses (Hughes and Large 1993; Adrian and Palmer 1999). Assessment criteria have widely been used in tutorials to enhance the quality of student learning in tutorials through the process of peer assessment (Orsmond, Merry and Reiling 2000). Peters (1996) writes that there was a considerable support for ensuring that the criteria by which assessment is undertaken were made public thus sharing the responsibility of assessment with learners. Pond and ul-Haq (1997) reiterated that based on three years of development and study over 150 students the result of the student feedback exercise shows that students considered the exercise to be effective for learning, group work and to have been "useful".

Dochy and McDowell (1997) indicate that while assessment in the past was used as a means to determine measures, today it has provided potential benefits in all stages of the learning process. According to the authors assessment can be in a form of portfolio, self- or peer-assessment. Dochy, Segers, and Sluijsmans (1999) suggest that assessment should take the form of self-, peer- or co-assessment. Peer assessment, is when groups

of individuals rate their peers that may involve rating instruments or checklists designed by others before the peer assessment exercise (Falchikov 1995, Stanier 1997). Dochy, Segers and Sluijsmans (1999) identify a couple of guidelines that can be used for peer assessment. These are (a) peer assessment criteria should be presented in operational terms with which students are familiar, and (b) peer assessment can be used as a tool for summative assessment, in combination with other assessment instruments. Falchikov asserts that the overwhelming view of peer assessment is a useful, reliable and valid exercise perceived by students to be beneficial.

While cautioning in the introduction of innovative forms of summative assessment which involves elements of subjectivity Freeman (1995) suggests that by using past videos one can focus on a best and worst presentation to teach students how to mark more reliably. Although there may be some doubt about peer assessment as a summative form of assessment Orsmond, Merry and Reiling (1996) argue that as a formative assessment the process has some value and clear benefits to the student learning process may be gained from peer assessment. Searby and Ewers (1997) reiterate that peer assessment challenges the belief that the lecturer is necessarily the best person to provide feedback and that the introduction of peer assessment has had the beneficial effect of making students consider the whole learning process and their part in it.

THIS STUDY

The purpose of this study was to gauge students' opinions of the oral presentation assessment criteria being used in tutorial presentations in their introductory marketing unit. In October 1999 a one-page, 14-item questionnaires measuring the items' importance on a 7-point scale were distributed to students in their tutorials to be completed and returned at the end of the tutorial sessions. The items were grouped under three headings, namely, clarity, content, and format and structure. Demographic variables such as course of study, year of study, home country, gender and age were also included in the questionnaire.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The 318 returned questionnaires were analyzed using the SPSS statistical package (version 8) for Windows. Demographic results indicate that while 94% of all respondents are business schools the share of marketing students is 18%. Nine percent of respondents are in their first year of studies, 59% local students, 56% females and 66% are 20 years old or lower. Table 1 shows the demographic distribution.

TABLE 1 RESPONDENTS' PROFILES

| Demographic Variables | Percent |
|---|---------|
| Gender (n=312) | |
| Male | 44 |
| Female | 56 |
| Age group (n=312; mean age=21.02 years) | |
| 17-20 years | 66 |
| 21-25 years | 23 |
| 26+ years | 11 |
| Major course of study (n=311) | |
| Accounting | 2 |
| Business Law | 2 |
| Economics & Finance | 17 |
| Information Systems & Technology | 9 |
| Management | 14 |
| Marketing | 18 |
| Commerce (general) | 32 |
| Other | 6 |
| Year of study (n=309) | |
| First year | 79 |
| Second year | 15 |
| Third year | 6 |
| Home country (n=300) | |
| Australia | 59 |
| Indonesia | 10 |
| Malaysia | 6 |
| Singapore | 10 |
| Other Asia | 8 |
| Other | 7 |

On a 7-point scale from 1 'least important' to 7 'most important' all 14 items with the exception of item 11 (use of resources other than textbook, mean 4.829) showed a mean score above 5 ranging from 5.041 to 5.937. Item 2 (presenters speak clearly and can easily be heard) topped the list with mean score of 5.937 followed by item 14 (overall organization, consistency, flow and effectiveness of presentation) with a mean score of 5.744. Each item score denotes the perceived importance attached to it by respondents for oral presentation assessment. Clearly, respondents perceive clarity of speech and organization, consistency, etc as most important in oral presentation. Conversely, respondents do not consider using resource materials other than

textbook as important. The mean scores and ranks of the 14 items were presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2 IMPORTANCE SCORES OF ASSESSMENT ITEMS

| Clarity | Mean* | Rank |
|--|-------|------|
| Confidence, interest and enthusiasm of presenters. | 5.58 | 4 |
| Presenters speak clearly and can easily be heard. | 5.94 | 1 |
| Presentation is well rehearsed, not read from notes. | 5.14 | 10 |
| Presenters maintain eye contact with audience. | 5.24 | 8 |
| Presenters have positive body language. | 5.13 | 12 |
| Content | | |
| Presentation includes a concise introduction and summary of topic | 5.38 | 7 |
| Presenters provide comprehensive answers to questions and support these with relevant theoretical concepts | 5.65 | 3 |
| Presentation includes a clear conclusion. | 5.24 | 8 |
| Presenters able to answer questions raised during and after presentation | 5.43 | 6 |
| Degree of creativity shown in presentation. | 5.16 | 11 |
| Use of resources other than textbook. | 4.83 | 14 |
| Format and structure | | |
| OHP and other visual aids are clear and neat (eg. Large font, WP, etc.) | 5.53 | 5 |
| Time management of presenters. | 5.04 | 13 |
| Overall organization, consistency, flow and effectiveness of presentation. | 5.74 | 2 |

*On a 7-point scale from 1 'least important to 7 'most important.

Factor Analysis

Kaiser-Myer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) statistic of .837, $\chi^2=1400.79$, $df=91$ (sig. .000) and Cronbach's alpha of .85 with factor loading of .30 were referenced to determine factorability of the items. According to Hair, et. al. 1998; Coakes and Steed 1999; Lehmann, Gupta and Steckel 1998 the MSA and Cronbach's alpha obtained were more than adequate for factor analysis. Four factors emerged - comprehension, visual aids, body language, and confidence. Sixty-three percent of total variances were explained by the four factors. The first factor, comprehension, with 4 items accounted for 34.9% of the variance. Factor 2, visual aids, with 4 items accounted for 12.4% of the variances. Factor 3, body language and Factor 4, confidence, with 3 items, each

accounted for 8.2% and 7.8% of the variances (Table 3).

TABLE 3 FACTOR LOADINGS

| Items | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 | Factor 4 |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Presenters provide comprehensive answers to questions and support these with relevant theoretical concepts | .668 | | | |
| Presentation includes a clear conclusion | .655 | | | |
| Presentation includes a concise introduction and summary of topic | .615 | | | |
| Presenters are able to answer questions raised during and after presentation | .511 | | | |
| OHP and other visual aids are clear and neat (eg. large font, WP). | | .623 | | |
| Time management of presenters | | .614 | | |
| Use of resources other than textbook | | .576 | | |
| Degree of creativity shown in presentation | | .411 | | |
| Presenters maintain eye contact with audience | | | .834 | |
| Presenters have positive body language | | | .676 | |
| Presentation is well rehearsed, not read from notes | | | .436 | |
| Confidence, interest and enthusiasm of presenters | | | | .789 |
| Presenters speak clearly and can easily be heard. | | | | .584 |
| Overall organization, consistency, flow and effectiveness of presentation | | | | .473 |
| Eigenvalue | 4.89 | 1.73 | 1.15 | 1.10 |
| Variance explained (%) | 34.93 | 12.36 | 8.24 | 7.83 |
| Cumulative variance explained (%) | 34.93 | 47.29 | 55.53 | 65.36 |
| Cronbach's alpha | .75 | .71 | .77 | .70 |

Assessment Items and Demographic Variables

ANOVA tests were run to determine statistically significant differences between demographic groups. Nine of the 14 items showed significant differences in relation to gender, age groups and home countries. Female respondents perceived importance of items 4, 13 and 14 were all higher than their male counterparts with higher mean scores on the 3 items.

The perceived importance of items 5,10 and 13 was less to 17-20 year-olds compared with other age group. The 21-25 year-olds perceive item 12's importance less than other age groups. While item 5

was less important to local students, students from Indonesia perceive items 6 and 7 less than the rest of respondents. Students from countries other than Australia or Asia give less importance to items 11 and 13. The F-values and significant levels are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4 SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BY DEMOGRAPHICS (F-value, significance)

| Items | Gender | Age group | Home country |
|---|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 4. Presenters maintain eye contact with audience | 6.974 (.009) | | |
| 5. Presenters have positive body language | | 3.859 (.022) | 4.026 (.002) |
| 6. Presentation includes a concise introduction and summary of topic | | | 2.276 (.047) |
| 7. Presenters provide comprehensive answers to questions and support these with relevant theoretical concepts | | | 2.601 (.025) |
| 10. Degree of creativity shown in presentation | | 4.168 (.016) | |
| 11. Use of resources other than textbook | | | 4.284 (.001) |
| 12. OHP and other visual aids are clear and neat (eg. large font, WP, etc.) | | 4.597 (.011) | |
| 13. Time management of presenters | 3.981 (.047) | 4.034 (.019) | 2.583 (.026) |
| 14. Overall organization, consistency, flow and effectiveness of presentation | 4.996 (.026) | | |

Significant values are in parentheses.

Factors and Demographic Variables

ANOVA test revealed that all four factors recorded significant differences in relation to major course of study, age group and home country. Information Systems students' scores were significantly lower for Factor 4 (Confidence) compared with other students. The mean scores of 17-20 year-olds were significantly lower for Factor 2 (visual aids). On the other hand, respondents from Indonesia consistently recorded lower mean scores on Factors 1-3 compared with students from elsewhere on each of the three factors (Table 5).

TABLE 5 SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BY DEMOGRAPHICS (F-value, significance)

| Factors | Mean scores ^ | Course of study | Age group | Home country |
|--------------------------|---------------|-----------------|--------------|--------------|
| Factor 1 (Comprehension) | 5.43 | | | 2.491 (.031) |
| Factor 2 (Visual aids) | 5.14 | | 4.319 (.014) | 2.706 (.021) |
| Factor 3 (Body language) | 5.16 | | | 3.208 (.008) |
| Factor 4 (Confidence) | 5.75 | 2.276 (.028) | | |

Significant values are in parentheses. *On a 7-point scale from 1 'least important to 7 'most important.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The results of this study indicate that students find the current assessment criteria important. All the 14 items were scored favorably, the least being "use of resources other than textbook". Statistically significant differences shown in 9 of the 14 items in relation to gender, age group and home country need attention. Attention should also be given to the factors that showed significant differences in relation to major course of study, age group and home country. Special attention should be given to the age group and home country demographics as these two variables repeatedly showed significant differences on both individual items as well as on factors. Students' rating of use of additional resources was low. The challenge to unit controllers and tutors would be to teach first year students the value of researching more sources than sticking to the recommended text.

While the result shows students' positive perception of the assessment criteria, caution should be exercised in the interpretation of results because of limited sample size. Further longitudinal survey of students from different years of study may produce more accurate information about students' perception of assessment criteria.

REFERENCES

Adrian, C. Mitchell and G. Dean Palmer (1999). Toward a model for understanding and improving educational quality in the principles of marketing course. *Journal of Marketing Education*. 21(September): 25-33.

Coakes, Sheridan J. and Lyndall G. Steed (1999). *SPSS: Analysis without Anguish for Windows*. Versions 7.0 & 8.0. Brisbane, John Wiley & Sons.

Dochy, Filip, J. R. C. and Liz McDowell (1997). Assessment as a tool for learning. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*. 23(4): 279-298.

Dochy, Filip, M. Segers and D. Sluijsmans (1999). The use of self-, peer and co-assessment in higher education: a review. *Studies in Higher Education*. 24(3): 331-350.

Falchikov, Nancy (1995). Peer feedback marking - developing peer assessment. *Innovations in Education & Training International*. 32(May): 175-187.

Freeman, Mark (1995). Peer assessment by groups of group work. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*. 20(3): 289-300.

Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., R. L. Tatham and W. C. Black (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. 5th edition. New Jersey. Prentice Hall.

Hughes, I.E. and B. J. Large (1993). Staff and peer-group assessment of oral communication skills. *Studies in Higher Education* 18(3): 379-385.

Lehmann, D. R., S. Gupta and J. H. Steckel (1998). *Marketing Research*. Reading Massachusetts. Addison Wesley.

McDowell, L. (1995). The impact of innovative assessment on student learning. *Innovations in Education and Training International*. 32(November): 302-313.

Orsmond, P., M. Stephen and K. Reiling (1996). The importance of marking criteria in the use of peer assessment. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*. 21(3): 239-250.

_____ (2000). The use of student derived marketing criteria in peer and self-assessment. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*. 25(1): 23-38.

Peters, M. 1996. Student attitudes to alternative forms of assessment and to openness. *Open Learning*. (November): 48-50.

Pond, K. and R. ul-Haq (1997). Learning to assess students using peer review. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*. 23(4): 331-348.

**INVESTIGATING THE DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES BETWEEN
MARKETING AND NON-BUSINESS STUDENTS' DECISION-
MAKING PROCESS WHEN CHOOSING A MAJOR**

James S. West, Washington & Jefferson College
Stephen J. Newell, Bowling Green State University
Philip A. Titus, Bowling Green State University

ABSTRACT

Faced with declining enrollments and heighten competition, Marketing educators have begun to recognize the need to enhance and strengthen their student recruitment efforts. These changing market conditions have led educators and researchers to begin seeking new insights into how and why prospective students choose particular institutions or academic fields of study. This manuscript builds on the work of previous researchers by further examining the decision-making processes of marketing and non-business undergraduate students when selecting an academic field of study. Specifically, the purpose of this study is to: 1) better understand the decision-making process of marketing and non-marketing students when deciding upon an academic field of study; and 2) to identify similarities and differences in student behavior and perceptions of career opportunities, academic specialization offerings, and student personal abilities and attributes.

As such, a questionnaire was designed and administered to a total of 252 undergraduate students eliciting information about their personal decision-making process when selecting an academic field of study. The results of the study reveal that while there

are a number of differences between the decisional process of marketing and non-business students, both groups share some interesting and important similarities. In particular, marketing and non-business students differed with respect to the timing of field of study selection, importance of various career attributes, and perceptions of certain personal abilities and attributes. However, findings indicate that marketing and non-business students share some important similarities with respect to their use of various sources of information and the relative importance assigned to specific field of study attributes. The relevance of the findings for the recruitment of undergraduate marketing students are also discussed along with directions for future research.

For further information please contact:
Stephen Newell
Department of Marketing
College of Business
Bowling Green State University
Bowling Green, OH 43403

ELEMENTS OF IMPORTANCE IN THE EDUCATION EXPERIENCE: A CROSS-NATIONAL STUDY OF DUTCH AND AMERICAN STUDENTS

Charles M. Hermans, Kevin J. Shanahan, Vaidotas Lukosius and Gerald M. Hampton
New Mexico State University, Marketing Department (5280)
Box 30001, Las Cruces, NM 88003; (505) 646-3341

ABSTRACT

This study compares the perceived importance of elements in the educational experience between university students from the Netherlands and the United States. These elements include: quality of education, recognition, social life, compensation, and working conditions.

Cross-regional and cross-national studies in education are more important than ever before. Using new distance education technologies, institutions are now competing for students across the nation and around the globe. While most studies lack measures of educational importance attributes in cross-national scope, this study attempts to fill this gap. The focus of the study is to examine cross-national comparisons between Dutch and American students' perceived importance of components of the educational experience.

The sample was 883 usable responses from undergraduate students. The Dutch sample included 273 respondents, which were compared against 2 U.S. samples of 610 respondents.

The authors develop five multi-item scales to measure the constructs of interest in this study. Twenty-two items were factor analyzed to make up the five hypothesized constructs.

A MANOVA analysis shows that, although there are no differences between the 2 American samples across the 5 constructs, there are significant differences between American and Dutch students on every dimension. American students valued quality of education, recognition, and compensation more, whereas social life and working conditions were more important to Dutch students.

The authors demonstrate that differences in perceived importance of elements in the educational experience exist between university students from the Netherlands and the United States. The implications of this research are that schools delivering distance education around the globe should be aware of how different cultures perceive education in terms of what is important to students.

ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF A CHANGE FROM A TEACHING PARADIGM TO A LEARNING PARADIGM IN THE INTRODUCTORY COURSE IN MARKETING

**Michael O'Neill and Stuart Van Auken
California State University, Chico
College of Business
Chico, California 95929-0051
530-898-5666**

ABSTRACT

This study is designed to investigate the response students have to a traditionally structured course when compared to a course designed based on what research suggests contributes to increased student learning. In particular, an Introductory Marketing course was structured in two different ways: traditional and learning based. The two different course structures were assessed over time and were contrasted regarding both student perception of learning and actual learning outcomes. Effects on pedagogy were also investigated.

INTRODUCTION

The objective of this article is to explore the impact of reengineering the principles course in Marketing to reflect what research has suggested about the conditions under which students maximize their learning. An extensive amount of research has been devoted to exploring the conditions which lead to maximizing student learning in post secondary education. From a global perspective, educators have explored the conceptual differences between the traditional teaching paradigm and the more contemporary learning paradigm (Bailey, 1994; Barr and Tagg, 1995; Chickering and Gamson, 1987; Roach, Johnston and Hair, 1993; Wright, Bitner and Zeithmal, 1994). From a more focused perspective, educators have studied the impact on student learning of using specific technological tools such as the internet, computer simulations or other more interpersonal methods involving experiential and reflective learning exercises (Droge and Spreng, 1996; Frand and Broesamle, 1996; Graeff, 1997; Hair, 1995; Laughlin and Hite, 1993; Sigel, 1996; Wellington and Faria, 1996).

COURSE DESIGN

The two courses used in this exploratory study were designed to represent each of the two paradigms noted above. The course modeled after the Instructional Paradigm was structured as a 15 week, three unit course meeting three times a week for 50 minutes each period. It had a course enrollment of 110 students. The course examinations consisted of 50% objective questions and 50% essay questions. A selection of cases and homework assignments were also included. A typical class time allocation was 80% to lecture and 20% to class discussion of the cases/homework problems. Students were called on to discuss their solutions to the assignments. No specific time allocation was scheduled for student interaction during or outside the class nor was time allocated for student instructor interaction during or outside the class. All faculty/ student or student/student interaction had to be initiated by the students. In sum, it was a traditionally structured course consistent with the notion that the instructor initiates and controls all the activities in the class.

The course modeled after the Learning Paradigm was structured using the conclusions of the ECS study which are overviewed in Table I below. In particular, the course was structured to have one 90 minute lecture in each of the first ten weeks. In addition, 10 groups of 8-10 students met with the instructor once per week in each of the first 10 weeks. A large conference table was used and each student was provided with a personal name plate. All students were required to introduce themselves and address their fellow students by their first name when discussion ensued. The 10 discussion group meetings were devoted to working on selected cases and problems. The objective was to develop solutions to the problems/cases outside of class which were later shared with the discussion group members. The emphasis was on developing a dialog among the students for purposes of highlighting differences and/or building a consensus

When appropriate. The role of the instructor was to act as a facilitator and not as source of "the answer". Emphasis was put on building communication skills and confidence in expressing opinion and in accepting the perspective of other members your group.

TABLE I

Attributes of Quality in Undergraduate Education

Quality begins with an organizational culture that values:

- 1 . High expectations of students
- 2 . Recognition of diverse talents

Quality instruction builds in:

- 3 . Active learning
- 4 . Assessment and prompt feedback
- 5 . Collaboration among students and faculty
- 6 . Out-of-class contact with faculty

adapted from Educational Commission of the States (1995)

During the last five weeks the format changed from lecture to meeting twice per week for 75 minutes in even smaller subgroups of 3 or 4 students. Each subgroup of 3 or 4 students represented a firm in an industry that was formed for the purpose of competing in a marketing simulation game. Each team was given its own meeting room where they met to discuss the industry and make their decisions. The Marketing Game by Mason and Perrault (1995) was used. The primary purpose was to explore the relationships among the variables that were studied and discussed during the first ten weeks. The teams were formed using members of the ten-person discussion group that each belonged to during the first ten weeks. This procedure for team formation contributed to an efficient work environment since students were familiar with one another after spending the first ten weeks together working in the discussion groups. The instructor acted as president of each team and met with each team two or three times per class period. The only difference between the two courses in terms of assignments and grading was the use of the simulation in the last five weeks of the course.

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

A survey of students enrolled in each of the two class formats was conducted. A self-administered questionnaire was distributed to those students enrolled in the course during the 13th week of a 15-

week semester. The questionnaire consisted of 15 statements designed to measure student perception on attributes that focus on three factors: the amount of learning that students perceived had occurred, their satisfaction with the manner in which the material was presented (course pedagogy) and their assessment of the teaching style of the instructor. The attributes were incorporated into a five-point Likert scale with a code of five indicating strong agreement and a code of one indicating strong disagreement. In addition, the amount of actual learning that occurred was measured by comparing grade point average for the courses taught under each paradigm.

SAMPLE

The student respondents were enrolled at a mid-sized state university in the Western United States. Ninety two percent were declared business majors, 6% communication majors, and the remaining 2% from other disciplines. Seventy nine percent were junior class standing, 18% were classified as senior standing and the remaining 3% were classified as other. The male/female ratio was 54/46 with the average age of 20.7 years with the majority being 19 to 21 (81%). A total of 94 students experienced the course structured using the traditional Instructional Paradigm while 58 students experienced the course structured using the Learning Paradigm.

PROPOSITIONS AND DATA ANALYSIS

The propositions to be tested are:

- P1:** Student perception of learning will be higher for the course structured based on the Learning Paradigm
- P2:** Student perception of the pedagogy will be more positive for the course structured using the Learning Paradigm
- P3:** Student perception of the instructor's enthusiasm and enjoyment of teaching will be higher for the course structured using the Learning Paradigm
- P4:** Student realized learning will be greater for the course structured using the Learning Paradigm.

The data gathered were considered interval in nature. Analysis of Variance was used to determine if significant differences in the perceptions held by

students regarding the two approaches existed. A t test for unrelated samples was used to determine if significant differences in actual learning resulted from the use of the two approaches. A significance level of .05 was used to test for differences.

STATISTICAL RESULTS

The means and significance levels for each of the attributes captured in the 15 survey questions (Likert scales) across both paradigms are presented in Table II.

TABLE II

Analysis of Variance Test of Means of Student Perception: Learning versus the Teaching Paradigm

| Question # | Teaching Paradigm | Learning Paradigm | 1-tail p-value |
|-------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|----------------|
| 1) More Competent* | 4.20 | 4.51 | 0.0135 |
| 2) More Knowledgeable* | 4.23 | 4.53 | 0.0138 |
| 3) Feel Challenged | 4.12 | 4.34 | 0.1218 |
| 4) Moves Too Rapidly* | 3.57 | 3.26 | 0.0352 |
| 5) Too Much Material* | 3.48 | 3.12 | 0.0119 |
| 6) Too Time Consuming | 2.43 | 2.64 | 0.1815 |
| 7) Encourages Opinions | 4.17 | 4.11 | 0.2909 |
| 8) Utilizes Discussion | 4.44 | 4.36 | 0.1125 |
| 9) Receptive to Ideas | 3.75 | 3.91 | 0.1383 |
| 10) Course Organized* | 4.00 | 4.35 | 0.0195 |
| 11) Lectures Organized* | 2.68 | 3.44 | 0.0001 |
| 12) Relates Concepts | 3.90 | 4.12 | 0.0575 |
| 13) Enjoys Teaching | 4.26 | 4.41 | 0.2958 |
| 14) Dynamic/Energetic | 4.28 | 4.31 | 0.3445 |
| 15) Enthusiastic | 4.45 | 4.42 | 0.3309 |

* significant difference between student perceptions ($p < .05$)

An examination of the data in Table II reveals that significant differences in student perception exist on six of the fifteen attributes mentioned.

PROPOSITIONS ADDRESSED

Proposition one (student perception of learning) can be addressed by examining student response to questions one through three. Student response to all three questions indicates they feel more competent, knowledgeable and challenged in a course using the learning paradigm. In particular, their responses are significant at the .05 level on increased competency and knowledge while the direction response to the question on being intellectually challenged favors (significant at .1218) the learning paradigm.

Proposition two (student perception of course pedagogy) can be addressed by examining student response to questions four through six, eight, and ten through twelve. Student response to this set of questions indicate they generally feel more positive about the quantity of material covered, pace and overall organization of the course taught using the learning paradigm. In particular, the differences in their responses are significant at the .05 level on questions four and five. The responses to these questions indicate they feel more comfortable with both the speed at which the course moves and the quantity of material presented in the course. In addition, the differences in their responses are significant at the .05 level to questions ten and eleven. The responses to these questions indicates they feel both the course and the lectures are better organized using the learning paradigm. Finally, students report having a better sense of how concepts relate to one another in the course using the learning paradigm (question 12). The observed difference is significant at the .0575 level.

Proposition three (student perception of the impact of the instructor) can be addressed by examining responses to questions seven, nine and thirteen through fifteen. Student response to this set of questions indicates they see no difference in the impact of the instructor's style on the perception of the two courses. All five questions were not significant at the .05 level. The instructor does not appear to introduce a confounding influence on the findings reported for propositions one and two.

Proposition four (actual learning) can be addressed by examining the grades earned by the two groups of students. A comparison of the grades earned seems to indicate more learning did occur. The grade point average for the Teaching Paradigm was 2.52 as compared to 2.86 for the learning paradigm. The observed difference is statistically significant at the .01 level. Examinations administered to both groups were identical in both structure (50% essay/50% objective) and content. They differed only in administration. Four examinations of forty five minutes each were administered in the course taught using the traditional paradigm while two examinations of ninety minutes each were used in the course taught using the learning paradigm.

DISCUSSION

Students

It is clear from this study that if student perception of the amount learned, actual learning accomplished, and satisfaction with the learning environment are used as the objective function, the Learning Paradigm is superior to the Teaching Paradigm. Students appear to prefer the more intense and structured environment inherent in the Learning Paradigm. However, the drop out rate using the Learning Paradigm is considerably higher (33%) as compared to 15% for students experiencing the Teaching Paradigm. The difference in the drop out rate is due, in general, to two factors. First, many students dropped out due to the requirement that they be prepared for the weekly one hour ten person round table discussions. Each student was expected to both contribute to the discussion and be prepared to explain their reasoning to their fellow students. The instructor acted primarily as a facilitator. Students were not able to remain anonymous as they are more likely to be able to do in the larger sections of the course using more traditional lecture discussion format.

A second factor affecting the dropout rate was the requirement that any student receiving a letter grade of D or lower meet with the instructor to discuss their performance. The required "out-of-class" meetings revealed that many students were not able to manage their time properly, had a class/work load they were unable to handle or were experiencing health or personal problems that were interfering with the work required in the course.

These two factors, which are an inherent requirement of the learning paradigm, may have contributed to a higher grade point average among the learning paradigm group since some of the "less committed" students and/or students with health or personal problems dropped the course leaving a smaller sample of "better" students to finish the course.

Perhaps the most significant finding regarding students is the extent to which some students hold unrealistic views regarding their ability to complete the course successfully when they are attempting full academic schedules while working 10 to 30 hours per week, facing personal problems they are having

difficulty solving, and/or suffering or recovering from illness they prevents them from doing quality work.

Faculty

Two major adjustments need to be made to implement the learning approach. First, and most obvious, is the relinquishment of control by the instructor of selected aspects of a course to provide students with the opportunity to control their own pace of learning. The Introductory Marketing course contains elements that are good potential candidates for collaborative learning while other topics are best handled in the more traditional lecture/discussion format. Structuring the course so that students can benefit from taking on more responsibility for their own learning can be very time consuming. The course used in this study required six semesters to develop with respect to the elements most suitable for conversion to a learning oriented pedagogy.

Second, the instructor needs to be comfortable with and capable of engaging students in a more egalitarian format where diversity of opinion and variation in enthusiasm for the course is the rule. It was found that the collaborative approach requires a substantial alteration in the pattern of interaction with students. Implementing the learning paradigm also revealed a great deal of variation in both the approach various groups of students took to a problem but also the level of enthusiasm that they brought to their work. The progress that each group makes and the issues that develop can vary extensively across groups often requiring a great deal of flexibility and creativity on the part of the instructor.

Finally, the learning paradigm results in the instructor spending a considerable amount of time counseling students regarding their progress, or lack of, in the course. The small group sessions inherent in this approach quite naturally lead to numerous "face to face" interactions with students. A significantly larger commitment of time and energy outside the classroom are necessary to be successful using the learning approach.

CONCLUSIONS

From the standpoint of student perception, it is clear that the students prefer the learning approach and, as a whole, are more knowledgeable about the topic as well as holding more positive attitudes toward many aspects of the course. However, this potential gain is not without a cost. Students dropped the

course at approximately twice the rate (15% vs 33%) using the learning approach. The higher dropout rate appears to be due to both the continuous intensity required of a student to be prepared on a daily basis as well as the student/professor counseling that occurs naturally with this approach.

From the standpoint of the professor, several significant changes from the teaching paradigm are required to successfully implement a learning approach. Restructuring the format to accommodate more interactive and collaborative experiences can be both time consuming and difficult. In addition, a more egalitarian level of interaction among professors and students is required. The more personal interaction inherent in using the learning approach could prove to be uncomfortable and perhaps difficult to implement for those accustomed to traditional lecture format. In sum, the learning approach requires as much an adjustment in interpersonal communication techniques as change in pedagogy.

REFERENCES

- Bailey, Allan R. Accounting Education: Gradual Transition or Paradigm Shift. *Issues in Accounting Education* 3 (Spring): 1-10
- Barr, Robert B. and John Tagg. From Teaching to Learning - A New Paradigm for undergraduate Education. *Change*, November/December 1995: 13-25
- Berry, Leonard L. Our Roles as Educators: Present and Future. *Journal of Marketing Education* 15 (Fall): 3-8
- Chickering, Arthur W. and Zelda F. Gramson. Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education. *The Wingspread Journal* June 1987: 1-7
- Droge, Cornelia and Richard Spreng. Enhancing Involvement and Skills with Student-Led Method of Case Analysis *Journal of Marketing Education* 18 (Fall): 25-34
- Frاند, Jason and William Broesamle. Technological Innovation and the Paradigm Shift in Management Education *Selections* 12 (Spring): 1-6
- Graeff, Timothy R. Bringing Reflective Learning to the Marketing Research Course: A Cooperative Learning Project Using Intergroup Critique *Journal of Marketing Education* 19 (Spring): 53-64
- Hair, Joseph F. Jr. Marketing Education in the 1990's: A Chairperson's Retrospective Assessment and Perspective *Marketing Education Review* 5 (Summer): 1-6
- Jensen, Ejner J The Bitter Groves of Academe *Change* January/February 1995: 8-11
- Laughlin, Jay L. and Robert T. Hite Game and Simulation Effectiveness in Marketing Education: An Experimental Investigation 15 (Fall): 39-46
- Making Quality Count in Undergraduate Education. *Educational Commission of the States*. Denver, Colorado: 1995
- Matanovich, Timothy Getting Dino-Sized Results from Marketing Education *Marketing News* 27 (November): 4-5
- Neter, John, William Wasserman and Michael H. Kutner *Applied Linear Statistical Models* 3rd edition. 1993
- Palmer, Parker J Good Talk About Good Teaching *The Institute for Teaching and Learning* 1 1995:5-11
- Roach, Scott S., Mark W. Johnston, and Joseph F. Hair Jr. Marketing Education: Developing a Typology and Its Implications for Marketing Students *Journal of Marketing Education* 15 (Fall): 32-38
- Siegel, Carolyn F. Using Computer Networks (Intranet and Internet) to Enhance Your Students Marketing Skills *Journal of Marketing Education* 18 (Fall): 14-24
- Urban, David J. Marketing in a Changing World: A Course Emphasizing the Role of the Individual in the Marketing Environment *Journal of Marketing Education* 15 (Fall): 9-19
- Wellington, William J. and A.J. Faria The Use of Simulation in Marketing Classes: Is Simulation Performance Due to Luck or Skill? *Journal of Marketing Education* 18 (Summer): 50-61
- Wright, Lauren K., Mary Jo Bitner and Valarie A. Zeithaml Using Active Learning to Deliver Services Marketing Content *Journal of Marketing Education* 16 (Fall): 5-20

ATTRACTING AND RETAINING MARKETING FACULTY IN THE NEW MILLENNIUM

Linda Rochford, University of Minnesota Duluth, 110 SBE, Duluth, MN 55812-2496; (218) 726-7577
Rajiv Vaidyanathan, University of Minnesota Duluth, 110 SBE, Duluth, MN 55812-2496; (218) 726-6817

ABSTRACT

There are several factors that suggest the marketing academy will be going through some significant changes as we enter the new millennium. This manuscript traces some of these changes stemming from changes in technology, a looming bulge in retirements, a possible shortage of doctorally qualified recruits, and pressure on administrators to move towards a greater reliance on part-time and non-tenure-track faculty. The implications of these changes are discussed with some possible solutions.

INTRODUCTION

The Academy is entering a period of challenge in hiring and retaining qualified faculty. Schools of business and marketing departments will not be exempt from this challenge. This manuscript explores the current and projected trends in faculty employment and the implications this holds for the universities, marketing department and faculty, students, and delivery of academic programs.

IMPORTANCE

Hiring and retaining qualified faculty is an important issue for the institution because there are significant costs associated with losing faculty and because of the value of faculty continuity. After the great buyers' markets that schools of business faced in the early nineties, they are again facing a situation where large numbers of schools actively pursue a shrinking number of marketing doctoral students. This looming shortage is important for schools to understand and adequately prepare for. One possible outcome of this shortage is a greater likelihood of faculty turnover as those with established teaching and research records look to benefit from the market shortage conditions. From the point of view of marketing departments, this is undesirable for several reasons.

Turnover in faculty is costly

There are a number of dimensions to this "cost" that go beyond recruitment costs, travel and time, which are onerous enough. The total monetary cost of a single position search can exceed \$10,000. Anyone who has sat through days of sun-up to sun-down interviews at an AMA meeting, planned campus visits for faculty, dealt with all the red tape and hiring

document hurdles in order to even get to the point of bringing a candidate to campus can attest to the amount of work this process entails. However, there are more insidious costs associated with faculty turnover. There are costs associated with covering courses during the period after the faculty member leaves, advising and other responsibilities that must be spread across remaining faculty members, as well as questions about the quality of course coverage and other support activities during the period before the person leaves the institution.

While institutions can and do use temporary faculty to fill in, typically there are costs involved in these decisions too, such as a need for more supervision and evaluation of temporary faculty performance. Temporary faculty also do not perform committee and other service functions for the department nor contribute to the intellectual and research output of the department placing additional stress on the remaining faculty members.

Continuity is important

Losing faculty can disrupt programs and course offerings, particularly for institutions with lean staffing. Students, alumni and community relationships all benefit from having faculty continuity. Faculty turnover may also have a negative effect on the research environment within the school. While faculty can and do work with colleagues at other institutions and this interaction has been facilitated by electronic communication, there is much to be said for having research active faculty to energize existing faculty and to provide mentors for newer faculty.

TRENDS IN ACADEMIC HIRING

There are a number of factors that will influence future trends in faculty hiring and retention. These factors include the following:

- Production of Ph.D.s
- Expected Increases in Students
- Growth in Part-time and Non-tenure Track Faculty
- Aging of Current Faculty
- Looming Bulge in Faculty Retirements
- Changes in Technology
- Faculty Satisfaction

Production of Ph.D.s

Table 1 shows business and management doctoral degree production from 1967-68 to 1995-96 (US Department of Education 1998). For the last three years, business doctoral production has dropped steadily. In another report from the AACSB, the number of business doctoral degrees awarded in 1997-98 was 1,006, down from the previous year's 1,072. As a result, the overall vacancy rate nudged up to 6.8 percent, compared to the previous year's 6.6 percent (Newsline 1999a). Looking at a snapshot picture of doctorates granted in 1997-98 (125 in marketing) and the unfilled positions for 1998-99 (145 in marketing) shows that there were 1.2 positions per granted marketing doctorate. AACSB predicts that number to grow to almost 2 positions per marketing doctorate for the 1999-00 year. The percentage of business doctorates awarded to U.S. or Canadian citizens dropped from about 72 percent in 1996-97 to about 65 percent in 1997-98 (Newsline 1999a). Thus, the marketing academy is facing a situation with fewer doctorates and increased vacancies.

There's not an absolute shortage of doctoral program candidates. There are many candidates from non-English speaking countries. Of Michigan's 150 finance applications, 60% were from China alone. Duke's program had 210 applications with 156 from foreign students. Many of these students may want to return to their home country and would therefore have no impact on the shortage of faculty in the U.S. Some students may want to teach in US schools but may be difficult to place on faculties depending on English fluency and ease with an MBA audience (Newsline 1998).

There have been several factors leading to the reduced production of doctoral students in marketing. Primary among them have been (a) costs of doctoral programs, (b) revenue generation needs, and (c) business school rankings. During the widespread retrenchments of the early 90s, doctoral programs were among the first to be cut because of their high costs. Now, even though state budgets are not as tight, schools have discovered that putting resources into lucrative MBA programs have a higher immediate payoff, and thus these revenue generation needs prevent some schools from rapidly growing their Ph.D. programs. A third factor that has been cited as the reason for lower future Ph.D. output is the competition for ratings in magazines such as Business Week. Faculty are being forced to put much greater efforts into their MBA teaching and as a result are not as available to mentor students in their doctoral programs (Newsline 1998).

In addition, competition for associate and assistant professors is increasing. Institutions that can afford to are becoming more aggressive in recruiting faculty from other schools. Other schools and the private sector are targeting faculty in finance, MIS, marketing, economics and management. Dean Forsythe of the University of Iowa reports that 10 of his faculty members received 13 offers with salary increases at a minimum of 10% upwards of 50%. Recruiting by the top schools takes talent away from less-endowed schools and forces these schools to keep reaching down to lower tiers of the faculty pool.

Expected Increases in Students

The traditional college age population (18-24 years olds) bottomed out at 24.7 million in 1997. Forecasts are for this age group to increase, reaching the 30.2 million peak realized in 1981 sometime around 2010. "Even without increases in the high school graduation rates, the actual numbers of undergraduates are projected to increase beginning in the mid-1990s and are expected to continue to increase for at least another decade simply because of the demographically based increase in the expected number of 17 year olds in the U.S. population" (Frances 1998).

In the past, a good portion of the college enrollment increases came from nontraditional students, age 35 and older. From 1970 to 1980, college enrollment grew from 8.5 million to 12.1 million students and about 30% of the increase in enrollment was due to students age 35 and older. During the 1980 to 1990 period, enrollment grew from 12.1 million to 13.8 million students. About half the enrollment increase was attributed to students age 35 and older. From 1990 to 1995 college enrollment grew very little, from 13.8 million to 14.3 million, less than any 5 year period in the past 50 years according to NCES data. Since 1990, however, more than 50% of the increase was due to traditional students. The traditionals actually declined in absolute numbers but the rate of attending college was higher than in the past. Projections for college attendance by the NCES indicate that the largest segment of the student population will continue to be the traditionals (Frances 1998).

The increase in student enrollments should have a direct impact on demand for faculty. Already, many schools are reporting record enrollments in business. This factor again raises concerns about the ability of schools to properly staff their positions with high quality, doctorally qualified faculty.

Growth in Part-time and Non-tenure Track Faculty

Largely in response to financial stress, institutions have increased the number of part-time, non-tenure track faculty. From the 1987-88 academic year to the 1991-92 academic year, instructional faculty and staff increased 17.6%. However, during the same period the proportion of part-timers increased from 33.1% to 41.6% (Chronister 1999). These part-time faculty usually are paid less and have no benefits. There are some exceptions based on the length of appointment and number of courses taught.

Non-tenure track faculty have also increased as a percentage of the faculty. In 1975, 52.3% of full-time faculty members were tenured while 29.1% were on tenure track and 18.6% held full-time non-tenure track positions. By 1993, 51.7% of full-time faculty were tenured, 20.8% per on tenure track and 27.3% were in non-tenure track positions. These fulltime non-tenure track faculty earned salaries that were lower than tenure-track faculty (Chronister 1999). It is expected that the number of tenure-track positions will decline as reliance on less costly part-time faculty increases. Estimates were that in 1995-96, approximately 65% of all full-time faculty were tenured while another 23% were on the tenure track (Barkume 1998). One particularly interesting finding in an AACSB/EBI survey is that non-tenure track faculty actually expressed higher levels of satisfaction than their un-tenured and tenured colleagues (Newsline 1999b; p. 1). Dan R. Dalton, Business Dean at Indiana University attributes this to their lower service and research obligations, "Perhaps teaching evaluation, too, is less of an issue since there are fewer trade-offs between the teaching, research, service and outreach missions [of schools]."

There has been growth in "clinical faculty" or "clinical professors" at many business schools to offset the shortage of qualified instructors with top quality teaching experience. It appears, therefore, that one response to the shortage of doctorally qualified faculty may be a relatively sharp increase in the hiring of part-time and non-tenure-track faculty.

Aging of Current Faculty

Need for additional income, continued career satisfaction and intellectual stimulation as well as the dismantling of mandatory retirement at age 70 have meant that there are a number of faculty that have interest in remaining in full-time employment or taking an early retirement package and teaching on a part-time basis. This seemingly would save the institution money by replacing older, more expensive tenured faculty with younger junior faculty but this is not always the case. Salary compression issues often

mean that it is just as (or more) costly to hire junior faculty as maintain senior faculty. Robert Forsythe, Senior Associate Dean for Faculty and Development at the University of Iowa's business school reports that retiring senior faculty members' "salaries in many cases haven't kept up with the market in general. When you lose one of those, sometimes you have to lose one and a half or two to be able to regain enough salary to hire one new person" (Newsline 1998)

While mandatory retirement has been eliminated, changes in Social Security benefits mean that the age for full benefits will increase from 65 to 66 to 67 for participants reaching age 62 by 2005 and 2022 respectively. The penalty for retiring at age 62 will increase from 20% of normal retirement to 30% as the normal retirement age increases (Chronister 1999).

It is not clear what impact many of these changes will have on turnover among faculty. It appears that the faculty members most likely to remain past age 65 are those that are at research institutions with active research agendas and lighter teaching loads (Kreisman 1996). With respect to productivity, there is little support for a decline in research productivity with age (Lawrence and Blackburn 1988). A comprehensive review of teaching and research productivity confirms a certain stability throughout a faculty member's career, the result of a complex interaction between personal and institutional factors (Blackburn and Lawrence 1995). And senior faculty experience, leadership, and relationships may also be difficult to replace with new faculty.

Looming Bulge in Faculty Retirements

One disadvantage of losing faculty to retirement is that of talent drain. You are most likely to lose the faculty that you least want to lose. This point was also raised earlier in the discussion of the increased hiring of associate professors. As schools lose their best faculty to retirement and to a tight labor market for proven professors, smaller schools who cannot offer the perks and benefits that larger schools can offer to attract the best faculty are most likely to be hurt. In fact, one state system designed a program to encourage high-paid faculty in their late 50s and early 60s to retire, and then was dismayed when many distinguished and very mobile faculty left, creating an unexpected talent drain (Ferren 1998).

In one survey, about 26% of full-time instructional faculty age 55 and older said that they are "very likely" to retire in three years. (Higher percentages are expected to retire in Education, Engineering and the Humanities). Still, age of expected retirement

from paid employment for full-time faculty in business is between 70 and 75 years. Faculty in public higher education institutions plan to retire earlier than those in private institutions, female faculty more inclined to retire before age 65 than male faculty. To complicate matters, there appears to be a large degree of uncertainty about when to retire among faculty. Twenty nine percent of faculty in the survey could not say when they would retire (Chronister and Baldwin 1996).

A number of departments and colleges are trying to prevent faculty from utilizing phased retirements or early retirements in the fear that they would permanently lose the positions (Ferren 1998). There is also the fact that the rapidly rising stock market in the last five years has resulted in a greater number of senior faculty making the decision to retire. When the mandatory retirement age was lifted, many suspected that faculty would remain well into their 70s. However, recent environmental conditions have resulted in faculty leaving well before that. In fact, the University of Wisconsin has *no one* on its faculty over 65, out of 83 tenure-track professors (Newsline 1998). Thus, not only are there strong indications that faculty retirements may affect demand for new faculty in the new year, but the demand is likely to be somewhat unpredictable in the short run. Uncertain faculty attitudes may combine with unpredictable economic conditions to affect faculty retirement rates.

Changes in Technology

While a great deal of the focus of education technology has been on how it enhances the learning experience and increases faculty productivity, little attention has been given to the fact that changes in technology may actually result in increased faculty workloads. Already, many faculty on the leading edge of the technological revolution have complained about how adopting some of the technological innovations such as paperless courses have resulted in tremendously *increased* effort. In one study, two-thirds of college and university faculty reported that "keeping up with information technology" had proved to be stressful to them and this effect was greater for older faculty (Higher Education Research Institute 1999). As faculty have developed more "online" resources, they have also found it harder to regularly maintain these resources. Further, students may also tend to develop closer, more collegial relationships with their professors and seek to spend more time interacting with them via e-mail resulting in increasing demands on faculty time (Frances 1998). Technological changes may also have an impact on future demand for faculty. While some (primarily Deans) believe that technology will allow a few "superstars" to broadcast their lectures to audiences

dispersed around the globe, thus reducing the demand for faculty in the future, others believe that changes in technology may have the effect of increasing demand for faculty (Frances 1998).

Faculty Satisfaction

Increasingly, administrators are finding that schools are hiring faculty with established track records. Not only are associate professors likely to be more mobile, having established a track record in teaching, research, and service, but associate professors are also the least satisfied with their positions. A survey of faculty satisfaction conducted by the AACSB showed that professors with associate rank are, on average, the least satisfied members of the faculty (Newsline 1999b). While several reasons have been proposed for this, it could be that associate professors have exhausted many of the differential advantages in salary and service obligations that accrue to them as assistant professors and have not yet gained the differential advantages associated with the rank of full professors. The implication of this for schools of business is that as the availability of quality ABDs goes down and the demand for faculty goes up, a lot of positions may be filled by associate professors. Schools not doing enough to retain their associate professor ranks may find themselves not only losing them to other schools, but losing the best of their faculty – the ones they can least afford to lose.

PROJECTIONS FOR HIRING FULL-TIME FACULTY

As we have seen, there are many ominous indications of turmoil in the marketing academy as we begin a new millennium. A 1.4% increase in business Ph.D. faculty vacancies was reported by the AACSB for member schools in 1997-1998. While the doctoral vacancy rate among AACSB member schools stood at only 6.6% in 1997-1998, deans at the University of Wisconsin-Madison, Vanderbilt, Duke, University of Illinois Champaign-Urbana, University of Minnesota's Carlson School and others express concern as what they see as the beginning of another cycle of shortages, not unlike that of the double digit vacancy rates of the 1980s. Strong demand for business and MBA programs among students, competition among universities for talent may explain some of the shortage. Another explanation given is rising standards and the feeling that while there may be a reasonable number of candidates the subset of candidates with the research and teaching talent, the caliber of candidates is increasing.

Over all disciplines, AACSB's 1998-99 salary survey of 460 schools showed that new faculty hiring was up 30% compared with 17.8% the previous academic year. Hiring of new associate professors was up 54.7% compared to 12.3%. Assistant professors was up 32.7% compared to 26.5% the previous year, instructor hiring rose 53.8% compared to a 14.7% increase the previous year. ABD hiring was up 10.9% compared to 14.3% the previous year (see Table 2). Most surprising, hiring of new professors in was up 53.6% while last year there was no increase or decrease in hiring. Explanations given include replacing retiring or resigning faculty, the push for new programs, developing specific industry-focused programs and interest in hiring faculty who have meaningful real-world experiences, something not usually associated with new doctorates (Newsline 1999b).

AACSB member schools project that there were 2,457 doctorally qualified (DQ) filled positions in marketing during the 1998-99 year and 148 DQ unfilled positions. The DQ vacancy rate for that year was 5.7%. Another 88 positions are projected for 1999-2000.

Salaries for marketing faculty at AACSB schools averaged \$90,700 for a full professor, \$70,900 for an associate, and \$66,200 for an assistant professor. New hires all attracted higher salaries: \$115,200 for a full professor, \$76,000 for an associate, and \$65,400 for an assistant. Brand new doctorates in marketing averaged \$64,500 compared with brand new doctorates in Finance/Banking/Real Estate/Insurance at \$81,500--currently the area paying the highest business school salaries. Many deans are experiencing "sticker shock" recruiting faculty (Newsline 1998) and retiring faculty lines may not have sufficient salary to provide a competitive starting salary.

IMPLICATIONS

The preponderance of data suggests that we will be facing instability in our marketing departments in the near future. This will come from faculty retirements, loss of qualified associates to other schools, and a pressure to fill positions with inexpensive part-time or non-tenure-track faculty. Unfortunately, as we have outlined in this paper, the actual impact of these factors on our departments is not easily predictable. It is prudent for faculty, administrators, and legislators to seriously consider these changes and its impact on their constituents. There are some important implications of these changes that must be considered:

Recruitment Issues

Recruitment is going to be challenging for many schools. Schools will have to be creative to attract faculty, particularly if they have little competitive salary discretion. If salary cannot be competitive, are there ways to enhance the offer that will appeal to the candidate? Some issues to keep in mind:

- prepare to pay higher salaries
- prepare for high competition for the better candidates
- consider advantages of experienced faculty versus new doctorates
- moving expenses may be an important consideration, especially for experienced faculty members
- mortgage/housing assistance can be important, particularly in areas with high housing costs (AACSB 1998)
- school facilities and resources may be a selling point
- market the attractiveness of the area and environment for the candidate and candidate's family
- summer support and research support, full or partial funding, may be negotiated based on "good faith" efforts of the candidate to apply for all qualifying university programs
- teaching load reductions--two-year teaching load reductions for junior faculty, more start-up research support (Newsline 1998)
- retirement/health benefits
- set-up funding for office, computer equipment
- assistance with spouse job hunting--job offers for family members (Newsline 1998)
- lobby to increase support of marketing doctoral programs to feed the pipeline
- take care to make the right hire. This may mean a lengthier interview and vetting process.
- work on developing additional resources to attract faculty
- consider "clinical faculty"

Retention Issues

Equally important to the university are retaining good faculty members.

- prepare to lose some of the best and most mobile associates
- may need to boost "retention monies", have a plan to deal with counter offers made to faculty
- offer incentives to delay retirement for productive faculty
- raise switching costs for faculty through retirement packages and other "golden handcuffs" as well as establishing and maintaining faculty relationships that help foster institutional and departmental commitment.

- consider offering leaves of absence rather than accepting resignations for faculty considering a move.

Departments and colleges need a plan for addressing staffing and retirement issues now. Obtaining resources for recruiting and retaining faculty will be a major challenge to maintain the quality of the faculty in the next decade.

Table 1

| Business and Management Graduates | |
|--|-----------------------|
| | Total Doctoral |
| 1967-1968 | 441 |
| 1972-1973 | 902 |
| 1977-1978 | 823 |
| 1978-1979 | 821 |
| 1979-1980 | 753 |
| 1980-1981 | 795 |
| 1981-1982 | 815 |
| 1982-1983 | 776 |
| 1983-1984 | 929 |
| 1984-1985 | 831 |
| 1985-1986 | 934 |
| 1986-1987 | 1062 |
| 1987-1988 | 1063 |
| 1988-1989 | 1100 |
| 1989-1990 | 1093 |
| 1990-1991 | 1185 |
| 1991-1992 | 1185 |
| 1992-1993 | 1339 |
| 1993-1994 | 1364 |
| 1994-1995 | 1394 |
| 1995-1996 | 1368 |

Table 2

| AACSB New Faculty Hiring Percentage Change | | |
|---|------------------|------------------|
| | 1998-1999 | 1997-1998 |
| New Assistants | 32.7% | 26.5% |
| Instructors | 53.8% | 14.7% |
| ABDs | 10.9% | 14.3% |
| New Faculty Overall | 30.0% | 17.8% |

REFERENCES

Barkume, M. 1998. College and university faculty in 1998-99 *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, Bureau of Labor Statistics, <http://stats.bls.gov/oco/ocos066.htm>

Chronister, J. L. 1999. Benefits and retirement in a decade of change, *The NEA 1999 Almanac of Higher Education*, p. 93-110

Chronister, J. L. and R. G. Baldwin 1996. Retirement plans of instructional faculty and staff, NEA Higher Education Research Center Volume 2, No. 1

Chronister, J. L., R. G. Baldwin, and V. M. Conley 1997. Retirement and other departure plans of instructional faculty and staff in higher education institutions, *National Center for Education Statistics, Analysis Report*, October 1997, NCES 98 254.

Ferren, A. S. 1998. Senior faculty considering retirement: A developmental and policy issue, *Working Paper 11, Series ED 424821, American Association for Higher Education* 1-7

Frances, C. 1998. Higher education: Enrollment trends and staffing needs, *Research Dialogues*, Issue 55, March at <http://www.tiaa-cref.org/rds/rd55/rd55.html>.

Higher Education Research Institute 1999. Results of the 1998-99 HERI Faculty Survey, at http://www.gseis.ucla.edu/heri/Faculty_Overview.html

Kreisman, L. T. 1996. A greying faculty: challenge or stumbling block to the twenty-first century, a report submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Princeton Mid-Career Fellowship Program.

Newsline 1998. Is a real shortage looming? Doctoral faculty demand edges upward again, Summer, at http://www.aacsb.edu/Publications/Newsline/1998/su_shortage_tx.html.

Newsline 1999a. Demand for business PH.D.'s continues slow rise, while doctoral production falls steadily," Spring, at http://www.aacsb.edu/Publications/view.asp?year=1999&file=spdemand_1.html.

Newsline 1999b. AACSB/EBI survey findings reveal little relationship of gender, status and rank to business faculty satisfaction," Winter, at http://www.aacsb.edu/Publications/Newsline/1999/wn_findings_t1.html.

Newsline 1999c. Faculty positions filled, vacant and planned growth, Spring, at http://www.aacsb.edu/Publications/Newsline/view.asp?year=1999&file=spdemand_13html

US Department of Education 1998. Degrees and other awards conferred by institutions of higher education, National Center for Education Statistics, Higher Education General Information Survey (HEGIS)

MANAGING THE INHIBITING EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION ANXIETY AND SHYNESS ON CLASS DISCUSSION

D. Joel Whalen, DePaul University, Chicago, IL 60604; (773) 880-1206
Sherryl Tanian, Edith Cowan University, Perth, Australia, 6027; 618-940-05445
Michael Girard, YesMail.com, Vernon Hills, IL 60061; (847) 918-9292
Brent Stewart, McCook Metals, LLC, Bristol, RI 02809; (401) 254-6980

ABSTRACT

The scene is as old as teaching itself. The professor poses a question for class discussion, and, while a small handful of eager students raise their hands to speak, most are frozen in their seats. The mute students adopt the deer in the headlights posture in an attempt to become invisible to the teacher. Some appear to be quite agitated, and, if called upon directly, become flustered as they struggle to speak.

The paper suggests that many of these students are suffering from two debilitating physical/psychological responses: Communication Anxiety (CA) and Shyness—a psychologically and physiologically uncomfortable double-whammy that makes classroom discussion difficult for some students and impossible for others.

Speaking in a small group of peers is shown to produce Communication Anxiety. Data is presented from U.S. subjects ($n = 842$) and Australian ($n = 140$) business people, and graduate and undergraduate students that reveals that 75.0% say they would experience communication anxiety “speaking with a group of peers sitting around a table.”

The authors discuss how CA and Shyness—two common human conditions—cause many students to become overwhelmed by uncomfortable body feelings and a “fight or flight” psychological response that can only be relieved by avoiding communication. The students respond to this perceived threat with a general survival/coping strategy: they refuse to speak, or they say just enough to get the professor to move on to someone else and thus relieve their discomfort.

Classroom-tested methods for managing CA and Shyness are offered including, 1. Identification of four classroom situations where Communication Anxiety is likely to occur, and, 2. Six practical steps professors can take to create a classroom environment that will keep students' anxiety low.

THE ROLE OF VALUE CHAIN MANAGEMENT AND ELECTRONIC COMMERCE IN THE BUSINESS CURRICULUM

**Lawrence Dandurand, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, College of Business,
Las Vegas, NV 89154-6010; (702)895-3591**

**Michael C. Mejza, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, College of Business,
Las Vegas, NV 89154-6010;(702)895-4906**

The key responsibilities of business schools are to develop theory that reflects and affects business practice, and to incorporate into university curricula the essence and details that characterize trends and applications in the world of commerce. In fulfilling the curricula responsibility, business colleges should establish frameworks for course development that are relevant to the dynamic business environments that their graduates will experience upon launching or continuing their careers.

Two applications in the contemporary business environment that are growing in scope and sophistication, and receiving increased acceptance are value chain management and electronic commerce. They are concerned with dynamic activities that are inter-organizational, cross-functional, and often multi-national in nature and scope. These activities as practiced by many firms frequently involve component areas of marketing, production, human relations, and finance on a global scale. Practitioners have led the progress made in developing and utilizing the precepts of value chain management and electronic commerce. This situation raises questions regarding business curricula. Should these precepts and experience be incorporated into business curricula? To what extent are they being incorporated into curricula? To what extent should they be incorporated? What are the different approaches to incorporation? Which approach to incorporation is preferable? What factors influence the incorporation process?

The primary objectives of this paper are to invoke discussion and provide literature findings and field research that address the principal curricula concerns of whether to incorporate value chain management and electronic commerce into curricula, to what extent to incorporate, and which approach to incorporation is preferable. The analysis begins with a comprehensive conceptual model of supply chain management that incorporates Porter's notion of value chain and value system management, as well as roles for process management and cross-functional teams. Recent works by Lambert, Cooper, and Pagh (1997, 1998), as well as Porter's original thesis on the value chain provide much of the content.

The analysis then provides a framework for analyzing electronic commerce and incorporates that framework into the comprehensive model of supply chain management. The primary source of content for the model of electronic commerce is Riggins and Rhee (1999). Technology enhanced and technology facilitated relationships are considered in terms of the external or internal location of application user. For example, intranets are internal technology enhancements designed to improve coordination with internal business units, while extranets and supranets are external technology facilitations designed to facilitate information exchange with new team members across the value chain. Specifically, emphasis is placed on the role that electronic commerce, or better put, telecommunications network strategy, plays in supply chain management. It is shown that information structure and facility (i.e., supply chain operations) play an integral part in inter-organizational relationships. In other words, electronic commerce is an integral part of value chain management.

The analysis continues with findings from a content analysis of business college curricula based on a pilot study of major universities around the country and the world. The analysis focuses on the congruence between the nature of a college's overall curriculum (including programs, courses, and topics) and the nature of the combined supply chain management and electronic commerce model presented earlier in the paper. Assuming that comprehensive supply chain and electronic commerce management are genuine forces in today's business world, and that the general models presented are valid, one would expect to observe business colleges that incorporate the tenets of these practices in their curricula. The analysis concludes by considering implications that emerging views and applications of supply chain management and electronic commerce experience have for business school curricula. More specifically, the discussion centers on alternative strategies that business colleges might use to incorporate these emerging concepts and business practices into their curricula.

AN INTERNET-BASED COURSE IS MORE THAN JUST AN ONLINE SYLLABUS

David F. Fong, University Access, 6255 Sunset Blvd., Suite 801 Los Angeles, CA 90028 (323) 960-1700
Sabrina Davis, University Access, 6255 Sunset Blvd., Suite 801 Los Angeles, CA 90028 (323) 960-1700

ABSTRACT

Offering a marketing course over the Internet is more than simply putting a syllabus online. It requires interactivity and engaging content -- the pedagogical keys to helping students achieve the highest levels of Bloom's Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain, a standard in the classification of learning objectives. University Access (UA) has been producing award-winning, media-rich business education courseware for colleges and universities for the past three years, including its most recent course -- Introduction to Marketing: Competing in the 21st Century. This presentation focuses on implementing Internet-based marketing education that is interactive and engaging to students.

PRESENTATION

Changing Landscape of Education

The 1980s and early 1990s saw the powerful medium called television educating the masses. The late 1990s and the upcoming decade is seeing the same through the Internet. Today's students are looking for more increasingly engaging education delivery methods than the typical textbook.

The result is that Internet-based and distance education is a growing force in today's academic arena. The International Data Corporation (IDC) estimates that the number of students enrolled in distance learning alone is nearly one million in 1999 and is estimated to increase at an average annual growth rate of 33%. The ability to meet this growing market segment and those looking to provide a richer experience in the classroom are turning to technology. The educational application of new technology requires utilizing tools that engage and provide continual interaction with the end-user: the student. The ability to involve the student beyond a textbook reading and a lecture is realized with quality Internet and video courseware, whether in the classroom or at a distance.

"The booming demand for managerial talent in the global economy, plus the rapid-fire innovations in electronic communications have created huge student populations that campus-bound programs can't touch."
AACSB Newslines/Fall 1999

The New Internet Landscape

Quality can and should be instilled in business courses to provide an experience rich with sound pedagogy and engaging content to encourage learning. This presentation focuses on how the issue of quality is two-fold. The first and key element in any course is, of course, the quality of the instructor. Rather than learn how to write HTML pages or build a Web site, faculty need to be trained on how to better teach online. The experience for the end user, the student, is much richer when the professor can imprint their own style of teaching, while embracing the Internet technologies to engage their students.

The second important quality issue is the content. While some faculty are putting their syllabi online and calling it an Internet course, the Internet now presents a vast array of interactive capabilities that strengthen just text on the Web.

Faculty Meeting Today's Internet Challenges

Today's educational system faces the struggle of meeting changing student needs - time and engaging content. The ability to offer business education courses that meet time concerns are easy: put it online and you are done. The key is to deliver on technology. Internet-based courseware should deliver high quality, multimedia content that is robust, engaging and convenient to the student.

Faculty is increasingly looking for tools to enhance their business education courses. This presentation includes an interactive demonstration of new tools, including a tour of online courseware. The result will be the ability to offer a quality course not bound by campus-bound restrictions or limitations of local companies, but rather utilizes technology to bring the global market to students from cities to small towns.

New Internet-Based Marketing Courseware

UA's Introduction to Marketing: Competing in the 21st Century provides over 30+ hours of online courseware and 12 hours of video case studies and expert commentary. Students experience the marketing strategies of Hilton Hotels Corporation, Subway, NBC, Coca-Cola, Autobyte.com, and more through interviews with top executives and marketing professionals from these respective companies.

Total Quality Management Applied To Marketing Education Service Quality

Tom A. Buckles, Ph.D., University of San Diego
John Ronchetto, Ph.D., University of San Diego
Barbara Withers, Ph.D., University of San Diego

Although the drumbeat of TQM has been echoing for some time, it has not really permeated very far into the halls of academia. Although education is acknowledged to be a "service," there has been hesitation to use TQM methods in the academic setting (cf. Stern & Tseng 1993, Froiland 1993). Specifically while there are courses in TQM, CQS, CQI, etc., they tend to remain functional in nature, teaching tools and techniques needed to achieve quality, but lacking cross-functional or interdisciplinary approaches. Moreover, one generally does not see non-TQM classes employing TQM techniques to show their potential benefits and importance to the business world. Yet this would appear to be vital, particularly in a services context, given the major attributes of services (i.e. intangibility, perishability, standardization difficulties, etc.).

Employing TQM philosophy and tools provides business school graduates a better opportunity to transcend conventional decision making processes, which particularly equip them to deal with the complexities to be encountered in an increasingly interrelated business environment. In fact, providing this type of training addresses the four key themes Berry (1993) states marketing education needs for the future: accountability, globalism, relevancy, and versatility.

As business becomes increasingly complex, interpersonal and critical thinking skills are invaluable. Being exposed to the TQM philosophy and tools through course exercises enables students to become more productive employees after graduation, thereby helping them to establish their value to their employer. Thus, systematic implementation of TQM exercises in marketing courses, can significantly increase the probability that students will have the requisite managerial skills required for success in today's global marketplace.

This paper attempts to show how a services marketing course employed TQM concepts to increase critical thinking, marketing, and general business skills. Our hope is to demonstrate the

effectiveness of TQM tools in an educational service context. As with any service, relevance and survival are of prime importance to educational institutions. By equipping students to perform in a TQM environment, educators can increase their hiring desirability by familiarizing them with new methods (Froiland 1993, Robinson et al. 1991). Without this, decreased demand for graduates will in turn mean less need for the services of business schools and their educators (Stern & Tseng 1993). The paper is developed along four lines: (1) background regarding TQM and higher education; (2) the relationship between TQM and marketing pedagogy is presented; (3) an example of implementing a TQM term project in a services marketing course is provided; and (4) conclusions and implications are supplied.

References

- Berry, L., "Our Roles as Educators: Present and Future", *Journal of Marketing Education*, Vol. 15 No. 3, Summer 1993, pp. 3-8.
- Gronroos, C., "Service Management: A Management Focus for Service Competition", *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, Vol. 1 No. 1 1988.
- Froiland, A.V., "TQM Invades Business Schools", *Training*, Vol. 30 No. 7 1993, pp. 52-56.
- Robinson, J. D., Akers, J.F., Artzt, E.L., Poling, H.A., Galvin, R.W., and Allaire, P.A., "An Open Letter: TQM on the Campus", *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 69 No. 6 1991, pp. 94-95.
- Stern, B.L. and Tseng, D. P., "U.S. Business Schools' Reaction to the Total Quality Movement", *Journal of Education for Business*, September/October 1993, pp. 44-48.

Windows on the World (WOW): Real Cases, Right Now!

Gary L. Karns, School of Business & Economics, Seattle Pacific University, 3307 Third Ave. W., Seattle, WA 98119, (206.281.2948; gkarns@spu.edu) and Dan Rogers, Modernmind, Inc.

ABSTRACT

This paper describes the use of a unique approach to teaching an introductory MBA marketing class. A practitioner-academic instructional partnership and contemporary, real-world cases were utilized to create an enhanced experiential learning opportunity.

Adding realism to marketing courses has been an important marketing education theme contributing to the development of "real-world" skills and increasing student involvement. Students desire the use of "real world" educational activities (Kelly, Conant and Smart, 1991; Clayson, 1992). Marketing plan projects, site-visits, guest speakers and cases have been used to add realism and involvement (Madden 1983; Dröge and Spreng 1996; Karns 1989; Frontczak and Rivale 1991).

The foundation-level introductory MBA course in marketing was team-taught by a faculty member and a marketing practitioner using contemporary, real-world cases (Windows on the World – "WOW Cases") to enhance realism (Stafford 1996). All of the cases were new situations based on the current consulting work of the practitioner instructor. The cases raised fundamental marketing issues (e.g. market size, creation of customer value, segmentation, brand positioning, product design, and promotion).

Wherever possible the cases reflected the actual manner and tone posed by the real executive in addition to the decision situation. At least one of the cases was a copy of an actual memo with handwritten marginal notes from the executive decision-maker as it was sent to a subordinate for analysis (with permission).

In addition to the realism created by the nature of the WOW cases themselves, the instructional team carried the realism further by having a panel of marketing executives (often the principal of the case) read and comment on the students' case analysis.

STUDENT RESPONSE

The WOW cases were seen as realistic, active, stimulating, applied, helpful, and qualitative. They were also seen as requiring much effort. In general they were seen as more effective than historical cases. T-tests showed that these ratings were

significantly different from the midpoints of the semantic differential scales. The cases were rated as moderately difficult and, interestingly, only somewhat concrete. This was probably due to the higher level of uncertainty and ambiguity associated with emergent decision situations where much relevant decision making information was not given within the case.

All aspects of the WOW case approach were seen as effective. The most effective aspect was that it helped students develop the ability to think like marketers. The cases were only moderately effective in developing personally relevant industry specific knowledge. T-tests showed that these ratings were each significantly different from the midpoints of the scales. Further, the dominant themes in the open-ended comments were that the WOW cases were very helpful. In students' minds this approach was successful in reaching the important objectives of developing the marketing thought process and developing the ability to apply knowledge and analyze marketing environments.

LESSONS LEARNED

Teaching the introductory MBA marketing course with a practitioner-academic team was an exciting opportunity for the students (and the participating faculty member).

Using such contemporary cases presupposes a ready source of marketing problems from a variety of product industries. Choosing how much information to reveal in the case itself is a significant pedagogical design decision. In "real-life," information is rarely a given. This choice will influence student perceptions of difficulty and their level of frustration due to ambiguity and uncertainty. Taking a "less-is-more" road probably is better suited to graduate than undergraduate students.

While team teaching presents its own challenges in providing timely feedback, using external reviewers exacerbated the problem. Even so, the external reviewers added a very meaningful component to the course.

REFERENCES ON REQUEST

STUDENTS INTO SPONSORS: CREATING A NETWORK FOR IN-MARKET CAPSTONE COURSES

Richard M. Lei, Northern Arizona University, School of Communication,
Flagstaff, AZ (520) 523-2490

ABSTRACT

Among the challenges facing marketing educators today is an increasing need to link the academic and professional worlds. There are many means to accomplish this task: through the use of guest lecturers from industry, affiliation with professional associations, and utilization of capstone courses. However, in many instances, the capstone course consists of a hypothetical project. In order to give students a more realistic capstone experience, an in-market approach is recommended where the faculty and student teams work with a sponsor from the professional community.

To maximize the opportunity for capstone course sponsorship, faculty need to maintain an ongoing relationship with their former students who now can serve as professional links. This paper discusses the advertising in-market capstone course at Northern Arizona University where alumni support, in-market projects, and links to the professional world are integrated into the capstone class. Despite NAU's location in a rural setting, this networking has yielded a series of high profile capstone class sponsorships including: Hunt-Wesson, Dial Corp., Nike, America West Airlines and recently Toyota Motor Company and their advertising agency Saatchi & Saatchi/LA.

Sponsor selection is one of the most critical decisions the instructor will make as it relates to the capstone course. While "cold calling" may ultimately generate a sponsor, results are maximized when another bond already exists between the program and the potential sponsor. This is the key reason that the best source for in-market sponsors are graduates of the program who are employed in the industry.

Many alumni offices maintain lists of graduates and a profile of their current employment status. This is a good place to

begin as the links are often strongest between the faculty member and their former students, rather than with an alumni office. Ideally, graduates of the program who have been out of school 1-3 years should be contacted. These individuals will have likely been promoted out of entry level positions and have both the authority and credibility within their firms to expedite the sponsorship process internally.

Time issues, sensitivity to disseminating internal information, and potential liability resulting from future claim on work are the key reasons some organizations hesitate to commit as a capstone class sponsor. These impediments can generally be overcome easily.

At the beginning of the semester, the sponsor provides some background information in a mock "client meeting" where face-to-face questions can be addressed. Student teams spend the semester in generating: a situation analysis, conducting focus groups and/or taste tests, positioning alternatives, creative strategies, media plans and finally proposed advertising executions. The next time the client will see the student teams is at the final presentation at the end of the semester.

Networking is important for students as they leave the academic world and for marketing educators as they bring this professional world into their classrooms. As a result, graduation should not be thought of as an end to the faculty-student relationship but as a point in which the nature of the relationship changes. An in-market capstone experience can provide a "win-win" scenario for all those involved. Students benefit from the association and rigor imposed on them by a client, faculty stay networked with the professional community and the sponsors are able to provide a meaningful contribution to their alma mater. The process comes full circle.

PICKING UP THE PIECES: HOW TO GET PAST THE EFFECTS OF A BAD ADMINISTRATOR

Session Chairs

John A. Schibrowsky, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Las Vegas, NV, 89154-6010; (702) 895-3364
Thomas E. Boyt, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Las Vegas, NV, 89154-6010; (702) 895-3364

Presenters

James Cross, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Las Vegas, NV, 89154-6010; (702) 895-3364
William Cohen, California State University, Los Angeles, Los Angeles CA, 90032-8120; (213) 343-9260
Alexander Nill, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Las Vegas, NV, 89154-6010; (702) 895-3364
Richard Lapidus, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Las Vegas, NV, 89154-6010; (702) 895-3364

ABSTRACT

The average tenure of a college of business dean and marketing department chair is approximately three years. In a typical twenty year career of a faculty member, that translates into fourteen different administrators. During that time, nearly everyone is going to be exposed to at least one extremely bad or damaging administrator. We're not talking about the administrator that is disorganized or complacent or even incompetent. We're talking about a damaging, hurtful administrator that does seemingly irreparable harm to the department or college. Once the administrator has been relieved of his or her job responsibilities, what can be done to get the department of marketing or college of business back on track? This session offered a systematic way to deal with the situation.

First, Jack Schibrowsky discussed the specifics of performing a situation analysis. He argued for the need of primary data collection (a survey) to provide input into the analysis needed to assess the current situation. He presented data from a recent case and discussed the diagnostic value of collecting this type of information to understand the current situation.

Next, Richard Lapidus discussed the recruitment process used to hire a replacement. He focused on the potential problems and pitfalls associated with recruiting a replacement for a bad administrator. Topics included the problems with establishing evaluative criteria, recruiting candidates, and problems at the visitation stage.

Third, Thomas Boyt presented some of his current research on rebuilding camaraderie among employees. He focused the specifics actions that can be taken to rebuild a sense of community.

William Cohen presented his work on leadership skills presented in his books, "*The Art of the Leader*" and "*The Stuff of Heroes: The Eight Universal Laws of Leadership*,"

Jack Schibrowsky then presented some of his current research on employee satisfaction in professional organizations. James Cross then presented the findings and implications from marriage and family counseling literature that has applications to this type of "dysfunctional family." Next, Alexander Nill and Michael Mejza provided a summary of the ideas espoused in Fredrick Reichheld's book, "*The Loyalty Effect*." Each of these approaches to building a positive work environment provided different insights into the process of rebuilding a Department of Marketing or College of Business.

Finally, this literature was summarized and a framework for developing a plan to rebuild camaraderie and trust among faculty members and to move the organization towards a cohesive team. The goal was to have attendees will leave with a specific set of recommendations for putting the pieces back together. This presentation special session was of interest to all marketing educators, whether or not they have had a bad experience with an administrator. It was a must for any faculty member contemplating a move into administration.

ARE OUR STUDENTS ILLITERATE WHEN IT COMES TO UNDERSTANDING BUSINESS FACTS AND CURRENT EVENTS?

Bruce L. Stern,* Portland State University, School of Business Administration, PO Box 751, Portland, OR 97207; 503-725-3702 voice; 503-725-5850 fax; bruces@sba.pdx.edu e-mail

ABSTRACT

This study investigates how knowledgeable students are about business-related current events. The results reveal that students know little about the world they are about to enter as a citizen and businessperson. Although the results are sobering, the author makes some suggestions on how to improve the situation.

INTRODUCTION AND RELATED LITERATURE

Every year thousands of business school graduates enter a business world where success is dependent on awareness of environments (political, international, financial, and economic) that will impact their work. This infers that they have knowledge of "what is going on and how it might impact one's business."

Business and economic educators and businesspersons have been talking for years about the importance of student knowledge about the "real world" (Stigler 1970, Nemesh 1979, and Rislau 1983). Many surveys (Adelman 1992; Gerson 1995; Turner 1995; Big Gaps 1993) have shown that today's students and adults know little about the world they live in. Department of Education researcher Clifford Adelman (1992) concluded that students at American colleges learn so little about Western culture that they are like tourists in their own land. Some of the most disconcerting survey results found that a third of respondents thought Japan was on the Asian mainland, 16 percent thought Alaska was a territory (not a state), and only 9 percent could name the chief justice of the U.S. Supreme Court, while 54 percent could name the judge on the People's Court television program (Morin 1989). In another study (Gerson 1995), a New Jersey high school teacher found few of his students able to accurately identify a U.S. senator from his state. The most frequent, inaccurate guess was Mikhail Gorbachev. A group of University of Pennsylvania students surveyed over 3,000 undergraduates at the seven Ivy League colleges (Big Gaps 1993). They found that 44 percent could not identify the U.S. Speaker of the House, 35 percent did not know the chairman of the Federal Reserve Board, 11 percent did not know who penned the Declaration of Independence, and over one-third could not identify the Prime Minister of Britain. Turner

(1995) attributes this lack of knowledge to student apathy surrounding national and global events.

The first known research effort focusing on business student knowledge was conducted by Beckett (1975). He surveyed graduating business students on three campuses and found that only 30 percent were able to name three federal regulatory agencies, 40 percent were able to estimate the U.S. population with reasonable accuracy, 23 percent could estimate our gross domestic product, and nearly half could not provide the names of any periodicals that address a business audience.

A decade later Stern, Taylor, Hayden, and Murphy (1985) studied business and non-business majors' awareness of business-related current events at three universities. They found that business majors were more aware of business and economic-related events than non-business majors but the level was not high. Only 18 percent were able to estimate the U.S. inflation rate, less than 10 percent accurately estimated the level of the Dow Jones Industrial Average, and only 12 percent were able to name five business periodicals. Overall awareness increased with age, grade in school, and GPA. Males scored significantly higher than females and the amount of television viewing was found to be inversely related, while the number of publications was significantly and directly related to overall awareness.

The question this study intends to investigate is how prepared, awareness-wise, our undergraduate students are to enter the business world. Textbook knowledge is not enough. In today's rapidly-changing business world students need to start their understanding of market realities while they are still business students.

RESEARCH METHODS

The data for this study was collected in May 1999 from students attending a state university in the western part of the U.S. The survey was administered to clusters of students enrolled in undergraduate business, speech, anthropology, and economics classes. These classes and sections were chosen on a convenience basis but with an attempt to reach both business and non-business majors through a cross-section of courses.

The survey asked a series of questions to measure a student's awareness of facts and current events related to international, economic, financial, political, industry, and general environments. In addition, demographic and media exposure information was collected. The maximum possible score on the survey was 40 points; actual scores ranged from 2 through 33. For each factual question a "range" of values had to be determined for an answer to be correct. For example, the acceptable range for the population of the U.S. was + or - 10 million, while the Dow Jones Industrial average was given a range of + or - 500 points. Because data was collected over a span of 10 days and because some of the values (i.e.: the Dow Jones average) change daily, the date that the questionnaire was filled out was noted on each survey. The surveys took an average of seven minutes to complete.

In all, 229 surveys were completed, with 56.3 percent coming from business majors, 32.3 percent from non-business majors, and 11.4 percent from persons who did not indicate a major. The majority of respondents were female (59.6 percent), 21-30 years old (69.6 percent), upper-division students (67.1 percent), working on a paid job (76.3 percent), and self-reporting a GPA of 3.00 or over (78.2 percent).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Global Findings and Differences by Major

The main finding is that students have little understanding of the world in which they live. The average respondent scored 15.09 of the 40 possible points, a dismal 37.7 percent. Business majors performed only fractionally (not significantly) better than non-business majors, an unexpected result since much of the survey dealt with business-related matters. The only sections of the study where business majors significantly outperformed their non-business counterparts were in economic (2.31 vs. 1.70, $p = .001$) and financial awareness (2.93 vs. 2.62, $p = .087$). The amount of media exposure between the two groups showed no difference in terms of television but greater exposure to print media by non-business majors (2.26 vs. 1.64, $p = .023$).

The data in Table 1 displays the questions (requiring only one answer) that were answered most and least by the sample. It comes as no surprise since over 70 percent of this sample works that they are very familiar with the state's minimum wage. Being able to name one of three of the U.S.'s top trading partners and one of two countries who are top contributors to the IMF was expected since each are

TABLE 1
Questions Answered Most and Least Accurately

| Question | % Answering Correctly |
|---|-----------------------|
| What is the State minimum wage | 82.1% |
| Name 1 of 3 top trading partners of US | 81.2 |
| Name the free trade agreement in N. America | 75.5 |
| Largest country (by area) in S. America | 70.3 |
| Name 1 of the 2 top contributors to the IMF | 67.7 |
| Name the new European currency | 63.8 |
| Name the Federal Reserve chairperson | 58.5 |
| Name the dean of our business school | 2.2% |
| What was the 1998 US inflation rate | 8.7 |
| What is the (city) metro population | 10.0 |
| Which US region has the largest population | 11.4 |
| What is the population of the US | 12.2 |
| Name 1 of 2 countries where recent US embassy bombings occurred | 13.1 |
| Name the president of this university | 16.2 |

fairly easy to determine by logic. A surprise was that only 58.5 percent of the overall sample could identify the Federal Reserve chairperson since he has been in the news so much lately. Business majors were much more likely to name Alan Greenspan than non-business majors (70.5 percent to 41.9 percent), as should be expected. On the other side of the coin, it was surprising how few respondents could name the dean of their business school or their university president. They also had great difficulty knowing the metropolitan area and U.S. population totals, which region had the largest population, and what the inflation rate was for the U.S. last year. Surprisingly, there was little if any difference in awareness of the annual inflation rate by business and non-business majors. One would think that business majors would want and need to know important economic news that has such a significant effect on borrowing, spending, and performance in the financial markets.

In addition, related data not shown in Table 1 (questions where two or more responses were required) showed similar, disappointing results. For example, nearly half (45.5 percent) of the respondents could not name even one of their state's U.S. senators. In fact, only 36.2 percent could name both. Nearly half (44.1 percent) could not name a single U.S. regulatory agency, while only 15.3 percent could name three of them. When asked to name two of the five largest U.S. corporations on the basis of sales 62.4 percent could name none and only 5.7 percent could name two.

Differences by Other Demographics

When overall and section scores were analyzed by gender, age, year in school, grade point average, and working hours, only gender and GPA emerged as consistently significant influences. Gender differences, as shown in Table 2, were quite pronounced. In terms of overall awareness males scored significantly higher than females (16.57 vs. 14.13, $p = .003$). The same pattern of statistically significant differences emerged when comparing economic awareness, finance awareness, industry awareness, and international awareness between the gender groups. One factor that might account for the differences was the number of publications read on a regular basis where males had significantly greater print exposure than females (2.13 vs. 1.58).

TABLE 2
Gender Differences in Awareness and Media Exposure

| Variable | Female Score | Male Score | Sig. Level+ |
|--|--------------|------------|-------------|
| Overall awareness* | 14.13 | 16.57 | $p = .003$ |
| Economic awareness | 1.87 | 2.29 | $p = .004$ |
| Finance awareness | 2.60 | 3.03 | $p = .01$ |
| Industry awareness | 1.84 | 2.31 | $p = .002$ |
| Political awareness | 2.97 | 3.41 | ns |
| International awareness | 3.52 | 3.99 | $p = .053$ |
| General awareness | 1.35 | 1.51 | ns |
| Daily hours watching TV | 1.69 | 1.90 | ns |
| Number of publications read on a regular basis | 1.58 | 2.13 | $p = .011$ |

+ = Based upon t-test comparisons

* = Based upon a possible maximum score of 40

Significant differences in overall awareness by students with different grade point averages ($F = 5.83$, $p < .001$) also emerged. Students with GPA's of 3.50+ had scores averaging 17.20, while those with GPA's of 2.00-2.49 averaged 10.70. Those with GPA's in the 2.50-3.49 categories averaged in the 14 range. Significant differences in most section scores (finance $p < .012$; industry $p < .003$; politics $p < .009$; international $p < .008$; and general $p < .021$) by GPA groups were also observed.

Although the overall score did not differ significantly by one's year in school, awareness of economics ($p < .033$) and finance ($p < .037$) did. The amount of print media exposure was significantly higher ($p < .018$) as one's year in school increased. The only other demographic showing a difference was those that worked more hours watched less television ($p < .015$)

than those who worked fewer or no hours. Surprisingly, there were no overall score, section score, or media exposure differences by age group.

Exposure to Television and Print Media

The Pearson product moment correlation coefficients presented in Table 3 reflect the association between overall and section scores and the amount of media exposure respondents had to television and print. Overall awareness scores seemed to have little correlation to the amount of television watched. The same was true for section scores. There was, however, a statistically significant relationship ($r = .330$, $p < .01$) between the amount of newspapers and magazines read on a regular basis (an average of three of five issues) and students' overall awareness scores. This positive, significant relationship also held for industry, political, international, and general awareness. The conclusion that can be drawn from running simple linear regressions is that there is a statistically significant ($p < .001$) and positive impact of the amount of print media read on the extent of awareness people have of the world in which they live. The same cannot be said of the impact of television viewing on awareness. Therefore, the more people read, the more aware they become. In the author's recent senior-level marketing classes, a straw poll was taken; it was found that less than one-third of the students read a daily newspaper on a regular basis. Although the poll was not scientific, it did show how few of the students availed themselves of the most basic print medium: the daily newspaper.

TABLE 3
Pearson Correlations Between Awareness Scores and Amount of Media Exposure

| Category of Awareness | Amount of TV | Amount of Print Pubs Read Regularly |
|-----------------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|
| Overall | .061 | .330 ($p < .01$) |
| Economic | -.070 | .084 |
| Finance | .043 | .124 |
| Industry | .056 | .242 ($p < .02$) |
| Politics | .112 | .279 ($p < .01$) |
| International | .063 | .276 ($p < .01$) |
| General | -.001 | .233 ($p < .02$) |

CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Student awareness of business facts and current events is embarrassingly low. The results of this study, however, corroborate earlier findings by Beckett (1975); Stern, Taylor, Hayden, and Murphy (1985); and Stern, Tseng, and Taylor (1991).

Evidently what we've learned has not had an impact on improving student awareness. What then can we as professors do to promote higher levels of awareness?

One recommendation is to reduce the amount of credit hours required in business (or other specialized) classes. This might promote a more liberal exposure to the arts, sciences, and social sciences to prevent the narrow focus many degree programs currently have. Some schools have begun teaching critical thinking skills in required cross-functional lower-division classes. Students of all majors mix together and study issues (i.e., ecology) and look at the issue from all perspectives (i.e., economic, geological, environmental, health, political, etc.). That should widen the perspective and at the same time expose students to a wider array of issues, perspectives, and thought processes.

Another solution is to show students these awareness deficiencies. A colleague presents a mini-awareness test on the first day of class and goes over the answers afterward. He then offers educational discount subscriptions to students as a means of promoting better understanding of the business environment and the world in general. The assumption here is that without being aware of their deficiencies students are apt to do nothing to correct the problem. Students should be especially receptive to these publisher offers if they are made aware that it will give them a differential advantage over other students now and over less aware businesspersons when they enter the job market.

Finally, professors can act as a positive role model by integrating current events into the classroom experience rather than just following the textbook. Professors can get students to think about applications by asking questions in class such as: how will the gradual increase in interest rates affect the expansion plans of retailers like Nordstrom and Wal-Mart or how might the recent earthquake in Taiwan affect the earnings performance of Intel. This kind of questioning focuses important textbook principles on real-world events.

Basically, we need to encourage our students to adopt a habit of reading newspapers and special interest magazines on a regular basis. Students need to know that keeping current will affect their understanding of the world in which they live and

thereby affect their effectiveness both as citizens and businesspersons.

REFERENCES

- Adelman, C. (1992). Shopkeeper Patriot Spans Gap. *Insight on the News*. 8 (December 14): 40.
- Beckett, J. A. (1975). What Do Business School Students Know About the Realities of the Outside World? *Collegiate News and Views*. 29: 1-3.
- Unknown author (1993). Big Gaps Found in College Students' Grasp of Current Affairs. *The New York Times*. 142 (April 18): 36.
- Gerson, M. (1995). In the Classroom. *Commentary*. 99 (1): 67-72.
- Morin, R. (1989). The Ignorant '80's: Could Auld Acquaintance Be So Soon Forgotten? *Washington Post*. 113 (December 24): C5.
- Nemesh, M. (1979). Economic Awareness: Essential Element of Career Education. *Business Education Forum*. 33: 3-5.
- Rislau, R. A. (1983). General Business--An Important Avenue to Economic Understanding. *Journal of Business Education*. 58: 281-283.
- Stern, B. L., J. L. Taylor, N. Hayden, and E. Murphy (1985). Are Our Students (Il)literate About Business-Related Current Events? *Proceedings of the Western Marketing Educators' Association*. 22.
- Stern, B. L., L. P. D. Tseng, and J. L. Taylor (1991). Student Awareness of Business and Non-Business Current Events. *Proceedings of the AMA International Collegiate Conference*.
- Stigler, G. (1970). The Case, If Any, For Economic Literacy. *Journal of Economic Education*. 2: 77.
- Turner, T. N. (1995). Riding the Rapids of Current Events! *The Social Studies*. 86 (3): 117-121.

*The author would like to thank Gregg Hendricks, Tanya Al-Attrash, Jawad Khan, Yashuhide Kashiwazaki, Jenny Yost, Jordan Fell, and Xin Ping Lei for their assistance in this study.

TEACHING SURVEY RESEARCH BY FABRICATING RESULTS

E. K. Valentin, Weber State University, Ogden, UT 84040-3802; (801) 626-6076

ABSTRACT

A project-centered approach to teaching applied survey research is proposed and critiqued that is especially efficacious at the undergraduate level and when time is scarce. In lieu of requiring students to gather real data for a class project, it allows them to write dummy reports based on fabricated results.

INTRODUCTION

Assignments that require students to plan and execute a sample survey afford potentially rich, invaluable, hands-on learning experiences. Unfortunately, requiring each student or small team of two or three students to gather enough primary data to conduct meaningful analyses has serious drawbacks. For instance, to render the data gathering task reasonable without encouraging students to investigate issues superficially, research problems must be chosen that lend themselves to short questionnaires and relatively small samples. Furthermore, students often resent having to administer questionnaires over the phone or in person (Valentin 1993), and gathering real primary data tends to consume time that could be spent more productively.

One solution to making data gathering manageable entails dividing it among the entire class so that each student is required to administer only a few questionnaires. Accordingly, it entails developing a single, common questionnaire and a corresponding database. The requisite questionnaire may be constructed by turning the entire class into one big research team that, in a communal spirit, designs the study, develops the questionnaire, administers questionnaires, and analyzes data. Or, the workload may be divided so that a few students specialize in designing the study, a different few in developing the questionnaire, and so forth. However, the communal approach is likely to get only a few students deeply involved, while the specialization approach poses coordination problems and limits what each student learns about survey research from start to finish.

Another option entails turning the class into a single research team only for the data gathering phase. When this approach is used, students submit questionnaires individually or in small groups; and the project questionnaire is chosen or synthesized from the various submissions. All other phases of the

research project (e.g., developing a proposal, analyzing data, and reporting results) can be performed independently by individual students or small teams. This approach overcomes some shortcomings inherent in the communal and specialization approaches. However, imposing a questionnaire places tight constraints on data analysis and requires most teams to adopt research designs they did not develop. Allowing each team maximum freedom to explore design alternatives seems preferable.

Another potential difficulty with research projects is that students may be rushed into designing studies and questionnaires in order to leave time for interviewing respondents and analyzing data (Dommeyer 1986). Time tends to be especially scarce when research is taught as a four-hour one-quarter course, when it is taught during the summer, and when statistical analysis must be reviewed thoroughly.

This article delineates a coaching-oriented learning-by-doing way of teaching applied survey research, particularly at the undergraduate level, that conserves time and affords an attractive alternative to more common approaches. Its key elements are a problem scenario and five assignments, which entail developing (1) a thumbnail sketch of the research approach, (2) a research proposal, (3) dummy tables, (4) a structured questionnaire, and (5) a research report.

The thumbnail sketch and the dummy tables assignments are coaching exercises. As such, they are critiqued thoroughly, but are not weighted heavily in determining final grades. They are intended mainly to prepare students for developing the more consequential proposal, questionnaire, and report. The research proposal and questionnaire are highly conventional. However, the final report is unconventional insofar as it is a dummy report based on fictitious results, not real data. The merits and drawbacks of writing such reports are examined after the aforementioned scenario and assignments are discussed. Although students can be required to complete assignments individually, encouraging them to work in self-selected teams of up to three members works well.

THE PROBLEM SCENARIO

The problem scenario is distributed in class and provides a backdrop for the study to be designed by students. For example:

Larry Miner, the owner of a local Ford car dealership, wants to improve customer loyalty, or retention. He has hired you to conduct a survey that will help him identify what he should do. He can provide names, addresses, and telephone numbers of customers since 1990. Ways of modifying and embellishing this rather simple scenario are discussed in a later section.

THE THUMBNAIL SKETCH

Given the problem scenario, each team is instructed to develop a thumbnail sketch of its intended research approach – a sketch that vividly conveys and justifies the underlying rationale. Teams are advised to proceed as follows:

1. Identify the managerial problem to be resolved.
2. Derive a corresponding research problem.
3. Envision several approaches to a survey that would provide insight into ways of resolving both the managerial problem and the research problem.
4. Choose the best approach, and explain its gist in a brief memorandum. Describe very clearly what you intend to do, delineate the key issues you intend to address, and substantiate that your approach makes good sense. The reader must be able to envision what you have in mind and must be convinced that your approach meshes with the research problem and would help resolve the managerial problem.

The aforementioned Larry Miner scenario served as the basis for an assignment a few years ago. Nowadays, it provides the backdrop for an illustrative thumbnail sketch, which is distributed in class and is shown in Exhibit 1.

Students are told that no research design is perfect and that practical designs always require researchers to make tradeoffs. However, the approach delineated in Exhibit 1 can be improved substantially. For instance, as the first noted weakness implies, the study could be expanded to also measure the importance of the various performance dimensions. Better yet, it could be focused more directly on identifying factors that divert previous Larry Miner customers to competing dealers.

The thumbnail sketch is not given much weight when calculating final grades, even though it is critical. It serves mainly to prepare students for developing the proposal, questionnaire, and report. Upon receiving their thumbnail-sketch grades, accompanied by comments on audio tape, students are encouraged to

refine their work and resubmit revisions for further feedback. Accordingly, the thumbnail sketches facilitate coaching via constructive criticism. Such coaching seems preferable to giving students only one chance to develop a coherent research approach and to providing so much guidance that little conceptual work is required of students.

EXHIBIT 1

Excerpts From an Illustrative Thumbnail Sketch

MANAGERIAL PROBLEM: Improve customer retention
RESEARCH PROBLEM: Identify obstacles to retention
RESEARCH APPROACH: We propose conducting a telephone survey of 500 previous Larry Miner customers. Respondents would be asked how satisfied they are with (1) the last car they bought from Larry Miner Ford, (2) the price they paid, (3) . . . Their answers would be recorded on a seven-point scale ranging from -3=very dissatisfied to +3=very satisfied. We would advise Larry Miner to work on improving factors under his control that received low average satisfaction ratings.
CRITICAL ASSUMPTIONS: (1) Customer satisfaction has a substantial impact of customer retention; (2) . . .
STRENGTHS: Straightforward research design.
WEAKNESSES: (1) Although improving anything that is not perfect might improve retention, this survey may not identify the most critical retention factors because it does not address how important the noted performance dimensions are to customers; (2) focusing exclusively on mean satisfaction ratings may obscure . . .

The thumbnail sketches induce students to think about research design early on and to refine their initial rudimentary ideas as their comprehension increases. They promote developing proficiency in designing studies and avert rushing past critical conceptual matters, which often is necessary if data are to be gathered and analyzed before the term ends. Moreover, they promote involvement by presenting students with a challenging puzzle to which they can find increasingly sophisticated solutions as they gain knowledge and insight.

The thumbnail sketches also bring catastrophic flaws in students' reasoning to light long before weighty assignments must be graded. For example, students commonly say they intend to study differences between two groups, such as loyal and disloyal customers, but design studies that entail surveying only one of the two groups.

Larry Miner, the owner of a local Ford car dealership, wants to improve customer loyalty, or retention. He has hired you to conduct a survey that will help him identify what he should do. He can provide names, addresses, and telephone numbers of customers since 1990. Ways of modifying and embellishing this rather simple scenario are discussed in a later section.

THE THUMBNAIL SKETCH

Given the problem scenario, each team is instructed to develop a thumbnail sketch of its intended research approach – a sketch that vividly conveys and justifies the underlying rationale. Teams are advised to proceed as follows:

1. Identify the managerial problem to be resolved.
2. Derive a corresponding research problem.
3. Envision several approaches to a survey that would provide insight into ways of resolving both the managerial problem and the research problem.
4. Choose the best approach, and explain its gist in a brief memorandum. Describe very clearly what you intend to do, delineate the key issues you intend to address, and substantiate that your approach makes good sense. The reader must be able to envision what you have in mind and must be convinced that your approach meshes with the research problem and would help resolve the managerial problem.

The aforementioned Larry Miner scenario served as the basis for an assignment a few years ago. Nowadays, it provides the backdrop for an illustrative thumbnail sketch, which is distributed in class and is shown in Exhibit 1.

Students are told that no research design is perfect and that practical designs always require researchers to make tradeoffs. However, the approach delineated in Exhibit 1 can be improved substantially. For instance, as the first noted weakness implies, the study could be expanded to also measure the importance of the various performance dimensions. Better yet, it could be focused more directly on identifying factors that divert previous Larry Miner customers to competing dealers.

The thumbnail sketch is not given much weight when calculating final grades, even though it is critical. It serves mainly to prepare students for developing the proposal, questionnaire, and report. Upon receiving their thumbnail-sketch grades, accompanied by comments on audio tape, students are encouraged to

refine their work and resubmit revisions for further feedback. Accordingly, the thumbnail sketches facilitate coaching via constructive criticism. Such coaching seems preferable to giving students only one chance to develop a coherent research approach and to providing so much guidance that little conceptual work is required of students.

EXHIBIT 1

Excerpts From an Illustrative Thumbnail Sketch

MANAGERIAL PROBLEM: Improve customer retention
RESEARCH PROBLEM: Identify obstacles to retention
RESEARCH APPROACH: We propose conducting a telephone survey of 500 previous Larry Miner customers. Respondents would be asked how satisfied they are with (1) the last car they bought from Larry Miner Ford, (2) the price they paid, (3) . . . Their answers would be recorded on a seven-point scale ranging from -3=very dissatisfied to +3=very satisfied. We would advise Larry Miner to work on improving factors under his control that received low average satisfaction ratings.
CRITICAL ASSUMPTIONS: (1) Customer satisfaction has a substantial impact of customer retention; (2) . . .
STRENGTHS: Straightforward research design.
WEAKNESSES: (1) Although improving anything that is not perfect might improve retention, this survey may not identify the most critical retention factors because it does not address how important the noted performance dimensions are to customers; (2) focusing exclusively on mean satisfaction ratings may obscure . . .

The thumbnail sketches induce students to think about research design early on and to refine their initial rudimentary ideas as their comprehension increases. They promote developing proficiency in designing studies and avert rushing past critical conceptual matters, which often is necessary if data are to be gathered and analyzed before the term ends. Moreover, they promote involvement by presenting students with a challenging puzzle to which they can find increasingly sophisticated solutions as they gain knowledge and insight.

The thumbnail sketches also bring catastrophic flaws in students' reasoning to light long before weighty assignments must be graded. For example, students commonly say they intend to study differences between two groups, such as loyal and disloyal customers, but design studies that entail surveying only one of the two groups.

THE RESEARCH PROPOSAL

The research proposal each team is required to write conforms closely to illustrative proposals found in many marketing and business research texts (e.g., Churchill 1999; Davis 2000; Zikmund 2000). Accordingly, the proposal must be preceded by a letter of transmittal and must address or enumerate (1) the purpose of the study, (2) the research rationale, (3) the focal issues to be investigated, (4) methodology, (5) the research schedule, (6) costs and pricing, and (7) the research team's qualifications. Contrary to advice offered in some textbooks, students are instructed to exclude questionnaires from their proposals for several reasons – e.g., proposals often do not include questionnaires because resources invested in developing questionnaires cannot be recovered if the proposal is rejected. Moreover, addressing questionnaire development after proposal development seems preferable from a pedagogical standpoint because it encourages students to formulate cogent, guiding research rationales before tackling details. It averts making research questionnaire-driven.

DUMMY TABLES

The second coaching exercise requires each team to submit one or more dummy tables that reflect the key issues noted in their proposals and show clearly how findings will be presented in the final research report (Zikmund 2000). Students are told that dummy tables must be congruent with the questionnaire they will develop, that questionnaires must consist mainly of scaled items rather than open-ended essay questions, and that roughing out a questionnaire in parallel with developing dummy tables is advisable. Dummy tables must show everything that the final tables will show, except numerical values. Accordingly, they must include descriptive titles, as well as row and column labels, explanatory footnotes, etc. Also, students must provide brief written explanations of what their tables are intended to show and how they relate to the research and managerial problems.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Each student or team of students is required to submit a questionnaire that consists predominantly of scaled items and is congruent with the dummy tables submitted earlier or with revised dummy tables, which must be submitted with the questionnaire. Pertinent instructions for interviewers, cover letters, and the like must be included.

THE (DUMMY) RESEARCH REPORT

The research report is conventional, except that results are fabricated. Accordingly, a letter of transmittal must accompany the report; and the report must have a proper cover page, a table of contents, an executive summary, and sections that address the purpose of the study, methodology, results, and recommendations. A questionnaire (the one submitted earlier or a modified version) must comprise one appendix. Optional appendices may present peripheral information.

Before students submit research reports, they will have developed dummy tables that imply analytical techniques and allude to structured questionnaire items. Students are asked to reevaluate their dummy tables and to revise them, if they wish, before they develop their reports. Once they are satisfied with their dummy tables, they must insert contrived values. Students are advised not to generate and analyze dummy data matrices, but merely to fabricate quantitative results that are plausible and congruent with their dummy tables, questionnaires, and chosen analytical techniques. For instance, they may present findings via contingency tables and corresponding chi-square tests, whose practical implications they must explain. They are advised that simple correct analyses are preferable to complex incorrect analyses and that their work will be graded accordingly.

MERITS AND DRAWBACKS OF DUMMY REPORTS

Several difficulties that commonly arise when term projects require students to gather actual data were noted in the introductory paragraphs of this article. Furthermore, results from statistical analyses of real data often are not readily interpretable by novice researchers, and having to conduct interviews over the telephone or in unsafe neighborhoods makes many students uncomfortable. Allowing students to fabricate results alleviates such difficulties and the temptation to cheat. In lieu of spending many hours conducting interviews and entering data, students can concentrate on the more challenging and more critical conceptual aspects of research, particularly planning projects, developing questionnaires, and choosing analytical techniques. Further, students can revise their thinking and corresponding manifestations (e.g., research rationales and questionnaires) until the final report is submitted. Allowing such flexibility seems preferable to forcing students to implement research designs and questionnaires that were designed before they gained a holistic understanding of pertinent subject matter.

The main drawback to fabricating results is that no actual statistical analyses are required. To fill that void, students are given homework that entails analyzing data using statistical packages available in the school's computer lab (e.g., Minitab or SPSS).

MODIFICATIONS AND EMBELLISHMENTS

The scenario structure can be altered in several ways that affect the five noted assignments and what students derive from them. For instance:

- Managerial issues to be resolved can be presented less directly than in the Larry Miner scenario so that students gain further experience in extracting researchable questions from clients' requests, which often are quite vague. Also, multiple issues can be embedded in the scenario so that students must design a more complex study or prioritize issues and develop defensible arguments for limiting the scope of the study.
- Issues can be embedded in the scenario that should be grounded in theory or empirical research reported in scholarly journals. For instance, if customer satisfaction is the key issue, then students may be required to develop research approaches, proposals, and reports that draw from recent customer satisfaction research (e.g., Jones and Sasser 1995; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1985; Reichheld 1996). Requiring background research serves to convey that even applied studies can benefit greatly from referring to pertinent streams of basic knowledge.

A NOTE ABOUT THE TOPIC SEQUENCE

I begin with an overview of the research process, the research proposal, and the research report. Once students have an idea of what they are expected to produce, I cover means. Statistical analysis is reviewed before questionnaire development is addressed to remind students that choices regarding levels of measurement, the types of samples selected, and so forth limit the statistical techniques that can be applied. Although it usually is inadvisable to choose a statistical technique and then design other aspects of a study accordingly, it also is inadvisable to develop questionnaires without giving forethought to ways of analyzing the data they produce.

A NOTE ABOUT FEEDBACK ON ASSIGNMENTS

Each team is required to submit an audio tape for feedback with each of the five noted assignments.

Providing recorded feedback seems more effective than scribbling comments directly on students' papers because, in a given amount of time, one can say much more than one can write.

REFERENCES

- Churchill, G. A. Jr. 1999. Marketing Research: Methodological Foundations. Fort Worth, TX: Dryden Press.
- Davis, D. (2000). Business Research. Pacific Grove, CA: Duxbury.
- Dommeyer, C. J. (1986). A Comparison of the Individual Proposal and the Team Project in the Marketing Research Course. *Journal of Marketing Education*. 8 (Spring): 30-38.
- Jones, T., and W. E. Sasser (1995). Why Satisfied Customers Defect. *Harvard Business Review*. 73 (November-December): 88-99.
- Prasuraman, A., V. A. Zeithaml, and L. L. Berry. 1985. A Conceptual Model of Service Quality and Its Implications for Future Research. *Journal of Marketing*. 49 (Fall): 41-50.
- Reichheld, F. (1996). Learning from Customer Defections. *Harvard Business Review*. 74 (March-April): 56-69.
- Valentin, E. K. 1993. Requiring Students to Gather Survey Data: An Exploratory Attitudinal Inquiry. In WMEA Proceedings, edited by H. Czepiec and G. L. Karns, 22-26.
- Zikmund, W. G. (2000). Exploring Marketing Research. Fort Worth, TX: Dryden Press.

THE 'VAGUELY' RIGHT WAY TO TEACH A PERSONAL SELLING COURSE

Kirby O. Jones, California State University, Sacramento, Sacramento, CA 95819-6088
Craig A. Kelley, California State University, Sacramento, Department of Management,
Sacramento, CA 95819-6088; (916) 278-7199

ABSTRACT

The personal selling course is an important part of the marketing curriculum. Furthermore, there are varied approaches to teaching the course. The purpose of this paper is to outline the process one instructor used to teach a personal selling course.

INTRODUCTION

The personal selling course provides students with an opportunity to gain an in-depth understanding of the promotional component of the marketing mix. Often positioned as skills course, it provides students with a working knowledge of the sales function and an ability to create and execute sales presentations. The personal selling course serves as an opportunity to explore an entry-level sales position for new marketing graduates (Bragg 1988; Thrasher and McNabb 1984) and it has been predicted that more business programs will add sales courses over the next decade (Heckman 1998).

In the fall of 1996 an immensely popular instructor of a personal selling course at the author's school passed away unexpectedly. His passing left the staffing of this important course up-in-the-air. One of the authors reluctantly volunteered to take on the assignment. Over time, however, the instructor embraced the opportunity to teach this extremely valuable course. The purpose of this paper is to outline the process used by the author/instructor to develop and teach a course in personal selling. The paper discusses how the course was modified over time. A major thrust of the paper is on the objectives, content, materials and requirements of the course.

INITIAL COURSE DESIGN

The first step the instructor took to design the personal selling course was to review how the deceased instructor had structured the course. This was not as easy a task since the previous instructor did not believe in distributing a printed syllabus. However, one of the main requirements of the course was that students keep a notebook in which they wrote verbatim everything that went on

in the class. Serendipity struck when one of the better student's notebooks was found when the deceased instructor's office was cleaned out.

Next, the instructor consulted the literature on teaching personal selling. Parker, Pettijohn and Luke (1996) reported sales representatives and sales professors differed somewhat in their view of what should be covered in a personal selling course. Sales professors ranked in descending order of importance the topics; presentation, objections, prospecting, pre-approach, closing, communication, relationship selling and follow-up. Sales representatives also ranked presentation first. However, they then ranked in descending order of importance communication, follow-up, time management, closing, prospecting, negotiating, and ethics. Both groups viewed role playing as the most important method that should be used to teach personal selling skills. Yet the two groups differed in their view of the importance of lecturing and the use of guest speakers. Sales professors rated lecturing nearly as important as role playing, whereas sales representatives ranked lecturing fifth behind role playing, guest speakers, projects and cases. Sales professors ranked guest speakers fourth behind role-playing, lecture and projects.

Using the information discussed above the instructor structured the course in the following way. Requirements included short papers and quizzes, a personal sales notebook, a videotaped sales presentation and an evaluation of six student presentations. The course utilized role playing exercises, lecture, and guest speakers.

COURSE MODIFICATIONS

Almost from the beginning the instructor started to modify the course. These modifications were driven by changes going on in industry. For example, in *Rethinking the Sales Force*, Rackham and De Vincentis (1999) argue the very nature of selling is undergoing a radical change. Their research suggests the salesforce of the future will have to create value for its customers, not just communicate value. If they are correct, professors teaching the personal selling course will need to adapt their pedagogues to reflect the new reality of

selling. More recently, the instructor decided to conduct a content analysis of the syllabi distributed at the Nineteenth American Marketing Association Faculty Consortium on Professional Selling and Sales Management (1999) to find out what other instructors are doing in the course.

Methodology

Nineteen personal selling course syllabi served as the sample for this study. Each syllabus was content analyzed (Weber 1985). The major components identified in the syllabi were course objectives, lecture topics and course requirements. Each of these components was broken into specific elements.

Course Objectives

Seventeen of the syllabi had stated course objectives. Most common among the stated objectives was an understanding of personal selling (n=14). The ability to apply those principles through skill building exercises was also a frequently cited objective (n=12). Other common objectives included understanding the role of personal selling in the marketing mix (n=8), enhancement of communication skills (n=6), knowledge of career opportunities in sales (n=6), understanding the role of sales management (n=2) and application of communication skills to non-selling situations (n=3).

Lecture Topics

Fifteen syllabi explicitly listed lecture topics. Like the course objectives, lecture topics most frequently covered were basic personal selling principles; prospecting and planning the sales call (n=11), elements of the sales presentation (n=12), trial closing and objection handling (n=9), negotiation (n=5) and closing and follow-up (n=11). Thirteen syllabi also included lectures on sales technique (SPIN selling, adaptive selling, relationship building, partnering, etc.). Communication principles (n=11) and buyer behavior (n=8) were frequently cited as lecture topics, as were ethical and legal issues (n=10), time and territory management (n=7), and sales careers (n=9). Among the less frequently listed lecture topics were increasing presentation effectiveness and product demonstration (n=4), selling to resellers (n=3), gathering product information (n=2) review and debriefing (n=2) and sales management functions (n=2). Lecture topics unique to individual syllabi included sales etiquette, selling yourself, handling difficult customers and decision-making models. Seven courses utilized guest speakers and five offered class web sites.

Course Requirements

Most of the course syllabi stated the requirement of active student involvement in the learning process. Eighteen syllabi indicated students were required to prepare and perform a sales presentation. Other student requirements included regular class attendance and discussion participation (n=15), in-class role playing exercise participation (n=12), sales script development (n=8) and peer evaluation reports (n=8). Students were generally required to take exams (n=14) and quizzes (n=7) and turn in written assignments (n=11). Other student activities included watching videos (n=4), doing research (n=3), writing book reports (n=2), creating resumes (n=2), utilizing computer simulations (n=2) and interacting with sales professionals (n=2).

ASSESSMENT

In today's university environment, a major consideration of any teaching selling course is assessment. Martin, Kimball and Bush (1998) provided a foundation for writing course objectives and assessment outcome measures or the personal selling course. Their study uses the SOCO Scale to measure whether students had achieved a customer orientation. Alternatively, the instructor uses Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives as the assessment tool (see Table 1).

DISCUSSION

The development and improvement of any course never really stops. If the trends identified by Rackham and De Vincentis (1999) continue into the future, the personal selling course will have to move away from merely teaching the process of selling and teach how to create value in varied selling situations. Yet the teaching of value was conspicuously absent from the syllabi examined in this study.

The impact of new technologies on the sales process (e.g., the Internet) is another topic that will require more coverage in the future. Sales students may come to think that the Internet is the end-all for getting every job done. However, just as a hammer or screwdriver is not always the right tool for every job, instructors of the personal selling course need to spend greater amounts of time covering when and where emerging technologies have the most effective and efficient use.

TABLE 1
BLOOM'S TAXONOMY, LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND TEACHING METHOD

| Bloom's Taxonomy | Course Learning Objective | Teaching Method |
|---|---|--|
| Evaluation - ability to create standards to judge a measure | -Differentiate between effective and ineffective sales presentations | -Evaluation of other students' presentation |
| Synthesis - moving beyond existing knowledge and providing new insights | -Create innovative solutions to real world selling situations | -Discussion of selling scenarios -Guest speakers |
| Analysis - solving problems by understanding relationships among elements of a model | -Demonstrate the ability to negotiate in a sale -Conduct a sales account analysis -Identify the elements of an effective sales producing web page | -Negotiation exercises, sales account analysis, techniques for using the Internet to facilitate transactional sales. |
| Application - discovery of association among concepts | -Develop listening skills -Demonstrate basic elements of the sales process | -Role play, script and videotape a sales presentation, prepare a sales notebook |
| Comprehension - transformation of data into different symbols | -Understand the selling of benefits with FAB -Uncover objections with trial close | -Short papers and class exercises |
| Basic Knowledge - retention of facts and definitions | -Know the career path in sales and sales management -learn the vocabulary of professional selling | -Sales notebook, quizzes, guest speakers |

CONCLUSION

Personal selling is an important component of the marketing mix. In addition, most students start their professional careers through an entry-level sales position. The intent of this paper was to present how one instructor approached the teaching of this important course.

REFERENCES

Bloom, B., et. al (ed). Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook I, Cognitive Domain. David McKay, New York, 1956.

Bragg, Arthur (1988), "Personal Selling Goes to College," Sales and Marketing Management, 140 (March), 35-37.

Heckman, James (1998), "Internet, Sales Force to Affect Higher Ed," Marketing News, (December 7), 9.

Martin, Gregory S., Bob Kimball and Ronald F. Bush (1998), "Evaluating the Success of Outcomes-Based Education at the course Level: A Unique Application of the SOCO Scale in "Professional Selling" Course," Marketing Education Review, 8 (Summer) 9-18.

Parker, R. Stephen, Charles E. Pettijohn and Robert H. Luke, (1996), "Sales Representatives and Sales Professors: A Comparative Analysis of Sales Training Perceptions, Topics and Pedagogy," Marketing Education Review, 6 (Fall), 41-50.

Rackham Neil and John De Vincentis, (1999), Rethinking the Sales Force: Redefining Selling to

Create Value and Capture Customer Value,
McGraw-Hill, New York.

Thrasher, Steven D. and David E. McNabb, (1984),
"Undergraduate Education for Careers in Sales,"
1984 Western Marketing Educators Association
Conference Proceedings, edited by Bruce J. Walker
and David L. Kurtz, 28-31.

Weber, Robert P. (1985), Basic Content Analysis,
Beverly Hills, CA, Sage Publications.

A COMMENT ON THIRD PARTY CERTIFICATION OF BUSINESS PROGRAMS

Craig A. Kelley, California State University, Sacramento, Department of Management, Sacramento, CA
95819-6088; (916) 278-7199

ABSTRACT

Much has been made of the implementation of the mission-driven AACSB accreditation standards in recent years. The experience of some schools with the process of initial AACSB accreditation or reaffirmation begs the question of whether the application of the standards has in fact changed. It is the purpose of this paper is to hopefully stimulate discussion on the potential impact, both positive and negative, that these standards may have on marketing programs.

INTRODUCTION

AACSB accreditation. Of the more than 2,400 collegiate business programs in the United States, only about 360 have achieved AACSB certification (www.aacsb.com). Each year business schools spend thousands of dollars to seek initial or reaffirm their accreditation. Is the money well spent? What are the true benefits and value of accreditation? Is the spirit of the AACSB standards being fully implemented by stating a school can define itself and then have a review team question its mission because it does not conform to a preconceived notion of what the team views a business school should look like? Are business schools blindly following other schools and trying to be something they cannot be given their fiscal and physical resources and mix of faculty? The experience of some business schools in that are seeking initial accreditation or reaffirmation under the new AACSB standards is causing some faculty to struggle with the answers to such questions. The purpose of this paper is to stimulate rationale debate on the entire issue of third party certification of business programs.

CONSUMER USE OF THIRD PARTY CERTIFICATION

AACSB accreditation may be considered a third party certification of an educational service. Questions at the heart of AACSB accreditation are whether consumers (i.e., employers of a business school's graduates) understand what AACSB certification means and believe the certification is an important determinate in the hiring a school's graduates. To begin to answer these questions a review of the literature related to third party certification and seals of approval is offered.

The research on the impact of seals of approval and third party certification have on purchase behavior has been mixed. Taylor (1958) reported that there was virtually no consumer benefit in the use of seals of approval. Parkinson (1975) found that although consumers highly regarded seals of approval, they tended to attribute far greater meaning to the presence of a seal of approval than was justified. Coney and Beltramini (1985) found the presence of an independent testing firm's seal enhanced believability of advertised research results, while Beltramini and Evans (1985) found simply mentioning a seal's sponsoring organization did not generate the same effect. Kamins and Marks (1991) reported third party certification had a positive effect on purchase intention for specific consumer segments. Beltramini and Stafford (1993) found consumers do not comprehend what is meant by a seal of approval and the presence of a seal of approval did not enhance the believability of ad claims.

Research that has investigated the impact of AACSB certification also has produced mixed results. Kim et al. (1996) found that under certain situations employers of accounting graduates may view AACSB accreditation as a market signal of a quality education. Englebrecht, Lyer and Patterson (1994) suggested there are positive effects for AACSB accredited school's graduates. However, several others have argued that AACSB standards negatively impact the quality of professional accounting education (Edney 1991; McGee 1991; Porter 1992; Slone and LaCava 1993).

The marketing education literature has seen its share of articles related AACSB accreditation. Most of them have assumed accreditation was something that should be pursued and focused on how to implement the AACSB standards. For example, Graeff (1998) specified a process for developing student learning objectives to meet AACSB outcomes assessment. Pharr and Morris (1997) investigated processes marketing departments could use to redesign their marketing curricula to meet AACSB guidelines regarding curriculum design. Marshall et al. (1996) examined the entire issue of how to install a quality improvement process in the marketing curriculum. However, there is a lack of research in the marketing literature on the impact AACSB accreditation has on employer decision-making regarding the hiring of

graduates from accredited and nonaccredited business schools.

MISSION-DRIVEN STANDARDS

It is difficult to argue that schools of business should adhere to a progressive set of standards that includes an effort to continuously improve? This is the foundation of the argument that AACSB accreditation is necessary to acquire and maintain. AACSB first set standards for collegiate business education in the United States in 1916. Its founding schools included New York University, Harvard, Columbia, Cornell, Dartmouth, Northwestern, Ohio State, Tulane, University of California-Berkeley, University of Chicago, University of Illinois, University of Nebraska, University of Pennsylvania, University of Pittsburgh, University of Texas, University of Wisconsin and Yale University. In April 1997, the membership of AACSB voted a change in the organization's name to the International Association for Management Education. AACSB has since accredited a few programs outside the United States.

In the 1980s criticism began to emerge concerning the timeliness and practicality of the AACSB standards. The Association of Collegiate Business Schools and Programs (ACBSP) was formed in part because some AACSB standards were out of date and had limited practical application (Brown 1989). Furthermore, companies such as Motorola and PepsiCo set up their own business schools because collegiate business schools, including AACSB accredited schools, were lagging in making changes to their curricula to reflect the modern business climate (*Economist* 1991). Therefore, AACSB in 1991 adopted a mission-linked set of standards and procedures. The idea was to mirror the concept of total quality management by having AACSB accreditation promote continuous quality improvement in collegiate schools of business.

The standards consist of major sections such as mission and objectives, intellectual contributions, faculty composition and development, curriculum content and evaluation, and students. A potentially controversial standard relates to currency in one's area of teaching responsibility (Standard FD.5). The lead dean reviewing the author's school for reaffirmation stated a Ph.D. indicated someone was current for only five years after they received their degree. What research supports a five year limit? Where is it written on a diploma that one's degree is only good for five years? Does not the fact that someone has 10, 15, 20 or more years of teaching under his or her belt count for anything? Perhaps

what this dean meant to communicate was a degree is not sufficient to be listed as academically qualified and current. Rather a combination of academic degree and 'additional' activities is required.

Continuous improvement is a criterion by which AACSB judges business schools to accredit. It is difficult to argue with this criterion. After all, what organization does not want to improve? However, two problems may arise from this criterion. First, industry has begun to reject TQM because of the difficulty in implementing it in the modern workplace. Second, the process of continuous improvement may yield incremental diminishing returns. To illustrate this point, suppose a faculty member teaches a new class. The second time the faculty member teaches the class there can be measurable improvements made. Even the third time the class is taught may produce significant improvement. However, there comes a point, the fourth, fifth or sixth time the course is taught, where the incremental improvement is not significant or measurable. If someone teaches a course over 10, 15 or 20 years, is it possible for them to reach perfection? Furthermore, how much real change occurs in marketing thought over time? An illustration of this point can be found a response by David Foard of the Harrow Business School in the United Kingdom to an Elmar (Electronic List of Marketing Academic Research) list question concerning the future of marketing faculty,

"I have been teaching marketing for the past 28 years and this kind of question has crossed the collective mind in this time! Apart from an infinite variety of 'specialists' carving out niches for themselves in substance during these years. If you attend conferences over a few years it is almost frightening how often the same ideas are represented in new words, or dressed differently whilst the fundamentals of customer centered service do not change. The language used to describe what is an essentially simple process become more peculiar, especially amongst US of A academics who seem to dream up descriptions to suit, whilst not adding significantly to the knowledge."

THE AACSB REVIEW TEAM

Review teams consist of deans from accredited institutions and a representative from a member company. This team reviews the school's self-

evaluation report prepared by the schools the year prior to the team's visit. The lead dean usually corresponds with the dean of the school being reviewed prior to the team visit. The team spends less than a week visiting the school. Given such a short visit and relying almost exclusively on a written report prepared by the applicant school, the team makes a recommendation to AACSB whether the school should receive AACSB accreditation, complete reaffirmation or be placed on continuing review. There is no appeal process. In essence, the applicant school must appease a very small number of people. Does this make sense? What if the reviewing deans have a positive or negative bias against the applicant school? Furthermore, where is it written that deans are necessarily the best judges of the mission of a school? And from where do these deans hail?

IS STANDARDIZATION POSSIBLE WHEN SCHOOLS ARE DIFFERENT?

AACSB states that "certain standards or portions of standards apply differently, depending on the various missions and objectives of different schools (AACSB 1994, p.2)." Can a standard be applied if schools define themselves differently? Does not the word 'standard' mean there is consistency in how it is applied? How many faculty attending the Western Marketing Educators' Association Conference can say their school looks anything like the schools on the annual ranking of the top 25 business schools in the U.S. by *Business Week*? Most likely very few can. AACSB would say that a school does not have to look like any of them. Each school must decide its own mission. But it is possible for a review team to evaluate an area such as intellectual contributions and not be influenced by what tier one schools require? It is a common sight at many second and third tier schools to have many faculty involved in developing one process after another to meet AACSB standards. Are the faculties at the top tier schools involved to the same degree? The answer is most likely no. Can one really believe high salaried faculty members at the Wharton School at the University of Pennsylvania or the Kellogg School at Northwestern University spend their time in seemingly endless meetings to generate processes for faculty development, curriculum assessment or intellectual contributions? If the application of standards to schools is not equal, how can anyone expect the standards be applied equally and uniformly?

TOWARDS A SOLUTION

What can marketing educators do to facilitate AACSB accreditation? First, since marketing is customer-focused, the emphasis should be on increasing employment opportunities for the school's graduates. Students are products and the objective of a business school should be to produce the best possible products possible given its resources. Marketing educators can take the lead in this endeavor. Second, marketing educators could apply pressure on deans to modify the AACSB accreditation process. Currently, the accreditation process involves peer review by only deans. Should not the review teams include faculty to make them truly peer review committees?

CONCLUSION

Undoubtedly there will be many faculty who will disagree with the questions and comments put forth in this paper. Seemly every regional or national marketing education conference or issue of the *Journal of Marketing Education* or *Marketing Education Review* contains articles on how to implement the AACSB standards. The intent of this paper is not to suggest that accreditation is not worthwhile. Rather, the purpose is to engage marketing faculty in a discussion of questions surrounding the merits of AACSB accreditation relative to the costs associated with acquiring and maintaining accreditation. It is possible that accreditation may not hold much meaning for many individual business programs in the United States as many may think.

REFERENCES

- AACSB (1994). Achieving Quality and Continuous Improvement Through Self-evaluation and Peer Review. (April 12), St. Louis, American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business.
- Beltramini, R. F. and K. R. Evans (1985). "Perceived Believability of Research Results Information in Advertising," Journal of Advertising, 17 (1), 18-24, 31.
- Beltramini, R. F. and E. R. Stafford (1993). "Comprehension and Perceived Believability of Seals of Approval Information in Advertising," Journal of Advertising, 22 (September), 3-14.
- Brown, D. (1989). "B-Schools and Built-in Obsolescence," Management Review, 78 (October), 8-10.

Coney, K. A. and R. F. Beltramini (1985). "Believability in Advertising: The 'Too Good to be True' Phenomenon" AMA Winter Educators' Proceedings, 135-139.

Edney, R. K. (1991). "Is the Accounting Profession Facing Brain Drain?" Practical Accountant, 24 (January), 74-80.

Englebrecht, T. D., G. S. Lyer and D. M. Patterson (1994). "An empirical Investigation of the Publication Productivity of Promoted Accounting Faculty," Accounting Horizons, 8 (March), 45-68.

Economist (1991). "MBAiling: Have Business Schools Lost Touch with Business?" 319 (April 20), 13.

David Foard October 14, 1998, Elmar list response.

Graeff, T. R. (1998). "Writing Behavioral Learning Objectives for Marketing Courses: Meeting the Challenge of AACSB Outcomes Assessment," Marketing Education Review, 8 (Spring), 13-26.

Kamins, M. A. and L. J. Marks (1991). "The Perception of Kosher as a Third-Party Certification Claim and Advertising for Familiar and Unfamiliar Brands," Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 19 (3), 177-185.

Kim, K., et al. (1996). "AACSB Accreditation: A Positive Signal in Accounting Job Markets," Mid-Atlantic Journal of Business, 32 (June), 123-135.

McGee, R. W. (1991). "Break up the Accounting Education Monopoly," Financial & Accounting Systems, 7 (Spring), 54-63.

Marshall, G. W., F. G. Lassk, K. N. Kennedy and J. R. Goolsby (1996). "Integrating Quality Improvement Tenets into the Marketing Curriculum," Journal of Marketing Education, 18 (Summer), 28-38.

Pharr, S. and L. J. Morris (1997). "The Fourth Generation Marketing Curriculum: Meeting AACSB's Guidelines," Journal of Marketing Education, 19 (Fall), 31-43.

Parkinson, T. L. (1975). "The Role of Seals and Certifications of Approval in Consumer Decision-Making," Journal of Consumer Affairs, 9 (Summer), 1-14.

Porter, G. L. (1992). "Professional Accounting Education-Back to the Future?" Management Accounting, 73, 63-64.

Reingold, J. (1998). "The Best B Schools," Business Week, (October 19), 87-92.

Slone, R. R. and J. LaCava (1993). "Responding to the New B-School Challenges: An In-process Observation," Journal of Organizational Management, 6, 64-71.

Taylor, D. A. (1958). "Certification Marks - Success or Failure," Journal of Marketing, 22 (1), 39-46.

ASSESSMENT ISSUES IN MARKETING EDUCATION

Steven W. Hartley, Daniels College of Business, University of Denver
Denver, CO 80208; (303) 871-2144

James Cross, College of Business, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
Las Vegas, NV 89014; (702) 895-3176

William Rudelius, Graduate School of Business, St. Thomas University
Minneapolis, MN 55403; (651) 962-4268

ABSTRACT

Changes in business curricula, legislative, and accreditation pressures, and new educational technologies have contributed to a growing interest in educational assessment. Many students, employers, and educators believe better measures of today's learning activities are needed. To address the concern this paper provides (a) a rationale for assessment, (b) a review of assessment alternatives, (c) a process for assessment improvement, and (d) a discussion of assessment program implementation issues.

INTRODUCTION

Assessment has become one of the key challenges of the future for marketing educators. Many of the discipline's constituents have called for reform in traditional methods of outcome measurement and assessment. Students, for example, argue that testing may focus on isolated knowledge and skills at the end of a learning cycle rather than an aggregate level of expertise. Employers suggest that many forms of assessment may not be good indicators of critical thinking skills or situational performance. Instructors acknowledge that the wide variety of learning activities in today's educational environment is not adequately represented by traditional assessment methods. Finally, administrators, career counselors, regulators, and parents are beginning to demand convincing evidence of claims related to the quality of educational programs.

While educational assessment is a familiar topic at many educational levels (e.g. elementary, middle, and high school) and in many disciplines (e.g., English, mathematics, etc.) it is less developed in higher education and in marketing. Observers have acknowledged the difficulty of managing change in higher education where the graduate education process creates "traditions" that are difficult to overcome (Murray 1995). Further, the marketing discipline is characterized by several unique attributes (e.g. its multiple and competing constituents) and rapid change which make direct application of existing literature difficult. The purpose of this paper is to provide a rationale for assessment, review traditional and contemporary options for

assessment, describe possible goals of marketing education assessment alternatives, and provide a framework for implementing new or revised assessment programs.

RATIONALE FOR ASSESSMENT

Several factors have contributed to the growing interest in and importance of assessment including curriculum changes, legislative mandates and accreditation guidelines, and new educational technologies. Each of these factors is discussed below.

Curriculum Change

During the past ten years many business programs have made significant changes to courses and programs. 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 a broader, integrated perspective. New sequences of courses, new courses which cover content from several functional areas, team-teaching formats, and emphasis on communication, teamwork and problem-solving are just a few examples of the curriculum changes many schools have implemented. The assessment procedures used prior to the curriculum changes have often been continued in the new curriculum, or supplemented with a few new assessment tools. In general, however, educators have been faced with the problem of demonstrating that curriculum changes have led to improved learning outcomes.

Legislative Mandates and Accreditation Guidelines

In recent years many programs have received legislative mandates for educational assessment. In addition, the AACSB has taken an increasingly visible role in providing guidelines for the development of assessment programs. The difficulty of such efforts, however, has been acknowledged for over a decade:

Devising reasonable, professionally responsible measures of educational outcomes is a complex process, and the complexity derives from several features of higher education. Benefits from the "products" that universities produce -

education and research – necessarily occur over the long term. On the other hand, many quantitative measurements of educational outcomes (e.g., enrollment figures, research products and performance of students on standardized tests) provide short-term measures of success. Furthermore, higher education strives to satisfy the interests of multiple constituencies – students, alumni, employers, private and public sponsors, and more general societal needs. This complication notwithstanding, goal setting and outcome assessment help business schools address serious challenges facing them. (AACSB 1989)

Some institutions have responded by beginning quality assessment efforts (Newton 1999). With the urging of legislative groups and AACSB, educational institutions must now plan for assessment improvements.

New Educational Technologies

Advances in educational technology have also increased the need for assessment reform. New media, combinations of many media options, distance learning, electronic access and interactivity, and other technological advances create many new opportunities for educators and raise a variety of important questions. Do the new technologies improve the learning experience? How can institutions demonstrate the benefits of educational technology initiatives? New forms of assessment must evolve with the advances in content and delivery facilitated by technology. As one author observed "given the rapid pace and pervasiveness of technological change, some rationale is needed to guide proposed enhancements in higher education assessment, as well as in higher education itself, to minimize haphazard and trial-and-error responses (Messick 1999)."

ASSESSMENT ALTERNATIVES

The many assessment alternatives can be described as measures of three attributes – knowledge, skills, and personal characteristics. Traditional measures have often focused on the acquisition of knowledge or information about a functional area (e.g. marketing) or a specialized topic within the area (e.g. consumer behavior). Assessment efforts have also begun to acknowledge the important of demonstrating skills such as verbal communication, computer, or interpersonal skills. Finally, while measures of some personal characteristics such as empathy, leadership, and integrity have been developed, they have not generally been adapted to demonstrate the impact of educational activities.

Assessment methods also differ in terms of dimensions such as reliability, validity, cost, and ease of administration. Methods designed to assess knowledge, for example, are likely to be more reliable than methods intended to assess skills or – performance-based activities (Palomba and Banta 1999). Similarly, the validity of assessment alternatives may vary with the many different attributes they may be intended to measure. Costs may vary from inexpensive course-related tests to expensive commercial instruments. Of course, there are also opportunity costs related to the use of faculty time. Finally, some assessment methods are more difficult to administer because they require significant interpretation efforts (e.g. case studies).

Overall there are many available methods for use. Traditional methods include written and oral tests. Other measures in use include presentations, case studies, and simulations. Various methods of collecting information such as mail and telephone surveys, personal interviews, focus groups, and panels have been used. In some cases self-ratings from the student might be used. When multiple methods are used they can be combined in a portfolio to facilitate presentation and to allow comparisons of methods that may assess the same attribute.

THE MARKETING ASSESSMENT PROCESS

The most fundamental goal in any assessment plan is to guide the process of improvement. Assessment can assist in the process of learning, determine what learning has occurred, and provide evidence regarding the success of course or program (Yorke 1998). The only way to demonstrate improvement is to conduct some type of assessment of students, courses, instructors, or programs. Several authors have described the processes that institutions have used to manage their assessment plan. For example, Bush and Sjolander (1996) describe a two-step assessment process. First, objectives are set, and then measures are developed to ascertain whether they are being met. Ahmadi, et. al. (1999) describe how this process proceeded at their institution. The authors emphasize the need to link the school's mission statement with assessment procedures.

Based on this limited literature, we propose a four-step process to improve marketing education assessment (see Figure 1). The first step in the process is to specify educational or learning objectives. Faculty and other stakeholders should be involved at this state of the process. The result is a list of objectives that most stakeholders agree are important. Step two requires identification of assessment alternatives that can be utilized. If

availability of resources reduces the likelihood of using particular assessment methods they should not be included as an option. The third step involves matching each educational objective with specific assessment methods. Table 1 provides preliminary lists of educational objectives and assessment options (adapted from Borin and Watkins 1998; Palomba and Banta 1999). The matching process may be simple or complex depending on the number of selection criteria applied to each of the assessment options. Once choices are made, implementation (step 4) can begin.

FIGURE 1

Assessment Improvement Process

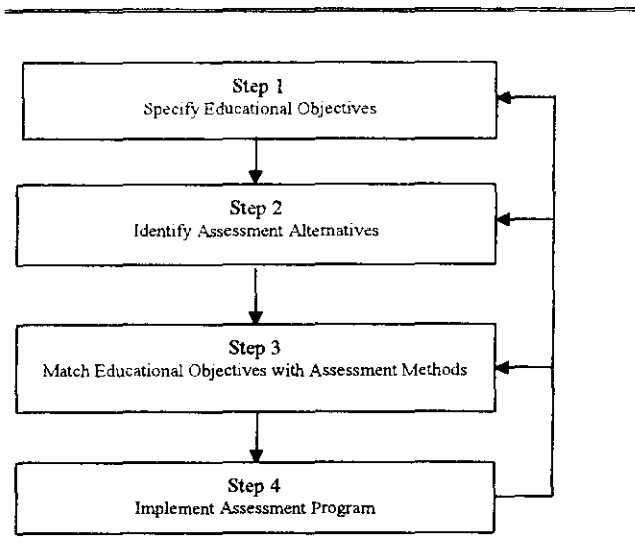


TABLE 1

Educational Objectives and Assessment Alternatives

| Educational Objectives | Assessment Alternatives |
|--|---|
| Knowledge <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subject area expertise • Theoretical understanding • Foreign language | Exams <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local/national • Written/oral |
| Skills, Abilities, Experiences <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verbal communication skills • Problem solving skills • Ability to organize • Ability to work independently/ in teams • Practical work experience • Investment in community activities | Direct Performance Assessments <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oral presentations • Projects • Demonstrations • Case studies • Simulations • Portfolios • Outside panels • Licensure/professional exams |
| Personal Characteristics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivation • Ambition • Self-discipline • Leadership • Creativity | Indirect Performance Assessments <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Questionnaire (mail or telephone) • Interview • Focus groups |

ASSESSMENT IMPLEMENTATION ISSUES

Attention to and management of several implementation issues increases the likelihood of a successful assessment program. Faculty support, a systematic process, and appropriate data collection strategies are three key issues discussed below.

Faculty Support

Wolff and Harris (1994) describe an evolutionary process that institutions may go through when setting up an assessment plan. It is similar to the notion of a product life cycle. The first stage is *denial*. Faculty resist the notion of assessment and hope that it quickly passes away. *Resistance* is the second stage. Here, the faculty vigorously dig in their heels to protect turf and avoid the process of assessment. In the *understanding* stage, the faculty develops a plan that fits the needs of their college and department. *Institutionalization* is the stage in which assessment becomes a permanent activity and is fine tuned.

To overcome the denial and resistance phases, faculty must be convinced that assessment is important, valuable, and enduring. Wehlburg (1999) suggest starting small with modest goals. Initially, a pilot study or shakedown of the process may be in order. This would help faculty in the department or college become familiar with the issues and procedures. There will likely be some glitches, allowing problems to be identified and the methods refined. During this part of the process, other stakeholder groups could be involved. Data or opinions from alumni, employers, students, and faculty from other areas of the university might be collected.

A Systematic Process

Thoughtful use of the process described in Figure 1 will allow consideration of sets of assessment methods that address specific problems. Appropriate alternative methods could include standardized tests, cases, and videos of presentations. To make the process as seamless as possible, there should be long lead times for faculty to build these assignments into the curriculum. This planning process can reduce duplicate grading. Ideally, the assessment will be done on assignments, which are already scheduled to be graded. If new forms of assessment are utilized, the issues of managing them must be addressed. If portfolios are selected, for example, how are students informed of the process? Will sampling of portfolios be done and based on what criteria? Who will grade the portfolios? Obviously, the assessment process should lead to improvement. That's the real reason for the project.

The plan should allow for the assessment of the assessment plan itself. Is it working? What recommendations for curriculum changes have been made? Are there quantitative improvements on the outcomes in question? AACSB is very insistent that something be done with assessment results to foster continuous improvement.

Appropriate Data Collection

Once an assessment method is selected there are usually a variety of questions related to data collection. For example, at what level – institution, program, course, or individual – will data be collected? Will the data be used for cross-sectional comparisons (different groups/same point in time), longitudinal comparisons (same group/different points in time), or simply as a descriptive assessment (single group/one point in time)? Who is eligible for assessment, and are they required or invited to participate? Will all eligible participants be included or will a sample be selected? If a sample is used, how is it selected and what is the necessary sample size? Finally, what is the appropriate timing of the assessment (Brown 1999)?

CONCLUSION

This paper has reviewed the rationale for assessment in colleges of business and marketing departments. It is timely, relevant, and compelling initiative supported by a wide variety of constituents. There are many goals in assessment, but, simplistically, it reduces to whether improvement is taking place. A variety of approaches have been used in the past, and many new forms of assessment are evolving. All of them appear to have possible benefits for marketing academics. A systematic process for improving assessment program suggests that it is important to identify educational goals and assessment alternatives and them to match them by considering relevant criteria such as validity, reliability, and cost. Several implementation problems are likely to occur as the process goes forward. One particular recommendation is to start small and perhaps use a pilot study to get the process off the ground. Overall, assessment is an area with significant potential to impact the marketing discipline, and to facilitate the continuous improvement of its educational programs.

REFERENCES

AACSB (1989). Report of the AACSB Task Force on Outcome Measurement. June. St. Louis, MO.

Ahmadi, Hamid, H. Blake, Jr., C. A. Kelley, and R. T. Laurence (1999). An Assessment Process to Link Mission-Goals with Learning Outcome Objectives to Satisfy AACSB Standards. Proceedings of the Western Marketing Educators' Association. 116.

Borin, Norm, H. Watkins (1998). Employers Evaluate Critical Skills of Today's Marketing Undergrads. Marketing Educator. 17 (3): 1, 6.

Brown, Sally (1999). Assessing Practice. Assessment Matters in Higher Education. Sally Brown and Angela Glasner, ed. Society for Research into Higher Education.

Bush, R.R., and R.J. Sjolander (1996). Outcome-Based Education is Here: Are You Ready?. Marketing News. 15 (January): 1.

Hill, Ronald Paul (1997). The Future of Business Education's Functional Areas. Marketing Educator. 16 (1): 1, 7.

Messick, Samuel (1999). Technology and the Future of Higher Education Assessment. Assessment in Higher Education. LEA Publishers: Hahwah, NJ.

Michaelsen, Larry K. (1999). Integrating the Core Business Curriculum: An Experience-Based Solution. Selections. 15 (2): 9-17.

Murray, John P. (1995). Successful Faculty Development: The Complete Teaching Portfolio. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 8. Washington, D.C.: The George Washington University.

Newton, Jethro (1999). An Evaluation of the Impact of External Quality Monitoring on a Higher Education College. Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education. 24 (2): 21.

Palomba, Catherine A. and T. W. Banta (1999). Assessment Essentials: Planning, Implementing, and Improving Assessment in Higher Education. Jossey-Bass Publishers: San Francisco.

Wehlberg, C. (1999). How to Get the Ball Rolling: Beginning Assessment Program on Your Campus. AAHE Bulletin. 51 (9): 7-9.

Wolff, Ralph and O. Harris (1994). Changing College Classrooms: New Teaching and Learning Strategies for an Increasingly Complex World.

Yorke, Mantz (1998). The Management of Assessment in Higher Education. Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education. 23 (2): 10.

WMEA, & STUDENT OUTCOMES ASSESSMENT UNDER AACSB

Norton E. Marks, California State University, San Bernardino, Department of Marketing,
San Bernardino, CA 92407. 909-880-5778. NMarks@CSUSB.edu

James 'Bim' Beckman, Beckman Analytics International, Lake Arrowhead, CA 92352-
1753, & LaSierra College, Riverside, CA 92515. 909-274-7117. BimBhappy@AOL.com
Trent Lacey, Business Student, California State University, San Bernardino.

ABSTRACT

As the AACSB in the 1990's has promoted various avenues to improve student preparation for the business world, marketing educators have found themselves in a dual position. The first issue has been how to respond to the various initiatives from the AACSB, including outcomes' assessment from student coursework. The second follows, as to how AACSB members may be both efficient and effective in promulgating its agenda. The second is important if students will be held in traditional curricula, as opposed to distance and organizational ("adult") learning, neither of which may competitively suggest accreditation. However, these AACSB standards could apply in such nontraditional settings.

INTRODUCTION

The Western Marketing Educators Association consists of one or more marketing educators from approximately 200 institutions of higher learning, principally in the Western United States. Of these, about 87 institutions are currently accredited by the American Assembly of Colleges and Schools of Business--The International Association for Management (AACSB). The AACSB is the only business accrediting organization certified by the U.S. Commission on Recognition of Post-Secondary Accreditation, and serves a similar role globally according to its website, <AACSB.edu> (AACSB 1999).

Membership in AACSB includes about 670 U.S. educational institutions, 140 international educational institutions, and 60 business, government and nonprofit organizations. Approximately 355 U.S. educational institutions are accredited as business schools, and 15 international institutions are. The 670 U.S. members provide 85% of the business and management degrees in this country, while those institutions which are accredited in this country produce about 55% of the business and management degrees in America, annually. The AACSB website is one source for this information, and contains much more data. Just as about 53% of the U.S. AACSB

educational membership is accredited, so nearly 43% of the WMEA membership is AACSB accredited. The lower percentage of accreditation for WMEA is obviously connected to the number of junior colleges associated with WMEA.

PERFORMANCE STANDARDS

The AACSB 1995 Manual lists the following categories of Standards, for those institutions which desire accreditation: Preconditions, Mission and Objectives; Faculty Composition and Development; Curriculum Content and Evaluation; Instructional Resources and Responsibilities; Students; and Intellectual Contributions. Quite humanely, AACSB provides for self-evaluation in each of these categories, in advance of formal visitation. However, even if an institution is not actively seeking accreditation, such standards have an important currency in providing guidance to motivated educators.

The question undertaken by the investigators was to what extent were the standards in one of the above areas known to, and responded to, by members of the Western Marketing Educators Association. Specifically, we inquired about the Outcomes Assessment of Curriculum Content. Questionnaires were sent to nearly all members of WMEA, as their names appeared in the 1998-99 Membership Directory, during July 1999. Responses were received from individuals representing 51 educational institutions, approximately 25% of WMEA membership. In addition, personal discussions were held by telephone or email with 16 of the 51 institutions.

Questionnaire Results

Of usable answers, 44 of the institutions responding were public and 7 were private. The same number (44) were 4 year, as opposed to 5 which were given as 2 year. More than half of the institutions (27) had separate marketing departments. The number of full time equivalent instructors ran from 1/2 to 33. Respondents were asked about learning outcomes in four courses: principles, market research, consumer

behavior, and marketing capstone. Analysis indicated a surprising range of assessments.

At least four kinds of assessment were being used or being considered by WMEA members across the 51 responding institutions. First, there were measurements of individual learning within a group, such as examinations for a course or for an advancing cohort of, say, juniors in marketing. These, of course, were scored by assigned instructors and school graders. Second, there were measurements of professional competence, as with group marketing plan presentations (witnessed by the instructor), or as attested to by employees and employers after graduation. Third, there were the "charm school" (like-dislike) evaluations of courses and instructors by students at the completion of particular learning experiences. Fourth, there were evaluations—sometimes by students, but usually by faculty—of how well student and worker performance (the first and second categories) were meeting the self-proclaimed mission of instruction in business schools.

What are some of the social forces and ideas driving these various modes of assessment?

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

Wright, Bitner and Zeithaml (1994) discuss a shift from the teaching of marketing to the learning of marketing. This appears to be a shift in emphasis from course knowledge (first category, above) to professional competence (second category, above). Professional competence closely correlates with experiential learning, as was witnessed in WMEA's recent meetings in Palm Springs (1999). In our opinion experiential learning is doubly important, because it purports to be useful and because it is usually impactful (and therefore well learned). Those courses which attempt to provide such professional competence, often by the use of experiential learning, are open subsequently to favorable evaluation by students when they become workers, and by their employers.

Ahmadi, Blake, Kelley and Takeuchi (1999) are concerned about the linkage of learning to organizational mission. For their institution (CalState, Sacramento) one goal is: "Graduate students with a strong, modern foundation in business knowledge, skills, and values that prepares them to adapt successfully to the professional world." If the test here is a test of professional competence as observed in the second category, above, then the logic would seem to be how well such a mission is supported by group presentations and/or employee performance. The

AACSB encourages business institutions to establish such mission statements, and then to endeavor to have performance by faculty and students measured against these statements (AACSB 1995). This would be assessment #4, above.

TWO-STAGED PROCESS

Bush and Sjolander (1996) focus upon outcomes-based measures as a two-staged process to establish goals of particular knowledge and skills, and then to create instruments to provide these measures. Hill and Herche (1999) note that these measures face a challenge when experiential teaching is tossed into the classroom mix. We note that as long as success and satisfaction in business, subject to ethical standards obviously, is the principle lodestone, then at least we know what we want to measure.

The emerging dominant model of assessment seems headed towards student, employer and academic evaluation of the success of the learning process in marketing. The model thus becomes: useful knowledge, well learned + social and communications skills, well demonstrated = high probability of personal satisfaction in business + high evaluations by employee/former student.

Aside from the matter of what we want to measure about student knowledge and business performance, we have the third category, above, of like-dislike evaluations of instructors and courses. The salient question seems to be the relevance of such evaluations to learning outcomes. Of course, for those schools competing for students, this third measure possibly offers a guide for instructor and course selection.

Thus, the range of responses for Outcomes Assessment for all four targeted courses included all of the issues we discussed: marketing knowledge, professional preparation, satisfaction of students with instructors and material, and achieving business school missions.

MISSING RESPONSES

Even more significant in our estimation, however, was the absence in most responses of any discernible Curriculum or Student Outcomes Assessment. For principles courses, only 17 schools had at least one of the four techniques of Outcomes Assessment. For marketing research, there were 7 schools with at least one technique. For consumer behavior there were 9 schools, and for the capstone course in

marketing there were 14 schools using at least one technique of Curriculum or Student Outcomes Assessment.

ADMINISTRATORS' RESPONSES

Discussions with departmental chairs, and deans, indicate that indeed there are assessment techniques in place of which some of our respondents were unaware. Assuming the correctness of these statements, then most elementary management theory is being violated by not informing other managers (that is, faculty). There were 17 respondents who said that work was being done to put some assessment tools in place soon. Perhaps in a few years almost all WMEA institutions will be using a variety of assessment devices, for curricula and professional performance thereafter.

PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCE AS GOAL

From our experience, including this project, there is a hint that instruction has become more focused upon professional competence in many institutions. Job-useful knowledge seems more significant. Professional competence seems more important, with group projects and presentations demonstrating useful knowledge and skills. Even input from local businesses seems more relevant, whether by instructors seeking jobsite visits or by students going to firms to provide some type of marketing audit.

The final question of the survey was a request for general comments on outcomes' assessment. Most respondents indicated that more was needed, but did not really point out a direction. It is our sense that uncertainty exists as to whether marketing educators should be most concerned with educational or with professional outcomes. If the former, then we must consider what educational outcomes we desire, via instruction and testing. If the latter, then professors must consult with employers, and students who have become fulltime employees. While time-consuming, it is certainly not a difficult matter for marketing instructors to interact with the business world. It will, however, mean that many a syllabus will have to be modified if we desire certain professional outcomes.

STRATEGIC PLANNING FOR OUTCOME ASSESSMENT IN PLANNING

At least three issues seem paramount to us. First, AACSB needs to provide examples of various Outcomes Assessment techniques. These should obvi-

ously deal with at least three of the options given--course knowledge, professional preparation, mission satisfaction--and perhaps instructor/course evaluations. This AACSB seems to be doing currently, whatever the level of awareness among instructors. In addition, we have spoken with several marketing department chairs who indicate they are a part of 'model' programs. We certainly hope they will share with us shortly the results of their experimentation!

Second, whatever the assessment tools are, they should be made available to all faculty on-line. The AACSB website is certainly a suitable venue. Go to their <AACSB.edu> for insight on goals, and some techniques for achieving these.

Third, is the matter of governance in academia. For anyone who examines the management of profit and nonprofit businesses, the independence of many tenured faculty is a bit overwhelming. Some in political science have compared it to the U.S. Senate. Ours is not to suggest a change in the tenure system! Rather, it is to acknowledge that many senior faculty may not actively pursue such Outcomes Assessment, whether it is a personal matter of impending retirement, of disinterest, or whatever. Consequently, if the specific models are offered as "for examples" by AACSB, and if this information is immediately available on the internet, others in marketing departments may push the process forward, and perhaps shame recalcitrants into grudgingly following.

In his April address to the AACSB at its annual meetings in Atlanta (1999), President-Elect Robert Taylor of the University of Louisville responded to member requests by indicating that the benchmarking of educational outcomes would be one of his major initiatives. As if to respond to recalcitrance by some faculty in actively pursuing assessment outcomes, another of Dean Taylor's initiatives is to deal with eroding corporate support for the AACSB.

The implication here is that many corporate trainers feel that the AACSB is not as relevant today for the requirements of corporate performance. In other words, for corporate trainers the assessment of student performance is important as it relates to eventual job performance. Without such connections, and strong correlation seen between curriculum and job performance, the MBA and BS/BM degrees for example may begin to wither in favor for training offered by corporations using both their own staff and other private firms, whether utilizing a live or distance learning model.

Another option offered by employers could be to reduce salary bonuses given to newly minted MBA's and baccalaureate holders, in favor of supporting them in the pursuit of part-time degree programs at institutions such as the Universities of Phoenix, Redlands or Northrop, after these employees have demonstrated solid worth to the employer.

It might be circumspect for some marketers to examine the November 1, 1999 issue of The Industry Standard. In it we are informed of the on-line educational plans of Harvard and Wharton (among others) (1999) with Pensare.com, and of Columbia, Chicago, Stanford and London School of Economics (among others) with Unext.com. Aside from any first mover advantages, the national and international reputations and access to investors of such schools are to say the least, "interesting".

REFERENCES

AACSB (1999). President-Elect's Speech. Proceedings of Annual Meeting, Atlanta. St Louis: AACSB.

AACSB (1999). Website. <AACSB.edu>.

AACSB (1995). Standards for Business Accreditation. St Louise: AACSB.

Ahmadi, Hamid, Herbert Blake, Jr, Craig A. Kelley, & Laurence R. Takeuchi (1999). An Assessment Process to Link Mission-Goals with Learning Outcome Objectives to Satisfy AACSB Standards. Proceedings of Western Marketing Educators' Association Conference, Palm Springs.

Bush, R R., & R.J. Sjolander (1996). Outcomes-Based Education is Here. Are you Ready? Marketing News. 15(January).

Hill, Mark E., & Joel Herche (1999). Teaching Effectiveness: Conceptualization & Domain Assessment. Proceedings of Western Marketing Educators' Association Conference, Palm Springs.

WMEA (1999). Various papers dealing with computer- and/or internet-based instruction. Proceedings of Western Marketing Educators' Association Conference, Palm Springs.

Woody, Todd (1999). Ivy Online. The Industry Standard. 1 Nov.

Wright, L.K., M.J. Bitner, & V.A. Zeithami (1994). Using Active Learning to Deliver Services Marketing Content. Journal of Marketing Education. 16(Fall).

CROSS-CULTURAL VIGNETTES ON MARKETING AND THEIR IMPACT ON MARKETING EDUCATION

Chair: Leonardo R. Garcia, Jr., De La Salle University

Cross-Cultural Retailing Vignettes Mary Julie B. Tanada, De La Salle University

Retailing is one of the largest sectors in global economy. It is also facing tremendous growth and is growing through dramatic change. Innovative retail concepts are emerging and consumers are more knowledgeable and demanding better value and customer service.

In a book entitled *Predatory Marketing* by C. Britt Beewer (1997), a research was done that lists the top 10 shopping dislikes of men and women. This is of course shopping in America. The proponent conducted the same research in the Philippines. This is to compare and contrast retailing attitude and behavior. This is key in further improving the services of retailers which is crucial. Retailers have to ensure that consumers continue to find shopping enjoyable. Aside from this, the retail structure of the United States will be compared to the retail structure of the Philippines. This will be a good cross-cultural input to professors who can use this information for their marketing classes particularly retailing.

Cross-Cultural Vignettes on Global Brands as They are Advertised in Asia Leonardo R. Garcia Jr., De La Salle University

Global brands proliferate in Asia. Most of them are dominant market leaders or market challengers, while some local brands suffer in comparison in terms of sales and brand awareness. Similarly, advertising campaigns dominate the local scene and are either adopted locally or at times, the international campaign is even used with very minor editing on copy.

In the Philippines, considering the fact that most US brands are highly accepted, many ad campaigns of global brands are playing a major role in the leadership of the brand in the marketplace. Similarly, markets like Singapore, Hong Kong, Australia, New

Zealand, Thailand, and the like are advertising global brands by being "glocal"; that is, being global and local at the same time. Advertising global brands in Asia has a great impact on marketing students who are interested to learn about cross-cultural marketing practices. Various vignettes on advertising in Asia will not only provide meaningful insights to marketing students but will re-define the nature of marketing education in contemporary society.

East Meets West Online: A Cross- Cultural Project in the Net Luz Suplico, De La Salle University

The global classroom has used the internet as an educational tool. In International Marketing classes, the internet has been frequently used to develop a country notebook; a major student project which identifies the cultural and environmental factors affecting one's marketing strategy in trading with a foreign country. It has also been used in cross-cultural projects. One such project involved international marketing students in the Philippines and in the US. To facilitate interaction, the students formed groups of about five each and were paired with their foreign counterparts. A Cyber Board was set up to allow students to exchange views on various issues ranging from personal introductions and cultural issues to the products which they planned to export.

While the Cyber Board allowed students to communicate with each other in spite of time differences, American and Filipino students also communicated by E-mail. In some cases, students chatted online with their counterparts. These cross-cultural experiences provided students the international exposure, which they would not have other experienced in a traditional classroom atmosphere.

SPECIAL SESSION ON ROLE PLAYING IN THE CLASSROOM

Chair: Judith Hennessey, California State University Northridge, Department of Marketing, 18111 Nordhoff Street, Northridge, CA 91330-8377; (818) 677-2458

Participants: William W. Brown, Deborah Cours, Oscar W. DeShields, Deborah Heisley, and Melanie Stallings Williams, California State University Northridge, College of Business Administration and Economics, 18111 Nordhoff Street, Northridge CA 91330-8245; (818) 677-2458

This session presents several examples of the use of role playing in the classroom. Two of the papers illustrate student role-playing exercises used to teach management skills. The other paper highlights the use of performance science as a way of presenting research and as a way of teaching students how to engage in interpretative research.

**Marketing Beer to Hispanics:
An Interdisciplinary Classroom Simulation**
Deborah Cours, Melanie Stallings Williams,
William W. Brown, and Judith Hennessey

These presenters discuss an interdisciplinary classroom simulation they have developed that focuses on a public relations crisis faced by an American beer producer regarding the company's target marketing to Hispanics. Students are assigned to roles, which include the role of CEO, Marketing Manager, Consumer, Shareholder, Politician, FTC Economist, and management of a Mexican beer producer company. During a three-hour period, the various characters hold meetings and engage in politicking, negotiating, information sharing and decision making. At the end of the simulation, each role character must present a "position statement" in which the decided-upon course of action is announced. The simulation was developed to illustrate many of the internal and external forces that influence management decisions. The simulation also addresses an important program goal to integrate the consideration of ethical issues into business education. Student and faculty evaluations of the simulation will also be presented.

**Presenting to the Board:
Role Playing in Case Discussions**
Oscar W. DeShields, Jr.

This presenter reports on his use of role playing in the capstone marketing strategy course, which emphasizes a case analysis approach. Each

case in the semester is assigned to two student teams to present. The students must prepare a written and oral case analysis. One team presents case recommendations and supporting rationale. The other team critiques the case. At the end of the critiquing group's presentation, the two groups discuss each other's comments in a crossfire type setting. The remaining students role play as the Board of Directors and vote on the recommendations at the end of class. This role playing exercise illustrates the use of students to teach students, a form of active learning highly advocated by the current learning literature. Students must engage in critical thinking as they discuss and debate the issues at hand and the presented recommendations. Finally, students are exposed to the professional responsibilities in a formal organization.

**Teaching Interpretative Research Through
Performance Science**
Deborah Cours and Deborah D. Heisley,

Performance science is the dissemination of research through performance. In this case, the presenters highlight a classroom pedagogy that utilizes role-playing to inform students about the procedures and issues involved in conducting interpretative research (Cours et al 1999). The performers role play as both researchers and informants. This format gives the informants greater voice than the traditional method of using several sentences of quotations. It also incorporates researcher concerns and disagreements in analysis, bringing to life the coding and analysis process. Finally, this unusual pedagogy brings excitement to the classroom as students are taught to "think out of the box" of the conventions of traditional research and information presentation.

Cours, D. D. D. Heisley, M. Wallendorf, and D. Johnson (1999). It's All in the Family, But I Want It. *Advances in Consumer Research*. 26: 253-259.

CONTEMPORARY ISSUES ABSTRACTS

World Wide Web Site Resources for Teaching E-Commerce/Internet Marketing Content

Tom A. Buckles, University of San Diego

The explosion of Web sites and Web connectivity over the past few years has seen an increase in the number of professors who are incorporating WWW exercises into their classes, whether it's through lectures, exercises, or projects. As those who are familiar with the Web know, it can be a valuable resource, a rich treasure trove full of information; and conversely, it can be confusing and oftentimes frustrating to use. For many professors, one of the more perplexing problems with incorporating Web related assignments is knowing which ones are appropriate for certain marketing topics, exercises, projects, etc.

An important resource for marketing professors is to know where to go to get good Web material for class purposes. The intent of this Contemporary Topics session is to provide such a resource. Though not exhaustive, Web site topics to be discussed include market research, new product development, advertising on the net, strategic marketing, industrial marketing, retailing, international marketing, and general marketing. Time permitting, several academic and professional trade press books will be discussed.

Evaluation Under A Learning Model Of Instruction

Dennis E. Clayson, University of Northern Iowa

Most universities and colleges in the United States have adopted one of two major approaches to higher education and the consequential evaluation of achievement. Larger and usually more prestigious institutions have generally followed a *research model*. Private colleges and state universities have differentiated themselves by emphasizing a *teaching model*. The purpose of this roundtable is to discuss a

third way called the *learning model* with its consequential evaluation.

Wilhelm von Humboldt once stated, "The teacher no longer serves the purpose of the student. Instead, they both serve learning itself (von Humboldt 1969)." A combinations of factors resulted in a system in which achievement and success was measured by research output. Professors in the research model are evaluated primary by their research output, and secondarily by some sort of teaching evaluation. In the teaching model, evaluation must somehow measure "teaching". Since there is no universal consensus on what "good" teaching is, this has turned out to be a difficult and controversial process.

The implementation of a learning model would require a major paradigm shift in the evaluation process. Teaching is a process. It is not an outcome. Instead of trying to measure a process, the learning model would evaluate *outcomes*. The implantation and problems of such a system will be discussed.

The Beer Distribution Game: Teaching Systems And Marketing Channels Concepts At The Introductory Level

Linda Morris and Steven Pharr, University of Idaho

The *Beer Distribution Game* is a physical simulation exercise distributed by the System Dynamics Group at MIT. The purpose of the exercise is to teach and illustrate system dynamics with the primary lesson being that "structure produces behavior". The standard game places students in one of four roles: a retailer, wholesaler, distributor, or producer of beer. Each begins with an inventory of beer (except for the producer who begins with work-in-process). The goal is to minimize the total of inventory carrying costs and stock-out costs. The nature of the distribution system and communication process (structure) leads to very bizarre, yet predictable behavior. The impact of distribution channel structure and communication flows on channel member

relations becomes apparent. While only one channel member of each level is included in the original game format, modifying the game to include a number of retailers, wholesalers and distributors can enhance learning outcomes. By including multiple channels with imbalances in product flows, channel member power and control issues can also be demonstrated. While both versions of the game require numerous rounds of play (from 20 to 30) over an extended period of time, the modified version results in an increased complexity and the need for a team approach to administration. Both versions of the *Beer Game* are currently used at the University of Idaho and both will be explained and demonstrated during the discussion period.

Developing Entrepreneurial Spirit among Business Students: Adding Value Through Overseas Programmes

Chin Kin Yong, Singapore Polytechnic

This study focuses on the extent to which business students undertaking an overseas seminar-cum-work attachment program (the experimental group) has made a difference in forging an entrepreneurial spirit compared to those students who did not participate in the program (the control group).

A questionnaire comprising 26 statements on six defining characteristics of entrepreneurship was used to compare entrepreneurial spirit. These 26 statements comprise seven related to Risk-taking, five each related to Achievement Orientation and Locus of Control and three each related to Determination, Innovation and Leadership. This reflects the heavier weightage on those characteristics that are deemed more basic and fundamental to the definition of entrepreneurial spirit.

As each of the six characteristics has an odd number of statements, a respondent who answered positively to a majority of statements would be considered positive in that characteristic. Furthermore, a respondent would be considered as possessing entrepreneurial spirit if he/she has been categorized positively for at least four out of the six characteristics.

The analysis of results shows that there is positive change between the experimental group and the control group in five of the six characteristics of entrepreneurial spirit tested, as well as in overall entrepreneurial spirit.

It is gratifying to note that there are significant positive increases in the extent to which students participating in overseas program have become more entrepreneurial in spirit. They will be part of Singapore's 21st Century workforce leading the charge to forge further growth and development in a maturing economy.

The Making of an Exporter: Export Management Program, DLSU-College of St. Benilde Experience

Estrellita Concepcion P. Labitan, DLSU-College of St. Benilde

Barter trade already existed in the 7,100 archipelago known as the Philippines prior to Ferdinand Magellan accidentally reached one of its islands. Under the domination of Spain, trade relations with other countries took a different shape. Expansion of trade grew when the Americans took over the governance. The former era of trade exchange undergone an unprecedented changes and importance in various areas of Philippine development.

However, in 1950's and 60's a shift in economic strategy of inward looking strategy known as "import substitution" overcame the export orientation. Much to the surprise of the government, the BOP exacerbated. An adverse effect to the export sector, capital market, and to portfolio investment was insurmountable. Ranking second after Japan, Philippine economy deteriorated till it dropped to the status of the "sick man of Asia". These painful experiences resulted in the re-thinking by gradually adopting a proactive and liberal development strategy in "export promotion".

To date, the Philippine export revenue grew unprecedently. Trade surplus reached \$4.02 billion and an expected additional surplus of \$500 million. This is a complete turn-around. With the legal and infrastructure

support, the Philippines is now in full swing towards economic recovery. In fact, the economy was less affected by Asian crises due to its sound economic fundamentals. To compliment the drive of the government, the educational sector is contributing by pouring in future exporters. The De La Salle-College of St. Benilde is pioneering in the area of export management course intended to produce new export entrepreneurs.

Greening the Marketing Curriculum

Anamy Paano, Lucas Santiago, and Luz T. Suplico, De La Salle University
Ricardo Singson, CSU, Hayward

There is a growing consciousness around the world for the need to preserve the environment. At the forefront of preserving the environment are developed countries such as the US, The Netherlands and Germany. It is in these countries that green marketing started. Green marketing has been defined as an organized movement of concerned citizens and government to protect and enhance peoples' living environment (Kotler, 1996). Environmentally aware consumers are known as green consumers. The size of this segment has increased in the US and other industrialized countries (Kanuk and Schiffman, 1994).

Green marketing has grown in developed countries because of the availability of green products and existence of green consumers. In developing countries, green marketing has just started. While businesses and consumers have been actively involved in green marketing, the academe has also an important role to play. Thus, greening the curriculum can be the academe's contribution to preserve the environment.

Three universities have been involved in greening the curriculum. These universities are California State University, Hayward, in the U.S., De La Salle University in the Philippines and Thammasat University in Thailand. Marketing professors involved in this US/Philippine/Thai partnership have introduced various projects and activities to promote green marketing. These include seminars on Green Buildings, Ecolabelling, Sustainable Development, Environmental PR

and Greening the Curriculum. Other activities include advocacy campaigns on preserving endangered wildlife, visits to wildlife parks and promotion of green products. This US/Philippine/Thai partnership has contributed to a rich sharing of experiences in greening the curriculum among these universities.

Students in these universities have favored the inclusion of green marketing activities in their courses. This is a significant feedback as marketing majors, who will become future marketers, will play significant roles in influencing consumers and their values. From advertisements, newspapers, radio and other media used to promote a product, consumers are strongly influenced by marketers in their purchase decisions. Marketers, even while in school, can be harnessed to ensure a better environment for the world. Responsible marketing means advocating green marketing. Responsible marketing means greening the curriculum.

The Assessment Process and Faculty Buy-In: Challenges and Successes

Richard Celsi, CSU, Long Beach
Katrin R. Harich, CSU, Fullerton

In the past decade there has been a shift in assessing the quality of business education from the evaluation of resource inputs and student graduation to the conceptualization and measurement of student learning outcomes. The assessment process is intended to motivate continual measurement of outcomes and new mission directions. Faculty and administrators are being asked to perform an entirely new function that will require introspection as well as measurement acumen. Virtually everything from the theoretical organization of business schools to learning outcomes such as critical thinking will not only have to be examined independently, but also examined in relationship to the school's mission.

Two primary and *external* forces are driving this interest in assessing higher education. The first is the increasing public demand for accountability. The second are accrediting bodies and agencies, such as AACSB. While these primary motivating factors for

assessment are external, it will ultimately require full faculty participation and buy-in in order for assessment to succeed. The development of intrinsic motivation may well be key to "assessments" success or failure. Thus, topics and questions for today's *Contemporary Issues Session* include: (1) What progress has been made at your school to date? (2) What successes, what challenges? (3) Will faculty buy-into the assessment process? (4) What best motivates faculty to engage in assessment? (5) How can intrinsic motivation best be nurtured both at the college level and the department level? (6) Can assessment be both interesting and fun?