

USING THE MOST EFFECTIVE TEACHING METHODS: A COMPARISON OF MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT CLASSROOMS

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ABSTRACT

To determine the degree to which professors are likely to use teaching elements that can be classified as either passive or active, 522 responses to a survey of management and marketing faculty across the country were analyzed. Comparisons were made between marketing and management faculty, between faculty teaching at private and public institutions, between male and female faculty, and between tenured and non-tenured faculty. Other independent variables were also assessed to determine if they have an impact on whether faculty use passive or active methods in the classrooms. These variables include faculty age, number of years of teaching experience, average class size, and average number of course preparations. Results indicate that faculty at private universities, faculty with less teaching experience, and faculty with fewer class preparations are more likely to use active methods in their classrooms.

INTRODUCTION

The view that business education needs to be revised and revamped has become more noticeable since the turn of the century (Leavitt 1989), with much attention being focused recently on business education due to the rash of businesses being exposed for engaging in unethical business practices. Business schools must adjust their curriculum to deal with an environment that requires employees to ethically maximize profits. In addition to a strong ethical content, the curriculum must also equip students with strong communication skills, flexibility, and decisiveness. Students must be taught to maintain the highest ethical standards while they analyze and synthesize information from multiple sources, make decisions, and implement courses of action. They must also be prepared to apply knowledge in diverse situations, remaining ethical as they implement key programs within their companies.

Business schools today must therefore accept the responsibility of providing students with these necessary skills and focus on teaching methods that emphasize and include the most effective elements for student learning. Faculty must concern themselves with a dual purpose: imparting knowledge and developing the skills required in today's dynamic business environment. Identifying and utilizing characteristics or styles of education that can have the greatest and most permanent impact on business students is therefore becoming an increasingly crucial issue.

Are we, as faculty, designing courses with the most effective elements for learning and influencing our business students to become the world's next business leaders? This study reviews current literature to identify the most effective teaching and learning elements and meth-

ods that should be included in our classrooms. It then reports the results of a comparative study of 522 marketing and management faculty across the United States to determine if these methods are being used in our university classrooms and to begin to identify variables that predict the frequency and amplitude of these active learning methods.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of the existing teaching styles literature indicates a clear distinction exists between active and passive types of teaching styles. Active course design, in all its forms, incorporates increased student involvement in the classroom, whereas passive designs are more instructor-centered. Active course designs are based on the assumption that an active learner, or one who is more engaged in the learning process, learns much more effectively and the learning experience is more intense and permanent than passive learners enrolled in a traditional lecture-style course (e.g., Allegretti and Fredrick 1995; Derrick and Carr 2003; Hargrove 2003; Klein et al. 1997; Kolb 1983; Labinowicz 1980; Orsmond and Stiles 2002; Sharan 1980). Recent research has specifically examined business students in colleges and universities and shows that course design and teaching styles can significantly impact student performance (Black and Wingfield 2006; Filbeck and Smith 2001; Keltgen 2006; Laditka and Houck 2006; Sims 2002; Smith 2005; Tucker et al. 2003; Wingfield and Black 2005).

A preponderance of recent business education literature suggests business school curriculum is experiencing a shift from passive course designs to active course designs (e.g., Frontczak 1998). Empirical evidence sug-

gests business students prefer designs that are active over more passive designs (Nulty and Bennett 1996). Evidence also suggests that favorable attitudes toward course design lead to higher achievement (Young et al. 2003) and that matching course design with learning styles results in greater learning (Dunn et al. 1990; Prosser and Trigwell 2006).

Active Learning

Experiential Learning. Experiential learning is a type of active course design. It can be defined as “the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience” (Kolb 1983, p. 38). Kolb indicates the crucial first step is to provide the experience from which the learning comes. Experiential educators are generally aware that experiences alone are not inherently good for learning. The experiences have to be relevant to the learning goals and then the learners must have time and opportunity to reflect on the experience. Kolb’s definition is based on six assumptions: “Learning (a) is a process, not an outcome; (b) derives from experience; (c) requires an individual to resolve dialectically opposed demands; (d) is holistic and integrative; (e) requires interplay between a person and the environment; and (f) results in knowledge creation” (Kayes 2002, pp. 139–140). These assumptions intimate that learners will be required to respond “to diverse personal and environmental demands that arise from the interaction between experience, concept, reflection, and action in a cyclical . . . fashion” (Kayes 2002, p. 140).

Keeping these assumptions in mind, experiential learning can encompass a wide array of methodologies from outdoor, adventure-based learning, such as Outward Bound, to other forms that are more conducive to a classroom setting. Case studies are commonly used in many business classes. In addition, giving students self-learning instruments also provides experiential learning opportunities. Many universities offer business credit for internships which are also effective experiential learning experiences. Also, many in-class activities are experiential in nature. In addition, assignments can be experiential if they require students to apply concepts learned in the classroom to things they will be expected to do in the “real world” after they graduate. For example, professors may require students to write a marketing plan, create an actual advertisement, develop a performance appraisal system, or design a compensation plan. Experiential methods rely heavily on discussion and practice, emphasize personal application of material, encourage students to develop belief systems, understand how they feel about an area of study, and take appropriate actions given a specific environment (Jones and Jones 1998).

Participative Learning. Participative learning is also a form of active learning. It can be defined as engaging the learner in the learning process (Mills-Jones 1999). Many

may be confused by a similar term known as cooperative learning. Cooperative learning is a mode of learning that requires students to work together in groups and participate in class discussions. Participative learning, on the other hand, gives students the opportunity to take an active role in determining the types of activities and/or assignments they perceive will best help their learning. Methods that can be utilized in the classroom to assure participative learning include student participation in syllabus design, students writing potential exam questions, student participation in determining the grading scheme for a course, etc. By involving students in these decisions, participative learning theory suggests the students will feel more accountability for completing assignments, etc. (Mills-Jones 1999).

Passive Learning

Passive Learning Is Best Exemplified by Traditional Lecture Classes. This teaching style emphasizes learning of conceptual knowledge by focusing on facts and theoretical principles (Jones and Jones 1998; Thornton and Cleveland 1990; Whetten and Clark 1996). The conceptual emphasis of this design can be important to the development of a strong theoretical foundation upon which students can build in future courses. This design typically involves few opportunities for students to learn experientially or to participate in the decisions in the classroom. Professors or instructors basically provide a syllabus and class schedule, they deliver daily lectures, and the majority of grades are based on exams, especially exams made of multiple-choice, true-false, and matching items. See Table 1 for a summary of these three designs and the types of classroom activities each employs.

The Evidence

It has been suggested that students learn more effectively when they are able to experience learning through active participation in the learning process (Allen and Young 1997). Active learning has also been linked to critical thinking (Paul 1990), experiential learning (Kolb 1983), and reflective judgment (King and Kitchener 1994; Kitchener and King 1981), which are all important educational concepts (Allen and Young 1997). Research also suggests experiential learning leads to higher levels of retention for student learning (e.g., Van Eynde and Spencer 1988). Because of the empirical evidence, it is still generally accepted that active learning methods are more effective, but their use in business classes, in the past, appears to be modest, at best (Whetten et al. 1991). Understanding the extent to which active learning methods are used in the business classroom should provide key information to assessing the impact of business classes on student learning and preparation for the business world.

TABLE 1
ELEMENTS OF ACTIVE AND PASSIVE COURSE DESIGNS

Course Design			
Passive Traditional Lecture	Participative	Active	Experiential
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Lecture b. Multiple Choice Exams and Quizzes c. Emphasize Basic Concepts and Definitions d. Grading Options for Student Selection 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Student-Designed Syllabus b. Student Input Throughout Semester c. Student-Written Exam Questions 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Internships b. Case Studies c. Marketing Plan d. Compensation Plan e. Advertisement f. Self-Assessments g. Emphasize Application of Concepts

HYPOTHESES

The previous discussion suggests that active learning methods examined in this research are more effective than are passive learning methods. Some hypotheses assessed in this study have no precedent in previous literature, so the resulting proposals may hypothesize that there will be no differences in the utilization of active course elements that are caused by the various independent variables. A general model representing the hypotheses to be examined in this study is presented in Figure 1.

Both marketing and management classes tend to offer more opportunities to implement active learning methods than do other business disciplines. This is the case because professors teaching in these disciplines often such features in their classes as the following: analysis of companies via case studies; developing compensation plans in human resource management and sales management classes; developing and delivering sales presentations in sales and marketing classes; creating advertisements for various media, from magazines to television; developing marketing plans, sales plans, and advertising plans; etc.

These authors can find no evidence in previous research, nor in their experience in the profession, to suggest that marketing utilizes these active learning methods more than does management or vice versa. In fact, the opportunities to use the active learning methods appears to be nearly equal in both areas, so we expect there to be no significant differences. Therefore, the first hypothesis is based on this lack of previous evidence and suggests the following.

H₁: There are no differences between marketing and management faculty in using active learning methods in their classes.

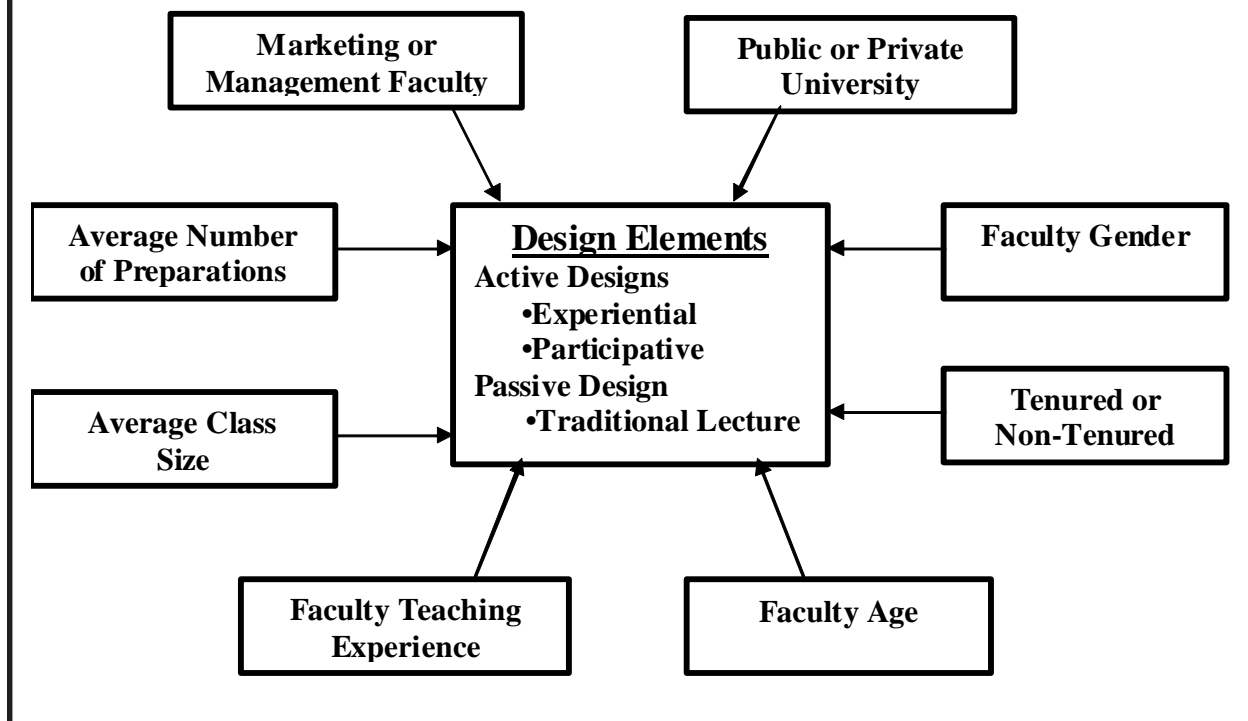
Smaller classes present an easier atmosphere in which to include many of the active learning methods. Many private universities emphasize their smaller class sizes to entice students to attend their school, implying that these universities provide a higher quality of education, in part because of the smaller classes. One study found that graduates of private universities are more satisfied with their education than are graduates of public universities (Nasser and Abouchedid 2005). However, the study does not detail the reasons why the graduates feel this way. Could it be that the smaller class sizes allow for more active learning methods to be used in the classroom, which increases student satisfaction?

Eser and Birkan (2004) also found similar satisfaction patterns when comparing graduates of marketing programs from private and public universities and went further in identifying and examining some of the reasons for these differences. Among the reasons for higher satisfaction with private schools were smaller class sizes and increased use of active learning methods. Another study confirms that smaller class size does result in utilization of more active learning methods in the university classroom (Siegfried and Kennedy 1995). Therefore, the following is hypothesized.

H₂: Marketing and management faculty from private universities utilize more active learning methods in the classroom than do those faculty from public universities.

Common sense and conventional wisdom suggest females are more caring and prefer the more personal touch than do their male counterparts. Do these beliefs carry over into the marketing and management classrooms at America's universities? If so, female faculty members should be using more active learning methods in

FIGURE 1
MODEL OF PASSIVE VS. ACTIVE ELEMENTS IN MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT CLASSES



their classrooms than are male faculty members. One recent study confirms this intuition by finding that women are using more of some types of active learning in their management classrooms than their male counterparts (Peluchette and Rust 2005). In addition, Witt (1994) found further support of the differences between male and female faculty members, with females using more active methods in the classroom. Thus, the following hypothesis is offered.

H₃: Female marketing and management faculty utilize more active learning methods in the classroom than do male faculty.

Differences in utilizing active learning methods between tenured and non-tenured marketing and management faculty are not intuitively clear. On one hand, due to more experience and a longer duration in the profession, tenured faculty have had more opportunity to develop experiential and participative methods which admittedly require more effort and time. On the other hand, the ages of tenured faculty tend to be higher than ages of non-tenured. Older faculty have been shown to be less likely to put the extra effort into developing non-traditional teaching styles and methods, in this case, those methods included in active learning (Eser and Birkan 2004). Thus, linking greater age with tenure and based on the empirical

findings of Eser and Birkan (2004), we hypothesize the following.

H₄: Non-tenured marketing and management faculty utilize more active learning methods in the classroom than do tenured faculty.

As discussed above, evidence shows that age is a factor in a faculty member's willingness to put forth extra effort to develop active learning methods for his/her classroom. Eser and Birkan (2004) suggest one reason is older faculty are reluctant to improve themselves, so they will continue to use outdated teaching techniques and even outdated information in the classroom. Therefore, we hypothesize the following.

H₅: As both marketing and management faculty get older, they will be less likely to use active learning methods in the classrooms.

Experience should be an avenue to developing better teaching methods and should lead to more active learning techniques being used in the classroom. However, teaching experience of a faculty member is connected to both age and tenure, suggesting the following hypothesis.

H₆: As both marketing and management faculty gain teaching experience, they will be less likely to use active learning methods in the classroom.

A preponderance of research suggests the benefits of smaller classes (e.g., Costea and Crump 1999; Karakaya et al. 2001; Naser and Peel 1998). As suggested in the discussion for H_2 above, smaller average class size provides more opportunities to implement active learning methods (Eser and Birkan 2004; Siegfried and Kennedy 1995). Thus, the following hypothesis is postulated.

H_7 : As class size increases for both marketing and management faculty, the likelihood of active learning designs being used in the classroom decreases.

No empirical research has linked the number of course preparations to a professor's inclusion of active learning methods in the classroom. However, each course preparation for which a professor is responsible is time-consuming, leaving less time for other efforts. Faculty members recognize that active learning methods require more effort and preparation if they are to be utilized effectively. Thus, faculty with more course preparations should be less likely to use active learning methods in the classroom. Thus, the last hypothesis of this study is as follows.

H_8 : As the number of course preparations for both marketing and management faculty increases, the likelihood of active learning designs being used in the classroom decreases.

METHODOLOGY

Data were collected to determine the extent to which these different designs are used in marketing and management classrooms in the United States. The investigators gathered data from a random sample of 522 management and marketing faculty across the United States. The sample was drawn from membership rosters of the American Marketing Association and the Academy of Management.

Marketing and management faculty members were asked to indicate on a five-point scale from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always) how often they used each teaching method in their respective classrooms. As revealed in Table 2, there were six passive elements and thirteen active elements. The composite measures of passive and active learning methods were computed by summing the various items for each and dividing by the number of items. After creating the composite variables, the dependent variable to be assessed in the hypotheses was computed by subtracting the composite passive learning methods score from the composite active learning methods score.

This calculation was performed to determine whether any particular professor's teaching methods were passive or active, and to further determine to what magnitude each professor's methods were passive or active. For example, if a particular professor's score was negative, the overall rating of that professor's methods were passive in nature and the more the number was below zero suggested the magnitude the methods used by the professor were pas-

sive. On the other hand, if a particular professor's score was positive, the overall rating of that professor's methods were active with more positive numbers suggesting greater magnitudes, or greater utilization, of active methods in the classroom.

Table 2 is a summary of the data collected from these faculty members. As can be seen from this table, the response rate was acceptable with a 43.83 percent overall rate (522 usable responses). Of those responses, 247 (47.32%) were from management professors and 275 (52.68%) were from marketing professors. Other notable information includes the proportion of male (317, 60.73%) vs. female professors (205, 39.27%); the proportion of tenured (279, 53.45%) vs. non-tenured professors (243, 48.55%); and the proportion of professors employed by public universities (265, 50.77%) vs. those employed by private universities (257, 49.23%).

In addition to the general demographics of the respondents, as summarized on the following page, Table 2 also reveals the frequency of marketing and management professors' utilization of various elements associated with passive and active learning. One should exercise care in interpreting these results because though nearly 90 percent of management and marketing professors employ at least one passive element in their course designs, 96.36 percent are also using at least one active element in their course designs. These numbers are of further interest when they are compared to the self-reported course descriptions of these professors where only 12.84 percent classify their overall course designs as passive, while 7.66 percent classify them as participative, and 79.50 percent classify their courses as being primarily experiential in design, making an overall 87.16 percent classifying their classes as active in design.

RESULTS

Results of hypotheses testing are found in Table 3. Regression analyses shows support for H_1 by indicating no statistical difference between marketing and management faculty in their use of active and passive learning methods ($t = .982, p \geq .10$). Simple linear regression also revealed support for H_2 by indicating a significantly higher usage of active learning methods by professors from private universities ($t = 1.783, p \leq .10$).

Support was also found for H_6 by revealing a significant difference in using active learning methods based on faculty teaching experience, where faculty with less teaching experience use more active learning methods in the classroom ($t = 1.844, p \leq .10$).

Finally, support was found for H_8 by a statistically significant difference in the use of active learning methods based on the number of preparations, with faculty members with lower numbers of preparations utilizing more active learning methods in the classroom ($t = 1.708, p \leq .10$).

TABLE 2
SUMMARY RESULTS OF FACULTY SURVEY

Item	Marketing	Management	Total	%
Surveys Sent	638	553	1191	
Respondents	275	247	522	
Response Rate	43.10%	44.67%	43.83%	
<u>Respondent Gender</u>				
Males	170	147	317	60.73%
Females	105	100	205	39.27%
<u>Tenure of Respondents</u>				
Tenured	164	115	279	53.45%
Not Tenured	111	132	243	46.55%
<u>University Type</u>				
Public	131	134	265	50.77%
Private	144	113	257	49.23%
-				
Average Age	50.34	47.94		
Average # of Years Teaching	16.39	12.70		
Average Class Size	30.77	28.28		
Average # of Preps for Respondent	2.52	2.54		
<u>Passive Learning Methods</u>				
Research Papers	161	148	309	59.20%
Attendance	168	175	343	65.71%
Multiple Choice Exams	162	132	294	56.32%
Textbook Assignments	160	153	313	59.96%
Lecture	251	218	469	89.85%
Test Banks	115	82	197	37.74%
<u>Active Learning Methods</u>				
In-Class Discussions	261	242	503	96.36%
In-Class Group Exercises	194	212	406	77.78%
Internet/Intranet Group Discussions	58	61	119	22.80%
Student-Developed Exam Questions	39	16	55	10.54%
Student Help in Grading Standards	40	52	92	17.62%
Case Studies	157	200	357	68.39%
Experiential Exercises	191	187	378	72.41%
Simulations	57	86	143	27.39%
Presentations	204	181	385	73.75%
Student Self Assessments	104	134	238	45.59%
Business Design, Marketing Plan, etc.	158	85	243	46.55%
Field Trips	46	33	79	15.13%
Guest Speakers	149	123	272	52.11%
<u>Self-Reported Course Description</u>				
Traditional	44	23	67	12.84%
Participative	19	21	40	7.66%
Experiential	212	203	415	79.50%

Faculty gender, tenure, faculty age, and average class size had no significant impact on the use of active learning methods in the classroom. Thus, H₃, H₄, H₅, and H₇ are not supported.

Another interesting result is related to how the faculty classified their own classes. As presented in previous discussion, 87.16 percent of all marketing and management faculty respondents classified their own classes as being overall active in nature. However, based on the results of the composite measures used in the statistical analysis of this study, only 27.78 percent of the professors actually have predominantly active learning classrooms.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Much research has been performed in the area of active versus passive educational methods, resulting in empirical evidence that active methods are more effective in terms of student outcomes. Even with the overwhelming evidence that such is the case, it is interesting that research actually assessing the frequency and amplitude of the utilization of these methods has been largely neglected. This study is one of the first of its kind in which actual usage of active versus passive methods in university business classrooms is assessed and factors that influence that usage are examined.

As predicted, and as common sense suggests, there is no difference in the utility of active methods between marketing and management faculty. Both fields of study

offer many classes in which active methods are readily included. Other fields of business, such as accounting and finance, may experience more difficulty in adopting many of these active methods into their classrooms. However, as evidence mounts to suggest that these methods are superior to passive methods, it would enhance the learning experience in all business classrooms, regardless of the business discipline. Further research should be conducted with faculty of other business disciplines to examine the frequency and amplitude of active learning methods.

It was also predicted that there would be a difference in the utilization of active methods based on whether professors were teaching in a private or a public university. The findings of this study support this prediction. Faculty members at private universities are more likely to use active learning methods in the classroom. Several factors may contribute to this. Many private universities have smaller enrollments making it possible to have smaller average class sizes. However, class size was also examined in this study and was not found to be a significant predictor of the use of active learning methods.

In addition, at many private universities, professors are expected to teach more classes per semester, resulting in a larger number of annual course preparations. The larger number of preparations would seem to decrease the likelihood of active methods being used because active learning methods require more preparation time and more effort. In fact, this variable was also examined in this study

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF HYPOTHESES TESTING

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Test Statistic
H1**	Active vs. Passive	Marketing or Management Faculty	.982
H2**	“	Public or Private University	1.783*
H3	“	Faculty Gender	.217
H4	“	Tenured or Non-Tenured	1.375
H5	“	Faculty Age	.972
H6**	“	Faculty Teaching Experience	1.844*
H7	“	Average Class Size	.976
H8**	“	Average Number of Preparations	1.708*

* Statistically significant at $p < .10$
** Hypotheses supported

and it was found that a smaller number of course preparations led to a greater likelihood of a faculty member using active learning methods. Therefore, this reason for the increased use of active learning methods at private universities is also not valid, though the predicted hypothesis was supported.

One study also suggested that faculty at private universities tend to be older and have more teaching experience (Eser and Birkan 2004). In fact, as predicted, an increase in teaching experience actually led to a smaller likelihood of active learning methods being used in the classroom. Also, no evidence was found to support a significant influence of faculty age on the utilization of these active methods. Therefore, additional research is necessary to discover the differences between private and public universities that lead to the significant differences in utilizing active learning methods.

This study also revealed that both marketing and management faculty tend to think they are utilizing more active learning methods than they actually are. This finding should be a reminder to examine our teaching methods

and try to include more elements that have been empirically shown to improve student learning and preparation for the “real world.”

IMPLICATIONS

What is the bottom line of this research? Assuming the previous research findings suggesting that active methods of teaching are more effective, it is gratifying to know that many marketing and management professors at least think they are using these methods in their classrooms. More experienced faculty, however, showed less of a tendency to use these methods, so to enhance the likelihood of them using these methods, mentoring or rewards could be instituted. In addition, faculty should be made to realize that they are not using active methods as regularly as they think they are. They should be given more incentives to incorporate these methods into their classrooms. Finally, wherever possible active methods should also be used at higher frequencies in the classrooms of business faculty from other disciplines.

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UNDERSTANDING THE PRIORITIES OF MARKETING EDUCATION STAKEHOLDERS: A CRITICAL EXAMINATION OF HOW WELL WE PRACTICE WHAT WE TEACH

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ABSTRACT

Like most decision makers, academic marketing department chairs and their deans have traditionally relied heavily on their own individual experiences in making decisions for their departments. The faculty in these same marketing departments, however, stress to their students the need to utilize research information from relevant constituent groups when making decisions. If faculty, department chairs, deans, and other marketing academic decision makers are to be consistent with what faculty stress to students, the body of empirical research data examining their own constituency groups needs to be evaluated. This research provides a brief description of the empirical studies of various academic marketing constituency groups and makes recommendations for improving the usefulness of such on-going research.

INTRODUCTION

As marketing educators we often stress to our students the need to continually monitor and evaluate changing trends in the external environments we serve. We stress the need to invest continually in market research that tracks changes in all of our constituent groups. As with any organization, being truly excellent means being truly “market driven” as we often chant in our classrooms. All of which, however, begs a couple of difficult questions, “How well are *we* doing when it comes to monitoring the changing needs of our constituents?” and “How well do we utilize the market information that we do collect?”

Answering either of these questions should never be taken lightly. If one is unsure of the importance of these questions then simply consider how much our accrediting agencies are now stressing the need for us to assess everything we do. Our assessments must be based on our objectives and, just as we teach our students, shouldn’t our objectives consider how well we are meeting the needs of our constituents?

This research offers a critical assessment of our performance on the former of the two questions above. How well are we, as marketing higher educators, monitoring the changing needs of our constituents? The answer to that question should also illustrate how well we actually practice what we teach.

NEED FOR MARKET RESEARCH IN MARKETING EDUCATION

Although marketing research studies may include a wide variety of differing individual objectives these research studies typically share one overriding purpose. Ultimately, research should be conducted to obtain information. Ideally, that information will then be useful in enhancing future decision making. As such, a wide variety of organizations benefit greatly from properly conducted research including “not-for-profit” organizations, “for profit” businesses, ministries, governmental agencies, and even educational institutions among potentially many others. Marketing academia, the source of educating students in why and how to scientifically conduct market research on an organization’s stakeholders, is no exception.

To maximize their effectiveness, business marketing programs require well developed and well-conducted market research from a variety of constituencies (or business educational stakeholders) including students, alumni, faculty members, and the actual business community members (Heinfeldt and Wolf 1998; Ramaswamy 1992). Although each of these broad stakeholder groups may share many common interdependent objectives, their objectives may often hold some distinctions from each other. A business school, therefore, may find meeting the needs of each of these groups to be a daunting objective. Further

complicating this task is the likelihood that even within these stakeholder groups there exist distinct subgroups each with their own needs. Consider the differences in needs, for example, among marketing students studying for varying degrees (various bachelor, master, doctorate degrees). Or consider the different business/marketing community needs found within different types of industries or even found within different functions within a single organization. Without appropriate research, meeting the needs of any stakeholders would be extremely difficult at best.

Fortunately, business educational research literature offers numerous studies that examine the needs of each of these constituent groups that range from ascertaining the priorities of a single constituency to distinguishing the similarities and differences between multiple stakeholder groups. Although academic decision makers should not rely solely on research data when making decisions (to the exclusion of their own experiences), they should find such data to be a useful information source when making strategic decisions for a business school including its objectives, priorities, promotions, curriculum, and/or assessment decisions among a multitude of other decision options. Empirical research studies that inform academic marketing decision makers as to the needs and priorities of their stakeholders, therefore, can serve a useful function.

This potential importance, however, begs the question of how well the current research stream meets the overall requirements for understanding the needs of these constituency groups. This research provides a brief summary of the empirical research studies that inform academic marketing decision makers as to the priorities of their stakeholders. In evaluating the current nature of the research available to academic marketing decision makers, the purposes of this research are to identify research gaps and to recommend directions for future research that would address these gaps. The ultimate objective, therefore, is to develop directions for improving the understanding of the needs and priorities of stakeholders.

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS ON RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF VARIOUS SKILL SETS AMONG BUSINESS SCHOOL CONSTITUENCY GROUPS

While previous research has offered much insight into the various constituencies' priorities, it has done so only on an intermittent basis. Periodically, a new study is conducted that provides insights into the constituents' priorities, particularly framed within an importance ranking format. Unfortunately, however, researchers have not fully examined how rapidly these priorities are evolving. Without such knowledge, one cannot truly assess whether the current approach updates changes in priorities quickly enough to keep up with how often these changes are actually occurring. Should business school educators and

administrators desire to utilize such data, therefore, must rely on the most recently published data, hoping that it still reflects current information, or they must collect the data themselves. Examples of such studies that have provided empirical data from one of the three constituencies are provided below.

Empirical Studies on a Single Constituency

Employers. A significant focus of research examining marketing educational priorities has centered around the interface between the graduating students and their initial marketing employers.

McDaniel and White (1993), for example, surveyed recruiters who seek to hire undergraduate marketing majors. In surveying these recruiters, McDaniel and White (1993) utilized a five-point "importance" scale with interval properties and reported the mean results for each of 22 skills measured. This approach allowed them to combine employers' importance rankings of skills/characteristics with their rankings of which characteristics, experiences, and skills they thought seemed to be most lacking among recent marketing graduates.

Using these results, along with the discussions with other faculty members and even their own personal experience, McDaniel and White (1993) then combined these importance and preparedness ratings to provide a "Preparation Gap Index (PGI)." High on the PGI in 1993 (i.e., students were not appropriately prepared for these skills) were items such as "realistic expectations," "work ethic," and "oral communication skills." Ranking very low on the PGI (i.e., students were appropriately prepared for these skills) were more curricular centered items such as "marketing skills," "quantitative skills," "manufacturing/production skills," "knowledge of marketing," "international orientation," and "foreign language skills."

Conversely, Scholder Ellen and Pilling (2002) surveyed employers who hire employees with graduate marketing degrees. They found that these employers were particularly interested in hiring graduates with area-specific skills such as marketing management/strategic marketing, marketing research, and buyer behavior skills. They presented their results as a ranking based on percentages of response.

Students. Duke (2002) surveyed undergraduate marketing students to assess their perceptions of importance among various skills and characteristics (which he refers to as "learning outcomes"). He utilized a five-point Likert-type scale in measuring the students' perceptions of the importance of various learning outcomes as well as how well they feel that their undergraduate program prepared them for these same learning outcomes. Duke (2002) reported the mean score for each of nine broad "outcome categories." He even went further in developing a "Priority Index" (PI) based on how each outcome category ranked in terms of importance as compared to

how it ranked in preparedness. These students perceived communication skills (both communicating within groups as well as communicating electronically) to be the most important skills for them to develop as they embark on their marketing careers.

Alumni. Davis, Misra, and Van Auken (2002), Duke and Reese (1995), and Schmidt (1991) each offer more general priority evaluations from alumni. Davis et al. (2002) utilized a gap analysis approach to compare alumni perceptions of the importance of various skills for their current positions with perceptions of their Alma Mater's delivery of those skills while they were students. They concluded that alumni did not perceive their education to have been effective enough in delivering three primary skill areas in preparing them for their careers: information technology skills, oral communication skills, and written communication skills.

In surveying undergraduate alumni, Duke and Reese (1995) measured perceptions of their workplace relevance of various components of the marketing curriculum. Very recent graduates identified curricular components from courses such as promotions management, marketing management, personal selling, and consumer behavior as being particularly valuable or applicable to their current positions. Less recent graduates (employed in various marketing related fields) perceived that the courses that best prepared them for their careers were consumer behavior, marketing management, services, sales management, and promotions management.

Surveying business school undergraduate alumni, Schmidt (1991) measured advice from these alumni to their marketing faculty. She found that the advice most often cited was to focus on communication skills, to utilize real world projects, and to hold realistic expectations.

Empirical Studies on Multiple Constituencies

Seeking to satisfy the needs of a single stakeholder group is challenging enough. Attempting to satisfy the needs of multiple constituent groups simultaneously, however, can potentially be overwhelming. In attempting to do so, marketing departments should integrate the findings of these single constituency research studies when utilizing them in making curricular improvements. Marketing academicians, therefore, can also benefit from additional research studies that provide such integration of empirical findings from multiple constituents. Examples of such studies that have integrated empirical data from multiple constituencies are provided below.

Comparing Two Constituents. Wiles and Spiro (2004) also offer a study of interest for marketing academicians in developing their programs although it is not centered specifically on priorities of skill development. Wiles and Spiro (2004) surveyed undergraduate senior marketing majors as well as new salesperson recruiters for their

perceptions of the importance of job characteristics. They found that the students were focused more on job satisfaction and advancement opportunities in evaluating a sales position while the recruiters viewed the company's training program as being the most important but also with advancement opportunities second.

Comparing Three Constituents. Ackerman, Gross, and Perner (2003) integrated responses from students, faculty, and employers in developing priority rankings for a marketing department. They demonstrated, for example, that students significantly valued critical thinking less than did employers or faculty as a primary skill focus. Employers, however, were the least optimistic that critical thinking could be taught.

Using conjoint analysis techniques, Floyd and Gordon (1998) measured skill importance among employer and general business undergraduate student respondents in New Zealand. Overall, they found that employers and students alike ranked problem-solving skills as the most important skill set for student development. Various employer industries, however, did show some difference in their perceptions. They also included a smaller sample of a third group whom they identified only as "staff." The staff ranked communication skills as being the important set of skills on which to focus.

SAMPLE REPRESENTATION

These studies seem to offer much valuable insight into marketing higher education stakeholders. The full extent of their usefulness, however, must be evaluated in light of the generalizability of the sample statistics as well as the congruence between the research objectives or procedures and a particular individual marketing department's objectives.

Evolving Stakeholder Needs

As with any research information the usefulness of gauging stakeholder priorities is affected by the rate at which these stakeholders change and, similarly, the rate at which their priorities change. Consider how much change has occurred within just two stakeholder groups (specifically the marketing community and today's undergraduate students):

The overall business community has seen dramatic changes in recent years that may or may not have caused changes in employer priorities. As Brooks and Rudd (2005) put it:

"While each business discipline (accounting, marketing, management, finance, human resources, operations, logistics, etc.) faces great uncertainties, marketing may have faced the most radical changes over the past 10–20 years. In the last two decades, marketing, which may be viewed as a combination of applied psychology, project management, and finan-

cial analysis, has seen the rise of a plethora of new business models linking the seller to the customer. These transitions include Big Box Stores (Wal-Mart, Sam's Club, Costco), Category Killers (Circuit City, Toy's R Us, Sports Authority), the rise of traditional forms of direct marketing (catalogs, infomercials, and the world wide web), the massive explosion of the world wide web as both an information tool (Google, Yahoo!) and a commercial outlet (eBay, Amazon.com), and a myriad of financial services options ranging from banking to mortgage lending to credit counseling. How do curriculum designers stay up with the changing demands of the field in these times of rapid change?" (p. 172).

Employers, however, are not the only constituent group to have undergone great change. Consider the changes in students (undergraduates in particular) over the last couple of decades as well. Today undergrads, for example, appear to be very different from undergraduate students of a decade ago. Within the last decade, the Generation X students that filled undergrad classes have graduated and been replaced in the classroom by Generation Y. Previous research documents how Gen Y's experiences have led to differences in important educational variables such attention span and expectations. (See Kaimal 2003 for a thorough review of the unique characteristics of Gen Y.)

Drea, Tripp, and Stuenkel (2005) point out that today's undergraduate students have grown up in an environment in which they have been inundated with fast paced interactive technology from sources such as the Internet and hand-held video games. With exponentially greater technology at their fingertips than any other generation, this generation has become accustomed to rapid paced stimulation. As such, simply holding the attention of the typical undergraduate student today requires a different approach from the classroom approaches of the past. Today's college undergraduates get bored much quicker than earlier generations when presented a traditional lecture – with or without Power Point slides (Drea et al. 2005).

Furthermore, having grown up in an economically prosperous era, Generation Y's strong desire for instant gratification has provided its members a different set of expectations upon graduating than previous generations. Since the oldest members of Gen Y have now begun their careers as recent graduates, they are beginning to bring these unique expectations directly into the workplace. Van Dam (2006) states that Generation Yers enter the workplace expecting to learn through experiences in network teams while utilizing a tremendous amount of technological communication. They expect not only to enjoy the learning process, but even to be entertained and excited while participating (van Dam 2006). Furthermore, since Gen Y has been taught from an early age that it is acceptable to question authority, they tend not to

respond well to traditional management styles that include command and control methods (Lescohier 2006).

Unlike older generations, Gen Yers tend to begin their careers with the assumption that they will be changing jobs rather frequently. This assumption leads them to enter their initial place of employment with short term goals that do not include long-term personal development within that company (Kaimal 2003). Although research has not fully explored its impact, all of these expectations should impact how today's undergraduate students view the value and benefits of their educations. Such expectations, however, may or may not be consistent with their employers' expectations. To the extent that these expectations do not match with their employers, a potentially wide gap has developed between the expectations of these two important constituency groups.

Staying abreast of the evolving needs and expectations of this changing population poses a very difficult challenge. As members of Generation Y, most undergraduate students differ greatly from their professors in expectations and attention span. It becomes necessary, therefore, that as marketing academicians evaluate student perceptions in looking for ways to improve the learning experience that such generational differences be considered. Making changes in classroom approach, in curriculum, in managing student expectations, and even in assessment will be more effective when evaluated in light of these differences.

Despite these changes in students, particularly undergraduate students over the last decade, little research has been conducted to demonstrate how these differences in student inputs are influencing their educational experiences. Very little research has even been conducted on student perceptions since this generation became the predominate member of the undergraduate classrooms. Research data collected before 2000 may not reflect student perceptions in the latter part of the decade as Gen Y has replaced Gen X. Without a continuously updated research stream to reflect current student perceptions marketing academicians may be relying on outdated empirical data.

Congruence Between Research Objectives and the Individual Marketing Department's Objectives

Even if such population changes have not occurred the context within which a given study is conducted and presented will affect its usefulness for any given marketing department. Various marketing departments may each hold quite different objectives based on a multitude of different reasons. Consider, for example, the varying priorities that departments ascribe to different stakeholder groups or to different subgroups within these stakeholders. A marketing department that serves an evening MBA program within a large financial district, for example, may hold different priorities than a marketing department with

only undergraduates that serves in a community with a high proportion of advertising agencies. The latter department may wish to examine Scott and Frontczak's (1996) findings examining advertising employers' perceptions of new graduates' preparedness specifically for the advertising field while the former may not find it relevant in any way. In fact, with wide divergence in priorities and objectives, a particular educational marketing department may or may not find any study that examines its primary stakeholders of interest – even if it is current.

Furthermore, even when a particular research study does share objectives similar to those held by members of another educational marketing department the data results may not be presented in the format that the members of the other marketing department actually need. A specific marketing department's decision maker(s), for example, may require data to be broken out by certain respondent characteristics that were not provided in the published study. Without access to the raw data, those marketing department members will not be able to analyze the data in the format that they desire.

DATA PROPERTIES: ORDINAL RANKINGS VS. INTERVAL/RATIO RATINGS

Another important consideration in how useful these studies are for a particular marketing department is the scaling properties in which the data is collected and/or presented. Wiles and Spiro's (2004) research as well as McDaniel and White's (1993) PGI offer important insights based on their measures and methodology that extend well beyond their insights into managing marketing academia. Wiles and Spiro (2004), for example, utilized interval scale data from which they could compare the means of each item across the two groups. This approach allows them to identify the size of the gaps between the perceptions of each group. McDaniel and White's (1993) PGI also rates each specific skill/characteristic item with interval scaled measures. The interval scaled measures utilized in each of these studies offers the ability not only to rank the priorities of a long list of items, but also to rate them with corresponding distances between each point. This feature was necessary for allowing McDaniel and White (1993) to create the PGI with similar distance properties.

Unfortunately, researchers have not maintained a systematic approach for providing marketing academicians with up-to-date interval scaled data. The intermittent nature of these studies greatly inhibits the ability to examine truly up-to-date data. Furthermore, much of the empirical research examining priorities for the overall marketing curricula has relied on ordinal scaled rankings (such as Scholder Ellen and Pilling 2002)). Even indexes designed to examine curriculum priorities that were derived from interval scaled data have been transformed into a more ordinal (ranking) format (such as Duke 2002).

These studies provide extremely valuable insights for marketing academicians and each of the authors should be commended for offering this insight. The use of ordinal data, however, lacks the distance properties that McDaniel and White's PGI offered in the early to mid 90s, which does limit its application.

Questions involving the usefulness and analysis of purely ordinal scaled data versus interval scaled data are not new and essays can be found not only in marketing research literature (see Martilla and Carvey 1975 for an important discussion of these issues), but also in psychological studies and general statistical analysis treatises. Interval scoring has the advantage of including ordinal rank, but also a measure of the (possibly perceived) differences between choices. Such differences, though often critical to a marketing study, may or may not be a significant factor in the statistical analysis of the data. Another disadvantage of using ordinal data is the lack of normality necessary for certain statistical measures – such as a *p*-value to assess significance.

It is possible, however, to use mathematical algorithms to convert strictly ordinal data into interval scaled data. In some cases, empirical evidence may be used to determine appropriate intervals; in others the researcher may substitute his own judgment; but more common is the use of a preset pattern such as the normal probability distribution to assign proper interval lengths. In any case, such an algorithm would involve a monotonic (possibly nonlinear) transformation of the data. (Multiple variations on this abound in the literature. See Hofacker (1984) in which several examples are discussed.)

Dowling and Midgley (1991) present an empirical example in which a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) on the interval data was not significantly different from the same analysis on the purely ordinal data. This suggests that some tests, such as MANOVA, are less responsive to the presence of non-constant intervals between response points. It should be noted, however, that their example consisted of intervals that were very nearly a linear transformation (correlation coefficient = 0.9925) of the ordinal rankings. For transformations of ordinal data that are highly nonlinear or that use other statistical tools, the results of the statistical analyses can vary greatly between the interval data and the purely ordinal data (see Brockett and Golden 1992).

While ordinal data can be quite useful, interval data should always be preferable. Ultimately, there may be times when the marketing department head needs to have an understanding of the distances between ranked items. If, for example, a list of generated priorities were to identify written communication skills as the top priority in which marketing faculty should consider improvements, and if analytical skills were demonstrated to be of second highest priority, how much (if any) additional focus should a faculty member devote toward the written communication skills more so than to analytical skills? Should

the marketing academician, furthermore, devote any additional effort to developing students' analytical skills or should all of his/her additional effort be devoted toward the written communication skills? If the answer lies somewhere between these two possibilities, then how much closer should it lie to one extreme or to the other? Without identifying distances between ranked items, a marketing academician would not be able to answer any of these questions with as much certainty as he/she would have with such distances.

Undoubtedly, McDaniel and White's Preparation Gap Index offered valuable insights for any marketing department academician responsible for a wide variety of decisions when it was published in 1993. Also undoubtedly, there have been dramatic changes in business schools' stakeholders' needs as well as in marketing departments' approaches to higher education over the last decade and a half. As techno-savvy Gen X graduate students, even more techno-savvy Gen Y undergraduates, and the techno-engrossed Millennials enter today's ever evolving marketplace, academic marketing departments require consistently updated data on all constituents' needs.

UNDERSTANDING STAKEHOLDER PRIORITIES: WHERE CAN WE GO FROM HERE?

The overall marketing discipline needs a robust index that can be frequently updated that compares the important skill priorities with an honest evaluation of current graduates' preparedness of these skills. To be most effective such an index should offer data with interval properties. Duke (2002) offers an example of the type of data needed since he measures undergraduate students' perceptions of skill priorities with five-point Likert-type scales. In an ideal world of marketing academia, and presumably in the worlds of other academic disciplines as well, Duke's data could be combined with similar data from other researchers in maintaining an overall, up-to-date database.

The occasional appearance of an isolated study of the needs of the various constituencies, the perceptions of each constituency concerning the quality of their preparation in the face of these needs, the relative importance of different factors or even the change in relative importance of recognized factors, may be insufficient to the challenge of keeping marketing education in contact with the environment in which marketing is practiced. What the marketing discipline needs is a consistent tool that assesses the relationship between the education we are designed to deliver and the education that is needed by both the students and the employers. Essentially this is an extension of the concept of outcomes assessment that has developed over the past twenty years in response to a societal call for accountability in higher education.

Outcomes assessment initiatives for an individual program take place at two different levels:

- A. At the individual student level. Is the student learning consistent with expectations of learning from the curricular, co-curricular, and extra-curricular activities students to engage in on their way to their degree?
- B. At the program level. Are students as a group achieving the specific learning outcomes proclaimed in the mission statement?

Since the move toward mission-driven program accreditation, an additional level been added:

- C. How does the performance of a given program compare to the performance of similar programs.

The key element in moving to the third level has been to develop widely used, standardized surveys that measure the perceived satisfaction of students, graduates, and employers with the overall results of their collegiate education. Typical efforts involve exit surveys upon graduation, alumni surveys after 3–5 years of employment, and employer satisfaction surveys concerning recent hires.

Combining assessments from a multitude of schools and programs has generated benchmark comparisons ranging from all schools and programs completing the assessment to all schools or programs from colleges and universities sharing similar classifications (the same Carnegie classification could be one example of classifications), to customized selection of benchmark institutions. The power of assessment data lies in the ability of program directors and curriculum designers to judge student performance and program performance against a panorama of outcomes from other programs in order to make those critical decisions about program development that lead to continual improvement.

As many who have tangled with assessment data and the need to close the loop have discovered, there are almost always more things that a program could work on than time or resources will allow. What is needed for the marketing discipline is a formal way of capturing the current performance and the relative importance of the various dimensions of current performance to key constituencies.

Consistent with Brooks and Rudd (2005), this research makes the following proposals.

- A. The creation of standardized format web-based research instruments that measure the following respondent types:
 1. Undergraduate as well as graduate marketing students.
 2. Recent graduating seniors in marketing in entry level marketing positions.
 3. The direct supervisors of these entry level hires.
 4. Recent graduates from master's programs in key marketing specialties.

5. The direct supervisors of these master's graduates.
6. The collegiate hiring staff from a wide range of companies active in the hiring of graduating seniors and specialty master's in marketing.
7. Faculty involved in curricular design and development at both the undergraduate and graduate levels from a cross-section of small colleges, large universities, full-time and part-time programs, undergraduate and graduate programs.
8. All other alumni from marketing educational degrees.

There will be some overlap since many individuals will fit into more than one of these categories. As such, a priority system would need to be in place to identify how such individuals should be treated.

Note that a web-based format allows for relatively easy data collection, access, and analysis. It is also consistent with the experiences of the constituency groups who will be responding.

- B. A methodology or similar methodologies that utilize interval scale measures to identify the relative importance of differing skills and characteristics on two dimensions: importance for marketing graduates; and preparedness levels of current marketing graduates. Typically, Likert-type scales will be sufficient. Alternatively, if the number of characteristics and attributes examined is relatively small (fewer than 20 or so), a method called analytical hierarchy processing may be useful (see Dyer and Forman 1991). This method creates an N dimensional space that places the N attributes and characteristics in relationship to each other based on having each respondent examine the relative importance of each pair of attributes relative to each other. This method is utilized to make very complex, multi-dimensional decisions in an environment of competing stakeholder interests and may be ideally suited for such a challenge. As such it should be well suited for merging different data sets that contain different dimensions.
- C. A system for publishing this survey and even the data via the web to the appropriate constituencies on a timely and periodic basis. Ideally, the data would be made available in its raw form to marketing academicians and administrators utilizing a fee-based system that would allow academic decision makers the ability to analyze the data across any format that they need (for example, breaking the respondents out by various sub-disciplines such as product management, advertising, consumer behavior, etc. or by respondent characteristics such as gender or class status).

Ideally, such research should also include some effort to project future needs. These proposals are designed to assist marketing higher education decision makers who are charged with meeting the needs of very dynamic constituents. Curriculum development is often a cumbersome, time-consuming, and difficult proposition at best. The drivers behind curriculum changes may include technology (computers, the internet, the worlds wide web, etc.), changes in societal concerns (ethics in the post-Enron era), changes in the competitive landscape (globalization), or changes in accreditation standards. Consistent short-falls in key outcomes assessment over time may indicate the need for curriculum changes. If the data proposed here were available on a consistent basis, marketing educators might have a better chance to anticipate changing needs of key constituents. The key would be for the decision maker to look for more than just year to year fluctuations in the data, but to ascertain consistent results that point to a potential need for change.

In the past, the complexity of this research challenge would have stymied even an open discussion of the possibilities. With the power of electronic cooperation, however, it may now be entirely feasible to mount this kind of research through a consortium of researchers working in their own areas who agree to contribute to the overall database. Just as Chonko (2003) exhorted marketing departments to become "change-ready marketing departments," all marketing faculty share the responsibilities of continuous improvement to develop the skills critical for their students to achieve successful careers. To fully understand how best to deliver an environment that will foster development of the most important skills/characteristics, marketers need current indices of reliable, unbiased measures of importance combined with current student preparedness levels.

DISCUSSION

Implementing these proposed changes would be difficult and may be met with some resistance. (Bringing about change often is met with resistance.) One potential area of resistance would stem from the changes in the incentive structure for the researchers. Such a system, however, could still offer valuable incentives. Clearly, those individuals who conduct this research should still be rewarded through publication and/or direct forms of compensation – much like they are now. There should actually be an increase in demand for such data in order to achieve all of the objectives proposed here. Total incentives, therefore, would likely not be diminished but instead increased. Hopefully, such an increase could reduce some of the initial resistance that may be felt with these changes.

A second area of immediate resistance could stem from the groups that potentially stand to benefit from this approach the most – the educational business departments. Many marketing departments likely conduct their

own research into understanding constituent needs. These departments may be reluctant to agree to a system in which all educational departments have access to the same shared data, however, since educational business programs do compete for students, gifts, and other forms of revenues. An individual marketing department may be concerned that their higher education “competitors” may gain greater benefit than their own department. Perhaps an individual marketing department may even fear that an important competitive advantage may potentially become compromised. Ultimately, however, individual marketing departments should see that the extent to which any department benefits from such data, even in regards to marketplace advantages, is based on how they use the data in their decision making. The appropriate use of such data may well differ with different departments based on the priorities they place on different constituents and on their specific objectives, programs, degrees, and accreditation.

Marketing educators and administrators have to make difficult decisions determining objectives and prioritizing between stakeholders. They then must make difficult decisions regarding how to design their curriculum, their assessment mechanisms, and even their promotions in

light of these objectives. Marketing faculty should have current information that is available for consideration within their own individualized context. The research literature has done a good job of providing information on the needs and priorities of our stakeholders. As Collins (2001) put it, however, in his very famous quote regarding organizations in general, “Good is the enemy of great” (p. 1). The good job that the research literature has offered could still be improved. We owe it to our students, to the business communities, to our alumni, and to ourselves to strive always for greatness.

As educators our ultimate (albeit perhaps ivory tower) goal should be to educate our students – even more so than making money. As marketing educators our ultimate goal should be to educate our students on how to make money (assuming theirs is a profit objective) more effectively and/or efficiently. The better our understanding of the needs of our ever changing stakeholders the more effective and/or more efficient we will be at meeting our own objectives. In other words, the better our understanding of their needs the better we will be able to practice what we teach.

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BENCHMARKING PUBLISHING ACTIVITY OF U.S. COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES ACROSS THE LEADING JOURNALS: A GROUPED EVALUATION

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines institutional research productivity across two sets of journals – Hult et al. (1997) and Polonsky and Whitelaw (2006), based on institutions' Carnegie Foundation Classification, funding type (private or public) and whether institutions' offer PhD's in marketing. It is identified that while Research Intensive institutions publish more than other types of organizations across journal types, the type of funding and offering PhD's in Marketing are equally if not more important. As such, institutions seeking to compare themselves to other institutions should choose a "similar" set of institutions on which to base any comparisons.

INTRODUCTION

Publication of research in peer reviewed journals is an important part of one's career in marketing, as in any academic discipline. Publications are the vehicle by which theoretical and empirical contributions are developed, refined and tested, and serve as the basis for knowledge development in our field. Journal articles are open letters among colleagues – diaries of progress in our discipline. The accumulated work found in peer reviewed journals and synthesized in textbooks and trade publications, represents the body of knowledge we call "Marketing."

As well, these open letters among colleagues serve as the primary mechanism by which the reputations of scholars and institutions are established and sustained. Journal articles are the currency of the realm in academe, and expectations for continued employment and promotion are tied to individuals' publication and research performance (they are the basis of the old phrase, "publish or perish"). They are how we establish tenure in the discipline, not just at our universities. But a system of "publish or perish" begs the question, how much is enough not to "perish?" What are appropriate expectations for contribution to the discipline? It is easy for top schools, whose faculty regularly publish in "top" journals to answer this question, since there is an expectation that these faculty members will either be thought leaders in their chosen field, or they will find an academic home elsewhere. Should everyone be held to the same publishing standards? The answer is of course no and this appears to be recognized in the development or tenure requirements at different types of institutions. For example, it is suggested

that at "research intensive private schools" 2.79 A-journal articles are required for tenure whereas at "balanced state schools" 0.78 A-journal articles are required for tenure (DocSig 2006). The question still needs to be asked – What is an appropriate level of performance at different types of universities?

The *Journal of Marketing Education* and *Marketing Education Review*, as well as other journals play a central role in moving forward the scholarly conversation of research standards and contributions in the field of marketing (cf., Bakir, Vitell, and Rose 2000; Hult, Neese, and Bashaw 1997; Polonsky and Whitelaw 2005). Articles on this topic have tended to focus on two kinds of questions: what are the leading journals in our area (Hult, Neese, and Bashaw 1997; Polonsky and Whitelaw 2005); and, who are the leading researchers and institutions in our field (Bakir, Vitell, and Rose 2000; Cheng, Chan, and Chan 2003)? The measurement of institutional performance is important and uses the institution as the unit of analysis, rather than the journal or scholar. Institutions are enduring and while faculty are hired or fired, move or retire, the research performance of universities might be expected to be more stable over time. Given this, the research question becomes, "what is an appropriate level of research performance, when the unit of analysis is the university?" Because schools differ in size, mission, resources, public support and graduate productivity, it is reasonable that the standards for publication will vary with university assets and educations (Hawes and Keiller 2002; Hult et al. 1997; Koojaroenprasit et al. 1998; Polonsky and Whitelaw 2005). Further, it is reasonable to expect that larger departments will produce more research than smaller

departments, both because of efforts of individuals and synergies among scholars (Bakir et al. 2000).

To examine the research productivity of U.S. faculties, data from 23 leading marketing journals, over a five-year period, were collected and analysed. Given that one might suggest there is not one universal set of leading journals, two different sets of “leading journals” were used, i.e., Hult et al. (1997) and Polonsky and Whitelaw (2006). The research examined whether research performance varied based on the type of institution – public/private support, presence or absence of a doctoral programs, and Carnegie research classification. The data was also adjusted for institutional size, as this might affect productivity. While the focus of the work is not to produce a pecking order of institutions, we do also report on the research performance as well, which can be used as a benchmark for different types of institutions.

THE LITERATURE

Through publication in peer reviewed journals, ownership of ideas is assigned. It is little wonder, then, that within the academy interest and attention is paid to who publishes what, and where. Globally, there has been an increasing interest in understanding academic research productivity (Bakir et al. 2000; Chang et al. 2003; Easton and Easton 2003; Polonsky et al. 2003). In many instances this work has focused on which individuals or institutions are the most productive in the “top” journals (Bakir et al. 2000; Helm et al. 2003), within given regions (Cheng et al. 2003; Polonsky and Mittelstaedt 2006; Polonsky, Mittelstaedt, and Moore 2006) or within various sub-areas of marketing (Henthorne et al. 1998; Zinkhan and Leigh 1999).

Policy makers have taken an interest in research productivity, as well. In Australia, publication patterns have been used to rank research universities (Williams and van Dyke 2004). In other countries, e.g., the United Kingdom, New Zealand, and Hong Kong, research productivity has even been used to allocate government funding among universities (Allen Consulting Group 2005; Daiziel 2005; Tertiary Education Commission 2005). Thus, while the purpose of journal articles is to evaluate the merits of an idea, publishing has also become an instrument by which the merits of institutions and authors are being evaluated. In environments of increasing academic expectations and accountability, success in publishing has become as important (if not more so) than the significance of what is published.

Across countries there would appear to be an increased pressure to “improve” academics’ and institutions’ research performance and research standing (Times 2004). For example, tenure expectations of new PhD’s in Marketing appear to be increasing in both quantity and quality (DocSig 2006).¹ For example, tenure expectations in regards to A journal publications, for new faculty vary

across institution type – Public research institutions expect 1.76 A’s, whereas private research institutions expect 2.79 A’s (DocSig 2006). It does of course need to be acknowledged that these are the expectations that are conveyed to newly hired Ph.D.s, but are these realistic expectations? Should institutions and their scholars be judged by some generic set of standards, or do the publication patterns among institutions warrant different expectations for different kinds of colleges and universities? While establishing measurable goals and targets is valuable (Mort et al. 2004), on an institutional level it is essential that organizations have an understanding of the performance of individuals and the school relative to appropriate individual and institutional peers.

Existing works frequently set out performance of “leading” journals and/or institutions (Bakir et al. 2000; Bettencourt and Houston 2001; Theoharakis and Hirst 2002) which may be relevant to those aspiring to be employed within this group. But these measures and goals may be unrealistic for the vast majority of academics and instructors who are not employed within this cohort. As such, universities and marketing departments seeking to improve research performance must first have an understanding of where they are *relative* to appropriate sets of “competitors.” Performance improvements should not be benchmarked against performance of dissimilar institutions, but consider relative peer institutions’ performance.

Institutions differ in their purpose, resources, missions and objectives, and their modes of contribution, and these should be recognized when considering the merits of academic publication. Previous works looking at productivity (mentioned earlier) have not undertaken any comparisons based on the constituent groups of institutions other than within narrowly defined domains (other than Bakir et al. 2000), which looked at small and large marketing departments. Broad-based comparisons might have limited value for the majority of the 1,398 U.S. Universities and Colleges offering degrees in business disciplines. For example, only 261, or 18.7 percent, are classified as “Research” universities (Carnegie Foundation 2004) and only 94 U.S. institutions offer a doctorate (Ph.D. or D.B.A.) in Marketing (AMA 2005). It is unlikely that individuals at a generalist college (336 institutions or 24%) or marketing non-doctoral granting institutions (93% of all institutions) would want to compare themselves with individuals at research-focused universities. What would be a relative basis of research output comparison for the large percentage of people (i.e., 81.3% assuming they are distributed evenly across institutions) who are not based at research-intensive institutions? To date there are no such comparisons available.

Institutional objectives should also translate into different publication activities (Hawes and Keiller 2002; Lawrence and Dangerfield 2001). This would especially apply to all AACSB accredited institutions with AACSB (2004) guidelines stating: “AACSB member Schools

reflect a diverse range of Missions . . . each institution must achieve and demonstrate an acceptable level of performance consistent with its mission . . .” (p. 1). In terms of intellectual contributions, “The mission statement or associated documents includes *a definition of the intellectual contributions appropriate to the mission*. The definition may be made in terms of content, or in terms of audience, or both (italics added)” p. 23.

“Top” institutions or other groupings could value different types of activity, and thus any global list of rankings (journals, institutions, or individuals) should at least acknowledge this, if not expressly reflect this in rankings (Polonsky 2004). Different focus of institutions might partly explain why Easton and Easton (2003) found that U.K. academics appeared to be targeting a wide spread of journals with their work and that “top” U.S. journals appeared to be under-targeted. Such a result would not be as negative as Easton and Easton suggested.

The purpose of this study is to examine publishing activity across different institutional groupings within highly regarded journals, to determine whether there are differences in the publication behavior among kinds of institutions. Institutions, rather than individuals, are the unit of analysis, since they endure over time (while individuals tend to come and go), and because they set the publication expectations for their faculties. The effects of organizational support (public v. private), Carnegie classification, presence of a doctoral program, and faculty size were examined. Findings suggest that differences should be appreciated among institutions when it comes to evaluating their contributions to academic journals in marketing.

METHODOLOGY

We examined the publication activity of universities over a five-year period of time (1999–2003), for marketing journals generally accepted as “top” by our field (Hult et al. 1997), and among those judged as the best along multiple dimensions (Polonsky and Whitelaw 2006). Five years was chosen as the period of analysis for two reasons: it diminished the effects of any single good or bad year of publishing for any institution; and because it represents the realistic period of time for a newly hired Ph.D. to “fill the pipeline.” The authorship of five years of articles was examined by classification of institution using the Carnegie foundation categories (Carnegie Foundation 2004), state or private support, and whether they offer doctoral education in marketing as reported by the AMA (AMA 2005). Faculty size was benchmarked to the beginning of the period of analysis, using the *1998–1999 Prentice Hall Guide to Marketing Faculty* (Hasselback 1998). This is a potential limitation as the number of faculty would vary over the five years, and some faculty would move among institutions. However, no attempt was made to track the

movement of faculty, since the unit of interest was the institution, rather than the individual.

Classifying Journals

The most commonly accepted standard for journal rankings is found in Hult, Neese, and Bashaw’s 1997 *Journal of Marketing Education* article, “Faculty Perceptions of Marketing Journals.” Intended to “aid in evaluating publication importance via their selected reference groups,” it developed a hierarchy of journals for both doctoral and non-doctoral universities, based on the perceptions of marketing faculty. Results included both marketing and general business journals, as well as some conference proceedings. This article has become important in the evaluation of journals and of faculty, since its publication. Though the *Journal of Marketing Education* is not included in the Social Science Citation Index, “Faculty Perceptions . . .” has been referenced 26 times in other journals that are listed. While Hult et al. rank journals, they do not identify A-level or B-level journals, or otherwise, leaving open the question of what is an A. In this study we included for analysis those journals in the Overall Ranking Top 30, excluding those that were conference proceedings or general business journals. This left 20 peer reviewed, marketing journals (included in Table 1).

Polonsky and Whitelaw (2005) grouped journals as “A,” “B,” or “C,” according to how the “average” U.S. academic viewed a set of marketing journals on four dimensions – prestige, contribution to theory, contribution to practice, and contribution to teaching. Within their study Polonsky and Whitelaw identified 20 journals that their sample was most familiar with, i.e., able to evaluate, and these then formed the basis of their work in regards to develop rankings of these journals (see Table 1). This set of journals was selected for use because it covered a cross section of marketing oriented journals and focused on U.S. marketing academics’ perceptions. Polonsky and Whitelaw (2000a) also identified that these 20 journals had for the most part been included in previous ranking studies, although they and others have acknowledged that there is always some disagreement regarding any set of journals to be examined across the discipline (Hawes and Keiller 2002; Hult et al. 1997; Mort et al. 2004; Polonsky et al. 1999; Theoharakis and Hirst 2002). Polonsky and Whitelaw (2005) suggest that their rankings are statistically consistent with others such as those developed by Theoharakis and Hirst (2002) and Baumgartner and Pieters (2003).

The added benefit to using Polonsky and Whitelaw’s set of journals is that their multi-dimensional nature allowed journals to be “clustered” using the four evaluative criteria, which is also presented in Table 1. In this way their groupings allow the research presented in this paper

to examine performance across clusters of journals, which reflect broad groups used in regards to evaluation of performance. For example, the tenure expectations of new faculty are specified in “A’s and B’s” rather than in terms of specific journals (DocSig 2006). This allows for a more

straightforward comparison between types of institutions, although it should be noted that there might be some disagreement in regards to how journals are classified, especially if they “adopt” mission-based evaluations.

TABLE 1
JOURNAL CRITERIA SCORES AND RANKINGS
(ADAPTED FROM POLONSKY AND WHITELAW 2004A AND 2004B)

JOURNAL	Hult et al. Rank	P&W Prestige Score	P&W Theory Score	P&W Practice Score	P&W Teaching Score	P&W Rating
Journal of Marketing	1	6.52	6.17	5.47	4.59	A
Journal of Marketing Research	2	6.52	6.35	5.09	4.08	A
Journal of Consumer Research	3	6.58	6.45	4.34	4.13	A
Journal of Retailing	4	5.59	5.32	5.14	4.07	A
Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science	5	5.52	5.41	4.67	3.91	A
Marketing Science	6	6.24	6.05	4.98	4.00	A
Journal of Advertising	9	5.24	5.06	4.76	3.92	B
Journal of Advertising Research	10	4.86	4.66	5.06	4.14	B
Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management	12	4.43	4.43	4.86	4.09	B
Journal of Public Policy & Marketing	14	5.20	4.80	4.85	4.03	B
Journal of Marketing Education	15	4.11	3.74	3.61	5.39	B
Psychology & Marketing	16	4.57	4.59	3.82	3.30	B
Industrial Marketing Management	20	4.42	3.95	4.71	4.08	B
International Journal of Research in Marketing	26	4.79	4.82	4.18	3.68	B
Journal of Consumer Psychology	27	5.26	5.26	4.02	3.55	B
European Journal of Marketing	30	4.13	4.10	4.23	3.33	B
Marketing Letters	*	4.68	4.49	4.10	3.44	B
Journal of Consumer Marketing	21	3.69	3.71	3.66	2.94	C
Academy of Marketing Science Review	-	3.16	3.55	2.84	2.08	C
Advances in Consumer Research	*	4.26	4.69	2.85	3.04	C
Journal of International Marketing	24					-
Journal of Services Marketing	25					-
Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice	28					-

* Ranked but not included in as part of the Hult et al. measure.
 ** Not ranked by Hult et al. and not included in the Hult et al. measure
 *** Not included in the Polonsky and Whitelaw measure.

Classifying Institutions

The grouping of authors' institutions was undertaken using the Carnegie Foundation Classification (2004), state or private support, and whether or not schools offered a doctoral degree in marketing. These classifications were thought to be important because, broadly speaking, they affect either the mission of the institution and/or the department, and affect research expectations (DocSig 2006) and productivity of scholars, directly or indirectly. For example, institution focus on research sets institution-wide standards for research productivity, while the presence of a doctoral program places a high department emphasis on knowledge creation, in addition to knowledge dissemination. Public versus private support may create different standards for what it means to contribute to the mission of the institution, either in goals or definitions of quality of productivity. The 1,398 U.S. universities and colleges can be broadly grouped into four main areas using the Carnegie categorizations (2004) – Research Intensive Institutions (RI), awarding ten or more doctorates per year across three or more disciplines; Research Extensive Institutions (RE), awarding 50 or more doctorates per year across at least 15 disciplines; Masters Colleges and Universities (Masters); and Baccalaureate Colleges and Associates (Bachelors). It is suggested that there might be some “commonality” in regards to the general focus of institutions within each of the four categories. As such, one would expect that publishing performance across journal type would vary.

DATA

The data were collected by reviewing all articles published in top journals between 1999 and 2003, classified as such either by Hult et al. (1997) or Polonsky and Whitelaw (2006). All author's institutions of affiliation were identified and tabulated in two ways. First, the number of authors from each institution was counted. For example, if there were four co-authors each authors' institution was allocated a “1.” If more than one author was affiliated with the same institution, this institution would have been credited multiple times. Second, the data was also tabulated to reflect the contribution of each author to the article, with a sum of 1.00 points allocated between all contributors' institutions and it was assumed that each author contributed equally to the publication. In cases where an individual listed more than one affiliation their “score” was split between institutions.

The two sets of publication data were aggregated for each institution across journals, both for journals identified by Hult et al. (1997), and by Polonsky and Whitelaw (2006). Total publications for the leading marketing journals, as ranked by Hult et al. and Polonsky and Whitelaw, as well as the latter's “A” and “B” publications, were examined, with and without adjusting for faculty size.

While the focus of this work is not to develop rankings of institutions, we do provide a list of the top institutions by journal types based on support type and doctoral offering (see Appendix A).

Mean publishing activity was examined for all publications, and by journal class, across and between school types and classifications. Additionally, analysis of variance was employed to assess the simultaneous effects of institution classification, support and doctoral education on research output. The results will provide guidance for research expectations across different types of institutions.

Across the journals examined there were 3,414 articles, including 929 “A” articles, and 1,861 “B” articles. The authors came from 849 different academic institutions, of which 406 were U.S. universities (47.94%), who published part or all of 65.15 percent of the articles included. The institutional data included all authors at an institution, irrespective of their department or school. The listing of institutions only included “branch” campuses separately only if this is how the authors identified themselves in their bibliographic details within journal articles.

Intuitions were classified based on their Carnegie Classification scheme in the four categories of Research Intensive, Research Extensive, Masters (Masters 1 and Masters 2), and Bachelors (aggregated all bachelor and associate institutions). Specialized Business Schools (5 institutions) and those not categorized (6 institutions) by the Carnegie Classification scheme were tabulated but excluded from the analysis. Of the 406 U.S. institutions included, 335 (82.55%) had AACSB accreditation.

ANALYSIS

Table 2 summarizes average productivity over the five years examined for the reduced set of Carnegie classifications (research extensive, research intensive, masters and bachelors). Research Extensive institutions produce more research overall, and across all levels of journals and as a percentage of institutions represented, than any other classification of institution, followed by Research Intensive institutions. Faculty at Masters and Bachelors institutions appear to have much lower research performance, but also lower expectations according to recent tenure requirement surveys (DocSig 2006), both in terms of numbers of articles published and percentage of institutions represented in the journals.

Table 3 summarizes average research productivity, by public or private support, and presence of absence of a doctoral program in marketing as reported by AMA (2005). The results indicate that doctoral granting universities produce more research than non-doctoral granting institutions, and that private institutions produce more per capita than publics, overall and among A-level journals (significance of differences is assessed below in the analysis of variance). Private, doctoral granting institu-

TABLE 2
AVERAGE DEPARTMENTAL PRODUCTIVITY, BY CARNEGIE
CLASSIFICATION ADJUSTED FOR FACULTY SIZE

Category		P&W Hult, et al.	P&W TOTAL	P&W A-Level	P&W B-Level	C-Level
Research Extensive	Mean	1.9431	2.1629	0.8499	0.9883	0.3247
	N	144	144	144	144	144
	Std. Deviation	1.06944	1.2937	0.8423	0.6145	0.4352
Research Intensive	Mean	0.8829	0.9323	0.1998	0.5667	0.1658
	N	69	69	69	69	69
	Std. Deviation	0.88559	1.0531	0.5283	0.5914	0.3391
Masters	Mean	0.5282	0.4961	0.0749	0.3166	0.1046
	N	169	171	171	171	171
	Std. Deviation	0.52185	0.4931	0.1770	0.4059	0.2180
Bachelors	Mean	1.0304	0.9524	0.1306	0.6704	0.1514
	N	26	30	30	30	30
	Std. Deviation	1.84811	1.7142	0.2934	1.5129	0.3391

tions produce more A-level journal authorships than B-level authorships, and more A-level authorships than their public counterparts, while public, doctoral schools produce more than their private counterparts, overall, more B-level authorships than privates, and more B's than A's. These findings suggest that while doctoral granting institutions produce more than non-doctoral granting departments, "productivity" may mean different things between public and private institutions, again supporting differences in expectations of institutions (DocSig 2006).

Taken together, all of this suggests that research productivity seems to vary with performance expectations, and that institutional expectations appear to be driven by public/private mission, focus on graduate education, and broader institutional research objectives (i.e., Carnegie Classification). To assess the simultaneous effects of these various factors, analyses of variance were conducted, by journal level. Table 4 summarizes the full-

factorial effects of doctoral programs and public/private support, across journal type, while Table 5 includes Research Extensive, Research Intensive, Masters, and Bachelor classifications as covariates.

Table 4 indicates that, overall, the presence or absence of a doctoral program is the single most important factor in determining research output. This likely reflects mission, infrastructure, work-load and rewards. For A-Level journals, there is a significant interaction between doctoral programs and public/private support, though examination of means suggest this reflects a difference in slopes rather than a cross-over effect. Among B-Level journals, there is a significant doctoral main effect, but no significant public/private effect. There is, however, a significant interaction effect ($p < .10$). Among B-level publications, publics with doctoral programs published more than their private counterparts, while the opposite was true among non-doctoral granting institutions. This

TABLE 3
AVERAGE DEPARTMENTAL PRODUCTIVITY, BY PUBLIC/PRIVATE SUPPORT
AND DOCTORAL RESEARCH ADJUSTED FOR FACULTY SIZE

Public or Private	Grants Marketing Doctorates		Hult et al.	P&W TOTAL	P&W A-Level	P&W B-Level	P&W C-Level
Private	Doctoral granting	Mean	2.4786	2.8317	1.6566	0.9537	0.2213
		N	24	24	24	24	24
		Std. Deviation	1.09972	1.2463	0.9945	0.3926	0.2505
	Non-Doctoral granting	Mean	0.9498	0.9186	0.2353	0.5342	0.1491
		N	125	125	125	125	125
		Std. Deviation	1.16113	1.1650	0.4874	0.8726	0.2863
	Total	Mean	1.1960	1.2268	0.4642	0.6018	0.1607
		N	149	149	149	149	149
		Std. Deviation	1.27887	1.3698	0.7922	0.8281	0.2813
Public	Doctoral granting	Mean	2.0461	2.4429	0.8140	1.1489	0.4800
		N	75	75	75	75	75
		Std. Deviation	0.87558	1.2099	0.6724	0.6038	0.5280
	Non-Doctoral granting	Mean	0.6780	0.6455	0.1268	0.4147	0.1039
		N	199	199	199	199	199
		Std. Deviation	0.74960	0.7386	0.3671	0.5113	0.2284
	Total	Mean	1.0525	1.1375	0.3149	0.6157	0.2069
		N	274	274	274	274	274
		Std. Deviation	0.99437	1.1988	0.5608	0.6293	0.3764
Total	Doctoral granting	Mean	2.1510	2.5372	1.0182	1.1016	0.4173
		N	99	99	99	99	99
		Std. Deviation	0.94732	1.2239	0.8398	0.5643	0.4875
	Non-Doctoral granting	Mean	0.7829	0.7509	0.1687	0.4608	0.1213
		N	324	324	324	324	324
		Std. Deviation	0.93786	0.9345	0.4203	0.6752	0.2529
	Total	Mean	1.1031	1.1689	0.3675	0.6108	0.1906
		N	423	423	423	423	423
		Std. Deviation	1.10361	1.2608	0.6547	0.7048	0.3462

TABLE 4
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS, BY PUBLIC/PRIVATE SUPPORT AND
DOCTORAL EDUCATION ADJUSTED FOR FACULTY SIZE

Source	Hult et al. F (Sig)	P&W Top 20 – Publications F (sig)	A Publications F (sig)	B Publications F (sig)	C Publications F (Sig)
Corrected Model	58.099 (.000)	83.207 (.000)	85.207 (.000)	26.024 (.000)	26.303 (.000)
Intercept	642.344 (.000)	685.252 (.000)	439.909 (.000)	324.638 (.000)	131.772 (.000)
Doctoral	142.405 (.000)	201.728 (.000)	243.711 (.000)	46.399 (.000)	29.088 (.000)
Pubpriv	8.416 (.004)	6.418 (.012)	49.593 (.000)	0.200 (.655)	6.600 (.011)
Doctoral * Pubpriv	0.439 (.508)	0.196 (.658)	29.546 (.000)	3.452 (.064)	13.362 (.000)
R squared	.294	.373	.379	.157	.158
Adjusted R Squared	.289	.369	.374	.151	.152

Significant relationships in bold.

suggests that, at least as far as A-Level and B-Level publications are concerned, and among doctoral-granting departments, public and private institutions place different value on A-level and B-Level publications.

Table 5 includes a reduced set of Carnegie classifications for Research Extensive (RE), Research Intensive (RI), Masters and Bachelors institutions as covariate classification variables. When Carnegie classifications are included, across journal classes, research extensive schools were significantly more likely to publish than other institutions, schools with doctoral programs were more likely to publish than non-doctoral granting schools, and publics were more likely to publish than privates. The effects appear to be additive. For A-Level journals, doctoral education has a significant effect, as does public/private, and there is a significant interaction effect between doctoral status and public/private. For B-Level journals, the research extensive effect was significant, and their introduction extracts sufficient variance from other factors to make the interaction between doctoral education and public/private support significant. When the broader expectations of institutions are factored in, the differences between research expectations between doctoral and non-doctoral institutions will vary by public or private support. Again, it appears that structure and mission affect the value placed on publications by difference institutions.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on our examination of publication patterns in top marketing journals from 1999–2003, the following conclusion can be drawn: when it comes to publication expectations and productivity, one size does not fit all. While some suggest that marketing departments and scholars are in general agreement about what constitutes “top” research in the field (Baumgarter and Pieters 2003), this study demonstrates that schools should use these benchmarks of quality differently, depending on mission and focus. For doctoral granting departments, research productivity in top journals is expected. Among non-doctoral granting departments, and among non-Carnegie research universities research productivity is substantially lower, and standards for tenure and promotion should be adjusted to reflect institutional missions. Private universities and public universities have different missions and constituents, and in some cases this affects their apparent emphasis on research productivity. Regardless of whether a department has a doctoral program, scholars at Carnegie Research Extensive universities feel campus expectations to demonstrate high quality research, regardless of their role in the marketing discipline. Because factors such as these appear to affect research expectations and productivity, benchmarks are needed for all types of universities and departments, and these should reflect peer expectations, not peer pressures.

TABLE 5
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS, BY PUBLIC/PRIVATE SUPPORT AND DOCTORAL
EDUCATION AND CARNEGIE CLASSIFICATION, ADJUSTED FOR FACULTY SIZE

Total Authorships					
Source	Hult et al. F (sig)	Top 20 – Publications F (sig)	A Publications F (sig)	B Publications F (sig)	C Publications F (sig)
Corrected Model	35.759 (.000)	45.517 (.000)	43.458 (.000)	15.718 (.000)	11.833 (.000)
Intercept	20.293 (.000)	12.827 (.000)	14.448 (.003)	4.040 (.045)	0.608 (.436)
RE	10.677 (.001)	6.671 (.010)	1.505 (.221)	4.597 (.033)	2.459 (.118)
RI	0.546 (.460)	0.821 (.366)	0.282 (.595)	1.283 (.258)	1.710 (.192)
Masters	0.291 (.590)	0.025 (.874)	1.284 (.258)	0.024 (.878)	1.006 (.316)
Bachelors	1.322 (.251)	1.052 (.306)	0.643 (.423)	2.416 (.121)	1.583 (.723)
Doctoral	27.704 (.000)	55.616 (.000)	77.396 (.000)	7.122 (.008)	10.501 (.001)
Pubpriv	7.377 (.007)	5.628 (.018)	49.072 (.000)	0.443 (.506)	6.687 (.010)
Doctoral * Pubpriv	0.140 (.708)	0.027 (.868)	27.912 (.000)	4.265 (.040)	13.848 (.000)
R Squared	.376	.434	.423	.210	.166
Adjusted R Squared	.366	.425	.413	.196	.152

Significant relationships in bold.

While the focus of this work is not to provide a “pecking” order of institutions, we have provided the top institutions within each institutional category. In developing this list we used percentage authorship as the indicator of performance, rather than number of articles to which authors contributed. Appendix A lists the top 10 institutions for publics and privates, doctoral- and non-doctoral granting universities. As the results above indicate, these lists provide some evidence that a single, “golden rule” for publication is not a standard that benefits anyone.

LIMITATIONS

This type of study has many potential limitations. Firstly we did not weight publications across the top 20 journals. Thus, an article in *Journal of Marketing* had the same weighing as one in the *Journal of Consumer Marketing*. It would possibly be possible to weight A, B, and C publications, but in reality any such adjustments would

vary by institution. Thus, some schools which only count A’s might weight B and C publications as zero, where as other institutions might weight B publications as one with A’s being given a multiplier. The Carnegie Classification is rather broad and does not look at institutional or departmental objectives. This can cause problems when the institution is classified as Research Extensive, but there is no Ph.D. program in marketing. Thus, other demographic data such as number of marketing academics would be valuable.

We did not undertake any adjustments for paper length. While this has been done in previous studies (Cheng et al. 2003), it is unclear whether institutions undertake such a weighting when evaluating faculty. The fact that we did not look at individual authors is also potentially a limitation. One prolific author would impact on an institutions overall performance and, in fact, some institutions seek out to “buy” publications by hiring well-regarded authors. The impact of faculty moving between

institutions is an interesting issue. Does the individual's ex-institution maintain any benefit from the publications once the person leaves, even though the institutional name is on the publications? It might be suggested that this is not

the case and thus those institutions need to continually recruit suitable replacements to maintain their image. These questions are left for future research

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APPENDIX A				
TOP-PRODUCING SCHOOLS, BY FOUR MEASURES OF PRODUCTIVITY, UNADJUSTED AND ADJUSTED FOR FACULTY SIZE				
Top-Producing Private, Doctoral Schools, % of Authorships				
Rank	Hult et al.	P&W Overall	P&W “A” Journals	P&W “B” Journals
1	Pennsylvania (39.5)	Columbia (36.9)	Columbia (24.1)	Pennsylvania (15.9)
2	Columbia (34.0)	Northwestern (34.8)	Northwestern (20.1)	Columbia (11.6)
3	Northwestern (32.2)	Southern Cal (28.8)	Duke (18.2)	Northwestern (11.5)
4	NYU (24.9)	Pennsylvania (26.6)	Harvard (12.5)	NYU (10.0)
5	Southern Cal (23.9)	Duke (22.5)	Pennsylvania (9.7)	Stanford (7.7)
6	Harvard (20.7)	Harvard (22.0)	Carnegie Mellon (8.3)	Southern Cal (7.1)
7	Duke (19.6)	NYU (17.9)	Emory (7.6)	MIT (6.2)
8	Stanford (17.7)	Stanford (14.8)	MIT (7.3)	Case Western (6.2)
9	M.I.T. (13.3)	MIT (14.0)	NYU (6.3)	Cornell (5.1)
10	Chicago (13.2)	Case Western (13.1)	Stanford (6.2)	Chicago (4.8)
Top-Producing Private, Doctoral Schools, % of Authorships, Adjusted for Faculty Size				
Rank	Hult et al.	P&W Overall	P&W “A” Journals	P&W “B” Journals
1	Columbia (2.4)	Southern Cal (2.7)	Columbia (1.7)	Columbia (0.8)
2	Yale (2.0)	Columbia (2.6)	Yale (1.5)	Case Western (0.8)
3	Stanford (2.0)	Stanford (2.3)	Carnegie Mellon (1.5)	Stanford (0.7)
4	Pennsylvania (1.9)	Pennsylvania (2.1)	Stanford (1.4)	Cornell (0.7)
5	Carnegie Mellon (1.9)	Carnegie Mellon (2.0)	Duke (1.4)	Pennsylvania (0.7)
6	Emory (1.7)	Yale (2.0)	Pennsylvania (1.3)	Emory (0.6)
7	Duke (1.6)	Chicago (1.9)	Chicago (1.2)	Carnegie Mellon (0.6)
8	Cornell (1.6)	Duke (1.8)	Southern Cal (1.1)	Southern Cal (0.5)
9	Vanderbilt (1.5)	Emory (1.7)	Vanderbilt (1.1)	Harvard (0.5)
10	Chicago (1.5)	Vanderbilt (1.6)	Emory (1.1)	Yale (0.5)
Top-Producing Public, Doctoral Schools, % of Authorships				
Rank	Hult et al.	P&W Overall	P&W “A” Journals	P&W “B” Journals
1	Michigan State (25.0)	Michigan (33.7)	Pittsburgh (20.1)	Penn State (18.7)
2	Florida (24.2)	Penn State (31.6)	Michigan (15.6)	Rutgers (13.5)
3	Illinois (23.7)	Rutgers (31.1)	Wisconsin (13.7)	Ok State (13.4)
4	Texas (23.6)	Illinois (28.6)	Minnesota (13.7)	Mich. State (12.5)
5	Michigan (22.3)	Pittsburgh (26.9)	Florida (12.2)	Michigan (12.2)
6	Rutgers (21.8)	Arizona State (23.3)	Cincinnati (11.0)	Arizona State (12.0)
7	UCLA (20.9)	Florida (23.3)	Arizona State (10.3)	Georgia (10.9)
8	Minnesota (20.7)	Ok. State (21.6)	Illinois (9.8)	Arizona (10.7)
9	Wisconsin (20.2)	Arizona (19.2)	SUNY Buffalo (9.0)	Illinois (10.7)
10	Indiana (18.9)	Mich. State (19.2)	UCLA (7.9)	Texas (10.7)

APPENDIX A (CONTINUED)

Top-Producing Public, Doctoral Schools, % of Authorships, Adjusted for Faculty Size

Rank	Hult et al.	P&W Overall	P&W “A” Journals	P&W “B” Journals
1	Purdue (2.6)	Purdue (2.9)	UCLA (1.6)	Purdue (1.8)
2	UCLA (1.9)	Rutgers (2.8)	UC Berkeley (1.4)	Old Dominion (1.3)
3	UC Berkeley (1.9)	Berkeley (2.6)	Wisconsin (1.3)	Houston (1.2)
4	Pittsburgh (1.9)	Illinois (2.4)	Pittsburgh (1.2)	Temple (1.2)
5	Illinois (1.8)	Pittsburgh (2.3)	UC Irvine ((1.1)	Rutgers (1.2)
6	Florida (1.7)	Minnesota (2.2)	North Carolina (1.1)	Illinois (1.0)
7	Wisconsin (1.7)	UNCL (2.1)	Florida (1.0)	LSU (1.0)
8	Rutgers (1.7)	Nebraska (2.1)	Michigan (1.0)	Arkansas (0.9)
9	Old Dom. (1.7)	UC Irvine (2.1)	Maryland (0.9)	Kentucky (0.9)
10	Mississippi (1.7)	Florida (1.9)	Kansas (0.9)	Oklahoma State (0.9)

Top-Producing Private, Non-Doctoral Schools, % of Authorships

Rank	Hult et al.	P&W Overall	P&W “A” Journals	P&W “B” Journals
1	Notre Dame (18.1)	TCU (14.6)	Dartmouth (8.3)	Baylor (11.9)
2	Baylor (17.3)	Baylor (14.6)	TCU (7.9)	Hofstra (7.3)
3	Babson (14.7)	Dartmouth (11.6)	Santa Clara (6.2)	Drexel (7.0)
4	Miami (FL) (12.9)	DePaul (10.82)	Babson (6.0)	TCU (6.7)
5	Dartmouth (12.0)	Babson (9.8)	Northeastern (3.7)	BYU (6.7)
6	Georgetown (9.6)	Drexel (9.2)	Notre Dame (3.6)	DePaul (6.0)
7	Texas Christian (9.2)	BYU (8.8)	Tiffin Univ. (3.3)	Villanova (5.6)
8	Fordham (9.0)	Hofstra (7.8)	DePaul (3.3)	Georgetown (5.0)
9	Hofstra (7.8)	Boston Coll. (7.4)	Rensselaer (2.9)	Miami (FL) (4.7)
10	Drexel (7.7)	Villanova (7.0)	Boston College (2.7)	Wake Forest (4.5)

Top-Producing Private, Non-Doctoral Schools, % of Authorships, Adjusted for Faculty Size

Rank	Hult et al.	P&W Overall	P&W “A” Journals	P&W “B” Journals
1	Dartmouth (2.4)	Dartmouth (2.5)	Dartmouth (2.0)	Willamette (1.8)
2	Willamette (2.3)	Willamette (2.3)	Clarkson (1.0)	Portland (1.2)
3	Skidmore (1.8)	Skidmore (1.8)	Rice (1.0)	TCU (1.2)
4	Rice (1.7)	Rice (1.7)	SMU (0.7)	Notre Dame (1.0)
5	Portland (2.4)	Miami (FL) (1.6)	Santa Clara (0.6)	Widener (1.0)
6	TCU (1.5)	Portland (1.6)	Willamette (0.5)	Miami (FL) (1.0)
7	Notre Dame (1.5)	Notre Dame (1.5)	Rensselaer Poly (0.5)	Baylor (0.9)
8	Widener U (1.5)	TCU (1.5)	Bucknell (0.5)	Skidmore (0.9)
9	Miami (FL) (1.4)	Rensselaer Poly (1.4)	Miami (FL) (0.5)	Villanova (0.9)
10	Clark (1.3)	Howard (1.4)	Notre Dame (0.5)	Clark (0.8)

Top-Producing Public, Non-Doctoral Schools, % of Authorships

Rank	Hult et al.	P&W Overall	P&W “A” Journals	P&W “B” Journals
1	Iowa State (16.5)	Iowa State (16.1)	UC Riverside (13.2)	Iowa State (10.2)
2	Col. State (15.6)	NC State (16.0)	NC State (13.2)	Northern Iowa (10.0)
3	Kansas State (11.8)	Toledo (14.83)	So. Miss (11.6)	Col. State (9.6)
4	Bowling Green (11.2)	UC Riverside (14.0)	Toledo (9.3)	Kansas State (7.8)

APPENDIX A (CONTINUED)

Rank	Hult et al.	P&W Overall	P&W “A” Journals	P&W “B” Journals
5	Delaware (10.9)	So. Miss. (14.0)	UNC Asheville (6.7)	Delaware (7.5)
6	Clemson (9.8)	Col. State (13.1)	Portland State (6.2)	Vermont (6.5)
7	Toledo (8.8)	No. Iowa (12.6)	SDSU (4.7)	Wisc-White (6.4)
8	Auburn (8.6)	Wisc.-Milw. (11.9)	Wayne State (4.3)	Metro-State (5.8)
9	Oregon State (8.33)	Kansas State (10.9)	SW Miss. St. (4.0)	Toledo (5.5)
10	Western Mich. (7.2)	Delaware (10.3)	Iowa State (3.6)	Auburn (5.4)
Top-Producing Public, Non-Doctoral Schools, % of Authorships, Adjusted for Faculty Size				
Rank	Hult et al.	P&W Overall	P&W “A” Journals	P&W “B” Journals
1	Colo State (2.2)	NC State (2.1)	NC State (1.8)	SUNY, Fredonia (1.7)
2	NC State (2.1)	Colorado State (2.1)	UC Davis (1.2)	Colorado State (1.5)
3	Iowa State (1.8)	Iowa State (1.9)	Colorado State (0.6)	Iowa State (1.2)
4	Kansas State (1.7)	UC Davis (1.8)	Oregon State (0.5)	Kansas State (1.2)
5	Oregon State (1.7)	Kansas State (1.7)	Arkansas Tech (0.5)	Winona State (1.0)
6	SUNY Fredonia (1.7)	SUNY, Fredonia (1.7)	SUNY, Geneseo (0.5)	Maine (1.0)
7	Arkansas Tech (1.5)	Oregon State (1.4)	Delaware (0.4)	Vermont (0.9)
8	Maine (1.3)	Delaware (1.2)	Iowa State (0.4)	Oregon State (0.9)
9	US Davis (1.3)	NJ Inst. Tech (1.2)	Wright State (0.4)	Bowling Green (0.7)
10	Vermont (1.2)	Vermont (1.1)	Col. - Denver (0.3)	UC Davis (0.7)
<p>¹ Although there is also some evidence from respondents to the DocSig survey, that stated expectations are not necessarily those that will ultimately be applied.</p>				

EXPLORING MARKETING STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PEDAGOGICAL INNOVATIONS USING THE CRITICAL INCIDENT TECHNIQUE (CIT) APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

Pedagogical innovations have significant implications for marketing educators' effectiveness. Consistent with the notion that customer orientation makes innovation efforts more effective, an understanding of student (customer) perceptions of pedagogical innovations could greatly facilitate better development and dissemination of pedagogical innovations. Therefore, this paper employs the critical incident technique (CIT) approach and explores marketing students' perceptions of both pedagogical innovations and innovative instructors. Implications of the study for marketing pedagogy are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

To improve their teaching effectiveness, marketing educators often attempt to develop and employ innovative pedagogical techniques in their classrooms. As Albers-Miller, Straughan, and Prenshaw (2001, p. 249) observe, "the call for innovation has become a recurring theme" that resonates among faculty across business schools. Innovative techniques, for example, those that promote active or experiential learning, have been demonstrated to have a significant impact on student learning and performance outcomes. Subsequently, there is an increased interest in developing, sharing, and practicing effective pedagogical innovations. In fact, *Marketing Education Review* has an annual special issue dedicated to pedagogical innovations. However, what are pedagogical innovations? Adapting Phillips' (1981) definition of education innovation, we consider pedagogical innovations as *classroom practices and activities that are (a) different from standard instructional methods, (b) specifically designed for a particular course or topic (c) worthy of emulation, and/or (d) yet to be adopted by a significant number of other instructors.*

What helps marketing educators in their innovation efforts? Among other things, this article contends that customer (student) orientation can have positive impact on pedagogical innovation. Drawing on the innovation research stream in the marketing literature, this article rests on the foundational premise that customer orientation can help in the innovation efforts of marketing educators. Furthermore, as with any other innovation, the effectiveness of innovative pedagogical techniques needs

to be monitored closely. Simply stated, a customer orientation refers to the identification, analysis, understanding, and responsiveness to customer needs (Gatignon and Xuereb 1997; Narver and Slater 1990). Accordingly, a customer oriented approach toward developing, implementing, and modifying pedagogical innovations would involve studying and understanding students' perceptions of such techniques.

The marketing literature is replete with studies highlighting the importance of customer oriented approaches in business-to-business, business-to-consumer, and consumer-to-consumer settings. Correspondingly, in the context of pedagogy, Desai, Damewood, and Jones (2001) empirically show that customer oriented approaches by professional educators can lead to improved ways of teaching. Likewise, Smart, Kelly, and Conant (1999) propose that marketing educators must listen and respond to their students. Unfortunately, while some studies have explored marketing instructors' perceptions of pedagogical innovations (e.g., Conant, Smart, and Kelley 1988; Smart, Kelley, and Conant 2003), barring Clarke, Flaherty, and Mottner (2001), marketing students' perceptions of pedagogical innovations remain relatively unexplored. The purpose of this paper is to address this gap and examine marketing students' perceptions regarding pedagogical innovations and innovative instructors. Specifically, we explore the following issues:

- ◆ When do marketing students perceive certain pedagogical techniques as innovative?
- ◆ How do marketing students expect to benefit from pedagogical innovations?

- ◆ What distinct characteristics do marketing students observe in innovative instructors?
- ◆ Where do marketing students see the need for more innovations?

To achieve these goals, we employ the critical incident technique (henceforth, CIT), which is a valid and reliable research technique that yields rich qualitative data (Houston and Bettencourt 1999). While the CIT is quite popular in service research, it has not been applied extensively in the marketing education literature.

The paper is organized as follows. First, borrowing from past studies on customer orientation in marketing pedagogy, we discuss the theoretical rationale for this study. Second, after a brief review and description of the CIT approach, we discuss the implementation of our study. Finally, we discuss the study's key findings and offer directions for future research.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

An extension of the marketing concept (Drucker 1954), customer orientation has become firmly ensconced within the marketing literature. While numerous studies have cited the beneficial effects of customer orientation on business performance (e.g., Deshpande, Farley, and Webster 1993; Lukas and Ferrell 2000; Narver and Slater 1990), others have argued that customer oriented approaches are detrimental to the organization (e.g., Gatignon and Xuereb 1997; Voss and Voss 2000). Likewise, in the context of marketing pedagogy, research on customer orientation has produced mixed viewpoints. Focusing on the merits of a customer orientation, Clarke, Flaherty, and Mottner (2001) note that the adoption of "a bottom-up view" or studying student perceptions can enable marketing educators to improve their curriculum and teaching methods more effectively. Likewise, Lea, Stephenson, and Troy (2003) noted the beneficial effects of student-centered approaches and called for greater consultation with students.

On the other hand, as Obermiller, Fleenor, and Raven (2005) note, critics have described customer oriented pedagogical approaches as tantamount to letting the inmates run the asylum. Similarly, Franz (1998) states that customer oriented faculty may be reduced to entertainers, engaged in roles of delighting students instead of teaching them. Others have debated whether students should be treated as "customers" and have questioned the appropriateness of a customer orientation in pedagogy (see Franz 1998; Obermiller, Fleenor, and Raven 2005).

In this paper, following Hunt (2002), we adopt a more moderate posture pertaining to customer oriented pedagogy. As Hunt (2002, p. 60, italics added) notes:

[W]e owe our students an *obligation to listen*.

That is, our clients' expressed needs must serve as input for marketing programs and pedagogy. However,

we also have a complementary duty: we must *resist the temptation to obey*. As professionals, just as physicians cannot allow patients to prescribe their own medicine, we—mindful of our fiduciary relationship with students – must also rely on our best professional judgment as to appropriate marketing programs, courses, and pedagogy.

That is, while the collection of information pertaining to student needs is both necessary and harmless, faculty response to such information must be based on careful analyses. Indeed, as students may not be the best judges of what is appropriate for attaining their learning goals, blindly acting upon expressed needs is futile. Further, it is also possible that students may not be able to articulate their learning needs. Therefore, the tasks of determining students' learning needs and developing suitable teaching practices lie with the educator. Such an orientation is equally appropriate while gauging student perceptions of pedagogical innovations.

However, as stated earlier, very little is known on (a) how marketing students perceive such innovations and innovators and (b) specific pedagogical areas and marketing courses in which students perceive the need for more innovations. By employing the CIT approach, the current study provides initial insights into student perceptions of pedagogical innovations.

METHOD

The CIT was pioneered by Flanagan (1954) more than fifty years ago to identify traits that enabled World War II pilot candidates to perform more effectively in combat situations. Over the years, it has found widespread acceptance in the general marketing and service literatures (see Gremler 2004 for a comprehensive review). Also, the usage of CIT has precedence in educational research as well (e.g., Houston and Bettencourt 1999; Sautter and Hanna 1995). Chell (1998, p. 56) describes the CIT as follows:

The critical incident technique is a qualitative interview procedure which facilitates the investigation of significant occurrences (events, incidents, processes, or issues) identified by the respondent, the way they are managed, and the outcomes in terms of perceived effects. The objective is to gain understanding of the incident from the perspective of the individual, taking into account cognitive, affective, and behavioral elements.

An incident is an observable human activity, which is complete enough to make inferences (Bitner, Booms, and Tetreault 1990). Further, a "critical" incident is one that makes a positive or negative contribution (Gremler 2004; Grove and Fisk 1997).

As Gremler (2004) states, the advantages of CIT include the following: (a) it elicits information from the

respondent's perspective on events perceived as critical by the respondent, (b) the method's inductive nature is especially useful when the topic studied is under-researched, (c) it can provide an accurate and in-depth description of events, and (d) it can yield rich data as respondents provide information on firsthand experiences that have left strong impressions on them. Therefore, we consider the CIT as an attractive method in the current context because (a) it is goal directed, (b) is not limited to a set of variables, and (c) elicits responses pertaining to actual events from respondents' memory (Gremler 2004; Sautter and Hanna 1995).

Students in two upper division marketing courses at a large southwestern university were requested to participate in the study. Students were offered extra credit for completing the questionnaire and were requested to provide detailed responses wherever required. In all, eighty students agreed to participate in the study. Consistent with prior CIT studies, we followed the phases recommended by past researchers (Gremler 2004; Sautter and Hanna 1995). The five steps implemented in the current study are briefly described below.

Phase 1 – Specify the Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify marketing students' perceptions of innovative pedagogical approaches and instructors. Knowledge of attitudes toward and the desirability of both pedagogical innovations and innovators can help in the development and dissemination of more effective pedagogical approaches.

Phase 2 – Define a Critical Incident and Develop Data Collection Instrument

Following the definition provided earlier, an incident in this study refers to a pedagogical technique or approach that is perceived as innovative by the respondents. Correspondingly, "critical" incidents are characteristics of those innovative techniques that impact student behavior positively or negatively. As recommended by Gremler (2004), a detailed data collection instrument was designed with appropriate story triggering questions and was pretested. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter, which outlined general instructions, the nature of the study, and a statement regarding confidentiality of responses. Respondents were provided time in class to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire began with the statement:

Some instructors attempt to facilitate the learning process by using innovative teaching methods. These methods may be utilized in various classroom activities, including lectures and other interactive activities. However, very little is known on how students perceive such innovative methods and the

instructors who employ them. This questionnaire is being administered to explore students' perceptions of innovative teaching methods employed by instructors.

Subsequently, the questionnaire itself was organized into several parts. The first part comprised of open-ended questions that addressed students' perceptions of pedagogical innovations. Specifically, students were asked to report *when* and *why* they perceived a pedagogical technique as innovative. The second part consisted of open-ended questions that probed students' perceptions of innovative instructors. These were followed by questions that elicited responses with regard to specific pedagogical areas where students saw the need for more innovative methods. Finally, students were asked to list marketing courses where they thought innovative methods are more important.

Phase 3 – Collect Data: Collecting Written Responses Is Common in the CIT Method.

This facilitates analysis, coding, and subsequently, the creation of categories. As part of the screening process, respondents were asked to briefly describe a pedagogical innovation they had observed. This information was helpful in identifying critical incidents and was not actually used in the categorization process.

Phase 4 – Data Analysis: Data Analysis Was Performed Through Content Analysis of Critical Incidents

All responses were read carefully and recurring themes were identified. Subsequently, classification schemes were identified to categorize responses. An independent judgment process was used to sort responses (Sautter and Hanna 1995). Data categorization was performed by one of the researchers, followed by a scrambling of the data and reclassification by another researcher. Intracoder and intercoder agreement rates were assessed to be satisfactory.

Phase 5 – Report Results

To obtain rich and objective information, the results of CIT approaches are presented as the categories or subcategories that emerge from the classification process (Houston and Bettencourt 1999). As Sautter and Hanna (1995, p. 35) propose, "Results should be summarized using self-explanatory titles for the category headings and subheading. The report should include examples of critical incidents that typify the specific category." Accordingly, the results of our study are presented in the following section.

RESULTS

We present our results in the same order as the issues that we set out to explore.

When Are Pedagogical Methods Perceived as Innovative?

The first set of questions inquired about students' experiences with innovative pedagogical techniques in classrooms. Respondents were asked to describe their experiences in detail and, subsequently, were asked to explain why they thought such techniques were innovative. For example, a question in this section stated, "For

each case, exactly what did the teacher do that made you think his/her action was innovative? Organize your response as follows: Their method was innovative because . . ." The responses from the students indicated that they deliberated considerably on this section. A wide spectrum of responses were provided, which are tabulated in Table 1. Overall, it appears that certain pedagogical techniques are perceived as innovative when they (1) induce greater involvement among students, (2) improve the overall classroom environment, (3) convey obvious and lasting learning benefits, (4) are flexible to student needs, and (5) employ a variety of instructional material and supplemental aids. Actual student responses are grouped under these categories in Table 1.

**TABLE 1
WHEN ARE PEDAGOGICAL TECHNIQUES PERCEIVED AS INNOVATIVE?**

Categories	Student Comments
Involvement Inducing Teaching Methodology	When the instructor got the class involved Changes from routine; Less monotony Forces you to pay attention See and experience what the instructor is talking about Ensured student understanding Made boring topics more interesting I wanted to do well because I cared about the time and effort invested by the instructor
Classroom Environment	Created and maintained interesting learning environment High comfort level Decreased boredom Made us want to participate Paid more attention in class Could ask for help whenever needed Encouraged interaction Encouraged attendance Increased participation
Cognitive Outcomes	Improved memory and retention Made me think creatively and critically Related to material better
Teaching Style	When some control is given to students Empowering students Allowed students to work in groups Online exercises allowed flexible work hours Used hands-on approach Demonstrated how to utilize concepts in real world
Instructional Materials Used	Used current events as examples Non-orthodox text Real-world examples Brought technology/Internet into the classroom Music and visual aids leave a lasting impression

How Important Are Innovative Pedagogical Techniques?

As to the importance of innovative pedagogical techniques, the respondents unanimously stated that they are important to the overall classroom experience. In fact, marketing students seem to *expect* innovative pedagogical techniques to be incorporated into their courses. As one respondent stated, “attitudes are changing . . . the blackboard was for our grandparents, not us.” The importance of pedagogical innovations is explicitly placed into perspective by another respondent: “College is ultimately about teaching people to think in a creative and critical manner and innovative [pedagogical] techniques are the

best way to do that.” A concise list of the perceived outcomes is presented in Table 2. Additionally, as reported in Table 3, our study indicates that students expect courses with innovative pedagogical techniques to be harder, relative to other courses. However, they also expressed that the extra effort invested into the course aids in improved learning and better retention. In fact, more than 90 percent of the respondents reported that they expect to perform better in courses with innovative pedagogical techniques. Students expressed that innovative techniques force them to pay attention in class and, as a result, they do not have to teach themselves the material prior to exams.

TABLE 2
EXPECTED BENEFITS FROM INNOVATIVE PEDAGOGICAL TECHNIQUES

Categories	Student Comments
Involvement	Grasp material better rather than memorizing it Acquire better knowledge Get more out of the class Sustain interest to improve understanding More involvement in the classroom Makes you want to learn Increase motivation to attend class more regularly
Classroom Environment	Connect with different learning styles of students Easier to stay focused Reduces boredom Beats the rut Students do not zone out Encourage learning by making material more interesting Differentiates topics from those in other courses
Immediate Classroom Benefits	Have fun while learning Enjoy the classroom experience Encourages participation Improves retention of key concepts Improves attendance Better performance/grades
Overall Benefits	Overcome stage fright Improve oral and written communication skills Improve analytical skills and critical thinking Helps on the job Prepares you for the real world Ability to use concepts in real-world Experience in marketing situations Higher quality of education Shows how to use different forms of communication

**TABLE 3
PEDAGOGICAL INNOVATIONS, EFFORT, AND PERFORMANCE**

Amount of effort students expect to expend in a course where the instructor uses innovative pedagogical techniques, relative to other courses	More	83.75 %
	Same	13.75 %
	Less	2.50 %
How students expect to perform in a course where the instructor uses innovative pedagogical techniques, relative to other courses	Better	93.75 %
	Same	6.25 %
	Worse	0.00 %

**TABLE 4
CHARACTERISTICS OF INNOVATIVE INSTRUCTORS**

Exemplar Responses

Cares about the material
Shows interest in students' learning progress
Uses entertaining activities in which students want to participate
Open-minded
Technology-savvy
Creative
Capability and willingness to be different
Relates better to student requirements
Passionate/excited about teaching
Not afraid to get away from the norm to get the message across
Motivates students
Driven; energetic; enthusiastic
Stimulates learning
Facilitates learning through unconventional methods
Fits material to students' needs
Open to students' responses
Does not take themselves too seriously
Persuasive

How Are Innovative Instructors Perceived?

Table 4 presents the list of characteristics identified by marketing students as representative of innovative instructors. These characteristics are fairly similar to those of master teachers identified by Smart, Kelley, and Conant (2003). Several studies have explored desirable attributes of successful educators. While it is beyond the scope of this paper to review those, we emphasize the critical relationship between instructor characteristics and student perceptions of pedagogical innovations. For ex-

ample, not all passionate or knowledgeable instructors need to adopt innovative techniques. However, all instructors who attempt innovative pedagogical techniques must necessarily possess some distinct skills, traits, and qualities. As one respondent summarizes, "If you are going to be innovative, make sure you know your stuff. Otherwise, it will be confusing."

Students consistently report that pedagogical techniques influence their appreciation of their instructors ("Show teachers are committed to the students") and their own performance ("I always get an A in classes where

innovative methods are used”). While identifying several benefits of pedagogical innovations, respondents also offered some words of caution that could potentially be insightful to instructors considering or employing pedagogical techniques. First, while students regard pedagogical innovations highly, they caution against relying too heavily on such techniques. As one student stated, “The most important thing is that the teacher is knowledgeable and passionate.” Second, while students stated a strong preference for techniques that break the monotony, they

also expressed a fear of the instructor trying too many new and, ultimately, confusing approaches. The complete list of students’ responses as to when they perceive pedagogical innovations as successful is presented in Table 5.

Where Do Marketing Students See the Need for More Pedagogical Innovations?

In order to gauge marketing students’ response to this issue, students were provided with twelve pre-determined

TABLE 5	
WHEN ARE PEDAGOGICAL INNOVATIONS PERCEIVED AS SUCCESSFUL?	
Exemplar Responses	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Grab students’ attention and keep them motivated ◆ Improve classroom environment ◆ Foster learning ◆ Help students focus, learn, and apply material ◆ Leave a lasting impression ◆ Encourage students to pay more attention ◆ Give students a chance to do better ◆ Student care enough to attend classes ◆ Increase interest level in the subject matter ◆ Help retention of material ◆ Reduce the need to self-teach before exams ◆ Make lectures fun to attend; enjoyable ◆ Capture the students’ minds ◆ Make students think about the material ◆ Integrate concepts with student creativity (“When students are given the opportunity to use their imagination, they are more likely to stay interested”) ◆ Challenge the student to be innovative ◆ Students learn what they need and are glad they learned it ◆ Students develop the desire to learn ◆ More retention and less cramming 	

**TABLE 6
PEDAGOGICAL AREAS WHERE INNOVATIONS ARE WARRANTED**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Lecture	27	13	3	7	10	3	2	4	7	2	1	1
Course Material	2	14	18	10	6	5	5	8	5	2	4	1
Supplemental Material	6	3	12	10	6	11	7	7	4	3	7	4
Presentation Style	14	18	10	5	6	3	8	7	3	2	2	2
In-Class Assignments	2	8	6	13	14	10	10	5	3	4	1	4
Cases	1	2	3	5	3	12	11	9	10	6	9	9
Term Project	3	1	3	4	3	8	9	14	15	9	5	6
Exams	5	4	3	1	6	4	7	5	6	18	14	7
Group Work	3	7	7	8	10	6	10	5	9	9	4	2
Student Participation	13	7	9	9	6	8	4	5	7	8	3	1
Grading	2	2	5	2	9	4	3	8	3	10	22	10
Classroom Policies	2	1	1	5	1	6	3	4	9	7	8	33
	80	80	80	80	80	80	80	80	80	80	80	80
(Other areas mentioned by respondents include: Attendance policies, role playing exercises, guest speakers, faculty-student interaction, homework, exam reviews, punctuality, class layout, electronic texts, and nontraditional classroom settings)												

categories. Then, they were asked to assign scores ranging from one (most important) to twelve (least important) to each category depending on their importance. The tabulated results are presented in Table 6. From reviewing the table and weighting the results, it is revealed that marketing students identify “lectures” as the primary area for more pedagogical innovations. This category is followed by others such as presentation style, course material, and steps to improve student participation. It is noteworthy that categories such as exams, cases, and projects rank lower, adding more support to the argument that pedagogical innovations should not be so radical as to confuse the students. With regard to specific marketing courses, the

respondents identified the introductory principles of marketing course, sales management and retailing as some courses where more innovation is warranted (see Table 7). It seems that students expect to see more innovations in broad, introductory level marketing courses rather than in advanced, content knowledge specific marketing courses.

DISCUSSION

The results of our study have several implications for marketing pedagogy. First and foremost, students appreciate pedagogical innovations for their complementary role in making the classroom environment livelier. How-

TABLE 7
MARKETING COURSES WHERE MORE INNOVATIONS ARE WARRANTED

Courses	Percentage
Introduction to Marketing	42.50%
Sales	32.50%
Retailing	32.50%
Marketing Research	17.50%
International Marketing	17.50%
Channels	8.75%
Consumer Behavior	6.25%
Others	11.25%
(The total % is greater than 100 as some respondents provided multiple responses)	

ever, they caution that pedagogical innovations cannot simply substitute an instructor's knowledge and passion. Therefore, it is imperative that marketing instructors also look at pedagogical innovations for their complementary benefits. Second, students expect the courses that use pedagogical innovations to be harder and more rewarding. That is, innovations that may be harder to implement in the classroom and that may require additional efforts from the students do not pose any problems as long as students are made to realize the benefits of the pedagogical innovations.

Third, students expect the instructors to be knowledgeable about the innovations. Therefore, learning about pedagogical innovations only through "implementation in a classroom" may prove detrimental. Marketing instructors should carefully analyze and learn about the pedagogical innovation prior to classroom implementation. Fourth, students also seemed to have problems with over-reliance on and over-indulgence in pedagogical innovations. Specifically, as implementation of pedagogical innovations requires additional efforts, students expect fewer innovations per class. Consequently, marketing instructors should focus on fewer, less-confusing innovations per class that do not veer away from the learning objectives of the specific course.

Fifth, with reference to areas in which students see the need for pedagogical innovations, students gave more importance to lectures, presentation style, course material, and student participation than to exams, cases, and

projects. That is, while students want more innovations that make the classroom more involving, they do not want more innovations with reference to activities pertaining to their evaluation. Sixth, students also expect more innovations in broad, introductory, and concept-loaded courses. Therefore, marketing instructors who are required to teach lecture-based, introductory courses should focus on pedagogical innovations that can make the class more involving and interesting without compromising on the content knowledge.

Finally, our study also has implications for future research in pedagogical innovations. Following the objectives of this study, we investigated certain critical factors that lead to and follow from marketing students' perceptions of pedagogical innovations. We acknowledge the exploratory nature of this study and, therefore, strongly urge researchers to conduct further research in this area. Specifically, future research could potentially focus on developing a conceptual framework that could be used to explain and predict (a) factors influencing perceived innovativeness of pedagogical techniques and (b) the impact of such perceptions on relevant outcomes. Our study suggests that student perceptions of pedagogical innovativeness stem from an assimilation of both instructor, as well as, innovation characteristics. Support for this premise also exists in studies that indicate that student perceptions of the instructors' personality as a dominant factor in evaluations of teaching effectiveness (e.g., Chen, Gupta, and Hoshower 2004; Clayson 1999).

Also, research on innovation adoption has traditionally maintained that individuals' perceptions of an innovation are a function of factors such as usefulness, ease of use, and complexity, among others (e.g., Davis, Bagozzi, and Warshaw 1989; Taylor and Todd 1995; Venkatesh et al. 2003). Further, the framework could also develop certain exemplar intermediate and ultimate outcomes that emerged in our exploratory study. By intermediate outcomes, we imply factors that could facilitate and/or improve student learning and performance. By ultimate outcomes, we imply factors that are long-term in nature and could prevail even after the conclusion of the classroom experience. Future studies need to empirically validate these factors, among others, in the context of student perceptions of innovative pedagogical techniques.

In summary, our study results reveal that: (1) keeping with the times, marketing students seem to expect pedagogical innovations in their classes, (2) increased involvement, better classroom environment, better performance,

motivation, creativity, and learning are potential outcomes of pedagogical innovations, and (3) educators' efforts to use pedagogical innovations are appreciated by marketing students. The findings of this exploratory study could be useful to marketing educators who are either planning to or are currently using pedagogical innovations in their classrooms. While the pursuit of innovations in pedagogy is an admirable task, marketing educators should pay heed to how their students perceive such innovations. Further research on (1) students' perceptions with regards to specific innovative techniques and (2) specific antecedents and outcomes of pedagogical innovations could better facilitate the development and dissemination of such pedagogical innovations. As proponents of the benefits of customer orientation for innovation, we (marketing instructors) owe it to the discipline to remain student oriented in our pedagogical innovation efforts.

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USING THE SIX PRINCIPLES OF INFLUENCE TO INCREASE STUDENT INVOLVEMENT IN PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS: A RELATIONSHIP MARKETING APPROACH

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ABSTRACT:

As professors we provide students the knowledge and tools in the classroom necessary to pursue effective careers. However, learning can be enhanced by active student participation in extra-curricular activities. In particular, University professional organizations can provide enormous experiential learning opportunities for students. Although there are a number of benefits of organizational participation, the numbers of students that participate are low. This article discusses the use of relational marketing theory and Cialdini's six principles of influence as a framework to increase organizational membership participation.

INTRODUCTION

The benefits of experiential learning have been widely discussed in the research education literature (Bobbitt, Inks, Kemp, and Mayo 2000; Ives and Obenchain 2006; McCarthy and McCarthy 2006; Petkus, Jr. 2000; Rubin 2000). Some of these benefits include opportunities for students to learn about careers, develop career mentors, and build job networks (McCarthy and McCarthy 2006). In addition, Rubin (2000) argues that experiential education leads to stronger relationships between students and faculty, which can promote more interest in learning. Another benefit mentioned is that experiential education can "enhance student learning by increasing students' involvement in the learning process" (Bobbitt et al. 2000, p. 16). Students involved in experiential opportunities learn by doing instead of hearing or reading (Petkus, Jr. 2000). Experiential learning provides real world opportunities for students to use the concepts they learn in the classroom (Bobbitt et al. 2000). Ives and Obenchain (2006) conclude that experiential education can improve a student's logical thinking without leading to a loss of fact-based thinking. Students learn to think and process instead of simply learning to replicate and repeat.

The demand for experiential learning opportunities has led to numerous changes in the classroom. In upper-division courses it has become commonplace to include team exercises, group projects, or service-learning projects as part of the curriculum. In addition outside the classroom, cooperative education opportunities and internships are receiving increased attention (McCarthy and McCarthy 2006). Even with the emphasis on increased

active involvement learning, there is little mention of the benefits of student professional organizations (Bringle and Hatcher 1996). Although the educational value and career advancement value of student organizations are commonly discussed with students, advisers often find it difficult to recruit and keep active members (Vowels 2005). Reasons organizational advisers commonly hear from students explaining their lack of involvement include "I do not know what the organization does," "it is not clear what I will get out of it," "or I do not have time."

Through regular communication in the classroom and across the university and by actively practicing sales persuasion techniques that we teach in many of our marketing classrooms students can better understand the true benefits of participation. Although many student organizations such as fraternities and sororities, social clubs, and honor clubs provide students benefits such as improved social skills, increased chances for university involvement, and resume enhancement, this manuscript will focus on the benefits of voluntary professional organizations which provide the previous benefits in addition to offering career networking opportunities and often real world, career-related learning experience.

In particular through these professional organizations students can put into practice many of the tools they learn in the classroom and enhance their preparation for a career. For example, as members of the American Marketing Association, students can participate in case competitions and leadership training at regular conferences. In Pi Sigma Epsilon students can obtain active learning by participating in the Pro-Am Sell-A-Thon where they perform simulated sales calls with actual industry experts

or by participating in the BOSS Games where students make decisions of Chief Marketing Officers on teams in an interactive simulation against student teams from around the country. Through these programs and activities and through others like them students can get actively involved in the theoretical principles marketing educators present in the classroom. Unfortunately, other than a very small number of exceptions (Gruen, Summers, and Acito 2000; Peltier, Schibrowsky, and Kleimenhagen 1995; Peltier, Scovotti, and Pointer 2008), almost no research has examined the benefits of using marketing theory to increase the number of students involved in professional organizations.

PURPOSE

Peltier et al. (1995) discuss the necessity of increasing real-world learning opportunities for students. They mention the importance of providing “integrated, hands-on experience” (p. 59) and “the development of methods to cultivate entrepreneurial skills” (p. 59). Professional organizations provide the opportunity for students to apply the information and techniques presented in the classroom in a practical context. Through programs such as PSE’s Pro-Am Sell-A-thon where students make simulated sales calls to actual salespeople and receive feedback on their technique, students can actually implement their classroom instruction in a life-like environment.

In addition, these organizations allow students to gain real-world experience in an environment where there is no job on the line or grade that will suffer from mistakes. Even though recruiters often mention their desires for more extracurricular activities on an applicant’s resume, student organizational leaders regularly experience difficulties in recruiting and maintaining active members (Vowels 2005). Additionally Peltier et al. (1995) argue that student-faculty involvement, as gained in student professional organizational relationships, benefits the students by expediting their maturation process and providing them an integrated perspective on the many topics they learn in the classroom. They further argue these benefits will “lead to more experienced, better-prepared students with an identifiable competitive advantage in the job market” (p. 64). In addition, Peltier et al. argue that student organizations are important “for developing higher order thinking and providing practical business experience” (2008, p. 48). Furthermore, they argue that active learning experiences for professional development and applied learning experiences of theory are key components for successful career preparation.

In addition to these benefits for students, Peltier et al. (1995) argue that student organizational involvement can lead to consulting or research opportunities and higher service evaluations for the involved faculty members. Finally successful student organizations can improve departmental goals. Successful organizations will lead to

increased numbers of departmental majors and lead to increased visibility in the business community (Peltier et al. 1995).

Gruen et al. (2000) argue that retention and participation are key membership goals for professional organizations. Retention has been a common focus in managing business relationships (Gustafsson, Johnson, and Roos 2005; Venetis and Ghauri 2004), but little work has examined its antecedents in professional organizations (Gruen et al. 2000). Gruen et al. (2000) further argue that continuance commitment, or an individual’s self-interest in the relationship, will lead to higher levels of organizational participation. In examining business relationships, Gounaris (2005) and Gustafsson et al. (2005) both state that increased commitments (or bonding techniques) and satisfaction leads to customer retention. Recruitment must also play a crucial role in building successful student professional organizations due to regular turnover from departing students.

We argue that a successful organization should strive to provide the experiential learning benefits to additional students. Just as all students would benefit from obtaining real-world work experience related to their desired career, these organizations can provide opportunities for students to apply their classroom knowledge in real-world business situations. Through increased recruitment and active participation, members will be more satisfied with their organization experience. Ultimately higher satisfaction, commitment, and interest in the projects will lead to increased retention (Gounaris 2005; Gruen et al. 2000; Gustafsson et al. 2005). Therefore, the key short-term membership goals for a student organization should be to increase recruitment numbers and member participation.

The purpose of this paper is to examine Cialdini’s (2001) principles of human influence and their relation to relationship marketing theory as a framework for increasing membership and participation in student professional organizations. Much of the relationship marketing literature has focused on improving business relationships and creating greater customer satisfaction (Wilson 1995). Similarly, Cialdini’s (2001) research has been used in the context of sales force training to improve sales effectiveness. Examining the similarities between the two areas of research and building on their proven application should prove beneficial to organizational leaders trying to increase student satisfaction and increase recruitment effectiveness of professional organizations.

RELATIONSHIP MARKETING

Research into the nature of business relationships has been plentiful over the last 20 years (Anderson and Narus 1990; Anderson and Weitz 1992; Garbarino and Johnson 1999; Gounaris 2005; Gruen et al. 2000; Gustafsson, Johnson, and Roos 2005; Heide and John 1988; Kumar, Scheer, and Steenkamp 1995; Morgan and Hunt 1994;

Moorman, Deshpande, and Zaltman 1993; Venetis and Ghauri 2004; Verhoef 2003; Wilson 1995). It has been examined in numerous contexts, but rarely in the context of improving professional organization membership (Gruen et al. 2000). It has never been examined as a theoretical basis for helping faculty members increase the membership numbers of student organizations. While faculty members will often discuss the importance of building trusting relationships and establishing commitment to and from customers, they have been reluctant to apply these same ideas to service to the university in the form of student organizational advising. By examining the role of marketing tools such as relationship marketing concepts and persuasion techniques that can be used to enhance the professional sales process, we can put into practice the ideas we teach in the classroom to improve student involvement in university organizations.

The outcomes of relational research such as commitment (Anderson and Weitz 1992), customer retention (Gounaris 2005, Gustafsson et al. 2005; Venetis and Ghauri 2004; Verhoef 2003), and customer satisfaction (Garbarino and Johnson 1999) are clearly important to building more active involvement in student organizations. Understanding factors leading to commitment, retention, and satisfaction will increase their ability to recruit more students and obtain more participation among those students. Furthermore, by relating the more theoretical variables of relationship marketing to the applied use of Cialdini's (2001) six principles of human influence we hope to integrate the techniques we teach in our marketing courses into a framework to get more students involved in university organizations.

Wilson's research examines "an extended list of relationship variables" (1995, p. 337) in an attempt to organize the many constructs studied in relationship marketing research. In particular the variables, commitment, trust, cooperation, dependence/power, reputation, and social bonds relate to one or more of Cialdini's (2001) six principles. By examining Cialdini's (2001) principles and the relationship marketing literature it is evident that they are grounded in the same concepts. Cialdini's (2001) research uses automatic consumer responses that develop from difficult choice decisions to influence compliance with sales pitches (Chaiken and Trope 1999; Gigerenzer and Goldstein 1996; Kahneman, Slovic, and Tversky 1982). Essentially Cialdini's (2001) work examines the development of sales relationships based on automatic cues, or judgmental heuristics. Many of the relationship marketing variables work on these same psychological principles.

SIX PRINCIPLES OF INFLUENCE

Our opinion is that leaders (e.g., faculty advisers or student leadership) of professional organizations can use relationship marketing theory and Cialdini's (2001) six

principles of influence to persuade individuals to join and participate in student organizations. A basic understanding of Cialdini's (2001) six principles of influence shows the importance of the relational literature to their effective implication. See Table 1 for a summary of the six principles of influence.

Reciprocity

Cialdini's (2001) rule of reciprocation is built on a sense of obligation based on a previous favor or gift. Individuals feel compelled to return the goodwill provided by another. Not only does this principle work on the personal level, it can also develop through a social situation. Society may impart social sanctions and unflattering titles for anyone who violates this principle. Individuals who become known as takers and not givers may be labeled moochers, ingrates and freeloaders. Another relevant feature of this principle is the fact that it may lead to unfair exchanges. "A small initial favor can produce a sense of obligation to agree to a substantially larger return favor" (Cialdini, p. 33), or a larger gift may receive a smaller return favor (e.g., a wedding gift followed by a thank you card).

Cialdini's (2001) concept of reciprocity is similar to the relational constructs of affective commitment (Gustafsson, Johnson, and Roos 2005), cooperation (Anderson and Narus 1990), and mutual goals (Wilson 1995). Reciprocity is built through personal obligations one feels to their relationship partner. Providing favors or gifts creates personal obligations that can manifest themselves in terms of affective commitment (emotional bonds) or through cooperation to achieve mutual goals. By providing something of value, we create an emotional attachment and increase the desire to cooperate to achieve mutual goals such as successful project completion. Based on relationship marketing theory, commitment has been shown to increase relationship value and desire to maintain the relationship (Verhoef 2003), and identifying cooperation toward mutual goals and can impact partner selection and increase relationship retention (Wilson 1995).

From our experiences as student organization advisers, the following reciprocity examples can be used to improve organizational recruitment. As shown in Table 2, having prospective members nominated for joining the organization or inviting them to "invitation only" events, a sense of commitment can be established. These nominations or invitations that not everyone receives, create a sense of pride for the student. They feel more valued by the organization, and in turn place more value in joining the organization. The practice of reciprocity can also create higher value for the student in the organization by having them establish their own goals and work to achieve those and the goals of the organization. Also more frequent member recognition or the use of a "buddy" program (an exchange of a small gift or favor among mem-

TABLE 1
SUMMARY OF THE SIX PRINCIPLES OF INFLUENCE

Principle	Description
Reciprocity	A policy of exchanging or repaying a previous favor. Rule can trigger unfair exchanges (e.g., small favor may yield larger return) but its practice is in the best interest of all societies.
Commitment & Consistency	The culturally valued practice of standing by (in word and deed) a previous statement or action in an effort to exhibit stability in one's thoughts and actions. Persuasive value of commitments is most effective in the following circumstances: when they are active, public, require effort, and are viewed as internally motivated.
Social Proof	Looking to those around oneself to determine what to believe or how to act in a situation. Most influential: when in uncertain or ambiguous situations and when others are viewed as similar to oneself.
Liking	Compliance is more likely when the requester is likable; i.e., people desire to say yes to those they know and like. Attractiveness, similarity, praise, repeated cooperative contact, and association lead to liking.
Authority	One is more likely to comply with the requests of an authority due to society's teaching that such obedience represents correct behavior. Authority is symbolized through titles, clothing, and automobiles.
Scarcity	The scarcer the commodity, the more people want it. As such, people assign more value to those things that are less available. Newly scarce items and scarcities for which one competes are even more enticing thereby more influential on behavior.

bers) can increase an individual's commitment to an organization. By enhancing co-production, the student's commitment to the organization is increased. The increased value and commitment should lead to higher satisfaction, higher participation, and increased membership retention. For a more detailed discussion of Six Principle tools that can be used to improve organizational goals see Kemp and Clark (2007).

Commitment and Consistency

Cialdini (2001) argues that human nature compels individuals to be consistent in their statements and behaviors. When a commitment is made to another "we will encounter personal and interpersonal pressures to behave consistently with that commitment" (Cialdini, p. 53). This consistency can then dictate future decisions based on any previous commitments made. A smaller initial commitment may grow into larger and larger commitments in an attempt to remain consistent in the actions. While this principle is built on an internalized concept, we need to exhibit similar behaviors over time, "commitments are most effective when they are active, public, effortful, and

viewed as internally motivated (uncoerced)" (Cialdini 2001, p. 96).

The concepts of consistency and commitment to a relationship partner are important in understanding how this principle relates to the relationship marketing literature. Consistency has been listed as an important component of trust (Anderson and Narus 1990; Moorman et al. 1993; Morgan and Hunt 1994). Consistent behavior leads to an increase in trust. Conversely, a lack of consistency leads to high levels of distrust in a relationship. As trust develops, satisfaction increases, and the desire to maintain the relationship also increases (Wilson 1995). Furthermore, the commitment and consistency principle relates to the construct of calculative commitment. As one party provides something beneficial to the other, commitment to the relationship grows (Gustafsson et al. 2005). Additional resource commitments in the relationship lead to a higher relationship retention (Verhoef 2003).

When managing student organizations, establishing trust and commitment among members has a beneficial effect. When an individual makes an initial commitment in the form of time or effort commitment to a professional organization, they will feel more "at stake" in the organi-

TABLE 2
EXAMPLE OF THE SIX PRINCIPLES OF INFLUENCE IN PRACTICE

Principle	Recruitment Examples	Participation Examples
Reciprocity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Membership nominations ◆ “Free sample” – Invitation only events 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ More frequent member recognition ◆ “Buddy” program
Commitment & Consistency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Classroom recruitment speeches 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Individual goal setting ◆ Student involvement in planning
Social Proof	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Students recruiting friends ◆ “Member-get-a-member” contests ◆ Recruitment table tools <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Dress the part ◆ Provide visuals of activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Idea exchange with similar groups ◆ Public praise
Liking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Appropriate attire ◆ Recruitment speeches to like people ◆ Desirable travel opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Member notebooks ◆ Group retreats ◆ Team building activities
Authority	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Faculty promotion of organization ◆ Alumni involvement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Officer training programs ◆ Proper attire at membership events ◆ Requirements for officer positions
Scarcity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Membership criteria ◆ Rigorous joining process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Coveted awards ◆ Unique activities and programs ◆ Known speakers

zation. Once commitment is established, the group has a responsibility to create an environment that builds trust. By promoting consistent activities and ensuring a friendly environment for all participants, member participation and retention will increase. Conducting classroom recruitment speeches will promote a sense of commitment. Students may associate organizational membership with the success of those who are willing to speak to the class for recruiting and they may strive for the same success. By having students set their own personal membership goals, we promote consistent actions. Students that have identified specific goals will work harder to reach those goals and will be more consistent in the organizational behaviors. In addition, by allowing individual members to participate in organizational goal setting and planning, a sense of commitment and trust will be greater. This increased time involvement and organizational participation will lead to an increased desire for trust for each individual, due to increased risk of lost time and efforts. They will feel more at stake in the organization because they had a hand in planning; therefore, they will likely participate more to ensure organizational success in meeting their own goals.

Social Proof

Cialdini’s (2001) principle of social proof states that we often observe the behaviors of others to help us make decisions. A large majority of individuals are imitators rather than initiators, and therefore make decisions only after observing the behaviors and consequences of those around them. Cialdini (2001) further argues that this principle is particularly impactful in situations of high uncertainty when there is substantial risk involved, or when individuals are able to follow the examples of people they feel are similar to them. To best maximize the benefits of social proof in the university setting, we need to demonstrate the gains made by other students that non-member students may have in class or see daily.

Social proof is very similar to the relational concept of reputation. Fiske and Taylor (1991) argue that reputation is particularly useful in uncertain situations. In the absence of the ability to make a sound decision, individuals look for ways to reduce cognitive search costs. As a relationship develops, partners are more guided by trust and commitment. However, in the uncertain situation of choosing a relational partner other means must substitute

for the lack of relational knowledge. For students with time constraints and limited knowledge of the benefits of organizational membership, social proof can help alleviate their concerns. Reputation helps in this knowledge acquisition when building relationships (Politis 2005). Reputation provides an initial means to assess trust in the relationship partner.

Student professional organizations can benefit from the use of social proof by being highly visible. This will reduce perceived risk among potential recruits. By providing evidence, such as students wearing clothes with organizational emblems, students discussing organizational activities with others, displaying organizational promotional materials regularly in classroom buildings, or organizations participating in campus activities like intramural sports or social activities, organizational member recruitment will be enhanced. Specific tools that can be used are “member-get-a-member” contests to generate excitement among the membership and those being recruited. By having active members pursue classmates and their friends, positive word of mouth, increased reputation, and trust in the organization will grow. In addition, regular member praise at organizational meetings will increase member involvement, and likely cause others to strive for the same recognition and rewards. Students will work harder to achieve the same recognition over time or to achieve the recognition they see other students receive.

Liking

The principle of liking states that individuals are more likely to be influenced or agree with someone he or she likes. While personal relationships certainly may lead to liking, this principle can exist without a developed relationship. Cialdini (2001) claims there are five different contributors to the likeability of another individual: attractiveness, similarity, praise, repeated cooperative contact, and association. Initially, people are more likely to gravitate to others who are perceived as physically attractive. Additionally, liking can grow as a result of finding similarities between one another, or through praise given to another. Also, liking develops over time through repeated contact in a cooperative working environment, as opposed to a competitive working environment. Lastly, people tend to like those others that they have some association with like graduating from the same school or living in the same town.

Many of Cialdini's (2001) liking concepts are often mentioned in the trust-commitment marketing literature. In fact, liking has been mentioned as a dimension of trust (Young 2006). Similar to reputation creation, in new business situations, we may look for cues to further justify our decisions. Concepts of similarities between companies and associations between individuals may be used as signals of trust early in the relationship. In addition, the principle of liking is similar to the relational concept of

social bonds. Social bonds help individuals to “develop strong personal relationships that tend to hold a relationship together” (Wilson 1995, p. 339). Goei, Lindsey, Boster, Skalski, and Bowman (2003) found that liking has a significant effect on obligation and compliance. Also, by creating positive business relationships liking for the business partner is developed, which ultimately leads to higher levels of trust and commitment to the relationship.

Student organizations can benefit from the principle of liking by providing students additional cues during recruitment drives. In an uncertain situation, a student may avoid getting involved. By having actual student members discuss their experiences with their classmates at recruitment activities or in classroom presentations, potential recruits are able to identify with those already involved and become more comfortable with the prospect of being a member. Since these prospective members are presented with people they know or even are friends with, an uncertain prospective member will rely on the concepts of similarity and association (I sit next to that person in my retailing class) to feel more comfortable joining themselves. In addition it is important while recruiting new members that those doing the recruiting need to dress the part. Professional attire will create a sense of accomplishment and authority or clothes with organizational emblems will create a sense of unity or association. Providing interesting activities and travel opportunities to students will increase their interest and excitement in organizational activities. In addition, student organizations need to practice an effective use of praise to promote membership participation and retention. Even newer members can recognize the achievements of others and the positive outcome of their efforts when regular praise is provided. This will lead them to strive to reach their own goals. Other tools such as conducting group retreats and using team building activities will help to create a sense of association among the membership and increase participation.

Authority

Cialdini's (2001) principle of authority states that people are taught by society to obey those individuals perceived as legitimate “authorities” due to their high levels of knowledge, wisdom, or power. This principle expects individuals will take a shortcut to decision-making by deferring to the judgment to an authority (e.g., “the doctor said to . . .”). Educators often benefit from the principle of authority. Titles or degrees conferred on the professors establish authority in the classroom. Also, the principle of authority is the guiding philosophy behind bringing professional speakers into the classroom. Individuals that have established successful careers provide evidence of prescribed behaviors. Educators can improve professional organizations they advice by seeking endorsements from perceived authorities. By bringing es-

established speakers in for organization functions, or working with well-known companies, organizational leaders are improving the reputation of the organization.

Basic relational principles behind the principle of authority are the concepts of power and dependence. Relationship partners accept dependence on the other party because of some benefit derived in the relationship. That benefit is often in the form of partner expertise or proprietary resources (Kumar et al. 1995). Manufacturers establish relationships with distributors and retailers due to the distributor's ability to efficiently move products and the retailer's ability to attract customers and sell products. This specialization influences partner selection and relationship retention. Power is created by possessing something the business partner is in need of to improve their business.

Student organizations can benefit by providing credible "experts" to demonstrate the advantages of membership. By having faculty members, organizational leaders, or distinguished alumni make announcements in class, prospective students will begin to consider whether membership is an important step for their career development. Also, by having organizational leaders (faculty or students) set good examples of organizational participation and behaviors, other members will be encouraged to behave similarly. It is important for faculty advisers to show enthusiasm and interest in the organizations themselves. When an authority figure is willing to put effort into organization, student members see the example and feel more compelled to put forth effort. Finally, making organizational leaders meet requirements or participate in training will help those leaders make better decisions, but it will also lead other members to more likely follow their lead due to their higher authority level. In addition it will increase the student's dependence on the organization because they will desire to demonstrate their acquired expertise and "payback" the organization for its efforts in improving the student's skills.

Scarcity

The principle of scarcity states that people view opportunities as more valuable when those opportunities are less available. The principle influences the perceptions of quality of opportunities and leads to a change in the evaluation of information. Scarcity is a shortcut cue that the less available options are of higher quality than those options that are more available. When opportunities become less accessible, people perceive a loss of their freedom of choice. "According to psychological reactance theory, we respond to the loss of freedoms by wanting to have them (along with the goods and services connected to them) more than before" (Cialdini 2001, p. 231). The scarcity principle also impacts the way information is evaluated. "Research indicates that the act of

limiting access to a message causes individuals to want to receive it more and to become more favorable to it" (Cialdini 2001, p. 231). People place more value on messages that are perceived as containing *exclusive* information (Brock 1968; Cialdini 2001; Fromkin and Brock 1972; Knishinsky 1982).

Like authority, scarcity is also related to the concepts of power and dependence. Dependence on a relationship partner can increase due to a lack of alternatives (Heide and John 1988). Wilson (1995) argues that as the number of alternate partners decrease, relationship dependence increases. While scarcity may influence partner selection due to limited choices, it can also impact the desire to maintain the relationship. If a relationship is considered beneficial compared to the alternatives (other relationships or no relationship), organizations will choose to maintain the connection. In short, in the absence of other business partner choices, companies will put more effort forth in protecting the potential relationships that exist.

Professional student organizations employ the scarcity principle by providing membership tests or by stressing the exclusivity of the opportunities, such as professional contacts, offered by the group to enhance membership goals. By making an organization a little more difficult to join or by establishing criteria or tests for joining, prospective members develop a stronger sense of urgency. By establishing recruited periods and deadlines, students will feel a need to act quickly. They will likely pursue the organization as opposed to the organization pursuing them. Again, unique programming, special awards, and recognized speakers, members will increase their involvement to reach higher goals, to participate in interesting activities, or to meet important speakers. Students can easily identify their increased career preparation knowledge when presented with opportunities to meet successful industry leaders.

SUMMARY

The recent emphasis on experiential learning increases the value of student professional organizations for improving student development. Highly valuable educational opportunities for students are provided through organizational activities which expose students to actual business situations. Increased involvement with the business community and experience with real world business situations can only improve a student's readiness to obtain a job and perform effectively. Through simulated real world programs and involvement in activities that provide significant hands-on learning such as case competitions, the Pro-Am Sell-A-Thon, and BOSS Games student learning will be enhanced. In addition, students benefit from organizational involvement due to the recruiters' appreciation of extracurricular activities. Organizations that practice the six principles can benefit from a more participa-

tive membership and can benefit their students by providing a more thorough understanding of the basic underpinnings of human persuasion.

As evident by the comparison to relationship marketing literature, Cialdini's (2001) principles of influence are not new concepts in the marketing world, but using them as a condensed, practical guide can improve professional organizations' leaders recruiting, membership participation, and membership retention. These principles from behavioral psychology blend well with the very ideas and concepts taught in marketing such as trust, commitment, power, and dependence. The unique application of these concepts to professional organizations will not only help

to increase student involvement in these organizations but will also provide additional student learning experiences through their participation in organizations.

We understand that these principles are not the only tools that can be used to enhance organizational membership goals, but we hope to expand the discussion to benefit all concerned. While we have personally used many of these principles in our own experience as faculty advisers, we suggest further empirical research of these tools to determine their relative effectiveness. We hope this article provides a framework to further test the impact of some of these theories and tools.

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A PRACTICAL AND EFFECTIVE MARKETING PLAN ASSIGNMENT FOR PRINCIPLES OF MARKETING STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

A repeated challenge for those teaching Principles of Marketing is to offer active or experiential learning settings that engage a variety of majors in a manner that helps students understand how marketing concepts and decisions should be integrated. While a number of pedagogical approaches might be used for this purpose, the student development, writing, and presentation of a marketing plan is one approach many instructors employ. However, unless properly designed and managed, marketing plan projects in the principles class can be frustrating for both the student and the instructor. This paper describes a unique marketing plan assignment using dollar store products to overcome the problems associated with alternative marketing plan assignment settings such as live clients and cases. Details for effective implementation of the plan are included as well as an evaluation of this experiential learning technique.

ISSUES SURROUNDING TEACHING PRINCIPLES OF MARKETING

Undoubtedly, the Principles of Marketing course consumes more departmental faculty resources than any other single marketing course and it usually generates the department's largest number of credit hours. For this reason it is the one marketing course that the largest portion (if not all) of the departmental faculty will teach during their career. It is also most likely to be a standard summer school offering given its core role in today's business education. The principles course is also a "service" course in that its largest proportion of enrollees are likely to be non-marketing majors; many of whom may be from outside the business college (Ferrell and Gonzalez 2004). Accordingly, some authors have emphasized the need to tailor marketing courses to address the needs of non-marketing majors so that they can better understand the strategic implications of marketing in their own fields (McNeilly and Barr 2001).

This critical role played by the Principles of Marketing course is surely one reason why it has been the focus of considerable marketing education literature. For example, an entire recent special issue of the *Journal of Marketing Education* (August 2004) is dedicated to the teaching of Principles of Marketing. In that issue as well as in other articles published in both the *Journal of Marketing Education* and the *Marketing Education Review* a variety of Principles of Marketing related articles exists. While certainly not intending to oversimplify this Principles of Marketing literature, most articles can be categorized as focusing on either desired learning objectives/student

outcomes of the course or on how the course should be taught (i.e., teaching styles and pedagogical tools).

A major theme found in the learning objectives/student outcomes literature is that students successfully completing the Principles of Marketing course should be able to view marketing concepts and decision-making *holistically*. That is, they should understand the integration of typical principles content. This would include how the marketing mix is designed and delivered so as to create value for a particular market segment or even specific customer. Palmer (1994) argued that the (then) current method of teaching Principles of Marketing could leave students with the false impression that marketing decisions are made one at a time, in isolation from one another, and that the end product of these decisions is a series of unique and unrelated transactions between buyers and sellers. Palmer also noted that "the current growth in academic and practitioner interest in relationship marketing and the recognition of its strategic positioning might suggest a case for its incorporation into undergraduate programs" (p. 34). Dobscha and Foxman (1998) point out deficiencies in the 4 Ps model and suggest using an exchange framework for the Principles of Marketing course. They suggest that the exchange framework better helps students understand the role and activities of marketing. Dailey and Kim (2001) make the case for insuring that all principles students fully understand and appreciate what it means to be market-oriented. Commenting on the limited view of marketing possessed by students in the Principles of Marketing students, Ferrell and Gonzalez (2004) suggest that instructors must present an integrated, balanced, and holistic view of all marketing decision

variables (p.121). Thus, the Principles of Marketing course has broad and eclectic needs (Wood and Suter 2004, p. 137).

The literature related to how Principles of Marketing should be taught focuses on characteristics of a desired learning atmosphere as well as tools and approaches, including student assignments, the instructor should employ to accomplish desired student learning objectives or outcomes. This *how it is taught* current literature emphasizes active, experiential learning. Today, Principles of Marketing is taught with the aid of computer software packages, sophisticated telecommunications devices, and Internet technologies that would have been unimaginable to those educational pioneers who taught product-to-market concepts more than 90 years ago. Although much has changed, even the earliest teachers of marketing were faced with some of the same challenges we face today, not the least of which is *how to engage marketing students in meaningful learning activity* (Tomkovick 2004, p. 109). A variety of approaches have been studied and put forward as solutions to this challenge as well as a solution to the need to teach principles students a *holistic* view of marketing.

Deegan (1994) demonstrates how a product introduction process (“PIP”) can be used in the principles class in order to help students learn how some 48 fundamentals of marketing can be applied to the launch of a new product. In the PIP exercise students write a marketing plan for a new product for which they role play as a product manager. Drea, Singh, and Engelland (1997) examine the effectiveness of using a 10-part marketing audit in the Principles of Marketing course as an experiential learning technique. The authors found that both the students as well as the business executives whose organizations were audited by the students perceived positive benefits from the experience. In an examination of a number of methods for improving the educational quality of the Principles of Marketing course, Adrian and Palmer (1999) found one active learning pedagogy to positively impact student learning. This was a team preparation and presentation of a marketing plan. Dailey and Kim (2001) suggest using frequent student participation in class discussion, critical thinking exercises, and extensive written assignments in order to create students who are market-oriented. Wood and Suter (2004) describe how a live-online auction project using EBay can help principles students understand many aspects of the buying-selling (exchange) processes.

MARKETING PLAN ASSIGNMENTS IN THE PRINCIPLES COURSE

A variety of marketing planning settings have been adopted by many instructors and are even offered by Principles of Marketing textbooks and instructional sup-

port mechanisms. Three typical marketing plan assignments seem to include having students: (1) develop a marketing plan for a live-client (this could include a service learning setting), (2) develop a marketing plan using a written case (e.g., textbook) setting, or (3) develop a market plan for a real product (e.g., a Dell computer) using publicly available information or data. The shortcomings of working with live-case clients, especially in the Principles of Marketing course, are well documented (Razzouk, Seiz, and Rizkallah 2003). Major disadvantages include considerable instructor work on the front-end and variability in both client needs and their cooperation levels. The major shortcomings of working with case (i.e., historical) settings are also well documented (Bailey et al. 2005). These shortcomings include a lack of student enthusiasm for unrealistic settings and their lack of being contemporary. The shortcomings of relying on a publicly available product setting approach include difficulty in acquisition of needed and relevant information as well as student difficulty in relating to the setting.

THE DOLLAR STORE PRODUCT MARKETING PLAN ASSIGNMENT

A unique experiential learning assignment for the Principles of Marketing course called the “Dollar Store Product Marketing Plan” has been developed, tested, and used for over the past five years by the authors at two different, mid-size public universities. This assignment delivers a learning experience that Principles of Marketing students find enjoyable, challenging, and an effective learning tool. This active, experiential learning assignment has been capable of delivering the integrative, holistic view of marketing called for in the aforementioned marketing education literature. Student and instructor benefits include: (1) the project is feasible courses of varying lengths (i.e., full or partial semesters, summer school courses, etc.), (2) it is inexpensive for students since they do not have to purchase special cases, simulation software, or physically visit live-case clients, (3) it does not involve often troublesome live-case clients (i.e., saves instructor and student time), (4) it lends itself to the student team assignment format, (5) it stimulates considerable student creativity, (6) it delivers an integrative or holistic view of marketing, (7) it stresses the financial accountability of marketing, and (8) it is fun.

Next, specifics on how the assignment is executed, evidence of its efficacy, tips for successful instructor adoption, and assignment limitations are presented. This assignment addresses many of the typical Principles of Marketing course objectives such as:

1. Be able to recognize and correctly use the key terms of marketing.
2. Be able to identify current changes in the external environment (political, social, legal, regula-

tory, global, and technological) and describe how these changes create marketing opportunities and threats for an organization.

3. Be able to understand how to make logical strategic and tactical marketing decisions such as market segmentation and product positioning.
4. Be able to effectively present and defend a marketing plan.
5. Be able to recognize and discuss both the global and ethical issues related to marketing.

HOW THE DOLLAR STORE PRODUCT MARKETING PLAN ASSIGNMENT WORKS

Shortly before the course starts and when total student enrollment is fairly firm, the instructor visits a local dollar store and purchases a number of different products for which students will develop marketing plans. In order to present a wide variety of planning settings, it is recommended that the instructor buy at least four more products than expected teams in the course.

During the first week of class, the instructor presents all of the product samples to the class and shows lots of enthusiasm for the project and even some humor when “introducing” the products to the class. Each product is hidden from their sight in a bag and so there is suspense with each new product. Students are asked at this point to think of various product uses and target markets. One purpose for this staged product introduction and the marketing planning assignment is to also help students set aside any major fear many principles students may have about marketing. Students are encouraged to reposition their product in their marketing plans. They find this financially necessary when they are soon informed about the assumed sales levels their chosen products have recently witnessed.

Before presenting the products student teams have been formed so students may sit together and consider each product choice as they are introduced. This also creates a sense of excitement about the assignment. Fol-

lowing the instructor’s product presentations teams are asked to discuss alternatives among themselves and select their first, second, and third product preferences. If more than one team selects the same top three choices, some classroom negotiation is necessary that typically goes smoothly. Each team walks out of the classroom that day with their chosen product and, most often, they are talking enthusiastically about marketing ideas for their product. In a way, teams feel like they have “won a prize” since they were able to get what they wanted (i.e., what is perceived to be a fun product to market) and with no financial outlay.

After student teams know the product they will be working with, further project background information is provided which helps to make their project manageable and consistent in terms of course requirements and instructor expectations. The background information they receive is presented in Table 1. This background information includes the conditions and constraints faced by all planning teams and includes:

- ◆ A 24-month planning period.
- ◆ The fact that the firm is now losing money on their product.
- ◆ Upper management’s dissatisfaction with the current conditions and desire for profit.
- ◆ Access to unlimited capital for marketing expenditures with the constraint that it must be paid back by the end of the planning period.
- ◆ The lack of a need to find out who is the real manufacturer/distributor of their product (i.e., they do not need to study such a firm).
- ◆ Customers (end users) are only described as being located in the U.S.
- ◆ Information on current price (they assume it now retails for \$2.00 per unit and that they sell it to wholesalers for \$.96), variable costs, fixed costs, and current channel strategy (sold through 100 wholesalers who sell to independent specialty retailers) and minimum channel markups, promotion strategy (only a few phone calls to whole-

TABLE 1
MARKETING PLANNING SETTING

Time Frame: You are designing a 24-month program that will be implemented beginning 07/01/06.

Project Report: Your marketing plan will have three major sections. These three sections are detailed in other pages attached to this introduction. Generally speaking, they are prepared in their sequential order. But, changes are often made to earlier sections as the planner realizes the need for such in later planning stages. Thus, marketing plan preparation can be and often is an iterative process.

Product: Each team will use the product assigned to them on the first day of class. You are to assume that the company who makes this product does not provide (or market) any other similar products, but is diversified into unrelated consumer goods. You have been given a real product: all real-world attributes like the strength of various

TABLE 1 (CONTINUED)
MARKETING PLANNING SETTING

competitors or current changes in the economy apply. However, for this project you should not spend time trying to identify, study, or research the “real” company who makes and/or markets the product you have been assigned. You are instead to only rely on the basic facts about this company that are given in this handout and/or announced by the instructor.

Your Role: Each team acts as a single product manager working for the company with exclusive rights to their product. You have full responsibility for all aspects of your product including product modifications, pricing decisions, promotion, and distribution. Your plan is to be presented to your instructor who serves as your boss and is the Vice-President of Marketing. During your presentation, you should assume that other audience members are part of his marketing team. Your job will be to convince them that your marketing plan is outstanding and should receive the full funding that your marketing budget calls for.

Company Situation: The projected loss for your product in the current fiscal year ending 6/30/06 is \$50,000 (net). Consequently, management fired your predecessor and hired a bright, young group of XYZ university business students (this is your group). You have assured your new boss that you will turn the situation around.

Last year, the variable cost to obtain unit one of your product and put it in your warehouse was \$0.50. This is true whether or not your company was the actual manufacturer or just contracted the manufacturing to another company. This variable cost cannot be reduced further and should remain constant for the next two years regardless of volume. Further, assume production can instantly vary to any level you desire with no additional fixed costs and that your local warehouse facility can handle any volume.

Fixed costs for your product are \$250,000 annually. This amount covers salaries, benefits, office supplies, warehouse space and other product-related expenses. It does not include any money for promotions such as advertising, PR, or personal selling. Further, your boss has stated that he wants to make a significant net profit on your product in each of the next two years. Although this may sound like a lofty goal, given the current situation, your company is diversified and has a consistent source of income from other profitable products. Thus, you can assume that sufficient cash is available to implement any program you design, provided management can see a very rapid return on their investment. This implies that your “mother” company can finance or loan you any amount of capital you feel needed in order to support or finance your marketing plan. But, your marketing plan must generate sufficient revenues to pay back such “borrowing” within the planning period.

Assume that all of your current customers are located in the U.S. and purchase through one channel of distribution which involves selling to wholesalers (100 are currently used) who in turn sell to retailers who in turn sell to the final customer or end user. Your price to the wholesaler is currently \$0.96 for each unit. Wholesalers mark the product up 20 percent on their selling price when selling the product to their retailers. Retailers mark it up 40 percent on their selling price when selling it to consumers. These retailers are primarily independent specialty stores (i.e., not mass or discount merchandisers such as Wal-Mart, Target, Krogers, etc.). No promotions of any kind are currently being run. Your predecessor only talked to the wholesalers on the phone.

Important Notes

The wholesale and retail markups (on selling price, not costs – see pages 389–391 in Appendix B of your textbook for an explanation, examples of the difference, and methods of calculation) given above (20% and 40% respectively) are **minimum** markups that you must offer wholesalers and wholesalers must offer retailers. Even if your research suggests that real firms sell below these percentages you cannot go below these minimums. Furthermore, if your research suggests that firms in your chosen channel use markup over cost, you must convert this information to markup as a percentage of selling price. Finally, you can use markups greater than 20 percent and 40 percent. If you chose to do so, be prepared to rationalize and defend such decisions.

salers each year). (Their product knowledge comes from studying the physical product they have been assigned.)

One advantage of this approach is that all students start at the same point in their planning process. No one team starts with an advantage and the expected outcomes of their plans (e.g., projected net income) are comparable. And, many assignment constraints limit the amount and type of information they need to gather in order to successfully develop their plan within the time frame established by the instructor. For example, they do not have to spend time interviewing and collecting information from a live-client nor do they have to conduct research on a company who makes/distributes a known as it needed when students are given case students or other well-known, established products marketed by well-know manufacturers. The emphasis on this planning assignment is helping students get the “big picture” of marketing; to see how many marketing decisions are made and integrated but at the principles level.

After basic or introductory marketing content (e.g., elements of a marketing strategy) is covered, three marketing plan related assignments or “deliverables” are explained to the teams. As shown in Table 2, deliverable one (the situational analysis) takes considerable time to review while deliverable two (segmentation and positioning) takes less time. Deliverable three (marketing mix, budget, calendar, and proforma income statement) is a key and lengthy portion of the marketing plan. During the second week of the course, the instructor assigns a very brief case (two pages) entitled “*Trap-Ease America: The Big Cheese of Mousetraps*,” for students to read and use for classroom discussion. While brief, this case gives students broad but instructive insight into the marketing elements required for low unit value, new products. Both the students and the instructor use the 20-item rubric found in Table 3 to evaluate final in-class marketing plan presentations.

EVIDENCE OF THE ASSIGNMENT'S EFFICACY

As shown in Table 3, students in a recent 15-week semester felt their peers had developed and presented very solid marketing plans. The instructor's ratings are also fairly high although not quite as positive as the student ratings. Overall, the rubric scores reflect a “B-” average on the presentations. The average number of points for presentations is 61.1 out of 75 or an 81.5 percent average. The average number of points given for the three deliverables is 186.2 out of 225 or about 82.8 percent. Overall, evaluations support the notion that the dollar store product marketing plan assignments have been successfully designed and presented by Principles of Marketing students. One of the authors most recently used this teaching approach in a concentrated, three-week summer school

session and found very similar results as shown in Table 3. Thus, the dollar store marketing plan learning tool can be effectively used in principles of marketing courses of varying length.

TIPS FOR SUCCESSFUL ADOPTION

Based on our experience with this assignment future adopters may wish to consider the following ideas and actions to enhance the student learning experience as well as minimize the time and effort in managing these assignments.

1. While the dollar store product is an inexpensive option, care must still be taken to select products that will be of interest to students and allow them to be creative. Products with well-known brand names are avoided. This allows the students to develop (and defend) their own brand name (unless they develop a private labeling/branding strategy).
2. Students should be encouraged to “break up” situational analysis components (e.g., have one member go to stores and evaluate competitive offerings) but the instructor should also stress the need to write a cohesive and coherent paper that does not read like it had multiple authors.
3. Stressing the relevance of daily topics and readings to their plans is also a key to a successful student. As most Principles textbooks are laden with marketing terminology, one must help students identify concepts and tools they might use in their plans. While there are some mandatory aspects for all plans (e.g., segmentation, developing positioning approaches, etc.), students need to see the flexibility possible in marketing strategy (e.g., selling a private label product vs. going with their own brand or using different channels).
4. The key to a successful marketing plan developing and writing experience is helping students not get overwhelmed with all the marketing terminology and strategy/tactic options and helping them narrow their strategy down to a manageable project. For example, students should be encouraged to consider only a B2C or B2B strategy or even to just pursue one target market within either general market place.
5. One time-consuming activity for teams may be trying to find information on alternative media choices and associated costs. While some of this information is easily accessible via the Internet, it may be a good idea to provide the students with a general list that provides costs of popular media such as 30/60 second television ads, national and regional newspaper/magazine costs, search engines costs, etc.

**TABLE 2
MARKETING PLAN DELIVERABLES**

MARKETING PLAN DELIVERABLE #1

SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

Overall: The focus of this section is on developing and demonstrating knowledge about the marketplace within which your product competes. This Situational Analysis can be considered a background paper and lets you develop the foundation upon which specific marketing decisions will be made in your next section. Sound marketing decisions depend on thorough situation analyses – an analysis that uses both facts and valid assumptions.

NOTE: It is most critical in your marketing plan that you show you know how to use the information contained in your textbook and the related topics discussed in class.

Page Limitation:

This section of your plan should not exceed eight, double-spaced pages. This excludes any exhibits or appendices that you might attach (but must be used and/or referred to in your paper’s main body). An example of an exhibit might be a table showing industry statistics. Another could be a picture of competing products.

Use of Outside Information:

This part of your planning process requires “outside research.” Your papers should indicate what sources of information you used (a bibliography) as well as give specific citations for direct quotes or information. Documenting where you garnered information from is very important. A traditional referencing approach used in business is that of the American Psychological Association (“APA”). Again, you will find specific instructions for citing other sources in the college’s Writing Styles Guide. The quality of your work here will be heavily influenced by conducting exploratory research to uncover the unknowns. Your role is one of a marketing detective – not leaving any rocks unturned that might hold clues for you as you attempt to build a winning marketing plan.

Required Outline of Situational Analysis Components – In Order of Coverage in your Plan and Suggested Questions to Ask and Answer

The following are suggestions for questions to ask and therefore answers or information you should consider obtaining. However, you have considerable latitude in finding other key questions that need to be asked and then going ahead and capturing the answers. So, do not let this document limit your efforts. Better teams will think creatively about what they would like to know and in finding such knowledge. Depending on your industry and product, some answers will be more easily found than others.

Major Section Title	Subsection Title	Basic Information That Seems Appropriate (NOTE: This is meant only as a guideline. You may or may not be able to find all the answers and you may decide that other information is appropriate here.)
External Review	Industry Overview	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ What is/are the SIC or NAICS code number(s)? ◆ Describe what the industry involves. ◆ Explain its global, national, and local (if appropriate) status. ◆ Show industry statistics – size, growth, future expectations, etc. where possible. ◆ Discuss how competitive the industry appears to be at this time. What type of competitive setting is it? (e.g., oligopoly or?). ◆ Explain how the industry “works” (e.g., are middlemen involved? Is most production done overseas?).

**TABLE 2 (CONTINUED)
MARKETING PLAN DELIVERABLES**

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ This section shows that you understand the industry of which you will be a member. ◆ HINT: approach this industry analysis as you would if you were thinking of investing or working in it.
<p>External Forces (affecting the industry)</p> <p><i>Your Environmental Scan</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Economic ◆ Technological ◆ Competitive (more detailed questions below) ◆ Regulatory (consider major national, state, or local laws that govern the industry/your product) ◆ Social <p>This section shows that you understand what the key forces are that affect how well the industry will fare, or not, in the future. Outside research is needed for this section. Use your textbook’s listing of specific items that make up the five major forces in your research. It is most important here for you to demonstrate that you know the key forces influencing your marketplace and restricting what you can and cannot do in terms of marketing.</p> <p>HINT: approach the environmental scan analysis as you would if you were thinking of investing or working in this industry – i.e., what “looks” good or bad about it?</p>
<p>Customer Analysis (includes middlemen and end users as customers)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ The purpose of this section is to demonstrate that you know about the types of customers who buy from this industry in general. Thus, you should look broadly and do not yet focus only upon the customers you want to go after – that is premature. You need to generate knowledge of all possible, major submarkets within your industry’s overall market before you can think about selecting your target(s). ◆ Describe the types of consumers or end users that buy from industry members. Draw upon the demographic, socioeconomic, and/or lifestyle measures where possible in describing end users. ◆ Overall, what problem(s) is it that consumers are trying to solve or avoid when buying this product type? ◆ What do different segments of the market look for in terms of customer value propositions (benefits vs. costs)? What are the characteristics of customers seeking different or unique value propositions? (You are describing characteristics of those segments that are the buyers – make sure you show that you know the different types of customers). What evaluative criteria do consumers use in choosing one brand or alternative over another? ◆ Are some end user (value) segments larger (e.g., in size and/or frequency of buying habits) than others? If so, how are they described differently? ◆ What is the typical buying process of most customers? How involved is their problem solving process? Hint: Use considerable material from Chapter 5 here to help guide your customer research. ◆ If wholesalers and/or retailers are typically involved in the marketing of your product, what are their needs and characteristics? How do they decide on which products or brands to carry or distribute? What is their buying process like?

**TABLE 2 (CONTINUED)
MARKETING PLAN DELIVERABLES**

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ How many different types of wholesalers or retailers carry this type of product? ◆ HINT: You may have to visit different types of stores to research the middlemen area as well as consider asking retailers where they get their products from (manufacturer or wholesalers). But, you can tie this activity in with your field research on competitive offerings.
Competitor Analysis		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Knowing current and potential competitors helps you design a marketing offering that will help you offer a better value to the right customer(s). ◆ Identify your (expected) major competitors (i.e., substitutes for customers not buying from you). ◆ Who are they, where are they, what are their “statistics” (e.g., sales figures, market share, etc. where possible to find). ◆ What approaches do they use in marketing/ (e.g., how they promote, price, etc. etc.)? ◆ What do you know or assume about the types of customers they attract? ◆ Overall, what do you perceive as their relative strengths and weaknesses in light of what your product idea? ◆ What do they seem to say (via promotion, packaging, etc.) is their product’s main Point of Difference from other choices in the market place? ◆ HINT: It is sometimes useful to organize your competitive product analysis by using a table listing names on one axis and characteristics (e.g., price, ingredients, quantity, etc.) on the other axis.
	Opportunities & Threats Summary	Using your external review, identify and briefly describe what you see as three to four key opportunities and threats that your company and your product will face in its marketing future. Be very succinct here and you must draw on the research findings you have presented above.
Internal Review	Strengths & Weaknesses Summary	Given what you know and/or assume about your company/product, identify and briefly describe what you see as your company’s and product’s three to four key strengths and weaknesses. HINT: This section will mainly focus on your product’s standing in the market place and its characteristics vs. company characteristics. Remember that the one main strength of your company is its unlimited source of funds for marketing (i.e., ability to obtain from the “mother” company).
<p>When you finish this section (Situational Analysis) of your plan, you should have all the key information you need to move forward and develop your ideas on the best marketing objectives, which customer segment(s) to target, your overall strategy and positioning approach, and the value propositions. Those topics will be covered in Deliverable #2.</p> <p align="center">MARKETING PLAN DELIVERABLE #2 TARGETING, OBJECTIVES, AND POSITIONING</p> <p>In this section you will:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Identify the segment or segment(s) you are targeting (provide rationale). 2. State your marketing objective(s). Make sure they meet the criteria for good objectives. 		

TABLE 2 (CONTINUED)
MARKETING PLAN DELIVERABLES #2

3. Determine and state the generic value proposition approach (for each segment if appropriate).
4. Write and present a clear value proposition statement.
5. Discuss how you will differentiate from your most direct competitors.
6. Describe the differentiation strategy. Use a checklist comparison with them. Prepare a positioning map that graphically depicts your desired position and that of competitors (this how you want target customers to “see” your offering vis-à-vis competitors.)

Checklist for assessing the quality of your work in this section:

- √ Make sure this document shows strong use of your situational analysis findings.
- √ Make sure this document draws upon and uses the concepts of this course – both presented in the text and discussed in class.
- √ When finished, recheck it to make sure that it is specific enough to provide clear guidance for the design of your marketing program (i.e., the marketing mix or “4Ps”).

Page Limitation:

This section of your paper should not exceed four, double-spaced pages.

NOTE: You are required to resubmit Deliverable #1 (or any key parts of such) if changes have been made in it since it was first submitted and graded. This is necessary so that your Deliverable #3 can be properly assessed.

MARKETING PLAN DELIVERABLE #3
FINAL MARKETING PROGRAM

The final marketing plan section basically details how you will use marketing mix tools in order to achieve your marketing and financial goals. All your decisions within the product, promotion, pricing, and distribution areas will be detailed and rationalized. Other marketing issues and ideas that may not neatly fall into these four areas (e.g., relationship marketing, customer service, etc.) must be covered as well. This section will also include a marketing calendar, marketing budget, and pro forma income statements for the two years your plan covers.

Page Limitation:

This section of your plan should not exceed ten, double-spaced pages excluding any appendices or exhibits that you offer. (Note: the calendar, budget, and pro formas are examples of these exclusions but your discussion about them would be contained in that part of the paper limited to ten pages).

NOTE: While Deliverable #3 is a unique document earning its own points potential, you are required to resubmit Deliverable #2 (or any key parts) if changes have been made in it since it was originally submitted and graded. This is necessary so that your Deliverable #3 can be properly assessed.

6. Some student teams will need help estimating how their fixed and/or variable costs might change as the result of their repositioning strategy. For example, you can count on all teams to change their product’s package and labeling or even other product features. In this case the instructor needs to make sure they understand costs will change and account for that versus force them to find the exact answer.

ASSIGNMENT LIMITATIONS AND POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

One limitation is that students only have the opportunity to work on a marketing plan for a relatively low-priced good. Thus, most marketing plans are framed within the context of marketing relatively low-involvement products and therefore do not gain experience at services marketing or designing marketing plans for more

TABLE 3
STUDENT AND INSTRUCTOR EVALUATIONS OF MARKETING PLAN PRESENTATIONS

Item	Student Generated			Instructor	
	Strongly Agree %	Agree %	Neutral %	Mean*	Mean*
Q1. Team members knew their material and did not have to rely on notes and/or reading visual aide materials.	89.3	10.7		1.11	2.01
Q2. Team members looked professional.	68.8	25.0	6.3	1.38	1.65
Q3. Team members tended to face the audience more so than their visual aides.	87.5	12.5		1.13	2.31
Q4. Team members kept good eye contact with the entire audience.	93.3	6.7		1.07	1.62
Q5. Team members were very enthusiastic during their presentation.	69.2	30.8		1.31	2.64
Q6. Team members avoided distractions (visual or verbal).	87.5	12.5		1.13	1.68
Q7. Team members did not block my view of visual aides.	77.8	22.2		1.22	1.54
Q8. There was good transition from one team member to another.	68.0	32.0		1.32	1.58
Q9. Visual aides were attractive.	66.7	33.3		1.33	2.23
Q10. Visual aides were easy to understand.	100.0			1.00	2.56
Q11. Visual aides were easy to see.	76.5	11.8	11.8	1.35	1.98
Q12. Team members appeared confident with their work.	70.8	29.2		1.29	1.57
Q13. The team gave me a clear understanding of their target market(s) and rationale for choice.	88.9	5.6	5.6	1.17	2.45
Q14. The team gave me a clear understanding of their value proposition and differentiation strategy.	80.0	12.0	8.0	1.28	2.87
Q15. The team made very good choices for their marketing mix variables.	73.1	19.2	7.7	1.35	1.94
Q16. The team's marketing budget and pro forma income statements were appropriate given their marketing decisions and program.	71.4	25.0	3.6	1.32	2.45
Q17. The team did very well at answering audience questions.	71.0	29.0		1.29	1.78
Q18. This presentation was well organized.	73.7	21.1	5.3	1.32	1.68
Q19. My interest level remained high throughout the presentation.	78.3	21.7		1.22	2.31
Q20. Overall, this was a very high quality presentation.	91.3	8.7		1.09	2.14

* Where 1 = Strongly Agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Disagree, and 5 = Strongly Disagree

expensive, durable goods. This is one trade-off that must be made. However, instructors should use classroom time to insure students are aware of how many marketing decisions (e.g., intensity of market coverage) would be different under the different marketing situations. Still, students do have the option of taking their original product and setting and designing a marketing plan to significantly reposition the product. Some student teams in the

authors' courses have "moved" their products from an initial selling price of \$2.00 to over \$50.00 in their attempt to target a different market with a much different value proposition.

Still, the most obvious limitation may be that this assignment is challenging to execute in course sections with a large numbers of students. As described in this article, the assignment works effectively in sections up to

100 students. An informal survey of instructors teaching mega-sections (those more than 100 students) conducted by the authors found that these types of project assignments are frequently eliminated from course requirements unless instructors have significant in and out of the classroom teaching support. In-classroom support often takes the form of teaching assistants moving around the classroom to provide one-on-one feedback to student teams working on assignment deliverables whereas out-of-classroom support frequently involves grading assistance.

The following are recommended changes to the “Dollar Store Product Marketing Plan” assignment if sections range between 100–250 students and the instructors do not have significant in or outside the classroom teaching support. Our suggestions include:

- ◆ Increase project team size to five or six students. Beyond six, many teams will experience members who are social loafers.
- ◆ Instead of showing all products at the beginning of the course, students could preview product photos and brief descriptions online. Then the instructor can show just some of the products in class. The product selection process could also be completed online.
- ◆ Decrease the number of pages required for each project deliverable and/or request more bullet type reporting versus narrative style writing (e.g., the SWOT analysis lends itself nicely to this

format).

- ◆ Eliminate oral presentations at the end of the course or another option is to have each team create a “poster session” of their plan where one class period is devoted to students informally showing their ideas to others in the class. A separate room would likely be needed. Possibly the Department Chair, Dean, or others may be invited and a winning poster session could be announced.
- ◆ If the instructor wishes to maintain the oral presentation component, student teams could be required to prepare a short video to be shared with other students (e.g., using YouTube) and/or the instructor. If completed within a proper time frame, the instructor could use the last week of class to share examples of excellent presentations with the entire class along with a critique.

CONCLUSIONS

Overall, students and the authors have found this assignment to be very effective in creating a holistic, integrated view of marketing in the principles course. Students are provided with a detailed framework for developing a marketing plan, choose a fun (to them) product to market, and offered helpful feedback along the way by both the instructor and classmates.

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EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING: IMPACT OF TWO INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS ON STUDENT – INSTRUCTOR INTERACTION, STUDENT CRITICAL THINKING, AND STUDENT COURSE EVALUATIONS

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this study is to examine whether a Problem-Based Learning pedagogy will produce greater student – instructor interaction and more critical thinking than a Project-based Learning pedagogy in an undergraduate introductory marketing class. Using student surveys, student comments, and instructor evaluations, the researcher concludes: (1) there is a significant difference in student – instructor interaction and critical thinking between the two pedagogies; (2) student’s thoughts and feelings are different for the two methods; (3) and, course evaluations remain relatively unchanged. Discussion and concluding remarks focus on the appropriateness of incorporating a Problem-Based Learning method in an undergraduate introductory marketing class, opportunities for future research, and if student knowledge gains are sufficient to offset the increased instructional effort.

INTRODUCTION

Experiential Learning (EL) is a method of education. This type of learning occurs when students participate, reflect, and use analytical skills to gain useful insights from an activity, and then incorporate these experiences into their daily lives (Luckner and Nader 1997). Experiential learning is a topic that has received considerable research attention in recent years with this one educational journal publishing nineteen articles on this subject in a five-year period.

Two methods of experiential learning receiving less attention are Project-Based Learning (PBL) and Problem-Based Learning (PBL). While these two techniques share many characteristics, they are different. This study explores these two instructional techniques. A comparison is made between these two methods in teaching introductory marketing courses. The elements compared are: (1) level of student – instructor-interaction; (2) level of student critical thinking; (3) student comments on their feeling and thoughts about the course; (4) and student course evaluations. Student evaluations were a post hoc addition to the study design.

PROJECT-BASED LEARNING AND PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING

Project-Based Learning

One of the most popular instructional methods used at the undergraduate level by marketing educators is

Project-Based Learning (PBL). With this method, a project is normally assigned to students or student groups. PBL emphasizes information search and retrieval, knowledge application, and critical thinking. A primary objective of this method is to engage students in a lengthy, collaborative investigation (Bransford et al. 1993; Thomas 2000). The projects assigned are complex and based on commonly encountered real-world problems and situations. The students’ activities center on design, problem solving, decision-making, and investigation. Students conduct these activities in small groups of six to eight, with their efforts typically ending with the delivery of a realistic project plan and formal presentation (Jones, Rassmussen, and Moffitt 1997; Thomas, Mergendoller, and Michaelson 1999). In undergraduate introductory marketing classes, these assignments often involve developing a marketing plan for an organization assigned by the instructor or one selected independently by the student groups.

Problem-Based Learning

According to Duch, Problem-Based Learning is “an instructional method that challenges students to ‘learn to learn,’ working cooperatively in groups to seek solutions to real world problems” (2001). Similar to PBL, PBL is small group oriented. Students meet regularly to investigate, explain and resolve multiple, real-world problems (Barrows 2000; Hmelo-Silver 2004). PBL assignments often describe a situation requiring an explanation and resolution. Business cases are a popular device for learning and are often assigned in PBL classes. Popularized by

Harvard Business School faculty, the case method is common in most graduate business and professional schools (Harrison-Walker 2005), but cases are not often assigned in undergraduate introductory marketing classes.

PJL and PBL Similarities and Differences

The following question often comes up when discussing PJL and PBL. “They sound so much alike, how is PJL different than PLB?” In answering this question, it is easier to discuss the similarities and then move to the differences.

Both of the methods are teaching strategies that engage the student in “real world” tasks to increase learning. Students groups address the task for an extended period. These tasks generally have more than one answer or approach. Both methods are student-centered, and the students assume a greater involvement and responsibility for their own learning (Savery 2006).

There are two major differences between PJL and PBL. The first difference deals with the nature and focus of the task assigned, and the second concerns the role of the teacher. PJL utilizes a production model. The model starts and stops with an end product in mind. The end product produced for the two PJL classes in this study was a marketing plan. The process for developing the marketing plan has a structure. The structure is linear and the processes are sequential. It begins with an analysis, and ends with a presentation of the completed plan at the end of the term. Timelines and milestones are important in managing this process. “It is the content knowledge and skills acquired during the production process that are important to the approach” (Roisin and Fitzmaurice 2005).

PBL uses an inquiry model. The model begins with a problem for students to solve. The problems are “ill-structured, open-ended and complex” (Barrows 2000; Hmelo-Silver 2004). In the PBL class, the groups focused on four case-based problems. After the initial assignment of a problem, the groups determine what they know about the subject. Next, they develop additional questions, and finally, they identify what they need to know to solve the problem (Roisin and Fitzmaurice 2005). The PBL approach emphasizes gains in knowledge and skills by solving the problems.

As you would expect, the primary responsibilities of a teacher in a PJL class revolves around development of the project. According to Roisin and Fitzmaurice (2005) the following are important teacher roles in a PJL class: (1) guidance on project selection; (2) providing a project guide detailing all aspects of the activity; (3) providing sample projects; (4) and, alerting students on the extra time required for projects. According to Savery (2006), teachers are guides and providers of information, and they assist the student with development of the project.

In a PBL class, the teacher focuses on the problem

and acts as a facilitator and coach. Teachers question the group’s logic and supporting arguments in a Socratic style (Thomas 2000). They steer students away from invalid conclusions, and direct them toward helpful resources (Roisin and Fitzmaurice 2005). As Savery (2006) concludes, the PBL teacher, “supports the process and expects the learners to make their own thinking clear, but the tutor does not provide information related to the problem – that is the responsibility of the learners.”

Student – Instructor Interaction

Two course goals often mentioned in Experiential Learning theory are: (1) to increase student - instructor interaction; (2) and, to increase student critical thinking. Most agree the level of student – instructor interaction increases when an instructor moves from a standard lecture “sage on stage” course to an EL method course. This is an important concept in education. There is a great amount of educational literature supporting the idea that higher levels of educational behavior occur with increases in student – instructor interaction (Bloom 1956; Bullock et al. 2002). Said another way, students learn more when student – instructor interaction levels are high.

Critical Thinking

Critical thinking is generally thought of as the intellectual process of conceptualizing, applying, analyzing and evaluating of information from observation, experience, reflection, reasoning and communication, and then used in recommending or initiating a course of action (Scriven and Paul 2004). There is ample educational literature supporting the concept that a greater mastery of a discipline occurs when students work at higher, more complex educational behavior levels (Bloom 1956; Barrows 1986). As Barrows states, “critical thinking is one of the most important learning outcomes of problem-based learning” (1986).

Recent marketing education studies support the concept that EL generates higher levels of learning behavior than does a traditional lecture method (Hamer 2000; Hernandez 2002; Hunt and Madhavaram 2006; Gillentine and Schulz 2001; Li, Greenberg, and Nicholls 2007; Woodbridge 2006). If that is the case, the next question is, “Which of the two learning methods, PJL or PBL, will generate higher levels of learning behavior in an introductory marketing class?” Current marketing education literature does not address this question. Consequently, this study will fill gaps in marketing education literature and enhance our understanding of PJL and PBL instruction in an undergraduate introductory marketing class. This study asks four questions: (1) Do students perceive a greater level of student – instructor interaction in a PBL class or in a PJL class? (2) Do students perceive a greater level of critical thinking is required in a PBL class or in a PJL

class? (3) What are the students' thoughts and feelings about the two teaching methods? (4) Which of the two methods generates higher summative instructor ratings?

The remainder of this study follows in this order: experiential learning background, student course evaluations, instructional differences, methodology, results, discussion, limitations and future research, and conclusions.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING BACKGROUND

John Dewey is the "modern father of experiential education" (Neill 2005). Dewey's "theory of experience" states that experience comes from the interaction of two principles – the principle of continuity and the principle of interaction (Dewey 1938). By continuity, Dewey means that each experience a person has will have an influence on today's experience, and in turn, will affect future experiences. Situational experience is the basis for Dewey's principle of interaction. Interaction between the individual's previous experiences and the present circumstances shape a person's present experience (Dewey 1938). Dewey argues, "We learn from every experience, and if we are to educate, we must learn to educate from an experiential perspective. [We need to] turn education into valued experiences that have positive impacts on individuals so he/she in turn will make a positive contribution in the future" (Dewey 1938).

There are two experiential learning frameworks (Brookfield 1983). The first learning framework deals with situations where individuals have the opportunity to gain and apply knowledge and skills by immersing themselves in a relevant setting. Professional training programs such as teaching, social work and engineering are characteristic of this framework. In the second learning framework, individuals do not have the opportunity to learn in a proper setting, but learn by reflecting on everyday experiences. The second experiential learning framework captures the character of the two pedagogies that are the focus of this study.

Pioneered by Barrows in the 1980s, PBL focuses on investigation, explanation and resolution of real, meaningful, "driving" problems (Hmelo-Silver 2000). Most current PBL and PBL instructional methodologies are the result of Barrows' early work on curriculum change in medical schools. Barrows discovered that medical students learned and retained more with problem-based instruction than with traditional lecture classes (Barrows 1980). This style of learning is similar to Kolb's experiential learning cycle: (1) concrete experience; (2) observation and reflection; (3) forming abstract concepts; (4) and testing in new situations (Kolb 1984).

Some scholars believe PBL holds the promise to be as important to undergraduates in introductory courses as it is in the graduate schools of medicine, science and business (Duch 1995; Gallow 2000). Two important advantages of PBL are: (1) it helps students build the reasoning

and communication skills necessary for success today (Duch 2000); (2) . . . [students take] more responsibility for their own education and become increasingly independent of the teacher for their education (Barrows 1986).

If PBL is as potent a teaching instructional method as scholars say it is, then why have marketing educators been so slow in adopting this technique of instruction for undergraduate introductory marketing classes? The principal arguments often mentioned for not adopting PBL are: (1) students have too little real world experience; (2) it is difficult for student to change learning styles; (3) it adds to the faculty workload (Aspy, Aspy, and Quimby 1993); (4) it takes longer to cover the same material (Albanese and Mitchell 1993); (5) there is no reward or incentive for instructors to change curriculum (Bridges 1992); (6) and faculty lack facilitator skills (Bridges 1992).

In this study, two classes received a PBL method of instructional, and one class the PBL method. The PBL classes were assigned a marketing plan due at the end of the term. In the PBL classes, students were taught the marketing process, chapter by chapter. During the course, the instructor acted as a guide and led the student groups through the processes of how to prepare and present a marketing plan. In contrast, the PBL class was assigned four individual cases due at various points throughout the term. The cases required the student groups to employ iterative cycles of experiences gained from each case and carry them forward to the next. Case delivery was timed with the chapters in the text. The first case emphasized situation and market analysis. The second case focused on product development and management. The third case featured a pricing dilemma, and the fourth case concentrated on a promotion program. Table 1 highlights the characteristics of these two instructional methods and the approach the instructor took in teaching the classes.

The size of the groups in each of the classes was five to seven students. There were fourteen groups in each of the two PBL classes and eighteen groups in the PBL class. The instructor was assigned a teaching assistant (TA) for each class. The TA in all three classes was the same. The instructor lectured, mentored the groups, and graded the cases and marketing plans for each group. The TA read essays, scored exams, and posted grades.

STUDENT COURSE EVALUATIONS

Many studies in education point out the value of student course evaluations. Because retention, tenure, and promotion (RTP) is so important, most of these studies focus on student summative evaluation of instructors and their courses (Cashin 1988; Feldman, 1998; Nuhfer 2005; Paswan and Young 2003). There is agreement among some scholars who research this topic that student evaluations are generally reliable and valid (Mintu-Wimsatt and Ingram 2006; Peltier et al. 2003; Paswan and Young

**TABLE 1
CHARACTERISTICS OF PJJ AND PBL**

Item	PJJ Characteristics	PBL Characteristics
Pedagogy	◆ Project-Based Learning (PJJ)	◆ Problem-Based Learning (PBL)
Problem	◆ Development of a marketing plan for company ◆ Structured, stepped process	◆ Four case studies centered on important elements of the marketing process ◆ Ill-structured, complex, open-ended
Role of the problem	◆ Focuses students on marketing plan ◆ Follows a development process resulting in creation of a marketing plan	◆ Focuses students on collecting and analyzing information that forces reasoned thinking to drive higher-order learning processes
Process	◆ Scientific inquiry cycles to predict, observe, and explain	◆ Investigate, fact gather, generate ideas and hypotheses, initiate self-directed learning, reflection, and revisit
Role of the Instructor	◆ Introduces marketing concepts before marketing plan development ◆ Guides the process	◆ Facilitator and interpreter in each of the four cases ◆ Coaches student learning
Student Collaboration	◆ Negotiating with group peers ◆ Active collaboration of instructor and students in sharing and circulating information to the entire learning community	◆ Negotiating with group peers ◆ Actively constructing knowledge in groups
Tools	◆ Computer-based tools to support collection of information gathered for creation and presentation of the plan	◆ Computer-based tools to support collection of information gathered ◆ Student identified learning resources
Student Assessment	◆ Mixture of traditional assessment methods – multiple choice, short essay, and essay ◆ Final assessment of the plan and presentation based on predetermined rubrics	◆ Mixture of traditional assessment methods – multiple choice, short essay, and essay ◆ Periodic assessment of knowledge learned and delivered in the case analyses
Advantages	◆ Goal oriented ◆ Projects are direct and straight forward ◆ Easier to assess ◆ Less time consuming for both student and instructor	◆ Central to the curriculum ◆ Focused on questions or problems associated with the four cases ◆ Construction of real knowledge building and resolution
Disadvantages	◆ Much of the learning gains occur at end of the term ◆ Focused on process and less on central problems and concepts of the discipline	◆ Time consuming for both students and instructor ◆ May not cover the same material in the same time ◆ Some students very uncomfortable with the vagueness and ill-defined problems. ◆ More difficult to assess

Source: Adapted from Hmelo-Silver 2004.

2003; Seldin 1993). On the other hand, there is a good amount of literature that questions the validity and reliability of student course evaluations (Nerger, Adye, and Riedel 1995; Williams and Ceci 1997; Trout 1997; Wilson 1998). Even though student evaluations are a controversial subject, it only makes sense that educators understand how different teaching methods will affect their own student course evaluations.

INSTRUCTIONAL DIFFERENCES

The classes were similarly designed. They met twice a week for one hour and twenty minutes. Each instructional method incorporated the same course material – the same text, same number of chapters and articles to read, the same number of individual essays, and the same number of exams. The instructor gave short lectures each class. They generally lasted no longer than 15 minutes. A group discussion period followed lectures (Table 2).

In the P JL classes, the group discussion centered on an issue relating to the material covered in the lecture and the readings for that week. The instructor visited each group during this time to answer any questions and provide direction. At the end of the discussion, each group wrote their answers on the white boards and one member presented the group's findings. At the end of the term, the major group deliverable was a marketing plan and presentation. Students were encouraged to pick a subject that was relevant to them as a college student, such as the cost of textbooks, lack of parking spaces, eating at near by fast food restaurants.

For the PBL class, discussion was driven by the lecture and readings, but focused on the case they were assigned to analyze. The groups did not present any findings at the end of the discussion. They feared that they would give away valuable information, and that could give the other groups an advantage. As the instructor did in the P JL classes, the instructor visited each group during the group discussion time. The instructor's objective during this visit was to question and challenge the members on points of the case, and to motivate them to search for the information necessary for the case analysis.

The cases used in this class were developed the previous summer as part of a grant for this study. Two management minor students (one English major and one economics major) were recruited to write the four cases over the summer break. They were encouraged to write cases on topics that students would understand and appreciate, and they did. The first case, "*Make that a Double-Double, Fries and Chocolate Shake, Dude!*" required the student groups to develop a detailed market analysis for a local fast-food restaurant that was losing market share. The second case, "*(name omitted)-lot Valet Parking,*" addressed the student parking problem. The case highlighted problems in managing and modifying a student targeted valet parking service. In the third case, "*The*

Price is Right: Playing the Game at the Text Store," the objective was to develop a pricing and distribution strategy for an off-campus bookstore to defeat the much-hated university sponsored "campus bookstore." The fourth case, "*Not Another Student Service,*" looked at the problems many campus groups face when trying to promote a student service that is not that different from other student services at the university.

METHODOLOGY

The subjects in this study consisted of undergraduate students in three sections of a principles of marketing course in the winter and spring terms at a large research focused western public university with 20, 000 undergraduates. Two winter sections of the class received P JL curriculum. The third class, taught in the spring term, received the PBL curriculum. These classes were the only undergraduate introductory marketing classes taught during these two terms. These classes were taught in the school of business. The business school enrollment was approximately 600 students in the undergraduate business minor program and around 1000 students in the MBA and Ph.D. programs.

One week before the end of the term a survey was administered to all consenting students meeting study qualification requirements. Standard quantitative and qualitative research measures were used to collect and analyze the students' attitudes and feelings in each class on each instructional method. Three types of questions were used: (1) demographic, (2) scaled attitude, (3) open-ended. In the two P JL classes, there were 94 and 99 registered students, and in the one PBL class, there were 105 registered students. The survey was completed while the instructor was out of the classroom. Eighty-eight percent of the 170 (83 students in one class and 87 in the other class) of the 193 students in the two winter P JL classes, and 78 (74%) of the 105 students in the PBL class completed the survey. To avoid potential problems, the department administrator held the surveys until all final grades were submitted, at which time the surveys were released to the principle researcher.

The scaled attitude questions used in the questionnaire came from three sources. Questions "D" through "Q" were similar to those of Bobbitt, Inks, Kemp, and Mayo (2000). In the Bobbitt et al. study, three groups of survey items were designed to measure the students' perception of the tasks assigned in the courses: (1) their effectiveness as a learning tool; (2) how they compared with more traditional instructional methods; (3) and general attitudes toward the instructional approach. Additional questions, which were sourced from past experiential learning projects within the university community (Gallow 2000), compared similar teaching methods, adopted for this study and compared them to other pedagogies. Finally, two questions were developed by the researcher

TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF PJJ AND PBL CLASS STRUCTURE AND ACTIVITIES

	PJJ	PBL
Week 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Introduction ◆ Chapters 1, 2 ◆ 1 article ◆ Group formation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Introduction ◆ Chapters 1, 2 ◆ 1 article ◆ Group formation
Week 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapters 3, 6 ◆ 2 articles ◆ Individual Essay #1 ◆ Groups discussion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapters 3, 6 ◆ 2 articles ◆ Individual Essay #1 ◆ Group discussion
Week 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapter 7 ◆ Group discussion ◆ Exam #1 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapter 7 ◆ Group discussion ◆ Exam #1
Week 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapters 8, 10 ◆ One article ◆ Individual Essay#2 ◆ Group discussion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapters 8, 10 ◆ One article ◆ Individual Essay #2 ◆ Case #1 – market/situation analysis ◆ Group case presentations
Week 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapters 11, 12 ◆ 2 articles ◆ Group discussion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapters 11, 12 ◆ 2 articles ◆ Group discussion
Week 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapters 20, 21 ◆ Individual Essay #3 ◆ Exam #2 ◆ Group discussion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapters 20, 21 ◆ Individual Essay #3 ◆ Exam #2 ◆ Case #2 - Product Dev./Mgmt. ◆ Group case presentations
Week 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapter 14, 16 ◆ Group discussion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapters 14, 16 ◆ Group discussion
Week 8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapter 17 ◆ 1 article ◆ Individual Essay #4 ◆ Group discussion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapter 17 ◆ 1 article ◆ Individual Essay #4 ◆ Group discussion ◆ Case #3 – Pricing ◆ Group case presentations
Week 9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapter 18 ◆ 2 articles ◆ Group discussion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapter 18 ◆ 2 articles ◆ Group discussion
Week 10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapter 19 ◆ Mktg. Plan group presentations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Chapter 19 ◆ Case # 4 – Promotion ◆ Group case presentation
Week 11	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Final Exam 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Final Exam

to examine student – instructor interaction and critical thinking. All scaled questions were built on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree). The questionnaires were modified slightly to reflect the difference between PJJ and PBL assignments. In the spring term, the descriptor “marketing cases” were substituted for “marketing plan.”

A single open-ended question asked the student to, “Think back through the entire course, and tell us of some of your most relevant thoughts, questions or feelings experienced during the [term].” This question was designed to gain information in two areas. The first area dealt with the total number of comments and the valence of each (positive, neutral, negative). Evaluating students’ comments qualitatively is a method of making sense of what the students are saying (Lewis 2001). Thematically coded information from student comments comprised the second area. The objective in coding the comments was to develop themes in students’ own language describing the instructional method (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane 2006; Daly 2001; Daly, Kellehear, and Glikzman 1997).

Instructor course evaluations were included as an information source in evaluating the question about the two instructional methods, specifically, which method generated the highest summative evaluation? The initial study design did not include this question. Only after the term was complete did the researcher determine that including summative information on the instructor drawn from student course evaluations would be valuable. Student course evaluations were completed one week after the course methodology information was collected and were not provided to the instructor until final grades had been assigned.

RESULTS

Demographic Information

Gender and class-year demographic information collected was analyzed using the Mann-Whitney independent sample test (Levin 1999). The analysis indicates that there are no significant differences in gender and class-

year between the PJJ and PBL classes (Table 3), All students in the classes were business management minors, and the introductory marketing class was a required core course for the management minor.

Instructional Methods Questionnaire

Table 4 presents means, standard deviations and mean differences for the items on instructional methods questionnaire (PJJ, n = 170; PBL, n = 78). Each question was analyzed using the independent t-test procedure. The results indicated that there were significant differences on Questions “L” and “O” with PBL having significantly higher scores on “student – instruction (Question L) and critical thinking than does PJJ.

Qualitative Open-ended Attitude Question (Themes)

After a short training period on thematic coding procedures, the researcher and a research assistant parsed the student comments into valence and thematic categories (Neale and Nichols 2001). This style of thematic analysis is “broadly described as a research method that uses a set of procedures to make valid inferences from text” (Weber 1990).

Six themes emerged: (1) comments about the marketing plan or case project; (2) group interaction comments; (3) course structure comments; (4) real world/experience comments; (5) references to critical thinking; (6) and, comments on specific materials used during the course. The results are reported in Table 5. These findings indicate a significant difference exists between PJJ and PBL in five of the six thematic categories. PBL was significantly higher in class structure, real world experience, and critical thinking. PJJ was significantly higher on group assignments (plans or cases) and group interaction.

PJJ Theme Findings

For the PJJ classes the marketing plan project was the most often mentioned theme. The majority of students commented on the effectiveness of the marketing plan

Item	PJJ			PBL			Mann-Whitney Test	
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Z	Asymp. Sig
n =	84	86		29	49		1.624	.105
Class year	Soph.	Jr.	Sr.	Soph.	Jr.	Sr.	Z	Asymp. Sig
n =	13	84	86	13	24	41	1.00	.317

TABLE 4
STUDENT SURVEY QUESTION MEANS, MEAN DIFFERENCES, T-VALUES, AND P-VALUES

Question	PJL	PBL	Mean Diff.	t-value	p-value
A. The marketing cases encouraged me to think about and apply marketing concepts in the course.	6.25	6.23	0.02	-.020	.984
B. The marketing cases provided peer and group interactions useful to me in completing the assignments.	6.12	6.21	-0.09	-.672	.502
C. The marketing cases enabled me to develop a deeper understanding of the marketing process.	6.18	6.13	0.05	.296	.767
D. As a learning experience, the marketing cases are more productive than listening to a lecture.	6.01	5.97	0.03	.082	.935
E. As a learning experience, the marketing cases are more enjoyable than listening to a lecture.	5.70	5.90	-0.19	1.248	.213
F. The marketing cases should be assigned to future classes.	6.51	6.35	0.16	1.244	.215
G. The learning experience provided by the marketing cases were worth the effort.	6.20	6.05	0.15	.906	.386
H. I put a great deal of effort into this course.	5.98	5.86	0.12	.732	.465
I. Having completed the marketing cases, I feel confident that I could complete this type of work for a company.	5.78	5.84	-0.07	-.460	.646
J. Compared to group projects in other courses the marketing case experiences were more productive.	6.01	5.86	0.15	.881	.379
K. Compared to group projects in other course the marketing case experiences were more enjoyable.	6.02	5.95	0.08	.377	.707
L. Compared to group projects in other courses I had more interactive instructional contact with the professor.	5.32	5.70	-0.39	2.375	.018*
M. Compared to other courses I was better able to apply knowledge from other business courses and disciplines.	5.63	5.57	0.06	.233	.816
N. Compared to other courses I felt that there was a greater involvement and participation on the part of all students.	5.72	5.74	-0.02	-.286	.775
O. Compared to other courses I felt that this course required more critical thinking.	5.26	5.60	-0.34	2.533	.012*
P. Compared to other courses I was engaged at deeper levels with concepts and issues in this course.	5.32	5.49	-0.18	1.371	.172
Q. This course gave me a stronger motivation to work hard at learning than listening to lecture.	5.73	5.71	0.02	-.050	.960

* Statistically significant at $p < .05$.

TABLE 5
STUDENT COMMENTS BY THEMATIC CATEGORY

Comment Categories	PJL Comments = 196		PBL Comments = 68		t-value	p-value
	Students	%	Students	%		
Project Plan or Cases	65	33.1%	15	22.0%	2.474	0.015*
Group Interaction	57	29.1%	14	20.6%	2.616	0.010*
Class Structure	22	11.2%	14	20.6%	4.238	0.000**
Real World Experience	20	10.2%	14	20.6%	3.049	0.003**
Critical Thinking	12	6.1%	8	11.8%	2.763	0.007**
Course Material	20	10.2%	3	4.4%	0.240	0.881

* Statistical Significance at $p < .05$.
** Statistical Significance at $p < .01$.

used as the central focus of the class. Tied closely to the marketing plan project theme was a group interaction theme. Here students emphasized the importance of the group for the completion of the plan. This topic has not gone unnoticed by marketing education researchers and is the focus of a number of studies (Amato and Amato 2004; Benbunan-Fich et al. 2001; Huff, Cooper, and Jones 2002). Most of the student comments highlighted the social nature of the group, and the importance of getting along with each other. The adjectives and phrases used to describe this group interaction theme were: fun; enjoyable; best part of the class; learned the importance of interpersonal skills; and cooperate with one another.

Comments on the class structure theme focused on the relationship of the weekly course topics and the development of the marketing plan. The following student comment captures the essence of this theme: "The marketing group plan was very insightful and helpful with the application of what we learned throughout the [course]."

The importance of connecting the various marketing concepts with the marketing plan came through in the real world – future theme. Students commented on how relevant the marketing plan became when it was attached to a real-world issue. Good examples of this theme were captured in the following comments: "[The] course relates well to the real world. [It] pertains to practical issues"; ". . . stimulate thinking to the real marketing world"; "interesting and helpful for the future."

Supplemental materials supporting the marketing concepts were often mentioned as a relevant element of

the course. These comments were made in connection to the publisher-supplied videos (3 to 10 minutes) that emphasized important chapter concepts. Additional classroom materials included TV commercials purchased from a national organization. These 30 to 60 second domestic and international TV ads were shown in blocks of 10 to 20 at the end of class when the integrated marketing communications advertising, and promotional areas were covered.

Many of the students commented on the structure of the course. The class routine followed a similar pattern from week to week. The session started with a short lecture on a marketing concept or chapter, followed by a video. Next came a group discussion question relevant to the chapter and to the marketing plan, followed by a presentation of the group's answer from one of the group members. If time permitted a few TV and radio ads were run.

PBL Theme Findings

Fewer themes emerged from the PBL class than the PJB classes. The three themes that did emerge were: (1) interaction within groups; (2) real world – future; (3) and course structure. The most mentioned theme concerned the value of the group interaction in working on the cases. The following student quotes are typically of the comments on this theme: "I enjoyed the group work more than traditional lecture. Although it was more work at times"; and "working in groups enhances the learning experience

since it requires collaboration.” Many real world comments were made in reference to the student relevant PBL cases. Typical of these comments were: “the group work really makes you think and they are especially effective since they are relevant to our daily lives,” and “the fast food case was very entertaining and made me think about it as if I was experiencing the same problems in real life.”

The last major theme identified in the PBL class is similar to comments from the PBL classes on the structure of class. These included: “Too much going on – every week there was a quiz, an essay due, a case due or an exam”; “. . . I think you assigned too many cases with a small amount of pages that we were able to use. I would rather do three cases with 6 to 10 pages each.”

Student comments were parsed into valence categories – positive, neutral and negative. The results of the valence analysis indicate that the PBL classes were more willing to provide written comments with a greater percentage being positive than the PBL class. The PBL 1.15 comments per student with 67% positive. This is compared to the PBL class with 0.87 comments per student with only 48% positive (Table 6).

Student Course Evaluations

Table 7 provides a comparison of mean differences in instructor course evaluations questions between the PBL classes (n = 171) and the PBL class (n = 74). Access to individual Scantron question forms was not allowed. Summaries by instructional method were provided by the course evaluation administrator for each assessment item mean, standard deviation and sample size. The results of independent sample t-tests indicated that three PBL formative assessment items were significantly different: Item 6, “Emphasizes conceptual understanding”; and Item 7, “Has students apply concepts to demonstrate understanding.”

Two summative questions were part of the student course evaluation questionnaire: “All things considered how would you rate the overall effectiveness of the instructor?” and “Would you recommend the course to your fellow students?” There was no significant difference between PBL and PBL on these two questions. The analysis of this post-hoc element seems to imply that the teaching the PBL class did not “help” or “harm” the instructor’s course evaluations.

DISCUSSION

Student – Instructor Interaction and Critical Thinking

This study is centered on investigating the student perceived differences between a PBL pedagogy and a PBL pedagogy for undergraduate introductory marketing classes in two areas: (1) student – instructor interaction; (2) and critical thinking. The findings of this study support the proposition that a PBL method does generate greater perceived student – instructor interaction and increased critical thinking than a PBL pedagogy, but when combined with other items comprising a more robust construct of EL dimensions, no significant difference between the two pedagogies is evident.

These findings were unexpected. Educational literature supports the proposition that PBL requires higher levels of learning behavior. Using Bloom’s (1956) fifty-year-old educational taxonomy along with popular current educational models (Anderson and Krathwhol 2001; Marzano, Pickering, and Pollock 2001) as a guide for a comparison of the two instructional methods, it is apparent that PBL requires higher levels of cognition, analysis, synthesis and evaluation in addressing the four cases, than does PBL using a single marketing plan project.

TABLE 6
STUDENT COMMENTS: POSITIVE, NEGATIVE, AND NEUTRAL

Nature of Student Comment	PBL N = 170 Students		PBL n = 78 Students		t-value	p-value
	Students	%	Students	%		
Positive	114	67%	38	48%	-3.321	0.001**
Neutral	31	18%	7	9%	0.220	0.827
Negative	37	22%	13	16%	1.443	0.151

* Statistical Significance at $p < .05$.
** Statistical Significance at $p < .01$.

One possible explanation for this finding is that the classes were not pedagogically different. Both incorporated many attributes of EL, as well as the same instructor, and while student – instructor interaction and critical thinking were significantly different, these items did not outweigh the other items in the experiential factor construct.

Another possible explanation is that the students were different. All of the students taking the classes were in the management minor program in the school of business. The mean GPA for students admitted to this program is between 3.4 and 3.5 (four-point scale). This alone may account for their ability to cope with and adjust to the complex and ill-structured nature of the case problems assigned.

PJL and PBL Limitations

Because many introductory marketing classes of this size are taught in a straight lecture arrangement, some changes were made to accommodate the PJL and PBL

teaching methods. First, not all chapter material was covered in lecture. Students were alerted that they were responsible for all material assigned, whether or not it was covered in class. In straight lecture classes, student groups are part of the design. Second, student groups in the study were self-selected. As a result, some of the groups were extremely efficient and some were less functional. Breaking into their groups for questions and then presenting became problematic: therefore, managing time in large classes with a group orientation in a quarter-system is difficult.

Practical Value

The practical value of this study for marketing educators is that both instructional methods seem to work well in undergraduate introductory marketing classes. If this inference is correct, then the next question should be, “which of the two methods is the ‘better one’ for undergraduate introductory marketing classes?” Many would argue that PBL taught to undergraduates with little or no

TABLE 7
INSTRUCTOR COURSE EVALUATIONS - QUESTION MEAN DIFFERENCES, T-VALUES AND P VALUES FOR PJL AND PBL METHODS

Question	Mean Diff.	t-value	p-value
1 Communicates effectively and explains material clearly?	0.11	0.894	.394
2 Is well prepared?	-0.09	0.982	.328
3 Encourages class discussion?	0.03	0.174	.863
4 Is accessible to students out of class?	-0.05	0.180	.857
5 Keeps students informed of their progress?	0.04	0.364	.717
6 Emphasizes conceptual understanding?	0.24	2.180*	.015*
7 Has students apply concepts to demonstrate understanding?	0.30	3.274*	.0012**
8 Provides rigorous and demanding course?	0.09	0.068	.946
9 What is your rating of the overall value of the course?	0.16	1.484	.139
10 All things considered how would you rate the overall effectiveness of the instructor?	0.15	1.468	.144
11 Would you recommend the course to your fellow students?	0.00	NaN	NaN

* Statistical Significance at $p < .05$.

** Statistical Significance at $p < .01$.

Questions 1 thru 10: Likert scaled questions: 1 = very poor thru 7 = outstanding. Question 11: “Yes” or “No.”

experience in business or marketing is too advanced and requires a significant change in learning style. A counter argument is that PBL prepares students for the future by pushing them to take responsibility for their own education. Why or why not use case study for undergraduate introductory marketing courses would be an interesting topic for future research.

Learning Outcome

Unfortunately, a learning outcome question was not asked. Asking a question about how much the student learned in the class would add considerable value. Perception of how much was learned from the perspective of both students and instructor would be an interesting topic. Future research on this topic should include questions that probe learning outcome.

Some may wonder why this research focuses on two very similar teaching methods rather than on a lecture method versus a less passive method. Studies in marketing education over the past few years unquestionably support the proposition that the advantages of EL outweigh those of a passive lecture style but do not distinguish between closely related EL styles (Celsi and Wolfinger 2002; Hunt and Madhavaram 2006; Li, Greenberg, and Nicholls 2007). Additionally, marketing educators are under fire from students, administration, and marketing practitioners to create marketing education curricula reflecting current technology and the real world (Kennedy, Lawton, and Walker 2001; Wright, Bitner, and Zeithamel 1994). EL and other less passive instructional methods are the response to these demands.

Finally, the value of the research devices used in comparison of the two EL methods in this study are two-fold: (1) they can be used to assess the differences between EL and other pedagogies, (2) and they can be used to assess differences within various EL pedagogies.

Thematic Coding

The second research question asked students what thoughts, questions and feelings they experienced during the course. Coding of the comments into thematic categories offered valuable insights for marketing educators in both distribution and tone of the comments between the two instructional methods. Over 60 percent of the comments from the PBL classes were directed toward two themes: (1) the marketing plan (33%), (2) and group interaction (29%). The PBL class had a better balance among more categories. Their comments were evenly distributed between five of the six categories: focus on the cases (22%), group interaction (20%), class structure (20%) and real world-future (20%).

The PBL students seemed fixated on the group experience and the relationships built in the preparation of the

marketing plan project. No other categories received the emphasis that these two groupings did. At the same time for the PBL group, the large number of real world – future comments support the position that PBL builds on a personal experience, and values the real over the abstract or fictional (Kolodner 1993). The relevance of the case problems to the students also found its way into the comments – fast food, parking, buying books and student services are subjects most students readily understand. The concept of relevance is one of the primary tenets supporting the PBL method because it provides the students with a much more realistic framework against which to apply marketing concepts than does the single marketing plan project (Harrison-Walker 2005; Hernandez 2002; Smith and Van Doren 2004).

An unexpected finding was the difference in tone of the comments between the two pedagogical methods. The following words are typical of those used in the PBL class in shaping the comments made: “a blast, enjoyable, enjoyed, fun, good, great, helpful, insightful, interesting, liked, loved, organized, relevant, useful, well rounded.” Here are a few of the words from the PBL class that accompanied the comments: “great, interesting, didn’t like, enjoyed, knowledge, understand, wonderful, enriched.”

Inferences drawn from this analysis indicate that students in the PBL classes: (1) liked the class more; (2) were comfortable with the marketing plan project because it was similar to other assignments in other classes; (3) and, enjoyed the learning experiences with their groups. On the other hand, in the PBL class the students: (1) were not as comfortable with the instructional method; (2) there were too many cases assigned; (3) although, they felt more connected to the real world; (4) and, they gained knowledge and learned from the class.

There are obvious limitations to thematic coding. In this study, as in most studies based on this type of analysis, much depends on consistently parsing the comments into right thematic categories. The importance of this style of analysis to the instructor cannot be understated. Qualitative questions yield an understanding and perspective on the students’ thoughts and feelings that the scaled questions do not provide. Comments included on most instructor evaluations are the closest to this type of feedback, but instructor evaluations do not normally ask students to comment on their feelings, thoughts and experience in the same way.

EVALUATIONS

The last research question asked was, “Will Problem-Based Learning help or harm an instructor’s course evaluations?” Based on item analysis from the instructor evaluations for the two pedagogies, the answer is, “No.” There were significant differences in the answers on two

formative questions (Questions 6 and 7). This provides support in making the inference that PBL emphasizes greater conceptual understanding and a method to allow students to demonstrate that understanding, but it did not result in a significantly higher summative evaluation of the instructor's effectiveness.

The value of this finding to the marketing educator is that PBL did not harm instructor evaluations, but it did not help them either. This is important when considering how little time most faculty have or have set aside to prepare new and different teaching methods. If that is the case, then why would marketing educators devote significant time and effort to develop new instructional methods if there was little or no difference in student learning or instructor evaluations?

Additional Question

Finally, a question that was not included in the list of research questions, but one that should be addressed is, "Are expected gains in student knowledge, practice and understanding, worth the additional effort to teach a PBL class?" The answer to this question depends on who is doing the asking. For average students, the answer would probably be "No." The skill and knowledge gains for the student are important but there would no doubt be resistance to a new instructional method that is inherently more rigorous. Cases are not as easily parsed and assigned to group members, as are the parts of a marketing plan task. Cases require all group members to read, understand and assess the case. Additionally, casework often requires the groups to meet more often outside of class.

From the instructor's perspective, the answer to the same question would be "Yes, but . . ." The rewards to the student in knowledge, practice and understanding may not be great enough to offset the additional effort required to teach the class. The reason for this answer rests solely on the amount of work required to prepare the curriculum, prep and teach this class. Without course relief or other incentives, changing pedagogies becomes too burdensome for most instructors. If you are a probationary tenure track instructor with a focus on research, then it is out of the question. This is the case in most colleges and universities.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Limitations

There are a number of potential limitations to the study that should be mentioned. First, the study represents only three classes in one university over two school terms. Because of the competitive nature of the management minor program, the students' overall university GPA, and the nature of the university (large, public and research

oriented), the students may not be representative of students at other universities and colleges. Consequently, generalizing the findings to other courses in other schools with different students is problematic. Second, the instructor managed the group-report-out differently for each treatment. The PBL groups wrote answers on the board and presented them to the class, and PBL groups did not because they feared this sharing could give other groups an advantage. The scheme allowed the instructor to spend more time with the PBL groups than with the PBL groups, and this is a potential threat to the results. Third, the instrument used in this study was for the most part a compilation of questions from studies in marketing education and other disciplines and was not extensively pretested and the danger exists that the factor dimensions derived do not accurately capture the EL concept. Last, additional threats include other unintentional biases by the instructor in teaching the courses, and misinterpretation in thematically coding the written thoughts and feelings of the students.

Future Research

Clearly, there is a need to understand more on how and why PBL differs from PBL. There needs to be more work in refining the EL construct presented in this study, as well as in matching student course and instructor evaluations to the two learning methods. Is there a specific style of EL that will maximize student knowledge gains and instructor evaluations at a level of effort for marketing educators that is not oppressive? Probably not, but it is an intriguing question.

Lastly, there are opportunities to increase our knowledge of how students feel and think in relation to different instructional methods. For many instructors teaching classes where the student can gain knowledge and have fun while doing it is a worthy objective, but getting the right balance is difficult. All fun and no knowledge is as much of a problem as preparing a class that is so difficult or boring that class becomes a horrible learning experience forcing students to drop the class. As John Dewey (1938) said, "How many students, for example, were rendered callous to ideas, and how many lost the impetus to learn because of the way in which learning was experienced?"

CONCLUSION

This study starts by asking if a PLB pedagogy will generate increased student – instructor interaction and critical thinking, versus a PBL method. The research presented provides significant findings for marketing educators and others who are considering different methods of EL instruction. Various dimensions of EL are explored. Based on the findings of the research, PBL can be successfully taught in an undergraduate introductory

marketing class. There are gains in student – instructor interaction and critical thinking, and the instructor’s student course evaluations remain unchanged. However, when comparing all of the scaled research items gathered for the study, PBL does not appear to be significantly

different from PJJ. The content analysis of student-written comments sheds light on their likes and dislikes. In the end, a decision on which of the two methods to teach would seem to favor PJJ.

ENDNOTE

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METHODS FOR IMPROVING THE INTERPRETATIVE VALUE OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS OF TEACHING

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ABSTRACT

Questionnaires that measure students' evaluations of teaching performance are widely used throughout American higher education institutions. However, while the instruments are widely used, the interpretation of the survey data is a frequent source of disagreement and discontent. This paper will discuss three methods for interpreting teacher evaluation data and suggest that interpretation is most likely to be perceived as fair and accepted when it is based upon a pre-established scale that is grounded in multiple administrations of a consistent survey instrument.

INTRODUCTION

The evaluation of teaching is one of the core activities of academic units and has profound career implications for the faculty member being evaluated. Teaching evaluation has also received increased attention as a result of at least two trends, accreditation bodies' emphasis on assessment and the Spellings Commission's emphasis on accountability (U.S. Department of Education 2006), that focusing on how both student learning and instructor effectiveness can be more effectively assessed. While few would disagree with the importance of evaluating the performance of instructors, faculty members within and across academic units tend to disagree about evaluation methods and the interpretation of the evaluation results (Clayson and Haley 1990; Kemp and O'Keefe 2003; Machina 1987; Marsh and Roche 1997; Simpson and Siguaw 2000; Theall and Franklin 1990). Fair evaluation requires a standard with which all faculty members and those charged with evaluating the performance of faculty members are familiar, find to be acceptable and consistently apply in all cases (Cranton 2001). This paper illustrates and discusses some methods which have been commonly used to compare faculty members with regard to the teaching criterion of the more comprehensive set of performance criteria traditionally considered when evaluating faculty for contract renewal, salary, and merit increases, tenure and promotion.

Higher education institutions typically use, either singularly or in combination, two types of instructor evaluation systems: peer review and student surveys. Peer reviews typically involve a faculty assessment of a particular instructor's in-class behavior, teaching materials,

and/or student output. Student surveys, otherwise referred to as students evaluations of teaching or (SET) typically involve students acting as respondents to a questionnaire that assess a faculty member's performance. Regardless of the system used, the evaluation data are typically compared to some standard or expected performance in order to assess the instructor's competence. These assessments are then used to make retention, compensation, promotion, and tenure decisions. The importance of these decisions on a faculty member's career makes it imperative that the data from the evaluations are interpreted with objectivity, care and precision (Aleamoni 2000; Arreola 2000; Centra 1990; Centra and Bonesteel 2001; Ory 2000; Wergin and Swingen 2000). While there is considerable debate about SET's validity and whether or not they *should* be used (see, for a recent example, Clayson and Sheffet 2006), the fact remains that SET is used. The underlying question of this paper is that, given that SET *is* used, how can they best be interpreted? This paper will discuss various ways in which data from student evaluations of teaching are interpreted (and in some cases misinterpreted), and will suggest a method for increasing the interpretive value of teaching evaluations.

COURSE EVALUATION OBJECTIVES

SET data are typically gathered through a survey that is administered at the end of a course. The quantitative nature of the survey data eases comparison of the faculty member's performance with previous teaching performances as well as with the performance of other faculty members within and across academic units. Traditionally, course evaluation data are compared to meet either forma-

tive or summative objectives. Formative comparisons involve looking at an individual's evaluations over time to discern a trend in the evaluations (i.e., the individual's present performance is compared to his or hers past performance) (Centra 1987; Smith 2001). Summative comparisons involve looking at the individual's evaluation relative to the evaluations of his or her peers (Scriven 1987; Knapper 2000). Summative comparisons typically involve comparing a departmental average or mean score for an academic term to the individual's evaluations for that same term. Rather than the departmental mean, comparisons may be made to other faculty members of a similar rank or who teach similar material. As with all rankings and ratings, these require special attention to assure that the eventual positions ascribed and the decisions that flow from these ascribed positions are based upon transparent, objective and valid interpretation (Alemani 1987). Objective interpretation is especially critical when the teaching evaluation scores are submitted to the several committees and administrators who are charged with examining a faculty member's qualifications and making recommendations regarding promotion and tenure decisions.

COURSE EVALUATION COMPARISON METHODS

While evaluation comparisons are used to meet either formative or summative objectives, the actual comparisons can be made using a number of methods. Three such methods, the Observational Method, the Statistical Method, and the Empirical Method, are discussed below.

The Observational Method

The observational method of comparison uses the raw scores (means) calculated from the evaluation forms as the basis for comparison. Ease-of-use is the advantage of this technique as it requires the least amount of effort to make the comparisons. However, this technique treats scores as terminal measures and accepts any differences between scores as meaningful. Consider, for example, the evaluations presented in Table 1 for two faculty members

who each taught a section of an elective undergraduate course in the same term.

The observational method would lead one to conclude that "A" is a better instructor than "B" and above average when compared to all instructors of elective undergraduate courses. Likewise, one would conclude that "B" is both worse than "A" and worse than average. Standard deviations are frequently computed and reported but, in the absence of any further statistical comparisons, the standard deviations are not much more than window dressing. The problem with the observational technique should be fairly obvious to anyone who has had a basic course in statistical analysis. Investing these raw differences with a kind of conceptual significance is the most basic of the statistical rookies' mistakes and one often used as a teaching opportunity.

The Statistical Method

The statistical method of comparison uses statistical tests to determine if differences between evaluation scores are meaningful. In this way, it overcomes the inherent error of the observational method (i.e., the assumption that all differences are meaningful). Additionally, the statistical method retains the ease-of-use advantage of the observational method as it requires only slightly more effort to compute a statistic based upon the mean and standard deviation that it does to simply observe the mean.

The primary disadvantage of the statistical technique is that it uses a relatively small amount of data in its calculations which decreases the sensitivity of the statistical tests. This makes it difficult to find statistically significant differences. Taking the data presented in Table 1, a t-test would reveal that there are no significant differences between any of the reported means. That is "A" and "B" and statistically equivalent to each other and to the departmental mean. To further illustrate this point, Table 2 presents a greater amount of data about two instructors' evaluations for a particular term along with departmental means for that term. The data in Table 2 allow each instructor to be compared to the overall departmental mean, each section to be compared to the mean for the given type of course, and for the instructors to be

TABLE 1 EXAMPLE OF OBSERVATIONAL COMPARISON METHOD			
Faculty Member	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
A	29	4.5	1.1
B	32	4.2	.7
Mean of All Elective Undergraduate Courses	143	4.3	1.7

compared to each other (both overall and for a given type of course). The results of a basic t test applied to all of the possible comparisons (n = 14) indicate that the difference between each pair of means is all less than the .05 level needed to establish statistically significant differences between the scores compared. This means that, for example, an instructor scoring 3.16 on a global item has a score that does not statistically differ from the departmental mean score of 3.76. We must conclude that, the statistical test we applied could only indicate extreme differences on a 5-point scale (i.e., the method merely distinguishes the poor teachers from the outstanding teachers). However, the method does not distinguish between differing levels of instructor performance in the broad mid range of scores.

The Empirical Method

The empirical method of comparison depends upon a longitudinal accumulation of observations derived from a consistently administered teaching evaluation instrument and the explicit agreement among those being evaluated and those charged with interpreting the ratings that the resulting outcomes are meaningful and consistently interpreted. The empirical method requires that an academic unit establish an agreed upon performance standard which its faculty members are expected to meet or exceed. Department mean scores are already used in this manner in the previously discussed observational method but these mean scores tend to change from evaluation period to evaluation period. For that reason the unit should

**TABLE 2
ILLUSTRATIVE TEACHING EVALUATION DATA**

Instructor 1	Instructor			Department		
	N	Mean	Std. Dev	N	Mean	Std. Dev
Overall Means						
Overall Teaching Effectiveness	61	3.69	1.07	1192	3.95	1.08
Overall Quality of the Course	59	3.75	0.9	1181	3.91	1.06
Required, Undergraduate Day						
Overall Teaching Effectiveness	29	4.28	0.59	287	4.34	0.95
Overall Quality of the Course	28	4.21	0.63	283	4.29	0.93
Elective, Graduate						
Overall Teaching Effectiveness	32	3.16	1.14	215	3.76	1.15
Overall Quality of the Course	31	3.32	0.91	212	3.69	1.09
Instructor 2						
Overall Means						
Overall Teaching Effectiveness	78	4.33	0.75	1192	3.95	1.08
Overall Quality of the Course	77	4.23	0.83	1181	3.91	1.06
Elective, Graduate						
Overall Teaching Effectiveness	32	4.67	0.68	215	3.76	1.15
Overall Quality of the Course	32	4.44	0.62	212	3.69	1.09
Elective, Undergraduate, Night						
Overall Teaching Effectiveness	46	4.11	0.82	155	3.95	1.09
Overall Quality of the Course	45	4.09	0.93	153	3.76	1.2

Note: Each of these comparisons was subjected to the traditional "t-test. We also compared the scores of Instructor 501 and Instructor 513 for an elective graduate course. Despite a number of seemingly large observational differences in comparable scores, none of the 14 possible comparisons in this table yielded statistically significant (p < .05) results.

choose an acceptable standard that is, in effect, based on a longitudinal “mean of means.”

The advantage of the empirical technique is that it uses the greatest amount of data because it relies upon information gained from all previous evaluations rather than just the evaluations from a given term. The disadvantage of the empirical technique is that is the most difficult technique to implement. This technique requires the institution have a long history of using a particular rating scale and the perspective that comes from that scale’s historical usage. Further, this technique requires that faculty agree upon the appropriate scale ranges that indicate various levels of teaching performance.

Realistically, the standard might vary with the experience level of faculty. New faculty members might be expected to meet a performance standard somewhat lower than that expected of more senior faculty. Our experience has been that such an exception is almost always implicitly granted by those charged to evaluate new faculty. A period of adjustment exception during which the comparisons are essentially formative is understandable but there must be a defined standard to be met.

The critical activity is the development of a longitudinal data base of evaluation observations of the so called “global items” for all academic periods and including all courses evaluated. While the focus remains on the “global items” the system is flexible enough to include other scale items assumed to be relevant to overall teaching performance.

We believe that an empirically-derived scale, such as that seen in Table 3, represents the resolution to problems, objections, and general expressions of discontent with the interpretation of teaching evaluation outcomes by those charged to make decisions regarding retention, compensation and the especially critical decisions bearing on recommendations for promotion and tenure.

Table 3 presents an example of an overall scale that may be used to evaluate all instructors within a given academic unit. The unit may prefer to develop multiple scales that reflect inherent differences in instructor experience or course type. For example, an academic unit observes over time that teachers of required courses are evaluated differently than those of elective courses and/or instructors of undergraduate courses are evaluated differ-

**TABLE 3
EVALUATION SCALE**

Unsatisfactory	Satisfactory	Good	Excellent	Outstanding
2.5 – 3.0	3.1 – 3.5	3.6 – 4.0	4.1 – 4.5	4.6 – 5.0

**TABLE 4
EVALUATION SCALES THAT REFLECT DIFFERENCES IN COURSE TYPE**

Required Undergraduate Courses				
Unsatisfactory	Satisfactory	Good	Excellent	Outstanding
1.0 – 2.3	2.3 – 2.7	2.8 – 3.2	3.3 – 4.1	4.2 – 5.0
Elective Undergraduate Courses				
Unsatisfactory	Satisfactory	Good	Excellent	Outstanding
1.0 – 2.9	3.0 – 3.4	3.5 – 3.9	4.0 – 4.4	4.5 – 5.0
Required Graduate Courses				
Unsatisfactory	Satisfactory	Good	Excellent	Outstanding
1.0 – 3.0	3.1 – 3.5	3.6 – 4.0	4.1 – 4.5	4.6 – 5.0
Elective Graduate Courses				
Unsatisfactory	Satisfactory	Good	Excellent	Outstanding
1.0 – 3.0	3.1 – 3.6	3.7 – 4.1	4.2 – 4.6	4.7 – 5.0

ently than those of graduate courses. Table 4 presents multiple evaluation scales that reflect these differences.

An academic unit could, in fact justify establishing a series of standards to be met for its various programs and course levels but the more departures and exceptions incorporated into the evaluation system, the more the system departs from being a rational system and drifts into the realm of rationalization and subjectivity.

COURSE EVALUATION INTERPRETATION: SOME EXAMPLES

Interpreting course evaluations involves an interaction between a particular comparison objective and a particular comparison method. The results of this interaction are used to assess the faculty member's teaching performance and become an input into the overall assessment of teaching ability. For example, the evaluations from a particular course taught by a given faculty member may be summatively compared to evaluations from other faculty from the same academic unit using the observational method. If the given faculty member's evaluations are higher than the average evaluation from her academic unit, the given faculty member is likely to be seen as an above average instructor. However, the use of some statistical techniques may result in the misinterpretation and misassessment of a faculty member's performance. The section will discuss some appropriate and inappropriate interpretations of course evaluations and the relationship between these interpretations and the uses of evaluations.

Data Collection

Data for this study were gathered from the course evaluations administered within the Marketing department of a large, private university in the Midwest which has evaluated teaching performance with students' evaluations of courses for more than 25 years. Over time the scales have been revised from a five-point scale to a seven-point scale and then to a ten-point scale and then back again to a five-point scale, but the current scale has been in use for better than fifteen years. Scale points aside, the performance factors evaluated have remained quite consistent. The scale, which is administered to each class near the conclusion of each academic term, has seventeen bipolar scale items. There are two "global items" (see Figure 1); the first of these items asks the respondents to rate "overall teaching effectiveness and the second asks them to rate the "overall quality of the course." Eight items are directed toward the course. These items ask for ratings on matters of course organization, objectives, assignments, helpfulness of the text and whether course materials were up to date. The remaining eight items ask for ratings on questions related to the instructor. These items deal with the respondents' perceptions of whether or not

the instructor was knowledgeable, explained the material well, was well organized, motivated students, fairly graded students, encouraged questions and discussion, was accessible to students, was fair and showed enthusiasm. The scale items are considered relevant to teaching performance and so the scale has, at least, face validity and the consistency of the scores achieved by faculty members over time is considered as a meaningful measure of reliability (Green, Calderon, and Powell-Reider 1995).

In addition to the scale questions the evaluation form includes on the reverse side of the scale page a series of qualitative questions dealing with perceptions of the instructor's strengths and weaknesses, the benefits of taking the course, ideas for improving the course and the fairness of the examinations and grading procedures. Each of the items is scored but the global items are given more weight. The emphasis placed on the global items is a holdover from another era of teaching evaluation instruments used within our college. In that early development period of our teaching evaluation instrument, each of the several departments within the college were allowed to include their own set of questions. The departmental representatives argued that they were better able to use questions they believed were more relevant to departmental objectives and teaching methods. All agreed to include the global items so that there would be some means for cross department comparisons. Over time the several departments agreed on the standardized form in use today. But the importance of the global items persists as a reliable and comparable summary of a faculty members teaching performance. Summaries of the results of these two items are used in comparisons with departmental means and these comparisons are included in the documentation a faculty member prepares in support of applications for promotion, tenure or both.

Appropriately Interpreting Evaluations

Because teaching evaluations are important inputs into assessment of faculty's performance, their inappropriate usage can have significant consequences on faculty satisfaction, retention, and promotion. The following are some examples of how the selection of a comparison method can lead to inappropriate comparisons.

Table 5 shows teaching evaluations received by three separate faculty members over four subsequent academic terms. The assessment of the three instructors' performances will vary depending upon the comparison method used to interpret the course evaluations.

Using the Evaluations to Meet Formative Objectives. One of the uses of teaching evaluations is to ascertain the faculty member's teaching performance over time. This formative assessment is used in the spirit of faculty development but can also be used to make compensation and retention decisions.

FIGURE 1
THE GLOBAL ITEMS AND THE SET SCALEPOINTS

Given your experience, the instructor's overall teaching effectiveness was <u>among the worst</u> .	1	2	3	4	5	Given your experience, the instructor's overall teaching effectiveness was <u>among the best</u> .
Given your experience, the overall quality of the course was <u>among the best</u> .	1	2	3	4	5	Given your experience, the overall quality of the course was <u>among the best</u> .

Using the Observational Method to Meet Formative Objectives. As the observational method treats all differences between means as significant, the use of this method to meet formative objectives merely involves observing trends in means over several terms. Thus, the data in Table 5 suggest that Instructor A's teaching as consistent improved, Instructor B's teaching has consistently deteriorated, and Instructor C's teaching is inconsistent as his performance sometimes improves and sometimes worsens. Thus, the observational method would lead to the interpretation that B is in most need of faculty development aimed at improving teaching performance while A has the least need for such development activities.

Using the Statistical Method to Meet Formative Objectives. The statistical method uses standard statistical tests to assess differences in mean scores. For the data in Table 5, the tests reveal that there are no statistically significant differences between any of the means reported in the table. In other words, this method fails to discriminate between any of the teaching performances across instructors nor does it discriminate across terms for a given instructor. Thus, interpreting the data using the statistical method would lead to the conclusion that all of the instructors are equally proficient and the teaching effectiveness of each instructor has neither improved or decreased over time.

Using the Empirical Method to Meet Formative Objectives. The empirical method involves interpreting a given teaching evaluation mean relative to a scale that is based upon historical data gathered from repeated administration of a given evaluation questionnaire and that represents the standards of evaluation agreed to by the academic unit (see Table 3). Interpreting the data in Table 5 using the standard presented in Table 3 one can see that Instructor B is consistently evaluated as "Outstanding," Instructor A is consistently evaluated as "Satisfactory," and Instructor C's evaluations vary between "Good" and "Excellent." Thus, interpreting the data using the empirical method would lead to the conclusion that Instructor A is most in need of development activities, while B is least in need of development activities.

The differing interpretations of these evaluations will lead to differing decisions about faculty development, compensation, and promotion and tenure (see Table 6).

Using Evaluations to Meet Summative Objectives

While satisfying a formative objective involves assessing an instructor's performance over time, satisfying a summative objective involves assessing an instructor's performance relative to other faculty members. This assessment is likely to be based on data from a limited point

TABLE 5
TEACHING EVALUATIONS OVER FOUR ACADEMIC TERMS

Faculty Member	Term 1	Term 2	Term 3	Term 4
A	3.18	3.26	3.30	3.41
B	4.86	4.78	4.69	4.55
C	4.02	4.11	4.06	4.09
Departmental Mean	4.11	4.03	3.97	4.15

TABLE 6
EFFECT OF EVALUATION INTERPRETATION ON FACULTY RANKINGS
TO MEET FORMATIVE OBJECTIVES

Comparison Method	Instructor		
	A	B	C
Observation	1	3	2
Statistical	TIE		
Empirical	3	1	2

in time (e.g., a particular term or an academic year) rather than for an extended period of time. The summative evaluation objective is closely aligned with decisions regarding faculty compensation, retention, promotion, and tenure.

Using the Observational Method to Satisfy Summative Objectives. Using the observational method to make summative evaluations about faculty's teaching performance involves merely comparing the mean instructor rating of a given faculty member to the mean rating of a peer or group of peers (e.g., the mean rating for all instructors in a particular academic unit or all instructors who teach a particular course). Using the data in Table 5 for "Term 1," we can observe that both Instructors A and C are below the department mean while "B" is above the departmental mean. The interpretation of this observation is that "B" is a good instructor while "A" and "C" are not. We could also observe that C's mean is higher than that of A, and therefore conclude that C is a better instructor than A. As these evaluations are based upon comparing a faculty member to a group mean, the interpretation of the comparison assumes that the group mean is neutral (i.e., the mean does not represent "good" performance or poor performance). This could result in a particular faculty member's teaching performance remaining constant but being differently evaluated as a result of variations in the group mean from one evaluation period to another.

Using the Statistical Method to Meet Summative Objectives. The statistical method is likely to be unsuited for making summative evaluations as the method only detects extreme difference in teaching performances. As mentioned earlier, all of the means presented in Table 2 are statistically equivalent, so no inferences about the relative quality of the instructors can be made using statistical tests (i.e., each of the instructors would be interpreted as being equivalent to the other instructors).

Using the Empirical Method to Meet Summative Objectives. The empirical method involves interpreting teaching evaluation means for the various instructors to a

predetermined scale (e.g., Table 3). Again using the "Term 1" data from Table 5, this comparison reveals that instructor B is "Outstanding," C is "Good," and A is "Satisfactory." Compensation decisions based upon this data could reflect the interpretation that B is at the top of the teaching scale, while A has a great deal of room for improvement. Further, these interpretations are more stable as the comparison standard is stable over multiple time periods rather than changing with each term. Thus, the interpretations are likely to be seen by the faculty as more fair and indicative of their true teaching performance.

Looking across the three different comparison methods, it can be seen that the choice of comparison method effects the interpretation of the instructors' evaluations when using the evaluations to meet summative objectives (see Table 7).

It is interesting to note that while the observation and empirical methods result in the same ranking of instructors, they do not result in the same information about the instructors' effectiveness. While, the observational method ranks the instructors, thus establishing the relative abilities of the instructors, it does not give information about the objective abilities. The individual interpreting the course evaluations would have no way of knowing if any or all of the instructors is excellent, poor, or somewhere between these two extremes. However, the empirical method does provide information about each instructor's objective abilities and this information is used to form the rankings presented in Table 7.

Alternative Comparisons

Faculty members are frequently concerned with the comparison standard used in the course of performance evaluations. The tendency on the part of some faculty members and academic units is to change the unit of comparison in a way that is perceived to be more fair to the faculty member (i.e., choose a unit of comparison that better represents the circumstances of the faculty mem-

TABLE 7
EFFECT OF EVALUATION INTERPRETATION ON FACULTY RANKINGS TO MEET SUMMATIVE OBJECTIVES

Comparison Method	Instructor		
	A	B	C
Observation	Poor	Good	Poor
Statistical		Equal	
Empirical	Satisfactory	Outstanding	Good

ber). Thus, depending upon the faculty member and course of interest, the faculty member's performance can be compared to:

1. All instructors in the academic unit.
2. All instructors who teach the same course.
3. All instructors who teach the same type of course (elective or required, undergraduate or graduate).
4. All instructors of the same rank or level of experience.
5. All instructors with the same course load.

While these alternative comparison populations may provide more information for a faculty member to use when assessing her own performance, they also further strengthen the need for an agreed upon evaluation scale such as that provided in Table 3. The existence of multiple comparison populations increases the chance that a faculty member's performance will be interpreted differently by the many committee members, board members, administrators, etc. who are charged with judge teaching performance. This is especially problematic in promotion and tenure decisions as such decisions involve a greater number of judges who typically come from a greater variety of backgrounds. Reporting the faculty member's teaching performance as defined by an agreed upon evaluation scale will result in true increases in the "fairness" of the promotion and tenure process.

SUMMARY

This article discussed a number of issues relevant to the interpretation of the results derived from student teaching evaluations. It presented three models: the Ob-

servational, the Statistical, and the Empirical which are applied when making comparisons between the performance of individual faculty members or between the performance of a single faculty member compared with all other members of an academic unit within a given time frame. The article includes examples of the interpretations which result from the application of each of the three methods in rating faculty members' teaching performance.

The empirical model for comparisons which we suggest academic units adopt as an evaluative format can be applied to both the summative and formative approaches. Canon (2001) wrote that the interest in teaching evaluation was engendered by the evaluation practices commonly used in business. Interestingly enough while academics have focused largely on the summative approach businesses have recently turned more toward the formative approach. Writing in *Fortune*, Betsy Morris (2006) explained the General Electric under the leadership of Jack Welsch made summative evaluations of his managers. Under the new leadership CEO Jeffrey Immeldt has abandoned the summative method in favor of the formative method in which a manager's performance in a given period is compared to his or her performance over time. Also a recent study (McGregor 2006) reports that the multi item and frequently lengthy questionnaires requesting customers to evaluate services could be replaced by a single question survey. This question suggested as a "Global Item" asks, that on a scale of 1 to 10, people report: how strongly they would recommend the service to other people. Perhaps, this sort of scale could be used as a substitute or validation when collecting data concerning the so called global items regarding the effectiveness of the instructor and the quality of the course.

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