EXPERIENTIAL MARKETING PROJECTS: STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF LIVE CASE AND SIMULATION METHODS

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ABSTRACT

While experiential projects have been documented as powerful pedagogical tools for linking theory to practice, it is unknown whether students prefer the experience to be real or hypothetical. This paper explores the impact of a real client-based project versus a simulated client project on students' perceptions and ratings of the marketing project. Student perceptions of learning are also investigated. Results indicate that both formats are effective in fostering perceptions of reality, favorable project evaluations, and enhanced perceptions of learning.

INTRODUCTION

The incorporation of real-world learning experiences in business curricula has been suggested by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools (AACSB) curriculum guidelines. Furthermore, educators have stressed the importance of linking theory and practice in the classroom in order to make the classroom as similar to the practical business world as possible (Granitz 2001; Nofz 1990; Kolb 1984; Schibrowsky and Peltier 1995; Stern and Tseng 2002). These linkages benefit students by providing hands-on experience, business competencies, and valuable skills.

Previous research has discussed the effectiveness of experiential learning techniques in improving marketing pedagogy (Bridges 1999; Drafke, Schoenbachler, and Gordon 1996; Gruca 2000; Hamer 2000; Petkus 2000; Specht 1985). Much of this research suggests that the incorporation of experiential marketing projects can be useful in increasing student involvement levels, comprehension, and retention of information, while providing students with hands-on experience and fostering a linkage between theory and practice. One example of experiential learning is a project method (PMA) or "live-case" approach (Dommeyer 1986; Goretsky 1984; Malhotra, Tashchian, and Jain 1989; McDaniel 1984); another is the use of simulated research experiences (SRE) (Malhotra, Tashchian, and Mahmoud 1987). Many instructors use variations of these experiential projects in marketing curriculum.

These projects can take two general forms: a simulated marketing project that contains a hypothetical marketing problem and client, or a "real" project consisting of an actual client who seeks to use the student project to answer an actual marketing problem. While there is good conceptual reasoning and empirical support for the inclusion of an experiential project in marketing pedagogy, there has been very little empirical research investigating whether "reality" plays an important part in the learning process and outcome (for exception, see Granitz 2001).

The purpose of this study is to empirically test whether students' project perceptions, ratings, and perceptions of learning differ between the two formats of experiential projects – live case or simulated. In other words, this research addresses whether there are differences in the impact of experiential research projects when the experience is real versus hypothetical. This question is explored in the context of a marketing research course – a course that lends itself well to the two general project formats. Gaining insight as to the virtues of real client projects versus simulated experiential exercises is clearly of importance and interest to marketing instructors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Experiential learning is defined as "a process whereby knowledge is created and learning is promoted through the transformation of experience" (Kolb 1984, p. 38). Previous research has recognized the value of experiential learning in marketing curriculum (Bridges 1999; de los Santos and Jensen 1985; Graeff 1997; O'Hara and Shaffer 1995; Wynd 1989). It has been found that this method assists students in developing essential marketing and business skills. Students become more involved in learning with emphasis on personalization of subject matter and higher-order thinking (Hamer 2000).

In a special issue of the *Journal of Marketing Education* dedicated to experiential learning activities, Hamer (2000) states that experiential techniques are categorized in two groups: (1) semi-structured classroom activities,

which are short in nature and contain moderate complexity, and (2) loosely structured experiential activities which take longer to complete and are more complex.

In semi-structured classroom activities, the instructor directs groups of students to complete a small task designed to reinforce course concepts. These activities are short in duration, generally very focused, and are completed during the class period.

The loosely structured experiential activities require greater amounts of time and are broader in scope. These activities include the project method (PMA) or live-case approach, debates, and simulated experiences. The benefit of these types of experiential learning activities is that they are often somewhat ambiguous and more difficult, requiring students to process information more deeply. In addition, these types of experiential activities are useful in courses such as marketing research, as they provide students with the opportunity to experience every facet of the marketing research process over an entire semester. Previous research in various disciplines suggests that the incorporation of loosely structured experiential activities improves student performance (Perry et al. 1996), increases instructor and student enthusiasm for the course (Dabbour 1997), and increases students' perceived value in the learning experience (Graeff 1997).

Loosely structured experiential activities can employ hypothetical or actual data. Using the PMA as an example, students can participate in the marketing project by responding to a hypothetical client and problem, or they can be challenged by an actual client with an actual marketing problem. In the latter case, the client "hires" the students to conduct research in order to investigate a problem important to the client, provide findings, and ultimately suggest marketing strategies based on the findings. In the former, students generally participate in the marketing project using a simulated or hypothetical client and are sometimes provided with previously-generated data. Many marketing textbooks include software containing marketing plans and data sets for these purposes.

PMAs

The project method or "live-case" approach in marketing curriculum is an integrative method which links theory and practice; it provides students with the opportunity to experience marketing problems with real clients. Selection of these clients is one of the most important aspects of the PMA. Previous research suggests that the client be very involved in the students' experiences by providing a well-defined problem for investigation, meeting with students, and offering financial assistance whenever possible (e.g., for administrative costs) (Malhotra, Tashchian, and Jain 1989). This involvement gives students the opportunity to experience a real client relationship.

Research on the PMA was extensive in the 1980s. Malhotra, Tashchian, and Jain (1989) provide a useful summary of studies examining the PMA throughout this time period. This summary categorized previous research in three areas: (1) studies that examine both clients' and students' opinions regarding the effectiveness of the PMA (Ramocki 1987; McDaniel 1984, Richardson and Raveed 1980), (2) studies that discuss structured approaches for selecting a group project and accompanying teaching methods (Dommeyer 1986; Goretsky 1984; McCain and Lincoln 1982), and (3) narratives detailing instructors' experiences with PMAs (Humphreys 1981; Dean 1982; de los Santos and Jensen 1985). In general, this stream of research suggests that a project method approach to learning concepts is preferred to an unstructured (lecture-based) method by students.

More recent research suggests that the integration of the PMA with several different types of experiential activities – as compared to a single experiential component – increases student learning and influences the type of conceptual information learned by students (Hamer 2000). Granitz (2001) examined student perceptions of courses using an active project method approach to learning, as compared to those employing more passive techniques. Results indicated that students believed active learning courses to be more meaningful than courses using more passive techniques. Examples of student testimonials extolling the merits of a client-sponsored project were provided. Referring to the project, one student stated it "was the most meaningful because I learned a lot of what I'll be doing later in life-possibly for my own business. We collected data, analyzed data, made recommendations, and presented results to the sponsor" (Granitz 2001, p. 30). Thus, in addition to the suggestions that PMAs increase learning, the integration of PMAs appear more meaningful to students.

Malhotra, Tashchian, and Jain (1989) cross-summarize the many skills that marketing students should possess upon completion of their degree, with the teaching methods that best foster and enhance these skills. In this summary, the PMA was found to provide numerous benefits. Specifically, the experiential project approach is highly effective in developing communication, problem solving, critical thinking, analytical, ethical, interpersonal, and real-world skills. Because of the superior nature of this approach in honing the skills of marketing students, many educators incorporate it into their curriculum. In fact, in a recent study with 107 of the most well regarded marketing educators, it was stated that research papers were being replaced with experiential learning projects in marketing curriculum (Smart, Kelley, and Conant 1999).

Simulations

Simulated experiences are beneficial to student learning. In the aforementioned cross summary of teaching

techniques and student skills, Malhotra, Tashchian, and Jain (1989) suggest that simulations increase student confidence in problem solving and decision-making skills, and are exceptional in honing computer skills when the simulations are computer-based. Students can experience a simulated marketing problem with hypothetical data sets, cases, and computer-based games. For example, computer simulations such as McGraw Hill's *Marketing Game!* (Mason and Perreault 1995) provide a simulated experience for marketing students and have been found to be very effective in learning. Moreover, these computer-based simulations have advanced with technology. While early computer simulations were hand scored and operated on mainframe computers, current simulations are run on personal computers which allow for higher speeds, greater storage, and dynamic and exciting features (Fritzsche and Burns 2001).

In addition to computer-based simulations, other simulated research experiences (SRE) can be achieved by role-playing using hypothetical clients. This experiential approach requires students to become active learners while pretending to solve the hypothetical client's marketing problems through strategic recommendations.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Marketing students have reported greater personal relevance when participating in active learning projects in marketing classes. Specifically, this relevance is created in three ways: (1) students actively perform what they will be doing in future careers, (2) by exchanging opinions with other team members, students develop frames of reference to compare and contrast their views on business issues, and (3) by participating in team work, students improve their social interaction skills – an integral part of their future careers (Granitz 2001). Granitz (2001) also reports that these benefits are further reinforced if students are participating in an active learning project with moral content or implications to society. While this research has illustrated that there is greater meaning associated with active learning projects, it is unclear whether students prefer marketing projects that employ actual, live-case clients or projects that employ simulated, hypothetical situations and clients. Thus, the following research questions are presented:

1. Is there a difference in students' project perceptions when there is integration of an actual, client-based (i.e., real-life) project versus a hypothetical client?
2. Is there a difference in students' project ratings when there is integration of an actual, client-based (i.e., real-life) project versus a hypothetical client?
3. Is there a difference in students' perceptions of learning when there is integration of an actual, client-based (i.e., real-life) project versus a hypothetical client?

THE MARKETING RESEARCH COURSE

Two sections of an undergraduate marketing research course were used to investigate the research questions. The same professor instructed each section; each was identical in classroom location, number and hours of class meetings, concept delivery (i.e., lecture and discussion), and course expectations with regard to grading and assignments. On the first day of class, marketing research students in both sections were asked to form groups of five or six for the purpose of a project that would encompass the entire semester. Team size was kept as equal as possible due to the known effect of team size on student performance in simulations (Cosse, Ashworth, and Weisenberger 1999). A total of 15 teams were involved. Of those 15 teams, six teams were involved in a project that was sponsored by a real client (i.e., PMA approach), while nine teams participated in a project with a hypothetical client (SRE approach). The teams involved with the real client were personally *challenged* by the client early in the semester to investigate a marketing problem facing the company. The instructor, posing as a hypothetical client with a marketing research problem, challenged the non-sponsored class. All teams were told that they would be conducting research for their client throughout the semester.

PMA Class

Malhotra, Tashchian, and Jain (1989) discuss operational issues to consider when using a project method approach in a marketing research course. All of these aspects were taken into consideration when developing the project. Specifically, during the summer months prior to the beginning of the semester, the instructor solicited potential clients from area businesses. After this process, the instructor chose a client. The client was asked to provide a problem statement and a 'request for proposal' for the research. Each team of students was presented with the RFP during the first class meeting. As recommended by Malhotra, Tashchian, and Jain (1989), the professional client visited the class and "challenged" students to study consumers' attitudes toward a radically new packaging concept for an existing consumer product (i.e., olive oil in a box) during the second-class meeting. The client made it very clear to the students that the students' research would be instrumental in the company's decision to change its package design. In addition, the client provided a historical perspective of the company, the company's strategic direction, a brief review of the product category, and information regarding the marketing research "challenge."

SRE Class

Similar to the sponsored class, the teams in this section of marketing research were hired by the hypothetical client (i.e., the instructor) to investigate consumers' attitudes toward a new packaging concept for a consumer product entering the market at that time (i.e., bagged tuna fish). Secondary data for this product category was provided to all teams.

Marketing Research Process

As the semester progressed, students in both sections worked in their designated groups through the various phases of the marketing research process. This process followed a typical undergraduate marketing research text. First, each group conducted exploratory research to help better define their marketing research problem. They become familiar with the use of secondary data and qualitative research in this process. The course content provided them with information on potential research designs. In designing their research, all groups used survey methodology. This was deemed appropriate for both projects as each involved conducting descriptive research. They collected data from appropriate convenience samples. The groups involved in the PMA used adult consumers (e.g., parents, aunts, uncles) as requested by the client, while the samples for the SRE projects were drawn from a student population. All groups were required to conduct data processing and analysis with SPSS for Windows software. Students attended optional labs conducted by the instructor for SPSS tutorial instruction. After analyzing their data, they were responsible for drawing conclusions and analyzing the marketing implications from their data. In the PMA section, the project concluded with formal presentations to fellow classmates, the instructor, and the client; for the simulated research experience, presentations were made to classmates and the instructor, only.

METHODOLOGY

Dependent Variables

Survey methodology was used to examine students' project perceptions, project ratings, and perceptions of learning. Fourteen measures (see Table 1) were examined to provide answers to the research questions. Similar to previous studies regarding students' perceptions and ratings of projects (Chapman and Van Auken 2001), five of the fourteen measures were seven-point bi-polar items measuring students' perceptions of the projects (e.g., realistic = 7; nonrealistic = 1) while another five were seven-point bi-polar adjectives measuring students' ratings of the project (e.g., good = 7; bad = 1). These ratings measures are also commonly used and reported in Bruner and Hensel (1992). The remaining four items were Likert statements measuring students' perceptions of learning (anchored by 5 = strongly agree; 1 = strongly disagree). These were adapted and modified from those used by Bobbitt et al. (2000). Likert items 2 and 3 of the learning measures relate specifically to learning from the project itself. Students were asked for their level of agreement with the statements, "I learned a lot from this project," and "I learned more in this class than in other classes because of the project." Likert items 1 and 4 of the learning measures examined the relationship between the project and learning relative to the entire course. Students were asked for their level of agreement with the statements, "The project was useful in learning marketing research concepts," and "The project helped me to perform better on exams." These measures were appropriate as they are simple statements that relate specifically to learning from the project and how learning in the course was enhanced by the project. In addition, several demographic questions were included.

Sample

The participants in the study consisted of students enrolled in two sections of undergraduate marketing research at a northeastern university. Each sample had the same instructor so teaching style as a moderating variable is controlled. Thirty-one students in the client-sponsored project section completed surveys, while 45 surveys were completed in the SRE group for a total of 76 student participants. This sample size is quite similar to other pedagogical studies examining approaches to class projects (e.g., Adrian and Palmer 1999; Bridges 1999; Cosse, Ashworth, and Weisenberger 1999).

The client-sponsored (PMA) sample of students was comprised of 12 males and 19 females. Four students reported grade point averages in the 2.0 to 2.5 range, ten students reported an average of 2.5 to 3.0, while 12 and five students reported grade point averages in the 3.0 to 3.5 and 3.5 to 4.0 ranges respectively. All of the students were marketing majors.

The sample of students who participated in the SRE project was quite similar and represented by 20 males and 25 females. Six students reported grade point averages in the 2.0 to 2.5 range, 15 students reported an average of 2.5 to 3.0, while 17 and seven students reported grade point averages in the 3.0 to 3.5 and 3.5 to 4.0 ranges respectively. All of these students were marketing majors as well.

Procedure

During the class prior to the final presentations, students were asked to complete a project evaluation survey. Students were told that they were receiving the surveys to be used by the instructor in developing the project for the next semester. They were told that their

TABLE 1
DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Project Perceptions

I thought the research project was (7-point bi-polar scale) (e.g., 1 = nonrealistic to 7 = realistic)

1. Nonrealistic/realistic
2. Not interesting/interesting
3. Not practical/ practical
4. Not enjoyable/Enjoyable
5. Not helpful/Helpful

Project Ratings

My overall rating of the project is (7-point bi-polar scale) (e.g., 1 = bad to 7 = good)

1. Bad/good
2. Unfavorable/favorable
3. Dislike/like
4. Inferior/superior
5. Unsatisfactory/satisfactory

Perceptions of Learning

Likert Items (5-point scale; 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree)

1. The project was useful in learning marketing research concepts.
2. I learned a lot from this project.
3. I learned more in this class than other classes because of the project.
4. The project helped me to perform better on exams.

honest, anonymous responses would be beneficial for this purpose. The instructor was not present in the classroom while the surveys were completed; a student volunteer collected the surveys, placed them in an envelope, and delivered them to the instructor's office immediately following the class meeting.

RESULTS

In order to investigate differences between the project formats, four separate MANOVAs were conducted: one for each construct as well as one for the summated measures.

Results from Individual Multivariate Analysis of Variance

Project Perceptions. Corresponding to the first research questions, a one-way between-groups multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate differences in project perceptions. Five dependent variables were used: unrealistic/realistic, not interesting/interesting, impractical/practical, not enjoyable/enjoyable, and not helpful/helpful. The independent variable was project format. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate, and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance—covariance matrices, and multicollinearity, with no violations noted. There was no statistically significant difference between the two project formats on the combined dependent variables ($F = 1.552$, $p = .185$, Wilks' Lambda = .900; partial eta squared = .100). Similarly, when the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, using the Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .01, there were no significant differences. See Table 2 for the multivariate and univariate results.

Project Ratings. Relative to the second research question, a one-way between-groups multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate differences in project ratings. The five dependent variables here were global evaluations of the project and included: bad/good, unfavorable/favorable, dislike/like, inferior/superior, and unsatisfactory/satisfactory. The independent variable was again project format. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted with no serious violations noted. Similar to project perceptions, there was no statistically significant difference between the two project formats on the combined dependent variables ($F = 1.23$, $p = .304$, Wilks'

Lambda = .919; partial eta squared = .081). When the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, using the Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .01, there were again no significant differences. See Table 2 for the multivariate and univariate results relative to project ratings.

Perceptions of Learning. Four dependent variables were used to measure perceptions of learning in the one-way, between-groups MANOVA. These included the following Likert statements measured as 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree: The project was useful in learning marketing research concepts, I learned a lot from this project, I learned more in this class than other classes because of the project, and the project helped me to perform better on exams. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted with no serious violations noted. There was no statistically significant difference between the two project formats on the combined dependent variables ($F = 1.38$, $p = .250$, Wilks' Lambda = .928; partial eta squared = .072). Similarly, when the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, using the Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .012, there were no significant differences. See Table 2 for the multivariate and univariate results.

Results from the Summated Scales Multivariate Analysis of Variance

Finally, a one-way between-groups multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate differences in the summated scales for Project Perceptions ($\alpha = .79$), Project Ratings ($\alpha = .94$), and Perceptions of Learning ($\alpha = .68$). Cronbach alpha values are quite sensitive to the number of items in a scale. Scales with less than ten items often have low Cronbach values, however in the case of these scales, the reported reliabilities are acceptable (Pallant 2001).

These three dependent variables and the independent variable of project format were used in the MANOVA. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted with no serious violations noted. Results produced no significant difference ($F = 2.638$, $p = .056$, Wilks' Lambda = .901; partial eta squared = .099). Similarly, when the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, using the Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .017, there were no significant differences. See Table 2 for the multivariate and univariate results.

Individual descriptive analyses for each item, as well as the summated scales, are found in Table 3.

Outcome Measures

While not proposed as research questions, the students' grades and course evaluations were examined in order to provide possible validation for the above findings. Using the same grading scale in both classes, the average grade in the client-sponsored class was 3.34, in the A- to B+ range; the average grade in the project class was 3.54, also in the A- to B+ range. Thus, earned grades were quite similar between the two project formats. Similarly, course evaluations, conducted by an outside agency contracted by the university, were similar between the two classes. Students in the client-sponsored class (i.e., PMA) reported an average of 4.48 on the question "I would rate this course as a whole" (5 = excellent; 1 = poor). In the simulated-project class (i.e., SRE), students reported an average of 4.41 on the same question. On the Likert question, "The course increased my knowledge and understanding of the subject" (i.e., marketing research) (anchored by 1 = strongly agree and 4 = strongly disagree), students again reported similar average scores. In the client-sponsored class, an average score of 1.72 was recorded as compared to a 1.88 in the simulated project class. These outcome measures provide validation to the above findings that there appears to be very little difference in students' perceptions and ratings of courses where there is the incorporation of a live case project versus a simulated project.

DISCUSSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The purpose of this study was to investigate differences in students' perceptions pertaining to two experiential project formats – real client format versus a simulated client format. Differences in students' project perceptions, project ratings, and perceptions of learning were investigated. Results of this study suggest that students' perceptions regarding the practical or realistic nature of the project do not differ when a real client is incorporated versus a hypothetical client. It would seem that a real client with a real marketing problem might lead students to feel that the project is more practical, as well as realistic; however, this was not the case. The findings suggested that students did not perceive there to be a significant difference in reality between projects employing simulated clients and those employing actual clients. It is possible that the real-life characteristics of the simulated project influenced students' perceptions of the project, resulting in favorable evaluations. Similar to the live-case approach, the simulated project had marketing issues and implications that were real to any consumer packaged-goods company. Further, there were no statistically significant differences between students' evaluations of the projects, suggesting that students similarly "like" each project format. The realistic/simulated nature of the project does not impact student ratings.

Live case research projects are often used in marketing courses to provide students with the opportunity to use or experience learned concepts; which ultimately enhances the overall learning process. The findings of this study add to the body of evidence that students believe they

TABLE 2
MANOVA RESULTS
COMPARISON OF PROJECT PERCEPTIONS, RATINGS, AND PERCEPTIONS OF LEARNING BY PROJECT FORMAT

	Univariate F-Ratio	df	p
Project Perceptions			
Nonrealistic/realistic	.410	1	.524
Not interesting/interesting	.103	1	.749
Not practical/ practical	1.05	1	.309
Not enjoyable/Enjoyable	3.66	1	.060
Not helpful/Helpful	.216	1	.643
(F = 1.552, p = .185, Wilks' Lambda = .900; partial eta squared = .100)			
Project Ratings			
Bad/good	4.27	1	.042
Unfavorable/favorable	4.82	1	.031
Dislike/like	4.56	1	.036
Inferior/superior	5.16	1	.026
Unsatisfactory/satisfactory	2.86	1	.095
(F = 1.23, p = .304, Wilks' Lambda = .919; partial eta squared = .081)			
Perceptions of Learning			
I learned a lot …	4.69	1	.034
I learned more…	3.00	1	.087
The project was useful…	.795	1	.376
The project helped me…	1.23	1	.271
(F = 1.38, p = .250, Wilks' Lambda = .928; partial eta squared = .072)			
Summated Measures			
Project Perceptions	.629	1	.430
Project Ratings	5.38	1	.023
Perceptions of Learning	4.56	1	.036
(F = 2.64, p = .056, Wilks' Lambda = .901; partial eta squared = .099)			

learn a lot from live projects. Interestingly, however, is that student perceptions of learning in the live case condition do not significantly differ from perceptions of learning in the simulated condition. Students in both conditions – live case and simulated – perceived the experiential projects to be effective in helping them to learn about marketing research and to perform better on exams. As compared to other courses, students in both conditions also deemed the project to be more helpful in their learning. That no significant differences were found between the simulated and live case conditions is meaningful. It points to the parity of both types of experiential project formats and is a testament to the effectiveness of experiential projects – whether real or simulated – in student perceptions of learning.

Future Research

The findings from this research raise several questions to be further addressed. We limit our discussion to two important areas – the need to further investigate the effect of project format using other dependent variables and the need for replication.

One area beneficial to further explore, is the effect of

TABLE 3
DEPENDENT VARIABLE MEANS: PROJECT PERCEPTIONS, RATINGS, AND PERCEPTIONS OF LEARNING BY PROJECT FORMAT

	Client Sponsored		Simulation	
	Mean	**Standard Deviation**	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Project Perceptions				
Nonrealistic/realistic	5.90	1.27	5.69	1.54
Not interesting/interesting	5.61	1.54	5.71	1.12
Not practical/ practical	5.65	1.25	5.31	1.49
Not enjoyable/Enjoyable	5.10	1.40	4.44	1.50
Not helpful/Helpful	6.10	1.58	6.24	1.19
Project Ratings				
Bad/good	6.32	.791	5.84	1.11
Unfavorable/favorable	5.97	.795	5.42	1.22
Dislike/like	5.97	1.02	5.36	1.35
Inferior/superior	5.81	1.05	5.24	1.07
Unsatisfactory/satisfactory	6.03	1.08	5.58	1.20
Perceptions of Learning				
I learned a lot …	4.71	.461	4.31	.949
I learned more…	4.16	.934	3.76	1.05
The project was useful…	4.74	.445	4.64	.484
The project helped me…	3.84	.860	3.60	.963
Summated Measures				
Project Perceptions	28.35	5.02	27.40	5.25
Project Ratings	30.10	4.13	27.44	5.36
Perceptions of Learning	17.45	2.08	16.31	2.42

different project formats on students' skill development. That is, does one experiential project format serve to more fully develop certain important skills over the other? For example, instructors may believe that when students interact with an actual client and work to solve or provide recommendations on an actual marketing problem, students build important business skills (e.g., interpersonal, communication, problem-solving) and by addressing real-life issues, other considerations become more tangible (e.g., ethical considerations). Certainly, understanding the impact of project format on student skill development would be a worthwhile avenue warranting further investigation.

There is also a need to replicate this study. The results reported here, while important, are limited by the relatively small size of the sample. As noted earlier, data in the present study were drawn from two classes; while common in marketing education research, the sample is small, nonetheless. Setting up an experiment similar to the one reported in which the researchers were able to control many external variables does present a methodological challenge. However, additional research into this area would help to further knowledge of this important question and help to further enhance student learning. It would thus be beneficial for this study to be replicated.

IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATORS

Many marketing educators incorporate experiential marketing projects in their undergraduate marketing classes because they believe these projects are beneficial. However, the degree and impact of the experiential project's reality have not been previously investigated. The present study extends the experiential learning stream of research touting the value of experiential projects by suggesting that the *perception of reality* of the project is something that can be achieved by a real client or with a simulated approach. Both techniques are effective in providing students with a perceived feeling of reality, favorable evaluations, and enhanced perceptions of learning.

The integration of *real* client-sponsored projects requires great dedication, coordination, resources, and a time-commitment on the part of the instructor and students. In addition, the potential for problems exists when students who have differing priorities and levels of responsibility leave the instructor to personally ensure the client project is sufficiently complete. The results of this research suggest that live case projects are well worth the time and money; however, this research also suggests that the same benefit can be achieved with simulated experiences as indicated by students' perceptions of the project, their liking for the project overall, and enhanced perceptions of learning.

Thus, in situations where marketing instructors cannot identify a suitable client for a sponsored class project, the use of a simulated project that deals with real life marketing issues may be just as effective in creating favorable project perceptions and ratings. Lamont and Friedman (1997) state motivating faculty to change their curriculum as the highest challenge facing undergraduate marketing education. Furthermore, Granitz (2001) states that marketing students are quite concerned about the "meaning" in their curriculum. The current research suggests that with these challenges, marketing educators have different approaches to choose from in order to provide this meaningful experience. If marketing educators have been reluctant to change their curriculum to incorporate experiential projects because they believe the project has to be "live," the results presented here suggest that the simulated approach is similarly effective. It is hoped that these results will urge instructors to move toward these experiential techniques making marketing students' education as meaningful as possible.

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DO STUDENT GRADES AFFECT STUDENT NUMERIC RATINGS OF MARKETING PROFESSORS? APPLYING ATTRIBUTION THEORY TO HELP ANSWER THIS QUESTION

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ABSTRACT

One of the unresolved controversies in marketing education remains whether students' grades affect students' numeric ratings of marketing professors. Attribution theory and the results of two experiments reported in this paper suggest that the relationship between students' grades and students' numeric ratings of professors may be more complex than indicated by the marketing education literature. Two experiments were designed to explore this issue. Experiment number one reports the extent to which students perceive that professor teaching ability causes student grades. Results from this first experiment suggest that students perceive the teaching ability of a caring and friendly professor as an important cause when they expect to receive an "A" in the course, but that students do not perceive teaching ability as an important cause when they expect to receive an "F." The opposite relationship occurs when the students perceive the professor as uncaring and unfriendly. The effects of student grades on satisfaction with the professor depend on the extent to which students perceive the professor as caring and/or friendly in experiment number one. Experiment two suggests that students make a form of the basic attributional error when attributing the cause of their grades. That is, they perceive an expected "A" as caused by student abilities, but do not perceive an expected "F" as caused by their abilities. A three-way interaction effect of gender of the professor, age of the professor, and expected grade of the student on satisfaction with the professor also surfaces in the second experiment.

INTRODUCTION

Student numeric ratings of professors (SNRP) have been the subject of considerable debate and controversy for many years (Clayson 1993; Clayson and Haley 1990; Grimes, Millea, and Woodruff 2004; Paswan and Young 2002). In particular, the important issue of whether student grades affect student numeric ratings of marketing professors remains unresolved (Bacon and Novontny 2002). Student numeric ratings of professors are defined as the numeric ratings students provide in response to questions on a student evaluation questionnaire.

There have been two schools of thought about the effects of grades on SNRP. There are many proponents for each of the two schools.

Advocates of numeric ratings of professors believe that student grades have little or no effect on such ratings. These advocates point to research that supports their position (e.g., Centra 2003; Decanio 1986; Howard and Maxwell 1980; Gramlich and Greenlee 1993; Marlin and Gaynor 1989; Marsh and Roche 2000; Seiver 1983). Therefore, these professors and administrators support the use of SNRP because they believe such ratings provide an accurate indicator of professor teaching effectiveness.

In contrast, critics of SNRP believe that grades received by students and/or other variables affect student numeric ratings of professors and point to research that supports their position (e.g., Ellis, Burke, Lomire, and McCormick 2003; Gomez-Mejia and Balkin 1992; Greenwald and Gilmore 1997; Martinson 2004; Millea and Grimes 2002; Mehdizadeh 1990; Kratutmann and Sander 1999; Worthington and Wong 1979; Zangenehzadeh 1988). Therefore, the critics believe that SNRP are of limited value because of the effects of grades and other exogenous influences surrounding student evaluations (Clayson and Frost 1997). SNRP have an important influence on decisions concerning professor pay, tenure, and promotion at many universities (Millea and Grimes 2002; Yunker and Yunker 2003). Therefore, it is important to determine, if possible, using sound and generally accepted research methods, whether student grades or other variables have an important influence on SNRP.

The purpose of this paper is to help provide marketing faculty with a clearer and more comprehensive under-

standing of the cognitive process through which students develop their numeric ratings. Faculty who teach marketing courses are service providers who provide a skilled performance service (Deighton 1992). Most teach that it is very important for service providers to have a "consumer orientation." Teaching the importance of a consumer orientation might sensitize students taking marketing classes to the issue of whether those professors actually have a "consumer orientation." Friendliness and caring could comprise some elements of a professor's "consumer (i.e., student) orientation." Consequently, it is particularly relevant for marketing educators to understand the effects of "practicing or not practicing" what they teach on SNRP.

Marketing professors teach that SERVQUAL (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1988) can be used to measure service quality. Friendliness and caring are not specific dimensions of SERVQUAL. However, the concept of caring is consistent with the empathy dimension of SERVQUAL, and friendliness is consistent with its assurance dimension. Professors teach that SERVQUAL can provide valuable insight into understanding how consumers develop their perception of quality. Consequently, it is particularly relevant for those professors to understand whether concepts that are similar to the dimensions of SERVQUAL (i.e., caring and friendliness of professors) can extend to aid in understanding how students develop their numeric ratings. Grading of students is an important element of the work, or service, provided by marketing faculty. Therefore, it is important for them to understand the relationships among student grades, friendliness of professors, caring of professors, and the effects of these three variables on SNRP.

Marketing professors teach that characteristics of service providers can have an important influence on consumer perceptions of a service experience (Zeithaml and Bitner 2003). Demographic characteristics are some of the important characteristics of service providers. Consequently, it is particularly relevant for the professors to understand whether their demographic characteristics have an important influence on SNRP. The literature contains some articles, with mixed findings, about the effects of the demographic characteristics of professors on SNRP. For example, some research suggests that gender affects student numeric ratings of professors (e.g., Sidanius and Crane 1989; Whitworth, Price, and Randall 2002) but other research has not found an effect of gender on SNRP (e.g., Ellis, et al. 2003; Foote, Harmon, and Mayo 2003). Additionally, virtually all of this evidence has focused on examining and reporting only main effects of demographic variables of professors on SNRP. Consequently, marketing professors need additional research to help clarify the relationships among their demographic characteristics and SNRP.

The research reported in this paper is justified because it seeks to help fill some important gaps in the information available to marketing professors. Currently, the marketing education literature does not provide marketing faculty a comprehensive understanding of the effects of some variables on SNRP. For example, no reported empirical evidence exists in the marketing education literature concerning whether there are interaction effects of student grades, friendliness of the professor, and caring of the professor on SNRP. Similarly, no reported evidence exists concerning whether there are interaction effects of student grades, gender of the professor, and age of the professor on SNRP. Conversely, the research reported in this paper also examines for possible interaction effects among these variables and applies attribution theory to help explain the effects of these variables on SNRP. Consequently, the research reported here is justified because it seeks to provide marketing professors with a clearer and more comprehensive understanding of the cognitive process through which students develop numeric ratings of their professors. This additional information could help marketing professors become better teachers and thus receive higher student numeric ratings.

Some marketing professors are or will become administrators (e.g., Chairperson of the Marketing Department, Associate Dean, or Dean). Many of them will rely on student numeric ratings of marketing faculty to help make salary and/or promotion determinations. Consequently, they need a more comprehensive understanding of how students develop numeric ratings in order to use the information appropriately for decision-making. This research helps provide some information needed by such administrators when they decide how to use SNRP in salary and/or promotion decisions.

Some marketing professors are engaged in research about the process through which students develop their SNRP. If a generally accepted theory for research in this area existed, it would facilitate additional research and might encourage more marketing professors to do research in the area. Some researchers suggest that attribution theory might help explain SNRP (e.g., Kelsey et al. 2004). Nevertheless, no theory has emerged as dominant for conducting research in this area. Consequently, there is a need for additional theory-based research to help determine the theory marketing professors should use as the theoretical framework for their research concerning field-based SNRP. The research reported in this paper is justified because it provides two appropriate tests of attribution theory. Additionally, the empirical evidence presented here suggests that marketing professors can use attribution theory as an appropriate theoretical framework when they conduct research about the effects of variables on SNRP.

BACKGROUND

The next section of the paper discusses the empirical and theoretical support for the relationships examined in this study, describes the two experiments, and presents the

results of those experiments. Finally, the section includes a discussion of the conclusions and the research implications of this research.

A Professor's Caring and Friendliness

A caring professor is defined as a professor who shows real respect for students and demonstrates a personal interest in student success (Deiro 2003). For example, the professor exhibits a willingness to take the time to improve a student's academic or personal situation by offering advice when asked by the student. Being a caring person appears to be a desirable characteristic of a professor. However, virtually no reported empirical evidence exists concerning whether there is an interaction effect of student grades and the caring of the professor on student satisfaction with the professor. Additionally, little reported empirical evidence exists which identifies whether there are interaction effects of student grades and the caring of a professor on student perceptions concerning whether instructor teaching ability caused the grades. However, some research suggests that students believe the best professors are very caring (Basow 2000; Feletti and Sanson-Fisher 1983). Researchers have indicated that the instructor rather than characteristics of the course has the greatest effect on SNRP (e.g., Marsh 1982; Cashin 1988). Additionally, researchers suggest that student-professor interactions also affect student numeric ratings (Grunenwald and Ackerman 1986).

Additionally, there is virtually no reported empirical evidence that clearly identifies whether there are interaction effects of grades and friendliness of a professor on student satisfaction with the professor. Surprisingly, almost no published, empirical evidence exists that identifies whether there is an interaction effect of the friendliness of the professor and student grades on student perceptions that grades were caused by professor teaching ability. A friendly professor is defined as a professor who seeks to establish a close personal professor-student relationship with his/her students. However, some research suggests that students are likely to give higher student evaluations to professors perceived as friendly (Martin 1984).

Attribution Theory and the Specific Grades Used in this Research

Selection of specific grades provides an essential component of this research as a clear test of attribution theory and a stringent test of whether student grades affect SNRP. Attribution theory makes predictions when individuals perceive an occurrence of a success or a failure. Therefore, an essential part of the research revolved around selecting those grades unambiguously interpreted by students as a success or a failure. The grade "A" is the most unambiguous grade indicator of "success." The grade "F" is the most unambiguous grade indicator of "failure." The choice to use those two grades, therefore, provides the clearest tests of attribution theory's ability to predict the effects of student grades. Additionally, the two grades provide a clear, strong test of whether grades affect SNRP. For example, if a properly conducted experiment found no difference between the effects of an "A" and an "F" on SNRP, the result could be considered very strong evidence that grades do not affect SNRP. Conversely, if this clear test found that the grades, indeed, do affect SNRP, the result would open the possibility that other conditions may exist where grades also affect SNRP. Simply understanding the effects of an "A" on SNRP is important because some professors feel pressured to give students "As" and so many students receive this grade. Consequently, the grades of "A" and "F" were selected for this research because they provide a clear test of the effects of grades on SNRP and a stringent test of attribution theory's ability to predict the relationship between those two variables.

Extending Attribution Theory to Help Understand Perceptions Students are Likely to Have About Causes of Grades

Attribution theory (Kelly 1967) suggests that individuals seek to understand the cause of events in an effort to bring understanding and/or order to the individual's world. Attributions are explanations an individual makes about of the causes of an individual's outcomes (Weiner 1980). Research suggests, that people make what has been labeled a form of "the basic attributional error" (Kluger and DeNisi 1996). That is, generally, individuals attribute their success to internal factors (i.e., their abilities and/or knowledge), but they attribute their failures to external factors (e.g., bad luck or other people). This basic attributional error might have application to SNRP. That is, attribution theory predicts an expectation that generally, students attribute their successes (e.g., receiving an "A" in a class) to variables within themselves (e.g., their abilities as a student), but attribute failures (e.g., receiving an "F" in a class) to other factors outside of themselves (e.g., bad luck or professor teaching ability). However, other factors can also affect this basic attributional process.

Extending the work of Hareli and Weiner (2002) can provide an attributional foundation for the effects of the caring of a professor on student attributions of causality and on SNRP. They suggest that when a professor makes the effort to be very caring, students likely view that effort as going beyond the basic requirements of being a professor. Generally, Hareli and Weiner (2002) indicate that one result will be student gratitude toward that professor. One way students can express their gratitude would be to perceive that professor teaching ability caused their success in the classroom. They might give that professor higher student numeric ratings, too. Students may also

express their gratitude by perceiving their failure in the classroom as not caused by professor teaching ability. Under this condition, student failure in the classroom should have a less negative effect on SNRP. However, at least one other characteristic of a professor may affect this basic attributional process.

Friendliness of professors might affect student level of gratitude associated with caring professors. For example, when a professor is caring and friendly, a student's sense of gratitude is likely to be very strong. Consequently, students will strongly perceive professor teaching ability caused their success (expecting an "A") in the classroom. Additionally, they are less likely to perceive their failure (expecting an "F") as caused by professor teaching ability. Conversely, when a caring professor is unfriendly, the sense of gratitude is lower and the result would affect the attributional process. That is, a level of gratitude exists because the professor is caring, but a reduced level of gratitude results because students perceive the professor as unfriendly. Consequently, when a professor is caring but unfriendly, students will not as strongly perceive that professor teaching ability caused an "A." Additionally, students more likely perceive that teaching ability of the caring, but unfriendly professor caused at least part of student failure (receiving an "F").

Students may perceive uncaring professors as not going beyond the basic requirements of their position. Therefore, attribution theory suggests that those professors would be subject to the basic attributional error. When students succeed (i.e., expect to receive an "A"), they perceive the cause as student ability rather than professor teaching ability. Accordingly, when an uncaring professor gives an "A" there will be little or no positive effect on student perception that professor teaching ability caused that grade. Conversely when students fail in the classroom (e.g., get an "F") attribution theory predicts most of that failure will be attributed to factors outside of the student (e.g., professor teaching ability). As a result, when this kind of professor gives students failing grades, students perceive the grades as caused by professor teaching ability. The previous discussion leads to the following hypothesis:

H1: There will be a three-way interaction effect of student grades, caring of the professor, and friendliness of the professor on student perceptions that professor teaching ability caused student grades. That is, when a professor is caring, there will be an interaction effect of friendliness of the professor and student grades on the perception that professor teaching ability caused the grades. When the professor is uncaring, there will be no interaction effect, but student grades will affect the perception that professor teaching ability caused the grades.

The Effects of Caring, Friendliness, and Student Grades on Student Satisfaction with Professors

Student satisfaction with a professor is defined as the student's emotional response to the professor-student relationship (Linder-Pelz 1982). Adding a scale of student satisfaction with the professor to a student numeric rating questionnaire may provide a more comprehensive picture of professor performance in the classroom. Additionally, the scale could be less controversial than current scales of effective teaching. At least four reasons exist for adding a scale of student satisfaction. First, there are generally accepted definitions of satisfaction. Second, valid scales of satisfaction that can be applied to measure student satisfaction with their professors are readily available. Third, few researchers will question whether students have the expertise to know if they are satisfied with a professor. Fourth, most universities, colleges, and departments are concerned about student retention and student satisfaction is likely to affect student retention (Lau 2003).

Attribution theory suggests that students will perceive the teaching ability of a caring professor as an important cause of success in the classroom, but not an important cause of failure in the classroom. However, the reverse is true for an uncaring professor. Consequently, the effects of the three independent variables on student satisfaction with the professor might be somewhat similar to the effects of the independent variables on student perceptions that professor teaching ability caused student grades. That is, students will be more satisfied with a caring professor than an uncaring professor regardless of the grade received by the student. The previous discussion suggests hypothesis number two:

H2: Students will be more satisfied with a caring professor who gives an "A" or an "F" than with an uncaring professor who gives the same grade.

Student sense of gratitude toward a caring and friendly professor is likely to be stronger than student sense of gratitude toward a caring, but unfriendly professor. Therefore, the effect of the friendliness of the professor on satisfaction with the professor likely depends on the perceived level of caring of the professor and vice versa. This discussion suggests hypothesis three:

H3: There will be an interaction effect of caring of the professor and friendliness of the professor on student satisfaction with the professor.

EXPERIMENT 1

The Role-Playing Methodology

The role-playing method was used in the two experiments. Role-playing is a generally accepted method for conducting research (Smith, Bolton, and Wagner 1999).

One of the primary advantages of role-playing methodology is that experimental conditions can be created through the role-playing approach that would be extremely difficult to create in the real world. For example, although some professors are very caring individuals and others are less caring, it would be extremely difficult to get the same professor be very caring with one group of students and then be uncaring with another group. Similarly, it would be extremely difficult for the same professor to be very friendly to one group of students, but unfriendly to another group. Additionally, it would be unfair for a professor to randomly give students either an "A" or "F" as the grade in the professor's class. However, within this role-playing experiment, students were randomly assigned to one of the eight scenarios/treatments in the experiment.

In all of the scenarios subjects were asked to imagine that they were a fictitious student named Pat. They were asked to envision being in Pat's shoes and decide how Pat would respond to a situation explained in the scenario. The name Pat was selected as an appropriate name for either a male or a female. Consequently, male and female subjects could identify with Pat in the scenarios (Bendapudi and Leone 2003). All scenarios stated the following: "The professor seemed to communicate with the students in a very satisfactory manner during the class. Pat did not find the professor's class particularly interesting, but the professor wasn't boring either. " That information along with the statement, "the professor answered Pat's questions during class in a very satisfactory manner," was designed to provide the same information to all subjects concerning the professor's abilities in the classroom. Pat's activities as a student were described the same in all of the scenarios (i.e., "Pat did the usual amount of studying for the class, Pat usually attended class").

Experiment Number One Independent Variables and Covariates

One hundred fifty two undergraduate business students were subjects in experiment number one. The experiment consisted of three independent variables, with two levels of each of the independent variables. That is, a 2X2X2 full factorial between subjects experimental design was utilized. The first experiment included eight different scenarios. Each subject was exposed to a single scenario. Independent variable number one was the professor's level of caring toward Pat. The professor was described as either very caring or uncaring in the scenarios. The scenario also mentioned that other students perceived the professor as very caring or uncaring. That is, the professor was describe in the scenarios as, "Students in the professor's class talked about how this professor really cared (or did not care) about students." Variable number two was the friendliness of the professor toward Pat. The professor was described as either very friendly or very unfriendly in the scenarios. Additional information in the scenario related that other students in the class believed that the professor was either very friendly or very unfriendly. Consequently, the manner in which the professor treated Pat was not unique. Variable number three was the grade Pat expected to receive. The scenario indicated that the student expected to receive either an "A" or an "F" for the course.

There were two covariates in this study. The effects of a student receiving a grade (i.e., an "A" or an "F") on student ratings of the professor might depend on the student GPA. For example, a student with a high GPA might perceive a professor giving that student an "F" as unfair and, therefore, give that professor lower student numeric ratings (Worthington and Wong 1979). Conversely, a student with a low GPA who receives an "A" might be influenced by that grade to give the professor higher student numeric ratings. Consequently, student grade point average was a covariate in the study to control for these possible effects. The age of the student might have a similar influence. That is, older students can be more serious students, and, therefore, might be more upset with an "F" than would be younger students. Indeed, Grimes, Millea, and Woodruff (2004) found that the student age was one of the demographic variables that had the greatest influence on SNRP. Therefore, in an effort to control for this possible effect, student age was the second covariate in this study.

The Scales in Experiment Number One

An examination of the effects of the three independent variables on two dependent variables took place. The first dependent variable was the student perceptions that professor teaching ability caused the student grades. A four-item scale was used to measure this construct. Subjects responded to the items on the scale using a seven-point Likert Scale. The second dependent variable was student satisfaction with the professor. This three-item scale was taken from the work of Oliver and Swan (1989). See Table 1 for the items in the scales in both experiments. The reliability of the two dependent variables was examined using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability of the four-item scale of the construct, student perceptions that professor teaching ability caused the grades, was .89 and the reliability of the three-item scale of satisfaction was .95 The reliability of both constructs exceeded the standard of .70 recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1996).

Manipulation Checks

Manipulation checks were conducted to determine whether the manipulations were effective. One hundred fifty two undergraduate business students were subjects in the experiment. Students were asked to identify the

grade they expected to receive, based on the scenarios, on a scale from one to five with an "A" being a one and an "F" being a five. The means for this manipulation check were (M (A) = 1.06 vs. M (F) = 4.53, t = 26.75, p < .001). Consequently, this manipulation was deemed successful. Students were asked whether the professor in the scenarios was described as friendly or unfriendly. All of the subjects selected the correct category. Therefore, this manipulation was deemed effective. Students were asked if the professor in the subject's scenario was caring or uncaring. Two subjects did not respond to this manipulation check, but 90 percent of the subjects who did respond selected the correct category. Therefore, this manipulation was deemed effective. Consequently, experimental results indicated that all of the manipulations were as intended.

Results

Hypothesis number one was supported. That is, there was a three-way interaction effect of caring of the professor, friendliness of the professor, and student grades on student perception that professor teaching ability caused the grades (F [1,141] = 6.66, p < .05). The two-way interactions were consistent with attribution theory when the level of caring was held constant. That is, when the professor was perceived as caring, there was a two-way interaction effect of the student grades and friendliness of the professor on the perception that professor teaching ability caused the grades (F [1,70] = 16.56, p < .001). See Figure 1 and Figure 2. These effects were consistent with attribution theory. When students perceived the professor as uncaring the two-way interaction effect was not statistically significant (F [1,69] = .40, p > .05). Higher numbers indicate that students more strongly agree that professor teaching ability caused student grades in the class. There was a statistically significant effect of grades (M [A] = 2.94 vs. M [F] = 5.12, F [1,69] = 67.79, p < .05) on the perception that professor teaching ability caused the grades when students perceive the professor as uncaring. These effects of student grades were consistent with the predictions of attribution theory. That is, when the professor was uncaring, students did not perceive professor teaching ability as an important cause of student success (expecting an "A") but did perceive professor teaching ability as an important cause of student failure (i.e., expecting an "F" in the course).

Cell means were also consistent with attribution theory. For example, with a caring and friendly professor, students perceived an expected "A" as caused by professor teaching ability, but did not perceive an expected "F" as caused by professor teaching ability. (M [A] caring and friendly = 5.13, vs. M [F] caring and friendly = 3.52, t = 4.48, p < .001). Conversely, the opposite effect occurred with an uncaring professor. That is, with an uncaring and unfriendly professor, students did not perceive professor teaching ability as the cause of the grade "A," but did perceive it as the cause of students receiving an "F" (M [A] = 2.71 vs. M [F] = 5.12, t = 6.31, p < .001). Students perceived the teaching ability of an uncaring, but friendly, professor' in a similar manner. That is, teaching ability of an uncaring, but friendly, professor was not perceived as the cause of the grade "A," but was perceived as the cause of students receiving an "F" (M [A] = 3.20 vs. M [F] = 5.21, t = 5.10, p < .001).

Hypothesis two was supported; students were more satisfied with a caring professor who gave grades of "A" than an uncaring professor that gave students the same grade (M [A-caring] = 5.48 vs. M [A--[uncaring] = 3.57, t = 6.94, p < .001). They were also more satisfied with a caring professor who gave students an "F" than an uncaring professor who gave students an "F"(M [F–caring] = 3.53 vs. M [F–uncaring] = 2.17, t = 5.28, p < .001). Hypothesis three was supported. There was a two-way interaction effect of caring of the professor and the friendliness of the professor on student satisfaction with the professor (F [1,141] = 6.31, p < .05). See Figure 3 for this effect. Some individuals might associate being caring as a more female characteristic. Therefore, females might be more satisfied with a caring professor than would males. However, a t-test found no difference between males and females on level of satisfaction with a caring professor (M [females] = 4.54 vs. M [males] = 4.35, t = .49, p > .05). Neither of the covariates was statistically significant ([age] F [1,141] = .06, p > .05; [grade point average] F [1,141] = 2.84, p > .05).

Conclusions from Experiment Number One

Generally, the results of experiment number one were consistent with attribution theory. A large stream of research indicates that most individuals make a form of the basic attributional error when attempting to determine the causes of their successes and failures. Surprisingly, virtually no previous research has examined whether students would respond in a manner consistent with attribution theory when evaluating the teaching abilities of caring and/or friendly professors. However, the results of this experiment are consistent with previous research that suggests that personality characteristics of professors are likely to affect SNRP (e.g., Lowman 1994; Tomasco 1980; Waters, Kemp, and Pucci 1988).

It appears that the perception of a professor as caring or uncaring will likely have an important influence on SNRP. What is less clear is whether this finding supports the use of SNRP as an accurate indicator of teaching effectiveness or whether it helps to refute that idea. For example, if students of professors perceived as caring learn more than students of professors perceived as uncaring, then the results of this experiment could be viewed as supporting the idea that SNRP provide a reasonably accurate indicator of professor teaching effectiveness.

FIGURE 1
FRIENDLINESS OF PROFESSOR BY STUDENT EXPECTED GRADE INTERACTION EFFECT ON PROFESSOR TEACHING

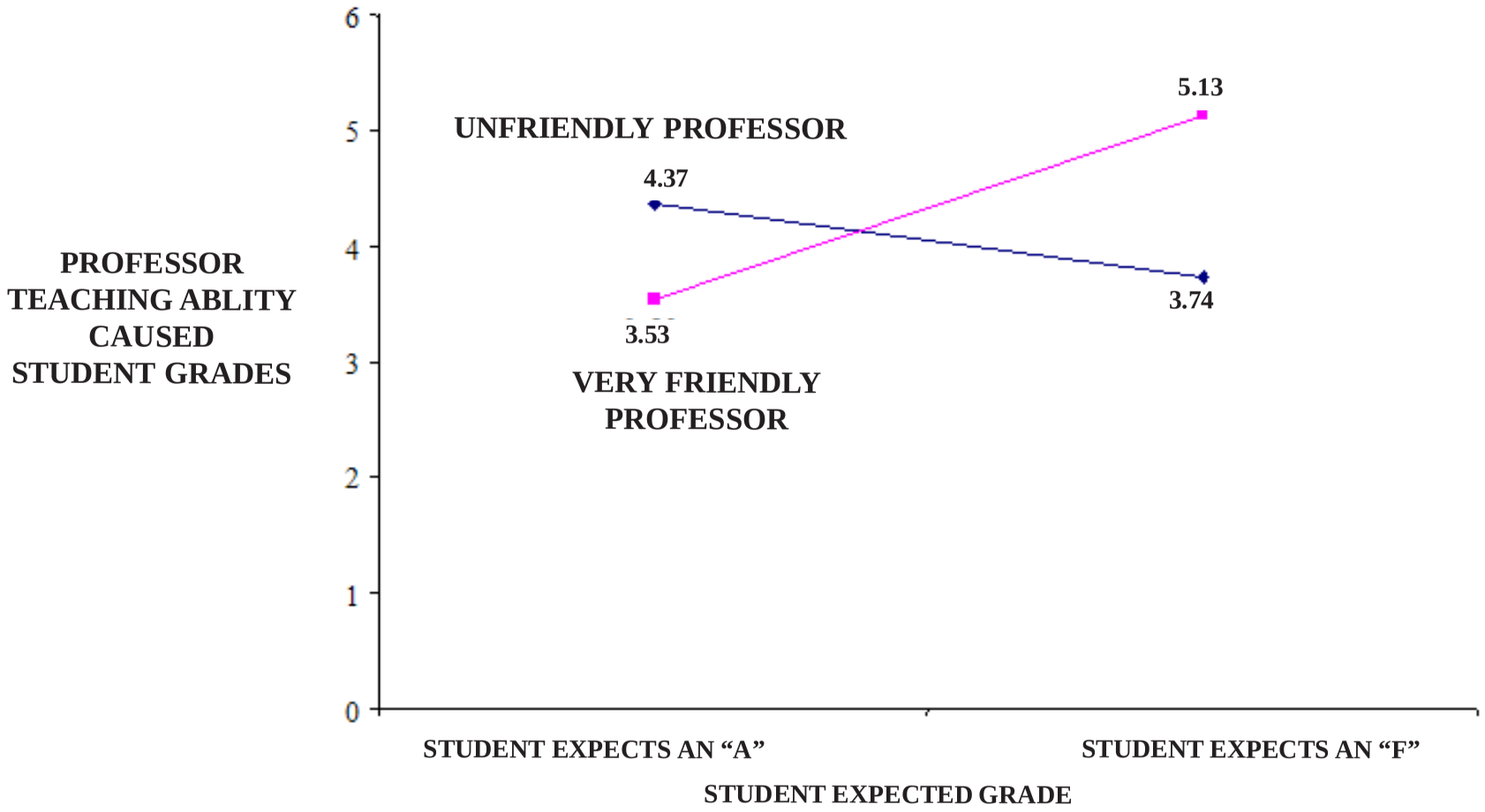


FIGURE 2
THE EFFECTS OF FRIENDLINESS OF PROFESSOR AND STUDENT EXPECTED GRADE ON PROFESSOR TEACHING ABILITY CAUSED STUDENT GRADES (PROFESSOR IS UNCARING)

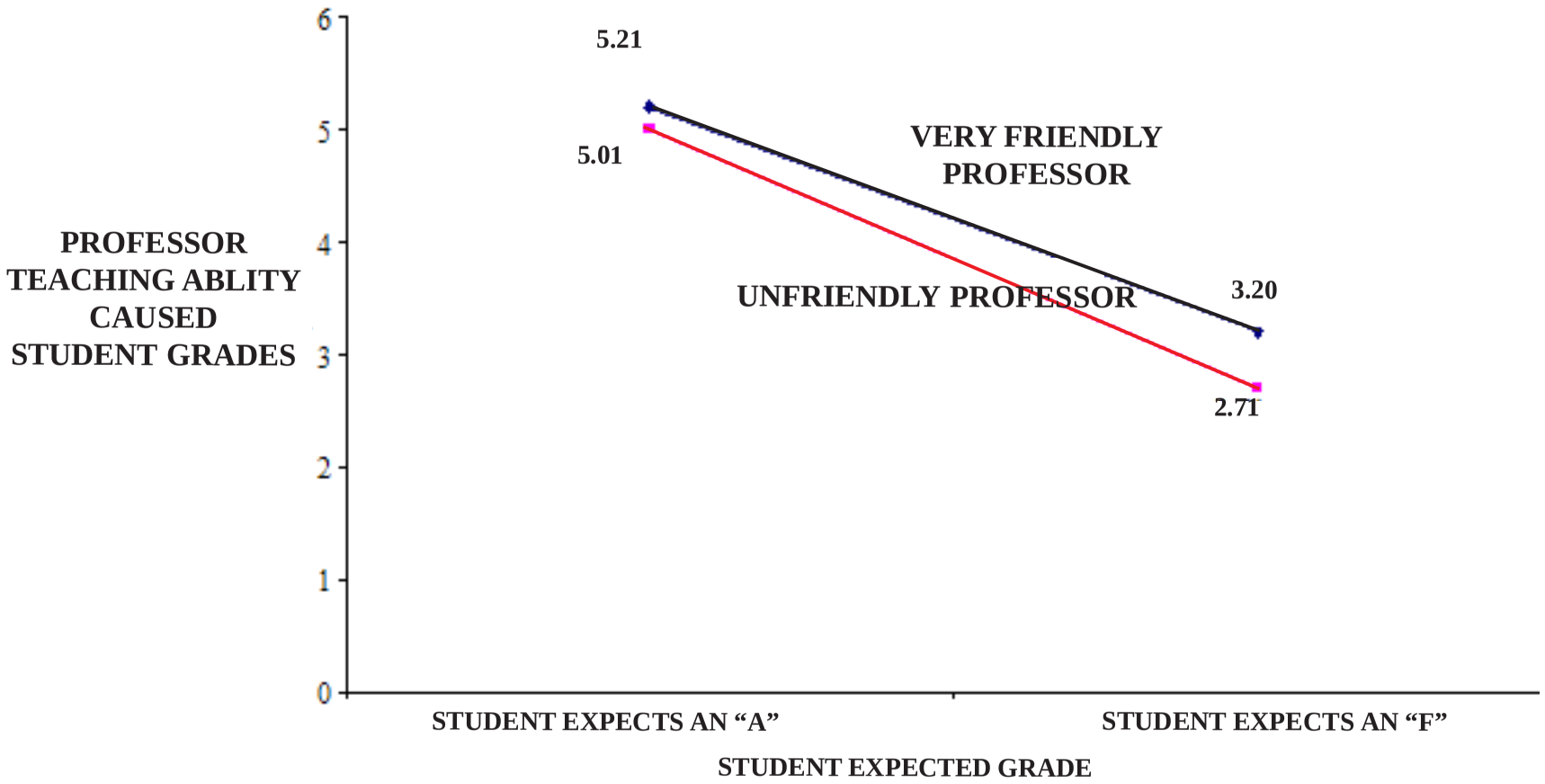
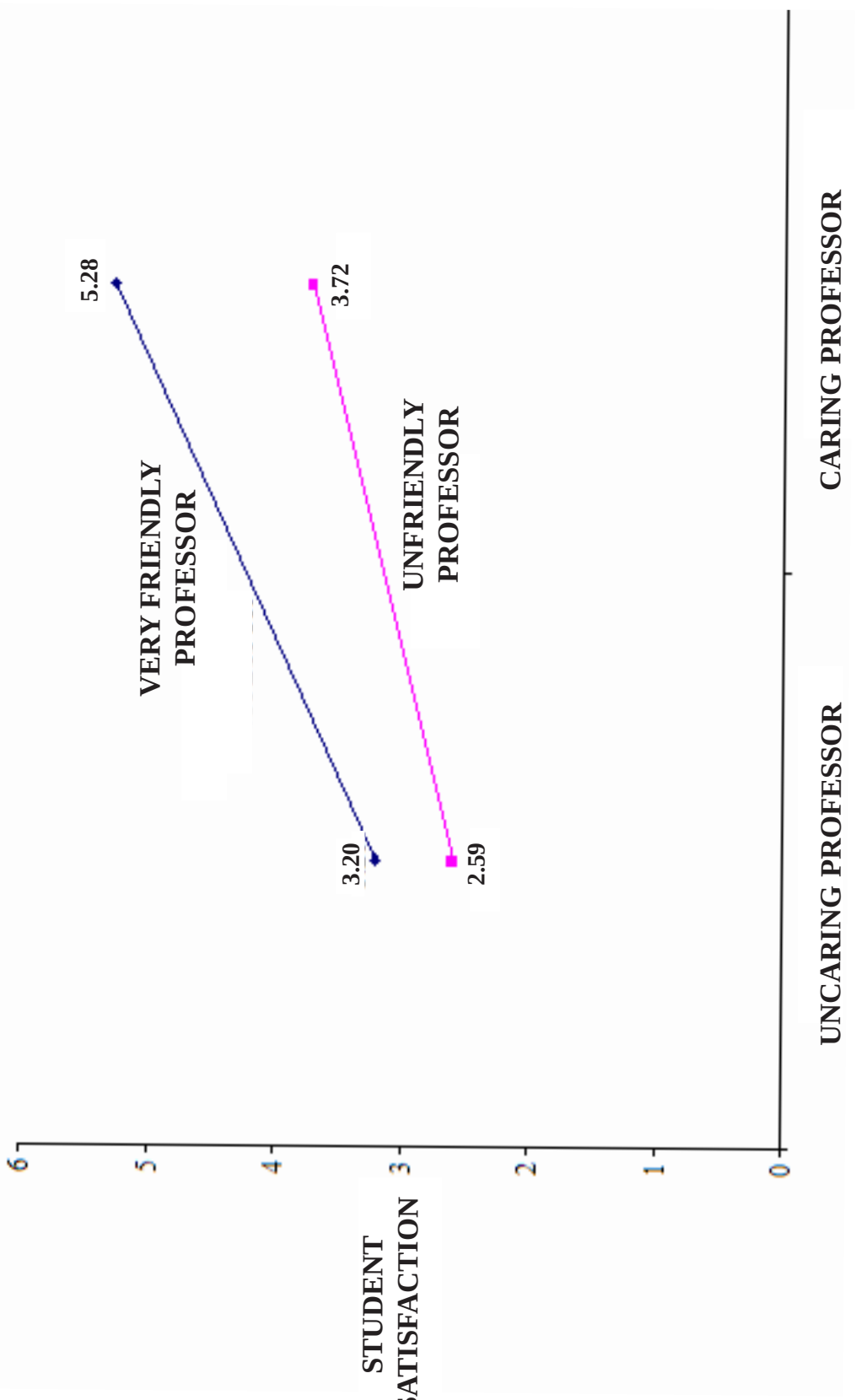


FIGURE 3
CARING BY FRIENDLY INTERACTION EFFECT ON STUDENT SATISFACTION WITH THE PROFESSOR



However, if there is a low correlation between student learning and perceived caring of the professor, then the results of experiment one suggest that SNRP less accurately indicate teaching effectiveness. To resolve this issue, future research needs to identify the relationship between student learning and the perceived caring of professors.

Many marketing professors are caring, but some communicate that characteristic to students better than others do. However, this research suggests it is important for a marketing professor to communicate clearly to his or her students that he/she really cares about them. A marketing professor is likely to benefit if also perceived as friendly. At least the marketing professor should not be perceived by students as unfriendly.

Future research concerning the effects of student grades on SNRP might benefit the discipline if it recognized that the relationship between the two variables might not be a simple relationship. That is, the results of experiment one suggest that future research should be theory-based and focused on identifying conditions under which grades likely affect SNRP as well as conditions under which an affect is unlikely. It might be that what initially appears to be conflicting findings, might not actually be conflicting findings when viewed through the lens of the appropriate theory. Attribution theory should be one of the theories considered by marketing professors for their research concerning the effects of student grades.

Although role-playing is a valid and accepted methodology for conducting research, there are important limitations to this type of research. First, the students were responding to scenarios. If students actually experienced those types of professors discussed in the scenarios, student responses might be different. Second, the only two grades expected were "A" and "F." Grade inflation reportedly is rampant at some universities. For example, Alper (1993) suggests that at some schools "A" is the expected grade and any grade less than an "A" must be based on very strong evidence. Consequently, some students might view an expected "C " or "D" as equivalent to failure. Therefore, future research needs to examine whether student response to a professor who gives students a "C" or "D" is similar to student responses to an "F" as in experiment number one.

The Effects of Professor Gender, Professor Age, and Student Grades on SNRP

Attribution theory can be applied to predict that students will make a form of the basic attributional error (Kluger and DeNisi 1996). That is, students have the perception that their abilities cause their success (i.e., receiving an "A"), but not failure (i.e., an "F"). The previous discussion suggests the following hypothesis.

H4: There will be a difference between student perceptions concerning whether the student abilities caused their grades. That is, students will more strongly perceive their abilities caused an expected "A" than they will perceive that their abilities caused an expected "F."

There is limited research identifying the effect of professor age on SNRP. However, Arbuckle and Williams (2003) found that a young male professor was rated higher by students than either a young female, an old female, or an old male professor. Nevertheless, information portraying older individuals as less competent is quite common in American society. Consequently, when an older professor is the teacher in the classroom, negative perceptions of professor teaching ability might be common among American students. This perception of the older professor might affect attribution concerning the cause of the student grades. That is, when the professor is older, students are more likely to perceive that their abilities caused their grades than when the professor is younger. The previous discussion suggests the next hypothesis.

H5: There will be a difference, based on professor age, between student perceptions concerning whether student abilities caused their grades. That is, when the professor is older, students are more likely to perceive grades as caused by their own abilities than if the professor is younger.

Research concerning the effects of gender on SNRP has been inconsistent. That is, research which supports an effect of gender on SNRP is reported in the literature (e.g., Sidanius and Crane 1989; Whitworth, Price, and Randall 2002). Conversely, other research which has not found an effect of gender on SNRP is also found in the literature (e.g., Ellis et al. 2003; Foote, Harmon, and Mayo 2003). Attribution theory suggests that generally students will attribute failing grades to factors external to the student. However, it might be that students perceive female professors as easier graders than male professors. Although this perception has no substantiation, it could still affect student attributions about the causes of the student grades. Therefore, students may perceive a female professor as less likely to fail students unless they really deserve to fail the course. Consequently, when a female professor gives failing grades, students may partially attribute those grades to student actions. Conversely, when a male professor gives students failing grades, students might partially attribute that grade to the male professor being a tough grader. Therefore, it might be expected that students would be more satisfied with a female professor who fails students than with a male professor who fails students.

Attribution theory suggests the expectation that students primarily attribute an "A" to their own abilities. However, when a female professor gives students "As" that result might be partially attributed to the belief that the female professor is an easier grader instead of attributed to female professor teaching ability. Again although the perceptions have no bases in fact, they might affect

student attributions about the causes of their grades. In contrast, when a male professor gives students "As" that result might be more strongly attributed to the male professor's teaching ability. Consequently, students would be more satisfied with a male professor who gives students an "A" than they are with a female professor that gives the student an "A." Some researchers indicate that there is a positive relationship between lenient grading and SNRP (Greenwald and Gillmore 1997). However other researchers (Bacon and Novotny 2002) suggest that the other variables can moderate the relationship (e.g., achievement striving). The previous discussion suggests hypothesis six.

H6: There will be an interaction effect of gender and student grades on student satisfaction with the professor.

EXPERIMENT 2

Background

The same role-playing methodology was used in experiment number two. In all of the scenarios subjects were asked to imagine that they were in Pat's shoes and decide how Pat would respond to the situation explained in a scenario. Professor teaching ability was described the same way in all of the scenarios. Pat's activities as a student were the same in all of the scenarios, too.

Independent Variables and Covariates

One hundred ten undergraduate business students were subjects in experiment number two. There were three independent variables in this experiment with two levels of each of the independent variables. That is, the experiment was a 2X2X2 full factorial between subjects experimental design. There were two levels of the professor's gender (i.e., male or female). There were two levels of the professor's age (i.e., younger than most professors or older than most professors). There were two levels of grade (i.e., Pat expected to receive an "A" in the course or an "F" in the course). The same covariates (i.e., student's grade point average and age) were also covariates in experiment number two.

The Scales

Experiment number two examined the effects of the three independent variables on two dependent variables. The first dependent variable was student perception that student ability caused student grades. This variable is different from experiment one because experiment one focused on student perception that professor teaching ability caused student grades. The second dependent variable was the same one as in experiment number one, student satisfaction with the professor. The reliability of the two constructs was examined using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability of the two-item scale of the construct, student perception that the student abilities caused the grades was .85 and the reliability of the three-item scale of satisfaction was .96. The reliability of both constructs exceeded the standard of .70 recommended by Nunnelly and Bernstein (1996).

Manipulation Checks

Manipulation checks were performed to determine whether the manipulations were successful. Students were asked what grade the student in the scenario expected on a scale from one to five. One was an "A" while five was an "F." There was a statistically significant difference between the means (M [A] = 1.00 vs. M[F] = 4.73, $t = 30.21$, $p < .001$). Subjects were asked whether the professor was young or old. Two subjects failed to answer the question, but 98 percent of those that did answer the question selected the correct category. The subjects were asked about the gender of the professor (male or female) in the scenario. All of the subjects selected the correct category. Consequently, it appears that all of the manipulations were as intended.

Results

Student GPA was a statistically significant covariate ($F [1,98] = 6.30$, $p < .05$) on student perceptions that student ability caused the grades. However, student age was not a statistically significant covariate ($F [1,98] = 3.54$, $p > .05$). Hypothesis four was supported. Student perceptions were greater that student ability caused an "A" than perceptions that student ability caused an "F" (M [A] = 5.63 vs. M [F] = 3.23, $t = 11.08$, $p < .001$). The effect of the professor age on the perception that the student ability caused student grades approached statistical significance (M [young] = 4.10 vs. M [old] = 4.68, $F [1,98] = 3.79$, $p = .054$). That is, if students perceive the professor as older, they more strongly perceive that student ability caused the grades. This result is consistent with hypothesis five.

There was a three-way interaction effect of professor age, professor gender, and grade on student satisfaction with the professor ($F [1,98] = 4.07$, $p < .05$). Therefore, hypothesis six was not supported. Consequently, because there was a three-way interaction, the two-way interaction effects were examined with professor age held constant. There was a two-way interaction effect of grades and gender on satisfaction with the professor when the professor was perceived as younger ($F [1,48] = 4.87$, $p < 05$). This interaction effect is consistent with hypothesis six. See Figure 4 for this two-way interaction effect. There was no interaction effect of gender and grade when the professor was perceived as older ($F [1,48] = .45$, $p > .05$). The only statistically significant variable that affected

TABLE 1
SCALES USED IN THIS RESEARCH

Student Perception that Professor Teaching Ability Caused the Grade (Four Items – answered on a seven-point Likert Scale–Strongly agree to Strongly disagree).

1. Pat would believe that the professor's teaching ability was the primary reason that Pat received this ("A" [OUTSTANDING] or "F" [FAILURE]) grade.

2. Pat would believe that the professor's ability as a communicator caused Pat to receive the ("A" [OUTSTANDING] or "F" [FAILURE]) grade.

3. Pat would believe that the effort that the professor put into teaching the class caused Pat to receive the ("A" [(OUTSTANDING] or "F" [FAILURE]) grade.

4. Overall, Pat would believe that the professor was mostly responsible for the fact that Pat got an ("A" [OUTSTANDING] or "F" [FAILURE]) grade for this course.

Satisfaction with the Professor (Oliver and Swan 1989 – Three-item scale).
Rate how Pat would feel about this professor. **(Place an "X" at the appropriate spot on all three lines).**

Very satisfied **Very dissatisfied**

with this professor ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ **with this professor**

Pleased **Displeased**

with this professor ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ **with this professor**

Delighted **Terrible**

with this professor ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ **with this professor**

Student Perceptions that the Student Abilities Caused the Grade (Two- Items – answered on a seven-point Likert Scale–Strongly agree to Strongly disagree).

1. Pat would believe that Pat's ability as a student was the most important reason that Pat received the ("A" outstanding or " F" failure) grade for the course.

2. Overall, Pat would believe that Pat was the primary cause of Pat receiving the ("A" or "F") grade.

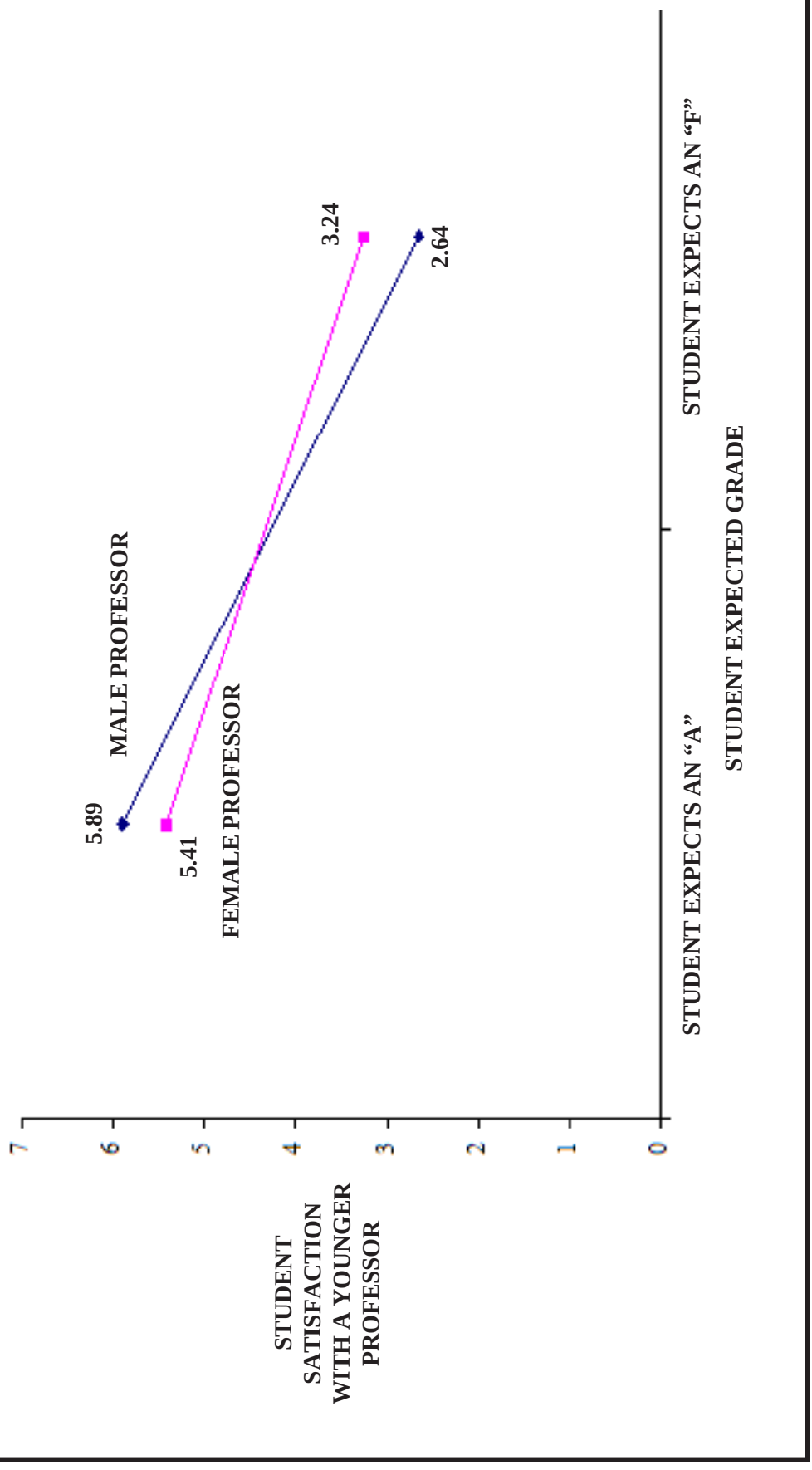
satisfaction with the professor when students perceived the professor as older was student grades. That is, the student grades affected student satisfaction with the older professor (M [A] = 5.19 vs. M [F] = 2.74, F [1,48] = 78.53, $p < .001$).

Conclusion Associated with Experiment Number Two

The results of experiment number two appear to confirm that students indeed, do make a form of the basic attributional error when developing their perceptions concerning the cause of grades. That is, generally they are likely to credit their own abilities for success (i.e., expecting an "A"), but unlikely to blame their own abilities for their failures (i.e., expecting an "F"). Consequently, all professors might not be rewarded with higher SNRP for giving students "As," but giving students an "F" will likely be attributed to professor teaching ability.

The results of experiment number two also suggest that the relationship between student grades and SNRP might not be a simple relationship. Indeed, the finding of a three-way interaction effect of the student grades, professor gender, and professor age on satisfaction with the professor suggests that the relationship might be more

FIGURE 4
GENDER BY STUDENT EXPECTED GRADE INTERACTION EFFECT ON STUDENT SATISFACTION WITH THE PROFESSOR
(YOUNGER PROFESSORS ONLY)



complex than has been suggested in the marketing education literature. However, the results from experiment number two must be interpreted cautiously because this role-playing experiment is subject to the same important limitation as is experiment number one.

OVERALL CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

For more than 30 years researchers have reported numerous well designed and properly conducted research studies with the goal of answering a very simple, but important, question. That is, do student grades affect SNRP? Two schools of thought continue to be presented in the literature each of which proposes a very simple answer to the question. One school of thought answer to this question is that grades and/or other variables almost always affect SNRP. The second school of thought answer to that question is that student grades almost never significantly affect SNRP. The result of many years of research is a conflicting array of empirical evidence. Marketing professors have no definite answer to the question and no theory has been proposed to help explain the conflicting results. Attribution theory and the results of these two experiments suggest that the actual answer to the question may not be as simple as either of the two schools of thought indicate.

Previous research has attempted to examine the relationship between student grades and SNRP. However, virtually no previous research has examined whether there are interaction effects that influence student perceptions concerning whether professor teaching ability caused student grades. The relationship among some personality characteristics of professors, student grades, and SNRP may be more complex than suggested by the marketing education literature. For example, there might be at least one condition when giving high grades is likely to have a positive affect on student numeric ratings of marketing professors (e.g., the marketing professor is perceived as friendly and very caring). This result is likely to occur because students are likely to have the perception that the teaching ability of a caring and friendly marketing professor caused the high grades.

When a marketing professor perceived by students as uncaring gives students high grades, this research suggests that students are unlikely to perceive that professor teaching ability caused their high grades. Therefore, giving high grades is unlikely to have much positive effect on an uncaring marketing professor's numeric ratings. Future research needs to resolve the issue concerning whether students learn more from caring marketing professors than they learn from uncaring marketing professors. Future research also needs to determine whether other personality characteristics of marketing professors exist that interact with student grades to affect SNRP.

Marketing researchers have been searching for the answer to another simple, but important question; does the gender of the professor affect SNRP? However, virtually no reported research examines whether there may be a three-way interaction effect of professor age, professor gender, and student grades on student satisfaction with their instructors. This research suggests that there could be interaction effects of these demographic characteristics of marketing professors with student grades on student satisfaction with the instructor. Therefore, the analysis of the data from student evaluation questionnaires at some universities and colleges might be improved if that analysis examined for possible interaction effects of demographic characteristics of professors and student grades on SNRP. Marketing professors need to be informed whenever the analysis of the data from their student evaluations questionnaires finds two-way and/or three-way interaction effects, too.

Some student evaluation questionnaires may need to be more comprehensive. For example, some student evaluations could provide additional information about student cognitive processes that resulted in the student numeric ratings of marketing professors. Professor teaching effectiveness is likely the most important cause of student numeric ratings. However, the analysis of the student evaluation questionnaires needs to be able to distinguish between those marketing professors who receive high student numeric ratings because they are outstanding teachers from those marketing professors who receive high student numeric ratings because of other reasons. For example, there might be additional variables (e.g., demographic or personality characteristics of professors) that affect student numeric ratings of some marketing professors, too. The analysis of the data from student numeric ratings questionnaires needs to determine whether these other variables affected the marketing professor's student numeric ratings. In summary, marketing professors and administrators need to look beyond the basic numbers of SNRP to determine the causes of those student numeric ratings. This result will be possible only if an important element of a student numeric rating questionnaire includes a comprehensive series of questions that clearly identifies why the marketing professor has received high, moderate, or low student numeric ratings.

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THE SUCCESSFUL PREPARATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF FUTURE MARKETING PROFESSIONALS: A RECOMMENDED METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

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Susan Dann, Queensland University of Technology

ABSTRACT

This paper offers a methodological approach that assists program administrators interested in improving marketing's contribution to the successful preparation and development of future business professionals. The behavioral analysis used in this paper provides administrators with an understanding of the scope of marketing as seen by academics and a framework to determine how well (or poorly) current curricula designs meet practitioner needs. Recommendations are provided to assist educators to further promote the skills required for graduating students. This paper concludes by illustrating how the technique used in this paper can be adapted in other education markets to help decision makers improve the marketing curriculum and ultimately, recruitment and retention rates.

INTRODUCTION

The knowledge base of management disciplines is evolving at a rapid pace. For university students, a major implication of this is that discipline-based knowledge is no longer sufficient to guarantee relevant employment on graduation as this knowledge has the potential to date quickly. One consequence of this trend for university curricula is the need to change the focus of pedagogy away from a demonstration of knowledge to an acquisition of skills.

A major objective of business degree programs is to ensure that graduates are work ready however there is considerable evidence from industry that this objective is not being achieved. While the term "work ready" can be variously interpreted, for the purposes of this paper it is defined as a demonstration of the mastery of the skills and knowledge required in a discipline to effectively contribute to employment within that disciplinary field.

Due to the breadth of courses and disciplinary areas taught within a business degree program, we decided to concentrate on one specific field of study – marketing. The reason for choosing marketing is twofold. First it is a compulsory core course for business and commerce degrees. A working knowledge of marketing is considered an essential element of any well-rounded business education whether at the undergraduate or post-graduate (MBA) level. Second, anecdotal comments amongst marketing academics in Australia suggest that marketing is a popular discipline that attracts many students to its courses. This paper focuses on the extent to which the learning outcomes of undergraduate marketing courses are meeting the objective of work readiness amongst graduates.

The sample for this study was drawn from Australian universities. Education is Australia's fastest growing export. In 2002/03 education exports were valued at $4,172 million, more than the traditional export of wool. Including the contribution made to the economy by students, international education is currently estimated to be worth approximately $1 billion to the Australian economy (ABS 2003). The Australian education industry is part of the world education community with a strong focus on internationalization. The trend in Australia toward successful accreditation from international bodies including AACSB, EQUUS, and AMBA highlights the relevance and similarity of Australian business education to international standards thus the findings from this study are globally applicable.

This study compares the learning outcomes stated for core (or required) marketing with the desired skill sets for graduates as determined by the Federal Department of Education, Science, and Technology (DEST). These standards were developed as a result of extensive research into employer needs by DEST. While the employers involved in the study were based in Australia, the global nature of the Australian economy means that foreign owned businesses contribute significantly both to the economy and the workforce. A recent study by the Australian Bureau of

Statistics (2004) examined the foreign ownership characteristics of a wide range of businesses engaged in economic activity in Australia in 2000–2001 and found that majority foreign-owned businesses made a significant contribution to the Australian economy overall (21%), with notable contributions in the mining and manufacturing industries where they contributed 45 percent and 34 percent of industry value added, respectively. The skills required by the surveyed employers therefore are reflective not only of Australasian, but also international expectations for graduates.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous research, some dating back to a decade ago, indicates (1) that employers feel undergraduate students are entering the business world without some of the necessary knowledge, skills and experience to allow them to function effectively when employed following graduation (Scott and Frontczak 1996) and (2) that marketing educators are over-emphasizing knowledge rather than developing student's skills (Crowe 2002; Davis 2002). This leads to the first research question.

RQ1: What knowledge and skill outcomes are expected in marketing courses?

A classification of employability skills[1] derived from industry research (DEST 2002) and supported in other research (Association of Graduate Recruiters 1995) is used in this research. The DEST research identifies eight key employability skills for university graduates. Sample stated course objectives for each of the eight skill areas are summarized in the following Table.

This framework was used to develop research questions two and three.

RQ2: Which of the eight identified employer required skills are represented in core marketing courses?

RQ3: What is the extent to which the combined core courses from each university includes the eight identified employer required skills?

TABLE I
SAMPLE STATED COURSE OBJECTIVES

DEST Skill	Objective
Communication	• To develop an **ability to communicate** ideas and decisions clearly, concisely and logically both **verbally and in writing.**
Teamwork	• Work in a **team.** • The ability to **work with others.**
Problem-solving	• To attain skills related to; the process of **problem identification,** diagnosing, measuring and **exploring marketing problems**. • **Analyze** marketing strategies in different contexts.
Initiative and enterprise	• To develop creative strategies when analyzing issues. • Identify the role **new technologies** can play in marketing research.
Planning and organization	• Be able to **gather relevant data** on market trends. • **Assess and interpret** collated intelligence for management to **aid in their strategic decision processes.**
Self-management	• Demonstrate the ability to **organize themselves** to competently complete the required tasks **on time.**
Learning	• Develop the **capacity for ongoing learning** through observing and reflecting on their **own behavior.**
Technology	• To acquire an awareness of, and **experience with, particular technology** such as computer spreadsheets, stats packages, databases and the internet and how they can valuable tools for marketing managers.

To date research on business curricula has largely been based on the perceptions of academic, managers and students in industries relating to agribusiness (Boland et al. 1999; Boland, Lehman, and Stroade 2001), HR/IR (Way 2002), tourism (Ernawati 2003), and management (Chung 2000; Contractor 2000). Some researchers (see Boland et al. 1999; Boland, Lehman, and Stroade 2001) have used a more behavioral approach based on content analysis (observation of courses offered) to compare agribusiness and tourism curricula.

While perceptual research provides insight into the tasks required in academic curriculum, it is open to response bias and bias where the respondent attempts to provide the researcher with the "ideal" or expected responses. Observation, an unobtrusive method of measurement that is not reliant on perceptions or respondent bias (Harris 2001) provides an alternative approach to identifying the focus of curricula. Observations yield information on what universities, are doing rather than what individual academics, students or marketers think is happening.

Within the marketing domain research has been based on perception with the perceptions of alumni (Davis, Misra, and Van Auken 2002); academics (Stern and Tseng 2002), managers (Ernawati 2003; Way 2002; Stern and Tseng 2002; Gray, Whitan, and Knightbridge 2002) and students (Gray, Whitan, and Knightbridge 2002) being surveyed. This suggests there is a gap in the literature with an opportunity to use observation data rather than perceptual data to examine the marketing curriculum.

METHOD

Sample

The present study's primary objective was to analyze undergraduate core marketing curricula in Australian Universities. There are 44 self-accrediting higher education institutions in Australia (Office of Higher Education). Course outlines were publicly accessible for 14 of these universities (32% of the population). These universities represent each state in Australia and included both regional and metropolitan-based institutions.

Core marketing course outlines were obtained via the Internet from the 14 universities that published their course outlines on the web. A total of 293 course objectives were derived from the 59 course outlines obtained from the different university websites.

Data Analysis

Content analysis was selected as a method as it is useful to quantify previously identified attributes such as knowledge and skills (Neuman 1997). Two of the authors adopted the role of raters for this study. It was decided to use the authors rather than research assistants to perform the role of raters. This aim was to obtain acceptable reliability based on their knowledge of the field of marketing education and familiarity of the coding schemes. The raters were given two coding tasks. First raters had to classify a course objective as a skills or knowledge objective. Then raters were asked to classify the skills objectives. To ensure reproducible reliability we used independent raters to code the 293 course objectives. These ratings were then compared to determine the inter-rater reliability co-efficient. The inter-rater reliability co-efficient is the proportion of codings where there is unanimous agreement and should be greater than 70 percent (Harris 2001). The characteristics used to differentiate between skills and knowledge objectives are outlined as follows.

Learning Outcomes: Skills Versus Knowledge

Our raters had to determine whether a course objective was knowledge-focussed, skills-focussed or contained both skills and knowledge (see Table I for course objective examples). Knowledge objectives contained words such as "understanding," "concepts," "theories," "frameworks."

Skill objectives contained words indicating the abilities detailed in the DEST employability skills framework such as "communication," "teamwork," "problem-solving," "evaluating," "analyzing," "collecting," "adapting," "applying," "planning," "organizing," "self-management," "learning" and "technology-literacy."

Learning Outcomes: Employability Skills

Once the first task was completed our raters classified the skills objectives into one or more of the eight employability skills identified in the DEST (2002) report. The classifications were counted again to identify which skills were dominant across the course outlines.

RESULTS

The inter-rater reliability of the coding was 0.84, which exceeded the threshold requirement of 0.70 (Harris 2001). A face validity check indicated that the results appeared to be both reliable and valid.

The results displayed in Table II address RQ1 "what is the balance of knowledge and skills in core marketing courses" and suggest there is some balance between knowledge and skills across Australian core marketing courses. Courses in core or required marketing programs appear to be focused toward either knowledge or skills indicating a diversity of objectives and positioning strategies across universities. This also indicates that academic perceptions of where the emphasis should be, varies considerably across universities and across courses de-

TABLE II
SUMMARY OF FOCUS OF OBJECTIVES IN CORE MARKETING COURSES

Details Objectives	Number	%
• Number of skills objectives	144	48.12
• Number of knowledge objectives	146	48.81
• Number of objectives referring to both skills and knowledge	3	1.02
Total objectives	293	100.00

pending on institutional objectives and personal preferences.

At first glance, the results appear to indicate that core-marketing courses at Australian universities have determined that both skills and knowledge are important for marketing students. Approximately one-half of the objectives analyzed were knowledge focused and approximately one half are skills focused (see Table II). However, the results displayed in Table III indicate that there is a great deal of variation in the proportion of skills and knowledge objectives across various core-marketing courses.

Market research and marketing management courses provided the greatest emphasis on skills development for undergraduate marketing students in Australia. Courses such as strategic marketing, consumer behavior and marketing communication emphasized both knowledge and skill development. Finally, e-marketing, international marketing, services marketing and channels/logistics courses emphasized knowledge development.

Research questions 2 and 3 both relate to the skills focused objectives and are able to be addressed by the evidence:

RQ2: Which of the eight identified employer required skills are represented in core marketing courses?

RQ3: What is the extent to which the combined core courses from each university includes the eight identified employer required skills?

The employer-required skills of problem solving, communication, planning and organizing are the best represented in core marketing courses. However while there is evidence of all skills being represented across the universities, very few universities have a core of marketing courses that contain all employer-required skills. Figure II, illustrates that few individual courses (approximately 3%) contain all eight DEST skills. A figure of 3 percent is not really surprising for an individual course (not an entire marketing program) because one course cannot be expected to cover all skills in addition to knowledge in a manner that allows students to learn effectively.

The objectives identified as containing a skill were coded using the eight employers required skills in the DEST (2002) classification. These were communication, teamwork, problem solving, initiative and enterprise, planning and organizing, self-management, learning, and technology. The 59 course outlines were dominated by problem-solving skills with communication and planning and organizing skills well represented (see Figure 1). The remaining skills were represented sporadically in individual courses or individual universities.

More than one in ten core marketing courses do not require learning outcomes that assist students to develop skills to better meet industry needs.

It is interesting to note that seven course outlines (12%) did not contain any of the employability skills desired by industry. Another notable point is that an average 4.6 skills were included across the marketing curriculum within each university, with approximately two-thirds of the courses emphasizing one or two skills. One explanation for this finding may be that work ready skills are embedded in other places of a traditional business curriculum (e.g., management, accounting, finance, economics, etc.). If work ready skills are embedded across traditional business curriculum it may not be necessary for the marketing degree to emphasize each skill.

This research provides evidence that not enough has been done by eductors to address employer concerns. Despite research into employer perceptions that uncovered disparities and problems a decade ago Australian employers remain unhappy with graduate's skills in the following areas – the ability to write, to speak, to work in groups and to solve problems (Eunson 2002 quoting four government reports). Today employers feel the one great weakness of undergraduate courses is that it is rare to come across a marketing graduate who is industry ready (Cincotta 2003).

The perceptions of industry suggest that marketing educators need to place more emphasis on the development of (at least) problem solving, communication and

TABLE III
PROPORTION OF SKILL AND KNOWLEDGE OBJECTIVES PER COURSE

Course	Skills Objectives		Knowledge Objectives		Both K&S Objectives		Total Objectives	
	No.	**%**	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**
Marketing management	13	**61.90**	8	38.10	0	0.00	21	100
Consumer behavior	24	47.06	27	**52.94**	0	0.00	51	100
Market research	39	**65.00**	20	33.33	1	1.67	60	100
Strategic marketing	13	48.15	13	48.15	1	3.70	27	100
Marketing communication	18	47.37	20	**52.63**	0	0.00	38	100
E-marketing	3	21.43	11	**78.57**	0	0.00	14	100
International marketing	11	39.29	17	**60.71**	0	0.00	28	100
Logistics/channels	3	21.43	11	**78.57**	0	0.00	14	100
Services	4	26.67	11	**73.33**	0	0.00	15	100
Market analysis	2	**66.67**	0	0.00	1	33.33	3	100
B2B marketing	4	**57.14**	3	42.86	0	0.00	7	100
Selling	3	**75.00**	1	25.00	0	0.00	4	100
Advanced marketing	7	**100.00**	0	0.00	0	0.00	7	100
New product development	0	0.00	4	**100.00**	0	0.00	4	100
	144	49.15	146	48.81	3	1.02	293	100

FIGURE 1
PROPORTION OF DEST SKILLS CONTAINED IN CORE MARKETING COURSE OUTLINES

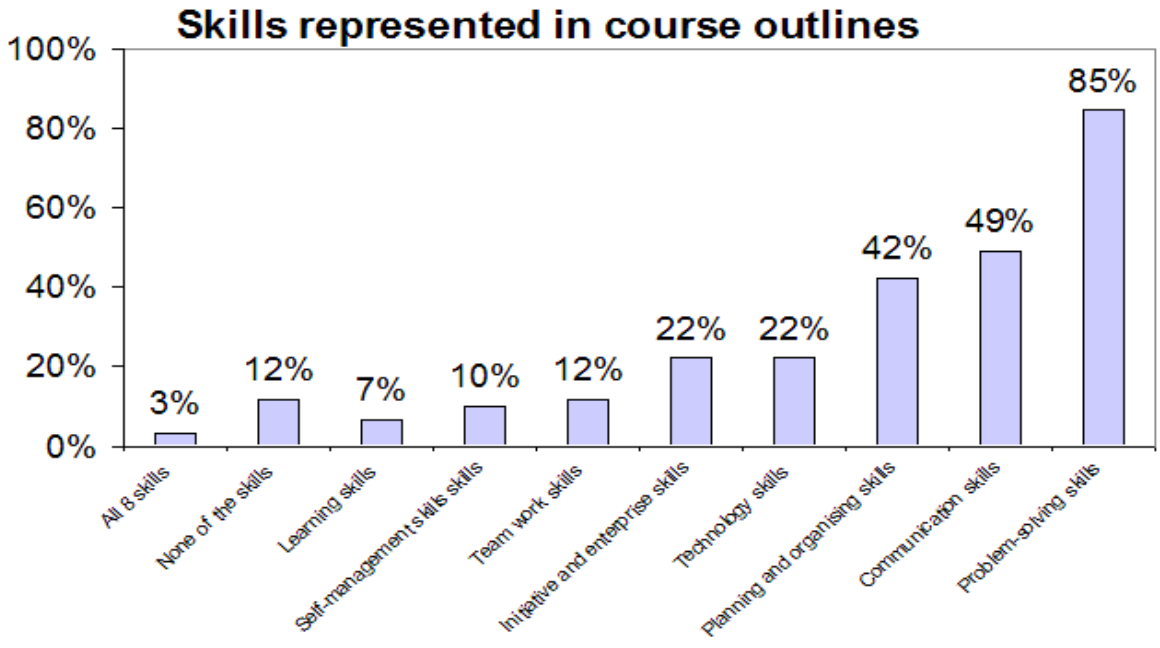
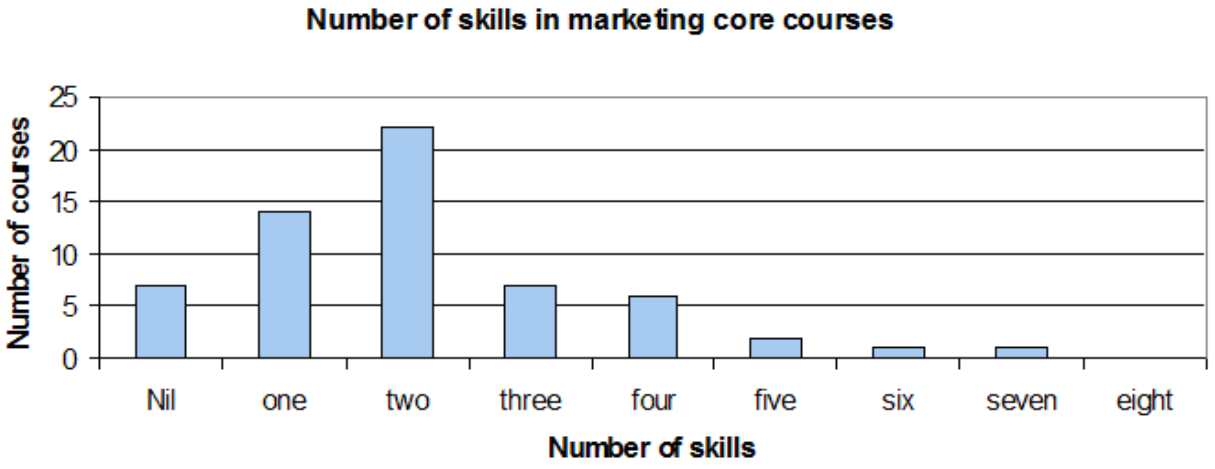


FIGURE 2
NUMBER OF SKILLS IN CORE MARKETING COURSES



the teamwork skills of marketing graduates. While problem solving skills and communication skills are well represented in undergraduate marketing courses continued, commentary from the marketing industry suggests there is clearly room for improvement.

IMPLICATIONS FOR LEARNING AND EDUCATION

This paper provides a starting point for marketing and business educators. Analysis of course objectives suggest that marketing educators are largely requiring one or two skills to be developed as a learning outcome for their students yet industry and government research suggests that employers remain dissatisfied with marketing graduate skills (Cincotta 2003; Eunson 2002 quoting four government reports). What can educators do to provide learning outcomes that better meet industry needs?

Implications for learning and education arise for each of the three basic educators' tasks.[2] A brief summary containing recommendations for educators is provided in the following table and each recommendation will be discussed in turn.

Determination of Course Objectives

The results of this paper suggest that marketing educators are currently meeting industry needs for undergraduate skills only half way. Marketing and business educators need to ensure the skill areas required to function effectively in a discipline are developed in undergraduates completing a major in that discipline. To do this, coordination by educators in a major is required to ensure that each skill is developed and emphasized throughout the major. This may involve each core course in a major taking ownership of one required skill.

Appreciation of the Importance of Clearly Stated Learning Objectives

Course objectives form the central pillar for a course and they should express what marketing educators want the students to understand after the course has been taught (Biggs 2003). This research revealed insights into Australian marketing educator's lack of appreciation for the importance of clearly stated learning objectives for assessment purposes. Objectives are concerned with the students learning activities, not the teacher's activities (Biggs 2003). According to Biggs (2003) a course objective often used in Australian marketing courses, e.g., "understand the theories of consumer behavior and their implications for strategic marketing decisions" are inappropriate. Educators must express course objectives in terms of the constructive activities that are most likely to achieve an understanding of the theories of consumer (www.markstrat.com), ServiceSim or Country Manager (http://www.interpretive.com/). In the course of solving the marketing problems presented in the simulation the student has to acquire the knowledge, the content-related skills, self management skills, teamwork skills, attitudes and know-how: in a word the professional wisdom. Problem-based learning encourages learners to become active and seek a knowledge base to apply to the problem(s) at hand (Biggs 2003).

Innovative approaches to assessment that further promote the development of the key skills required for the marketing industry without providing too much distraction from the key knowledge requirements must be con-

TABLE IV
KEY IMPLICATIONS FOR MARKETING EDUCATORS

Key Tasks	Implications for Educators
Determination of course objectives	• Coordinate the delivery of skills across the curriculum to ensure that all skills required in the discipline are covered across a major. • State learning objectives clearly. • Ensure that a specific skill to be developed is an objective of a core course. • Ensure objectives are specific, e.g., improve the student's teamwork ability.
Teaching and learning experiences	• Set relevant assessment tasks that involve problem-based learning. • Where possible set a wider range of tasks using peer review techniques to avoid issues with marking loads in larger classes. • Ensure that adequate emphasis is placed on skills in marking when setting marking criteria. • Build skill development into the curriculum. That is, business educators must teach skills, along with knowledge. • Design teaching activities that provide an opportunity to practice skills in the classroom.
Determine which objectives are being attained	• Consider the use of testing techniques to examine whether stated skills objectives are translating into a learning outcome.

sidered. Examples may include tape recordings for activities such as market research interviews, student presentations, mock sales presentations, or role-plays – all of which are relevant to marketing.

To ensure sufficient tasks are set for students without increasing the marking load, it is recommended that educators consider the use of peer review[3] (see Biggs 2003 for elaboration). For example, students may be required to submit tasks for peer review on a weekly basis. The educator must provide a how to mark sheet. Tasks are then redistributed at random, with the how to mark sheet. No further instruction needs to be provided and monitoring does not need to take place (Biggs 2003). Students are to mark the tasks provided and the tasks are returned to the owners with along with the feedback. Marks do not have to be recorded and hence do not contribute toward the final grade. If necessary a requirement can be set that students have to complete a set number of tasks or they fail. Students can benefit from peer review tasks (Gibbs 1999). Firstly, students have to spend more time out of class on skill development tasks such as problem solving, written or oral communication, self-organisation and the like. The activities are required by the course and provide students with an opportunity to see how other students might solve a problem – some will be better and some will be worse. Students receive feedback on their own work at the end of each session without experiencing delays. Finally, students learn to judge their own performance and the performance of their peers.

Teaching Activities

Skills cannot be taught in an embedded way, i.e., skills cannot be presumed to be picked up along the way. Teamwork skills, for example, cannot be assumed to be taught simply because group work is set. Skills must be taught directly, with classes, texts, and specific evaluation. Educators must provide students with tasks, such as case studies, texts, papers, skills training and industry speakers to enable undergraduate students to develop skills. Learning where to acquire knowledge is far more beneficial for a student than lecturing or telling students what they should know because learning where to acquire knowledge involves the active participation of a student (see Biggs 2003 for a detailed discussion).

Determine Which Objectives Are Being Attained

Course objectives contain the explicit priorities of the course and are the benchmarks against which the course should be measured (Biggs 2003). A course objective should clearly state the outcomes a student should expect upon the successful completion of a course. Grade distributions and teaching rating instruments may not be the

best way to measure the diverse objectives that are stated in core marketing course outlines. More attention needs to be given to measuring and reporting each objective.

Educators must ensure that they determine which course objectives are being attained. Skills testing can assist to determine if students have developed a target skill during a course of study. Educators can test students at course commencement and conclusion to determine if the course has possibly developed the skill during the course of study.

IMPLICATIONS FOR UNIVERSITIES

Two of the key marketing benefits for undertaking research that identifies how well an institution's stated learning outcomes relate to the required graduate attributes are competitive advantage and employment of students. Institutions that can demonstrate their stated learning outcomes/course objectives reflect the skills and attributes desired by an accreditation organization or industry will be equipped with a powerful marketing advantage as their graduates are more likely to be employed. The ability for an institution to state in promotional material that it provides graduates with job-ready skills, and hence improve employment prospects, is likely to raise its desirability as a preferred institution both for students seeking to enrol and organizations seeking to employ job ready graduates. The net effect of producing job-ready high quality graduates is that they are more likely to be employed and employment ratios of students are one of the decision criteria for many students when selecting an institution. Linking learning outcomes to accreditation or industry standards is likely to play an important role in the financial success of business schools globally.

Another benefit of graduating work ready marketing students are an evolving elevation of standards, activities, and expectations. Marketing is often thought of in a negative light. Better prepared students become better prepared marketing managers and executives, which not only enhances a business school, but the marketing profession.

FUTURE RESEARCH

While the research that was undertaken in this study was focused on the Australian education system, the relevance of the research is international. In an era of increasing globalization, academic institutions worldwide need to be conscious of three things. First, the trend toward international accreditation for business schools means that the curricula worldwide are becoming increasingly compatible. Standardization of core learning objectives can assist in ensuring that all marketing graduates, irrespective of country of study, are entering the work force with a standard set of skills and knowledge. Second, many graduates of business schools, even when employed in their home country, are employed by international firms. The need for a common understanding of the skills and knowledge of graduates is essential to allow for the effective international mobility of the international work force. Third, improved living conditions and increased levels of education worldwide, means that more people than ever learn the basics of the business practice in universities rather than "on the job." Industry is having a stronger influence on the development of curricula to ensure that their needs are met, not only in Australia but worldwide. Learning objectives guide the teaching of the curriculum and the assessment of students. If these do not reflect the stated needs of industry then the resulting skills gap will ultimately act against the best interests of students, academia and industry.

In light of these three issues the research here provides a framework for educators working in other systems to replicate the research and determine the extent to which the courses that are taught reflect the needs of business. Marketing education does not operate in a cultural vacuum. The methodology used here can be applied across cultures to determine the extent to which the international marketing curriculum both reflects the stated needs of industry in relevant countries and also the extent to which the curricula are compatible across different education systems.

The methodology used in this research provides a framework, which can be used by business institutions in other countries to identify how well (or poorly) their stated learning outcomes/course objectives meet required graduate standards. In applying this approach, cross-cultural research should first identify the key stakeholders and their graduate requirements. The requirements for graduates can be obtained either directly through surveying stakeholder requirements or indirectly through relevant organizations (e.g., industry associations or organizations involved in university funding) that have surveyed stakeholders.

Some of the skills required by employers that have been presented in this paper are issues that have existed in academia for decades now. It is possible that institutions whose primary focus is to comply with the requirements of accreditation institutions such as the AACSB may run the risk of being side tracked from what employers really want to see in our graduates. When planning curriculum institutions must focus on both the requirements of accrediting bodies and the requirements of stakeholders. In Australia, stakeholder requirements could be accessed through the Department of Education, Science and Technology (DEST). DEST had previously undertaken a survey of industry requirements of graduates and developed a list of graduate skills. This meant this research surveying industry to ascertain skills and knowledge requirements were not necessary for this research. An equivalent organization in the United States of America is the Council for

Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA), a national organization that co-ordinates accreditation activity in the United States. Two of the six recognition standards required by CHEA (2004) are that institutions advance academic quality (makes explicit reference to the use of student learning goals) and demonstrate accountability. In the United Kingdom, the Department of Education and Skills has recommended the development of Sector Skills Councils whose role it is to identify the graduate skills required by specific industries and help "employers to act as intelligent customers of universities so that courses that have the needs of employers at heart are developed and successfully marketed." Finally, stakeholder requirements could be informally or formally accessed through a universities advisory council, which usually contains representatives from the business community.

ENDNOTES

[1] The study acknowledged that the relative importance of each would vary depending on the industry sector and organisation.

[2] Educator tasks have been identified as (1) determination of course objectives, (2) selection and organization of learning experiences to attain the objectives and (3) determination of the extent to which objectives are being attained (Tyler 1949, quoted in Ingram and Howard 1998).

[3] Peer review involves the submission of tasks by each student with a name or student number for return to the student at the end of the session.

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ANTHROPOLOGICAL APPROACH TO CONSUMER BEHAVIOR: A MARKETING EDUCATIONAL CASE OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

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ABSTRACT

This paper is about a marketing educational case approach to consumer studies. Various approaches to consumer studies have been developed. Although not totally new, the anthropological approach is suggested to be adopted to help students understand consumer behaviors. Anthropology and consumer studies are two related academic fields in terms of theoretical and methodological traditions. Adopting the anthropological approach through practitioner-oriented projects could be fruitful although more improvements are needed.

Key Words: Anthropology, Consumer Behavior, Culture, Food Service, Marketing Education.

INTRODUCTION

Various approaches have been developed to teach consumer behavior, such as a psychological approach, a sociological approach, an economic approach, and a market research approach, among others. It is obviously that different approaches may not share the same focuses, for example, the psychological approach stresses the consumers' psychological processes in terms of consumption decision making and post-consumption evaluation (Statt 1997); the market research approach stresses the linkages between the study of consumer behavior and the practice of marketing research (Finch 1997). There is no "black and white" cut off to determine which approach is better but the teaching outcomes may be significantly influenced by the approach that individual instructors adopt. In most cases it is up to the individual instructors to decide which approach or combined several approaches should be adopted according to his or her experiences, knowledge, and preferences to gain the best outcome. In his teaching practice, the author has adopted and developed an anthropological approach to consumer studies, which he would like to share with his colleagues in the marketing education world.

This paper first probes the relationship between anthropology and consumer behavior in terms of academic connections. Secondly, it defines the anthropological approach to the study of consumer behavior, and presents the rationale as to why the author adopted and developed the anthropological approach as a pedagogical method. Thirdly, it presents the way the author designed the course and how he integrated the anthropological approach into the course on consumer behavior by using food service business as observation sites. Finally, it will discuss some pros and cons, based on an analysis of the students' work, of the anthropological approach to marketing education, and some suggestions by the author for better practice for any business faculty members who are willing to adopt the anthropological approach in marketing education.

Consumer Studies and Anthropology

The primary purpose for studying consumer behavior as part of marketing the curriculum is to help students understand why and how consumers make their purchase decisions. In a real business world, with a good understanding of consumer behavior the marketers will be able to make better strategies for higher profitability. While much consumer behavior research has traditionally been psychological and statistical, the anthropological approach employs more subjective and qualitative methods that are invaluable within a number of contexts. Abrams (2000) indicates that in some cases quantitative analysis might not help decision makers to truly understand consumers, while "descriptive anthropology" (qualitative and observational) research often provides revealing insights. In recent years, anthropologically-inspired research tactics have become increasingly prominent within consumer research. For example, Thompson and Hirschman (1995) applied classic anthropology theories to study the consumers' self-conception of body images and self care practices in the modern urban society to help the marketers understand the relationship between consumer "socialized body" and consumption behavior. McFarlane (2001) observes that when consumer reaction to a new product needs to be determined, companies traditionally

turn to the qualitative focus group (another qualitative method).

The core concept in anthropology is culture. According to one source, it is reasonable to estimate that between 25 percent and 50 percent of behavior is culturally determined (Gannon 1993). Therefore, it is important to look at cultural variation to understand variation in behavior; this principle applies to the consumer behavior studies exceptionally well. Anthropology provides useful methods for analyzing particular cultures. Harris and Moran (1987), for example, focus on the fact that culture provides people with a sense of who they are, gives them a feeling of belonging, establishes rules of how to behave, and offers rankings of what goals are important, etc. Culture provides a learned, shared, and interrelated set of symbols, codes, values, knowledge, etc. that justify and motivate human behavior. In recent years, those with international experience have written any number of guides of foreign countries that help those in international business to understand diverse cultures in order to be more effective within that context.

Marsha Richins, in his President's Address to the 2000 Annual Conference of Association for Consumer Research, stresses that consumer research should be viewed as a social science. Consumption is important to economic performance; it is connected to personal health and well-being; and many pressing social problems are related to consumer behavior. He further indicates that consumption impacts virtually every aspect of our life (Richins 2000). Although consumer behavior can be viewed as a social science, it is often not treated as such. As a result, the focus is often on the psychological factors of the individual and not the social context of behavior and motivation. After all, consumer research is a multifaceted discipline that combines applied aspects of psychology and the social sciences and uses them to understand the behavior of consumers and the marketplace. As a result, some researchers focus to such a degree upon psychology that they might pay relatively little attention to cultural concerns.

Much consumer behavior research is conducted at the individual level. However, a comparative research at the culture level is suggested (Mooij 2004). McCracken (1990) demonstrates how the consumption process has meanings that resonate from culture. For McCracken, consumption is broadly defined to include the processes by which consumer goods and services are created, bought, and used. According to McCracken, the relationship between culture and consumption is profoundly interrelated within three contexts: history, theory, and practice. As such, anthropology and especially its ethnographic methods have been becoming increasingly popular sources from which to borrow tools to investigate marketing and consumer behavior since the late 20th century (Olsen 1995). More and more anthropologists have involved themselves recently with consumer studies. More and more anthropologists do research on consumers' behavior that helps high-tech companies to design new products for the market based on their findings. They conduct observational research, dispatching anthropologists to employ their ethnographic skills by interviewing, watching, and videotaping consumers in their natural habitats. It is reported that companies like Apple, Motorola, Xerox, and Intel, as well as telecommunications and cable companies, have brought anthropologists into the corporate fold. The goal is to apply what the anthropologists learn to new product concepts by understanding the customer (Hafner 1999).

Meanwhile, more and more marketers are using anthropological methods in their marketing practice. For example, Holt (1998), by employing anthropological approaches, found out that cultural capitals structure the American people's consumption patterns and behaviors. Griffith (1998) using semi-structured interview technique conducted research among both buyers and sellers in Jordan's central marketplace and illustrated a few of the many ways culture may influence one aspect of a retail structure in tradition-based societies. In a similar study, Rossiter and Chan (1998) found out that ethnicity plays a significant role in doing business and consumption.

The anthropological approach is effective in consumer studies because anthropologists and anthropological methods offer an alternative perspective. Using advertising as an example, while focus groups might be used to look at the demographics of a region to best select a specific advertising campaign, an anthropologist would study how people react to the ad. An anthropologist might notice that sometimes people go to the bathroom or kitchen during commercials while others mute them together. Because people may be performing multiple tasks, the only way to know what they are doing is through observation, one of the fundamental skills that anthropologists use in their field studies. Along with the conceptual and methodological contributions anthropology offers, there are specific analytical and research techniques from which students who study consumer behaviors can benefit (DeJesus and Tian 2004; Hafner 1999; Sherry 1995).

Teaching Consumer Behavior Through an Anthropological Approach

Business education is designed to provide individuals with knowledge, skills, and abilities to meet local, state, and national needs for business leaders and employment. Although business professors are largely committed to the vocational preparation of students, they espouse contrasting pedagogic philosophies in seeking to achieve this goal. However, in spite of the variety in goals sought and pedagogy implemented, similar issues can be found when professors attempt to change the approach in which they teach business. A study by Nulty and Barrett (1996) indicated that business students prefer pedagogies that are

active and concrete. Stewart and Felicetti (1992) found that marketing majors, relative to non-marketing majors, preferred a learning style that was either methodological or holistic. Anthropological approach in teaching consumer behavior is therefore widely accepted in the business education field. For instance, in some Asian business schools the theory and methodology of anthropology has been introduced into the international business research courses. Three frameworks were designed for this type of courses. The first was a cultural awareness model adapted from Morgan's (1980) idea of paradigmatic orthodoxy getting in the way of embracing new perspectives. The second was key organizing principles (KOPS). The third was a mapping model designed to allow researchers to chart their own cultural position and the position judged to be that of respondents on a set of cultural dimensions deemed to be central to the research context (Whiteley 2001). Apparently, the disciplinary background of business professors is significant to understanding their attitudes to both pedagogy and epistemology. In this case, the teaching approach under discussion fits well into the well established business education pedagogy (DeMoranville et al. 2000; Macfarlane 1998; Pharr et al. 1997).

Teaching consumer behavior, like teaching almost any marketing course, involves assigning new terms or terminologies to unfamiliar theoretical frameworks and concepts. To accomplish this, marketing professors often break down the subject matter into a number of relatively distinct sub-areas for study, such as the "four Ps in the marketing mix." Exploration of each of the component parts allows the student to develop an understanding of each of the areas deemed important to an overall understanding of the overall topic. Unfortunately, students typically have problems understanding the conceptual linkages between the fundamental components. It is in these linkages that business practitioners say the business' competitive advantage lies (Porter 1980). As such, business suggests that higher education needs to facilitate learning by using more practitioner-oriented exercises to help students understand the linkages and interactions between various concepts (Oblinger and Verville 1998). The anthropological teaching approach to consumer studies under discussion here is one type of practitioner-oriented practices as it is based on participant-observation.

While fully supporting the merits of extended participant-observation, the instructor let students know that his personal experience convinced him that marketers could successfully employ many aspects of an anthropological perspective in marketing in a shorter time frame. While the results will not be an ethnography (nor are they designed to be), they can be complete enough to help the marketers to understand the driving forces that shape consumers' belief and behaviors in a particular market (Tian 1999, 1998). It is claimed that there is no better way to get close to the consumer or any other marketplace stakeholder for that matter than by using ethnography as a bridge. To help the students understand what ethnography is the instructor showed them films that demonstrate how anthropologists do their field work.

To help the students apply the anthropological approach in consumer behavior study, it is very important to give lectures on anthropological methodologies. The primary technique anthropologists use to study culture is participant-observation, which involves living among a group of people, observing and recording their behavior, and participating in their daily lives as much as possible. The resulting account of a cultural system and its members is termed ethnography. While doing participant-observation, anthropologists try to adopt an outside-in approach to uncover "native" images for events and behavior by observers. These "native" images are recorded separately from the researcher's images – observations and interpretations. Thus, through a kind of "stereovision" (image of the left eye and image from the right eye) two distinct texts are created. These texts must be analyzed separately and then combined to reveal any differences. To resolve existing discrepancies, "native" informants should be asked to comment on the researcher's descriptions and explanation. These comments serve as check on the researcher's ethnocentrism while adding greater depth to the "native" view. In the same way, discrepancies within the "native" text need to be uncovered and explained. Indeed, the richest accounts of a cultural system incorporate both contradiction and controversy as consensus.

It is also very important to let students understand that anthropologists use a variety of data-gathering techniques in the field. Traditionally, these have been largely qualitative, and include structured and unstructured interviews; hypothetical situations; the analysis of critical events, social networks, myth and folklore, life histories; and historical reconstruction. In practice, anthropologists also employ qualitative techniques along with more quantitative approaches (survey, for example), especially if they are doing research in complex organizations. Even when quantitative and qualitative techniques are combined, the author argues that in-depth participant-observation (lasting at least several months) is the mainstay of valid anthropological research.

Textbooks and Supplementary Reading Materials

Although consumer behavior textbooks typically include an obligatory discussion of culture, such content is often truncated, combined with other issues, and as a result culture can easily be overlooked or discounted. From a practical point of view, the concept of culture and its implications for consumer research are often lost in the shuffle. The profound impact of culture upon consumer response, however, is observable and undeniable (Douglas and Craig 1995; Griffith and Ryans 1995). Those teaching marketing, consumer research, advertising, etc.

need to scan the textbooks they use to be sure these topics are adequately addressed. Where they are not, supplemental materials need to be added. In this case, the author used Schiffman and Kanuk's book *Consumer Behavior* as the text for the consumer behavior classes because they have adopted a multiple approach, especially in the discussion of consumers in their social and cultural settings.

The instructor developed the anthropological approach by taking the advantage of the textbook while integrating his own expertise and knowledge into the course design. Schiffman and Kanuk assign five chapters in their book to discuss the relations between cultural issues and consumer behaviors, making it possible for the instructor to teach in an anthropological approach. The anthropological approach encompasses both a way of viewing consumer behaviors and techniques for understanding those behaviors (cf., Sherry 1995). In an effort to gain the integration of marketing and anthropological concepts and skills, the author designed several lectures that focused on the relations between cultures and consumer behaviors by integrating anthropological principles into the classroom. These lectures were designed to lead the students to understand some fundamental concepts and methods in anthropology, and their implications in studying consumer behaviors. To help the students become interested in the anthropological approach to the study of consumer behaviors, the author used his own work to illustrate what anthropologists do and how to use anthropological skills in marketing practice.

The instructor also assigned some extra readings that dealt with anthropological theories and methods and their implementation in marketing practice for the students to read after class. These reading materials were deliberately selected from various leading academic journals and magazines for the purpose of fostering the student's interest in and understanding of anthropology and marketing. The materials selected include a monograph *Contemporary Marketing and Consumer Behavior: An Anthropological Sourcebook* edited by Sherry (1995). This book is the most comprehensive one at the current time that deals with the basic theories and methods in understanding consumer behavior through the anthropological approach. The contributors demonstrated very well how anthropological theories and methods can be applied to study consumer behavior by case analyses and theoretical discussion. Another book, *Why We Buy: The Science of Shopping*, written by cultural anthropologist Underhill (1999), is also strongly recommended to the students. In this book the author, by applying an anthropological research methodology, divulges more about consumer behavior than individual consumers may know themselves: how a consumer ignores items shoved onto the bottom shelf, how a customer likes touching the merchandise, whether the merchandise is paperbacks or underwear. It describes what consumers do, and what they do not do, in stores, restaurants and showrooms. The findings contained in the book have much to do with marketing and retailing practice and with consumer behavior studies as well.

The instructor used supplementary materials to demonstrate that in the field of consumer behavior, qualitative researchers often employ anthropological or anthropologically inspired techniques (such as the naturalistic method of Belk, Sherry, Wallendorf 1989) in order to study consumers actually living their lives and making decisions regarding the purchase and consumption of products. Marketing involves targeting an audience for a product and then selling it. Working within this process, anthropologists are often responsible for finding out how specific items are purchased, valued, and consumed as well as what feelings particular people have regarding certain products and their use. By recording in great detail how people live and how products fit into their lives, anthropologists often gain useful information that could not be easily gained from a formal interview. As a result, an increasing number of anthropologists are being hired by industry (Walsh 2001).

The students were asked to discuss the reading materials in groups and were encouraged to present to the class their findings from the reading assignments with an emphasis on how could they implement what they had learned into their research projects. Moreover, the individual students were required to write an article review based on the reading assignments. They were encouraged to make comments on how the authors used the anthropological approach in the study of consumer behavior and to suggest how they would use the same approach in their studies. For example, one group of the students, upon finishing their reading assignment, decided to use the ethnographic approach, to study consumer behavior at the college's cafeteria. They suggested that participant observation was one of the best ways for them to conduct such research. Accordingly they prepared their research proposal and started their research project. The participant observation helped the group collect enough first hand data to conduct the analysis of the consumers at the college cafeteria.

Learning Consumer Behaviors Through Participant-Observations

Teaching and learning is interactive. Despite the fact that learning is all-pervasive in our life, there is no single, universal theory of how people learn. There are two major schools of thought concerning the learning process: one consists of behavior theories, the other of cognitive theories. Cognitive theorists view learning as a function of purely mental process, whereas behavioral theorists focus almost exclusively on observable behaviors (responses) that occur as the result of exposure to stimuli (Schiffman and Kanuk 2004). It is suggested that good marketing strategy often be based upon a defined set of consumer

behaviors. Yet, students can forget this truism when they discuss sometimes esoteric and often complex findings of consumer studies and their corresponding models. It was found that the truths and power of consumer analysis become real to students when they directly observed a variety of consumers in different shopping situations (Pharr 1997). Observation is the principal method in anthropological marketing research. However, students often will not automatically make the connections between the study of consumer behavior and the practice of anthropological marketing research. This is particularly true for the undergraduate students; they are more easily drawn to the psychological approach to the study of consumer behavior given the fact that most consumer behavior textbooks are written with this approach (Tian 2001).

To help the students understand the principles of consumer behavior, the instructor designed two assignments that strengthened the linkages between anthropology and marketing. He designed two projects – one mini-report, and one comprehensive research project. For the mini-report assignment, students were required to write up a mini-report analysis of consumer behaviors based on their own observations/experiences at any food service site. They were encouraged to use one or two concepts and methods that they had learned from the course to record and analyze consumer behaviors in a real business situation. Each student was also directed to discuss, with the instructor, individually the progress and problems pertaining to the fieldwork and observations at least once during the period when the research was conducted. By doing so the instructor would have the opportunity to make some comments and suggestions on their individual fieldwork and observations.

The instructor read and graded the students' mini-report with the individual student present. The instructor would praise the individual students for what they had done correctly and made comments on what they did not do properly. Then he would let the individual students tell him how they could improve their work if they were asked to re-do the assignment. Through the mini-report practice and the interaction with the instructor, the students learned more about how to observe and how to record the data. Moreover, the students were trained how to analyze the rural data and how to write the research report based on primary data they collected. The mini-report training helped build a solid foundation for the students to conduct their final comprehensive research project.

For the comprehensive research project, the students were directed to study the consumers at any food service business through participant observation and other methods, such as interviews and questionnaire survey. The students were requested to properly record and keep their original fieldwork notes, which would be graded together with their final reports. By the time the comprehensive research project started, the great majority of the students had already mastered the basic skills in doing fieldwork, conducting observations, taking notes, which they had learned and practiced from their previous mini report projects. However, to help the students and to provide advice on site, the instructor also accompanied individual students to lunches or dinners in their selected food service sites from time to time during the period when they were doing the fieldwork. Students were encouraged to do some interviews while the instructor was present, so that they could get the advice immediately if they needed. They were also encouraged to exchange information as much as they could but they had to give each other credit if they did such an exchange in their final reports.

This project had a number of benefits for students. For instance, it acquainted them with observational research techniques and the subjectivity inherent in pure observation. Moreover, it made them realize that trends or patterns are revealed by consumer analysis while reinforcing many of the age, gender, ethnic-based, or other consumer findings presented in textbooks. Next, it was a true-to-life illustration of the differences between non-probability and probability sampling. And finally, it invariably caused the students to become more aware of their own consumer behavior. The results of their comprehensive projects turned out to be very good and the quality of the research reports, according to the comparison by the instructor, was much improved from their mini reports.

The students claimed that they learned concrete skills and knowledge through their hands-on experiences than they did through the textbook and in-class lectures because the anthropological approach directly involved them with the consumer and gave them a better understanding about consumer behavior (cf., Table 1). For instance, through participant observation, the students realized that they themselves could be used as research instruments, which helped them understand all other types of research instruments, such as interviews and questionnaire surveys. More importantly, the students learned how to collect first-hand research data in their everyday life. These skills and course concepts would be abstract to them if the students had not been guided in their hands-on work. One student wrote: "I learned that in order to be a successful observer you must do just that. If you want to see what consumers are doing and saying then you must sit back and observe. As an observer you need to look at the body language of the customer, facial expressions, and listen to what they are saying. This is a good process that takes a while to get used to, but after you get the hang of it you pick up on many things that you normally would miss. Your eyes and ears are the best tools that I used when conducting this research. I enjoyed this assignment; here at the college we are often swamped by definitions and lectures, but we rarely get to apply what we have learned to a real situation. I feel that this exercise enabled me to take the tools that I have gotten from the classroom and apply to them in the real world."

Using the Food Service Sector as Learning Sites

According to Mulroney (2002), one of the most obvious applications for using anthropology within business research is the study of consumer behavior in retail business. Newman (1993), a business anthropologist, has examined the effects of economic decline on consumption patterns, lifestyle, and family relationships. Underhill (2000) discusses consumer behavior within the context of retailing in great detail. He explores why consumers go into a store for one item and end up buying something else, what kind of store atmosphere is most effective for influencing shopping behavior, and so on. The reasons that the instructor selected food service sites as the locations for teaching and learning are various. The food service sector is suggested as one of the best places to study consumer behavior. It is at food service sites that consumers are not only consuming tangible goods (food and drink), but also intangible service. It is in restaurants that consumers will interact with the waiters/waitresses and with other consumers. It is also suggested that many consumer behavior related concepts and theories could be tested in the food service sector, such as consumption motivation, family/friends influences on consumer behavior, cultural influences on consumer behavior (Doern and Kates 1998; Goffman 1959; Leidner 1993; McCarty et al. 1990; Schau and Gilly 1997; Tian 2000).

One approach suggested for the analysis of consumer behavior is termed "cross-cultural interpretation," meaning that there are differences in cultural norms and values between countries, which can be best illustrated through studying food consumption. Food consumption functions as a way for the consumer to gain cultural meaning as well as establish self-identities (Tian 2000). The beliefs and attitudes a culture has about food consumption are important to the choices consumers make about food; this is particularly meaningful to the study of consumer behavior at various ethnic restaurants. Through the on site study as well as the in class lectures, the students are able to learn that food habits and consumption represent ethnic, regional, and national identities, and differ from country to country because of cultural differences (Bailey and Tian 2002; DeJesus and Tian 2004; Tian 2001; Witte and Tian 2003).

The more familiar a society is with different cultures, the more acceptable are its rituals and culture (Bell and Valentine 1997). Likewise, the food of other cultures will be more accepted if its ingredients and preparation styles are familiar (Gabaccia 1998). It is through on-site observation and study that students learn that food choice based on the price is derived from the culture's meanings based on social status. American culture has transformed into a society that ranks food consumption solely on financial sacrifice. Appearance and taste have been replaced with the eating environment and the ability of like-minded individuals who have the means to pay certain prices for certain foods. The connotation of filet mignon and lobster convey the meaning of high social status along with high prices. In turn, fatback and chicken-necks portray the lower income and social status of its consumers (Pillsbury 1998).

In food service sites, students learned that culture as a concept is regularly and fruitfully used to describe and analyze both the varieties and generalities of human behavior, values, choices, preferences, practices, beliefs, attitudes, and so forth throughout the world (Costa 1995). Accordingly, food choice and consumption is a typical human behavior that is strongly culturally oriented (Mead 1943; Mooij 2004). Moreover, food choice is an extremely complex behavior to quantify. Many factors can play a

TABLE 1
STUDENT EVALUATION RESPONSES (FALL 2002)

Selected Evaluation Items	Course Average	College Average	Rolling Average*
Problem-solving skills learned	5.00	4.26	4.29
Ability to write	5.00	4.23	4.08
Comments on papers	5.00	4.26	4.51
Goals and organization	4.67	4.34	4.12
Text and materials	4.67	4.14	3.97

* Rolling average is the average for all course evaluations on file.

part in the choices consumers make for consumption, factors for which there is no method of value measurement. There are several factors that influence food choices, including but not limited to: environment, tradition, familiarity, social status, and perceived properties (Schiffman and Kanuk 2004). Environmental factors influence the choices consumers make by the process of availability within a market. The ability to produce the products necessary for specific foods is the key to assimilating them into a society's culture. Without the required ingredients, the foods of different cultures cannot be experienced or accepted. Tradition within specific regions dictates the level and type of consumption. What identifies familiarity is that which has become long accustomed and is considered the norm for the specific region (Pillsbury 1998).

Through the on-site study, the students learned that Indian, Mexican, and Chinese cuisines are identified as the best-known ethnic cuisines in the United States. Due to their growing popularity, people do not feel as strongly about ethnic cuisines, because such foods have become commonplace, more available, and are found in non-ethnic restaurants and multicultural grocery stores nationwide. Mills (2000) observes that today's consumers desire a good overall restaurant experience, including friendly service, flavorful foods, and a good overall experience, whether it be a typically American restaurant or an ethnic restaurant. Restaurants are the primary source of ethnic cuisine education for consumers. As a result, those who choose to dine at an ethnic restaurant with little knowledge about that cuisine often judge the entire cuisine based on a favorable or unfavorable dining experience, which ultimately determines whether they opt to eat it again (DeJesus and Tian 2004).

A segmentation study on ethnic restaurants done by the National Restaurant Association, finds that Diners tend to fall into three distinctly different categories: Culture-Oriented, Restaurant-Oriented, and Preparation-Oriented. Culture-Oriented consumers are those who actively seek out new dining adventures, Restaurant-Oriented consumers view ethnic restaurants as simply another eating-out alternative, and Preparation-Oriented consumer's interest in ethnic cuisine tend to center on the cooking and ingredients (DeJesus and Tian 2004). These categories are similar to those found in Mills' (2000) study. The students learned through on-site observation and study that when consumer behavior is combined with attitudes about ethnic cuisine, divisions among ethnic-cuisine supporters can be made into two segments: Internationalists and Urban Professionals. Internationalists seek out foreign experiences; they want authenticity and are more inclined to have a taste for hot and spicy foods, such as Mexican and Thai cuisines; they look for the whole experience from décor to servers who speak the restaurant's native language. Urban Professionalists tend to be older than Internationalists; they like to experiment with new cuisines, but watch what they eat and like for menus to specify clearly what is in their foods. These categories and segments are formed because Americans tend to differ in terms of how they relate to ethnic cuisines (Bailey and Tian 2002; Mills 2000; Tian 2001; Witte and Tian 2003; DeJesus and Tian 2004).

Conclusions and Suggestions for Future Improvement

It is clear that consumer behavior refers to consumers' responses to products and services, and to how those products and services are presented. In order to understand consumers and the choices consumers make, students must study a range of human responses, including, but not limited to, affective (feelings), cognitive (thoughts), and behavioral (actions). All those human responses can be learned through participant-observation, a powerful anthropological pedagogical approach that fits in the behavioral theories of learning well. The primary foundation for behaviors can be evaluated from observation and then used to formulate opinions with the subjectivity of the observer and the desired effects. The food service sector is viewed as the ideal place for students to learn about consumer behavior because food service sites are places where customers consume both tangible products and intangible service. Through participant-observations and interactions with the consumers, students are able to understand the reasoning behind societal actions, including an understanding of the culture from which actions are derived (Jordan 2003; Kardes 2002; Sherry 1995; Tian 2000 2001; Walle 1998).

The anthropological approach adopted by the author in the consumer behavior course was effective in several teaching sections. For instance, 10 student term papers in two sections were either published in peer reviewed academic journals or presented at peer reviewed academic conferences. The students were happy and enjoyed the learning process; they commented that by this approach they had learned knowledge in both fields of study, namely anthropology and consumer behavior. They particularly enjoyed the hands-on projects and the fieldwork; they claimed that the training they got fostered and developed their abilities in implementing consumer behavior theories in the real business world (see Table 1). The business division head at the college after examining the course syllabus, teaching notes, assignment designs, and student work, made a very positive comment about the anthropological approach to teach. She indicated that the approach is a constructive improvement in teaching consumer behavior at the college and encouraged the instructor to continue the approach. The author had also presented the teaching method and approach to his marketing educators whose feedback was very positive and encouraging (Tian 2001).

However, like any other approach, the anthropological approach to consumer behavior studies is not without

shortcomings. As suggested earlier, traditional consumer behavior studies mainly use the psychological approach. The anthropological approach is relatively new in this field of study and this makes it difficult to draw upon necessary resources. It is important for the instructors who want to adopt this approach to search and prepare related academic and practical resources beforehand. Also because the students who take a consumer behavior course might not necessarily have taken an anthropology course, it is necessary for the instructor to systematically address some of the basic principles of anthropology in the class and then connect them with the consumer behavior studies. Abrams' (2000) book entitled *Observational Research Handbook* and Mooij's (2004) book entitled *Consumer Behavior and Culture* are strongly suggested to be used for reference.

One serious problem which the author identified is that the students tended to spend more describing what they observed than on analyzing what they observed because they believed they had plenty of material to present from their observations. As a result, although they were able to make some analyses, the analyses tended to be superficial and lacked connections with consumer behavior theories and concepts. Therefore, it is necessary to require an analysis in class of a few case studies, which should include various approaches to the study of consumer behaviors, to help the students understand how to link the theories and concepts they have learned with the real world they observed. Instructors may integrate a few applied anthropology lectures with consumer cultures to demonstrate how to enhance reliability and validity as well as readability by implementing related theories and concepts. Accordingly, it is necessary to design the assignment within the framework of consumer behavior theories and to instruct the students to apply the course concepts as much as possible in their research reports. It is important to let the students know that their grades will be negatively affected if they neglect to use the course concepts and consumer behavior theories in their report.

Another issue is the arrangement of the course project. Based on the author's experience it is better to first have all students do their mini report collectively on the same market or the same marketplace so that the instructor can give them a demonstration and give them help on site. After the critical analysis of their mini reports, the students can be directed to conduct their comprehensive research project by selecting their own retail stores to observe and to study consumer behaviors. However, the experiences of the author indicate that the ideal locations to train students to study and observe consumer behavior are the various food service sites.

In short, the anthropological approach is not a simple combination of anthropology and consumer behavior studies. Based on the author's own understanding and experience, the anthropological approach focuses on the influences of culture and society on the individual consumers' behavior; it emphasizes the participated observation and academic analysis of consumer behavior through both management and consumer perspectives (cf., Sherry 1995; Tian 2000). The instruction of consumer behavior through an anthropological approach is relatively new in marketing education. Although the author personally found this approach, if used in a proper way, to be very effective in helping students understand the principles of consumer behavior; it does not mean that other instructors will also think so. As professionals in the field of marketing education, we need to consistently improve our teaching methods and practices. While a commitment to a critical pedagogy is not a common goal shared by all business educators, it is clearly a more practical perspective approach could be reached. It is the author's hope that professors in the marketing education field can critically review his experience and practice, and provide suggestions and comments to the author so that further improvement to his teaching practice can be made in the future.

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A COMPARISON OF PROFESSOR AND STUDENT VIEWPOINTS REGARDING ATTENDANCE AND EXCUSED ABSENCES

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ABSTRACT

The manner in which professors administer attendance and excused absence policies and how students want the policies administered may differ. Although professors and students agree that makeup work policies should be designed to treat all students fairly, the way in which professors administer makeup policies may not afford equal treatment to all students. This study assesses and compares both student and faculty viewpoints regarding absenteeism and excused absences. More specifically, the study assesses and compares student and faculty awareness of existing university policies on excused absences, desire to have certain components concerning attendance integrated into course policy statements, perceptions of the need for and structure of course makeup policies, and perceptions as to the manner in which excused absence policies are and should be administered. Depending on the level of missed activity – assignment, quiz, or exam – college students' perceptions regarding acceptable circumstances for absenteeism are investigated and compared to professors' views and policies regarding those circumstances. Further, the extent to which academic policies are fair to both traditional and non-traditional students is examined. The findings of this research indicate that while some consistencies exist between student and faculty opinions, inconsistencies also exist. These inconsistencies may require greater focus by faculty and administration to minimize the undesirable outcomes such as discrimination against employed students or students with children that may occur as a result of faculty attendance and makeup policies. Based on the findings, implications and suggestions for future research are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

"Hello, Dr. Smith, I missed class today. I had a dental appointment, did I miss anything important?" "Professor Jones, I have to go to my second cousin's sister's wedding next week and we have an exam, can I make that up?" "Dr. Doe, my child is running a fever and I will miss class today, can I retake any unannounced quizzes?" These and other excuses have been heard by most faculty members who have been employed even a short time in academia. Which ones do you allow? Which excuses are acceptable to your colleagues or to the university? Do you care if students come to class?

Attitudes among faculty, administrators, and students pertaining to class attendance policies run a wide gamut. On the one extreme are those who feel that students "pay for the classes, and thus can use their discretion regarding attendance," and on the other, those who feel that class attendance is "a mandatory requirement." Similarly, excuses and allowances for make-up work also range from "none are acceptable" to "all are acceptable." Thus, it seems that issues pertaining to attendance can be quite troublesome. In general, one might contend that faculty desire student attendance for at least five reasons. First, attendance relates to learning. Materials discussed in class provide opportunities for students to gain the knowledge that will enable them to experience subsequent success. Second, one can argue that classroom attendance promotes student satisfaction. As students learn and get involved, they often discover that the classroom experience is more valuable and satisfying. Third, regular attendance reduces professorial time by reducing the amount of "re-explained material," excuse verification, and make-up assignment development and grading. Fourth, regular student attendance facilitates a positive class experience by building professorial and student camaraderie. Fifth, professors may believe that zero tolerance absenteeism policies serve as a learning and behavior modification tool to deter similar behaviors post college graduation. When examining the structure of faculty policies regarding absenteeism and what constitutes acceptable excused absences and just causes for altering

deadlines and other academic activities, faculty clearly have personal and professional "vested interests" in evaluating attendance and attendance policies.

On the other hand, student perceptions of absenteeism may differ greatly from those of professors and administrators. What professors may view as an unacceptable justification on the part of the student may seem to the student a legitimate excuse for delaying a test, a quiz, or an assignment. Determining where students and faculty stand on what are acceptable reasons for absences may be valuable to both administration and faculty as they attempt to provide the optimum environment for student learning while simultaneously creating a "satisfying" and "fair" environment for both their traditional and non-traditional student populations.

The purpose of this research is to assess and compare both student and faculty viewpoints regarding absenteeism. Depending on the level of missed activity – assignment, quiz, or exam – college students' perceptions regarding acceptable circumstances for absenteeism are investigated and compared to professors' views and policies regarding those circumstances. More specifically, the study assesses and compares student and faculty awareness of existing university policies on excused absences, desire to have certain components concerning attendance integrated into course policy statements, perceptions of the need for and structure of course makeup policies, and perceptions as to the manner in which excused absence policies are and should be administered. Further, the extent to which academic policies are fair to both traditional and non-traditional students is examined.

RELATED LITERATURE

Most professors have experienced moments of perceived abandonment when looking out over a half-empty classroom. In fact, studies validate these feelings as the data shows classroom levels of absenteeism range from 33 percent to 61 percent (Romer 1993; Paisey and Paisey 2004). Although studies examining university attendance are limited, the findings are fairly consistent. As one might expect, the results show an inverse relationship between student absenteeism and student performance (Clump, Bauer, and Whiteleather 2003; Durden and Ellis 1995; Marburger 2001; Paisley and Paisley 2004; Park and Kerr 1990; Romer 1993). Given the link between student absenteeism and course performance, the reported high levels of absenteeism are particularly alarming.

Other studies have examined why students miss class. Reasons cited have included, financial hardship, employment, illness, working on other coursework, personal reasons (including hangovers), lack of motivation, and family emergencies (Paisey and Paisey 2004). From an institutional perspective, attendance levels have been found to vary depending on class structure, university type, time of day the class is offered, and course requirements. Specifically, differences were noted among lectures versus labs (Paisey and Paisey 2004) with lectures resulting in higher attendance levels. Private colleges were shown to report higher attendances versus public universities, while classes held before 10:00 A.M. and after 3:00 P.M. had significantly higher levels of absenteeism. Non-core versus core courses also showed higher levels of absenteeism (Marburger 2001).

In addition, researchers have also linked absenteeism to procrastination. In other words, students also miss class to avoid completion of tasks (Roig and Caso 2005). Consequently, when students are not prepared to take quizzes, exams, or if they have failed to complete assignments, they may choose to miss class. In this case, the student will simply fail to complete the required course task or might request a task extension or modification. In a study by Carron, Krauss-Whitbourne, and Halgin (1992) they found that 68 percent of college students have used false excuses to justify their absences and to delay taking tests or completing assignments. Similary, Roig and Caso (2005), found 72 percent of the undergraduate students reported having used fraudulent excuses. Surprisingly, or maybe not, 90 percent of these students said that their fraudulent excuses were accepted and that they were allowed additional time or consideration in completing the missed task. Consequently, there exists the overwhelming dilemma faced by every college professor – how to determine what constitutes a legitimate excuse for missing an exam, not completing a paper or assignment, missing a quiz, etc.

This task is further compounded by the fact that some student excuses for missing class are clearly legitimate. With the ever changing demographic profile of today's college student, examining and establishing academic policies that provide fair treatment to faculty as well as to both traditional and non-traditional students is critical. Consequently this paper provides an exploratory investigation extending the literature on absenteeism and examines professors' course policies and practices identifying (1) what student excuses should be accepted (if any), (2) what work should be allowed to be made-up (modified or not), (3) how similar (dissimilar) are professors' absenteeism policies, and (4) how professor polices compare to student perceptions regarding absenteeism. The next section identifies specific research questions designed to assess and compare faculty and student perceptions regarding absenteeism and procrastination.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

After a review of the existing research literature, four research questions were developed. The first question concerns faculty and student awareness of existing university policies on excused absences. If professors are very aware of university policies on excused absences, they may be more likely to use the university policies in

formulating their own class attendance policies. If students have a high level of awareness of university policies concerning absences, and faculty fail to incorporate the salient points of the university policies into their class syllabi, students may have a basis to contest faculty decisions. Student grievances may lead to litigation, which may have an adverse effect on the faculty member and the university. Thus, the first research question concerns the level of faculty and student awareness of the university-level excused absence policy.

The second research question concerns which of five specific components professors integrate into their course attendance policies and which of the five components students feel should be integrated into course attendance policies. The five components include: (1) an attendance policy which states the differentiation between excused and unexcused absences, (2) provisions for making up missed assignments, (3) the maximum number of allowable absences, (4) the ability (or not) to drop an assignment score from the grade calculation, and (5) a recap of the university attendance policy.

Faculty and student perceptions of the need for a makeup policy incorporated into class syllabi and the makeup policy structure are the subject of the third research question. More specifically, question three addresses faculty and student perceptions of the need for the makeup policy to treat all students fairly, to mirror the rigor and level of the course taught (lower- or upper-level undergraduate or graduate), and to be consistent with the type of educational institution (community college, state university, commuter college, or residence college).

Both professors and students may desire excused absence policies that treat all students equally. However, the manner in which professors actually administer their excused absence policy and the manner in which students want professors to administer an excused absence policy may not afford all students equal treatment. Thus, question four assesses faculty and student perceptions of the manner in which excused absence policies are and should be applied.

METHODOLOGY

During the first phase of the study, the research sample was determined. Professors and students at a large, Midwestern universities were selected for the survey. Professors from all ranks and all academic divisions of the university were included in the sample. Similarly, the students surveyed were from all grades and all academic divisions. The use of faculty and students from all academic divisions within the same university facilitated comparisons of a standard policy while maintaining the consistency of the sample. Thus, the findings are generalizable without being confounded by differences derived from unique university policies.

In the second phase of the study, two survey instruments were developed, i.e., one for faculty and one for students. The faculty and student questionnaires contained a common body of 62 questions concerning various aspects of a professor's makeup policy and student excuses for missed class work. First, respondents were asked to indicate their awareness of the university policy on excused absences using a three-point Likert scale (1 = not aware, 3 = very aware). The attendance policy was modeled after those used by other universities and is contained in the Appendix. The second part of the survey instrument involved an evaluation of which of five components faculty include or students feel that faculty should include in a class attendance policy. The five components were: (1) a recap of the university attendance policy, (2) maximum number of allowable absences, (3) ability to drop a test score or other scores, (4) differentiation between excused or unexcused absences, and (5) provisions for makeup assignments or exams.

Forty-eight (48) questions comprised the third section of the survey. The questions concerned 16 different student excuses for missing three different types of class work (assignment, quiz, or exam). For each type of class work, professors were asked to indicate whether they would accept, accept with proof, accept with penalty, or reject the student excuse. Similarly for each type of class work, students were asked to indicate whether professors should accept, accept with proof, accept with penalty, or reject the student excuse.

The fourth segment of the survey instrument contained an additional 12 questions. The questions asked participants to rate on a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) their agreement with statements concerning the necessity and structure of a makeup policy. The final section of the questionnaire concerned faculty and student demographics. The faculty questionnaire contained six demographic questions concerning college, years of teaching experience, gender, age, grade level taught, and rank. Four demographic questions concerning college, grade level, gender, and age were included in the student version of the questionnaire.

The final phase of the research involved analysis and comparison of the faculty and student data. For each of the Likert scale questions, means were calculated. For all other survey questions, response percentages were calculated. The faculty and student survey instruments are contained in the Appendix.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

For professors, 217 individuals from each of the six academic divisions (Arts and Letters, Business Administration, Education, Health and Human Services, Humanities and Public Affairs, and Natural and Applied Sciences) and each of four professorial ranks (lecturer/instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, and full pro-

fessor) were included in the sample. Within the sample, each college and professorial rank were approximately evenly represented. In terms of gender, both male and female professors were equally represented in the survey sample. Faculty ranged in age from less than 35 years to over 65 years with the highest concentration of faculty in the 46–55 year age bracket. A majority of the respondents had been teaching more than eight years. Additionally, most of the faculty primarily taught either upper-level (junior/senior) courses or all levels (freshman/sophomore, junior/senior, and graduate) equally.

For students, 88 individuals from each of the six academic divisions and each of four grade levels (sophomore, junior, senior, and graduate) were included in the sample. A majority of the students were from Business Administration and at the junior level. Both male and female students were equally represented in the research sample. Students ranged in age from 18 to over 25 years of age with most of the students between 18 and 21 years of age.

The first research question concerned the level of faculty and student awareness of the university excused-absence policy. Respondents rated their level of awareness on a Likert scale of 1 = not aware to 3 = very aware. With a mean rating of 2.3, professors indicated that they were only somewhat aware of the university policy on excused absences. The relatively low level of awareness of university policy might mean that course syllabi may not be in agreement with university policy and that course syllabi may not adequately address excused absences and makeup work. Similarly with a mean rating of 2.0, students were even less aware than the professors of the university excused absence policies. If students are only somewhat aware of excused absence policies, they may not know what behaviors constitute a violation of the policies. Therefore when a professor makes a decision concerning how to handle a class absence, the low level of awareness of university protocol on the part of both faculty and student may lead to faculty/student disagreements and student grievances.

Question two concerned which of five specific components faculty incorporate in course attendance policies and which of the five components students feel faculty should integrate into the policy statements. The five components included: (1) the definition of excused and unexcused absences, (2) provisions for making up missed assignments, (3) the maximum number of absences allowed, (4) the ability (or not) to drop an assignment score from the grade calculation, and (5) a recap of the university attendance policy. Table 1 contains the response percentages for both professor and students.

As indicated by the percentages in Table 1, a majority of the professors include provisions for makeup assignments or exams in their class attendance policy and an equal number of students feel that these provisions should be included in the policy. However, while relatively few professors indicated that they include statements covering the maximum number of allowable absences or the ability to drop a test score or other scores, a high percentage of students felt that these components were essential. Both professors and students had lower percentages for the components of including a recap of the university attendance policy or a statement as to the differentiation between what constitutes an "excused" or "unexcused"

TABLE 1
COMPONENTS INCLUDED IN CLASS ATTENDANCE POLICY

	Response (%)	
Component	**Professor Includes in Course Attendance Policy (n = 217)**	**Student Wants Included in Course Attendance Policy (n = 88)**
Provisions for makeup assignments or exams.	70.5	70.4
Recap of university attendance policy.	37.3	59.1
Differentiation between excused or unexcused absences.	36.9	54.5
Maximum number of allowable absences.	27.6	78.4
Ability to drop a test score or other scores.	21.7	77.3

absence. The lack of specificity for components, such as defining what constitutes an excused or unexcused absence or the maximum number of allowable absences, may lead to students contesting faculty decisions regarding absences. Without explicit policy statements, it would be difficult for faculty to prove or students to know that a violation of the class attendance policy has occurred.

Faculty and student perceptions of the need for a makeup policy incorporated into class syllabi and the makeup policy structure were the focus of the third research question. Respondents were asked about the need for the makeup policy to treat all students fairly, to mirror the rigor and level of the course taught (lower- or upper-level undergraduate or graduate), and to be consistent with the type of educational institution (community college, state university, commuter college, or residence college). Table 2 contains the faculty and student means.

As illustrated by the means in Table 2, professors and students agree that makeup policies should treat all students fairly and that it makes a difference in allowing

TABLE 2
MAKEUP POLICIES

	Mean	
Makeup Policy	**Professor (n = 217)**	**Student (n = 88)**
Makeup work policies should be set up to treat all students fairly.	4.4	4.2
It should make a difference whether the instructor will allow makeup work if the student tells the instructor about the missed work ahead of time.	4.2	4.3
A classroom policy which allows missed work to be made up creates more work for the instructor.	4.0	3.1
It is important to allow makeup work on a case-by-case basis.	3.9	3.9
It is very important for instructors to explicitly list in the syllabus which work can be made up and which cannot.	3.9	4.2
The strictness of the course makeup policy is a reflection of the leniency of the professor.	3.3	3.6
The strictness of the course makeup policy is a reflection of the leniency of the university.	3.1	3.0
Makeup work policies should differ for undergraduate- and graduate-level courses.	3.1	3.0
A lenient makeup work policy is more appropriate for a community college than a state university.	3.0	1.8
A lenient makeup work policy is more appropriate for a commuter college than a residence college.	2.9	1.6
The strictness of the course makeup policy is a reflection on the rigor of the class.	2.9	3.3
Makeup work policies should differ for lower- and upper-level undergraduate courses.	2.6	2.9

1 = Strongly disagree; 5 = Strongly agree

makeup work if the professor is given prior notice of the missed work. However, the issue of fairness was more important to professors than students. Perhaps professors realize that nondiscriminatory policies must be in place in order to avoid the problems created when students contest makeup work. Due to the nature of the job, professors also agree that allowing missed work to be made up creates more work for them, whereas students neither agree nor disagree with the statement.

Students, more strongly than professors, agreed that it is very important for the syllabus to contain explicit language concerning which work can be made up and which cannot. While professors may prefer more flexibility in determining the status of makeup work, it is difficult to enforce a policy that does not contain specifics. Further, students strongly disagreed that lenient makeup work policies were more appropriate for a community college than a state university or for a commuter college rather than a residence college. For the two statements, professors' feelings were not as strong as those of the students. While professors disagreed, students neither agreed nor disagreed that the course makeup policy is a reflection of the rigor of the class. Further, professors more strongly disagreed that policies should differ between lower- and upper-level undergraduate courses.

Two areas of concern are the lack of strong agreement about allowing makeup work on a case-by-case basis and lack of strong agreement that the course syllabus should explicitly list which work can be made up. Professors appear to want to handle makeup work in an informal fashion rather than by formal policy, whereas students appear to desire more structure. Although professors indicate the desire to afford all students fair treatment, the lack of formal policy may lead to discriminatory behavior toward some students.

The manner in which professors administer excused absence policies in comparison to student perceptions of how absence policies should be administered was the topic of question four. Professor and student responses were examined by level of missed activity as well as by excuse for missed classwork, and the results are presented in Table 3. For each level of missed activity (assignment, quiz, or exam), professors were most likely to accept the excuses of military drill or active duty or death in the family. However according to the students, death in the family, deaths of a close friend, and family emergency were the excuses that professors should most likely accept regardless of the missed class work. Given the age of the students, many have not experienced and may not be familiar with the issue of military service. Similarly due to the students' ages, they may have experienced and be more sensitive to the issues of death of a close friend or a family emergency such as the illness of a parent or grandparent.

Regardless of the level of missed activity, the three excuses that professors were most likely to reject were overslept, a heavy course load on that day, and vacation. Correspondingly, overslept and heavy course load were the excuses that students felt professors should most likely reject. Since many students must work to pay for their education, it is interesting to note the high likelihood for professors to reject the excuses of part- or full-time job (45.5 to 62.5%). In comparison only 34.1 to 50.6 percent of the students felt that the employment excuses should be rejected. Students appeared to indicate that professors should be more lenient when considering the excuses of part- or full-time job. Considering the cost of a college education and the increase in the number of older, non-traditional students, professors may need to be more flexible with employed students and more sensitive to their economic issues.

The increase in the number of older, non-traditional students may mean that more students have children. Even though professors ranked the excuses of child care emergency and sick child near the top of accepted excuses for all three types of missed class work, approximately 20 percent indicated that they would reject the two excuses if students missed a quiz. Further when missing an assignment, approximately 10 percent of professors would reject the child care emergency and sick child excuses. Conversely, regardless of the missed activity, less than 5 percent of students felt that professors should reject the excuses involving children. The discrepancy in faculty and student views of the acceptability of child care emergency excuses may be due to the fact that such excuses may be difficult to prove or document. Faculty may be unwilling to accept undocumented excuses whereas students may be more empathetic because they personally have experienced or may know other students who have experienced a child care emergency. Due to the unexpected nature of childcare and sick child emergencies, professors must take into account that students cannot provide prior notice of such absences. Therefore, professors must recognize that disregarding the importance of childcare may discriminate against students with families and in particular female students with children.

Professors tended to be more lenient with students participating in university athletics. Regardless of the missed activity, participation in a university athletic event ranked high on the list of excuses accepted by professors. Although over 15 percent of professors indicated that they would reject the excuse for missing an assignment or quiz, athletic participation ranked much higher as an accepted excuse than did part- or full-time employment. Similarly, professors indicated that participation in a university athletic event was a more acceptable excuse for missing a quiz than having a sick child. Furthermore, for assignments, quizzes, and exams, professors indicated that they were more likely to assign a penalty for childcare emergency or sick child than participation in a university athletic event.

On the other hand, students responded that professors

TABLE 3
EXCUSE ACCEPTANCE BY LEVEL OF MISSED ACTIVITY RANKED BY PROFESSOR ACCEPTANCE

	Response (%)							
	Professor (n = 217)				Student (n = 88)			
Missed Activity/Excuse	**Accept**	**Accept with Proof**	**Accept with Penalty**	**Reject**	**Accept**	**Accept with Proof**	**Accept with Penalty**	**Reject**
Assignment:								
Military drill or active duty	51.2	39.0	5.2	4.7	45.5	43.2	4.5	6.8
Death in family	50.2	35.8	8.4	5.6	66.7	31.0	2.3	0.0
Childcare emergency	41.9	26.0	20.9	11.2	48.9	32.9	14.8	3.4
Sick child	41.6	30.4	18.2	9.8	47.1	34.5	13.8	4.6
Family emergency	41.3	32.4	16.9	9.4	54.6	37.5	6.8	1.1
Death of close friend	41.1	33.6	14.5	10.8	63.6	29.6	5.7	1.1
Participation in University athletic event	37.1	39.0	8.4	15.5	29.6	59.1	4.5	6.8
Personally sick	32.6	41.9	16.3	9.3	38.6	48.9	11.4	1.1
Car trouble	30.4	28.0	20.1	21.5	36.4	26.1	31.8	5.7
Interview	26.6	29.4	15.9	28.0	17.0	45.5	19.3	18.2
Event required for another Class	18.7	30.8	19.2	31.3	13.6	58.0	10.2	18.2
Full-time job	11.7	13.1	26.6	48.6	13.6	25.0	26.1	35.2
Part-time job	11.3	11.3	24.1	53.3	9.3	16.3	24.4	50.0
Overslept	7.9	0.9	26.1	65.1	5.7	0.0	26.1	68.2
Heavy course load on that Day	5.1	3.3	23.4	68.2	5.7	7.9	28.4	58.0
Vacation	4.7	1.9	21.6	71.8	4.5	18.2	27.3	50.0
Quiz:								
Military drill or active duty	51.2	40.2	3.3	5.3	46.6	47.7	2.3	3.4
Death in family	46.9	33.2	6.2	13.7	66.7	31.0	1.1	1.1
Childcare emergency	38.9	25.1	14.2	21.8	47.7	33.0	17.0	2.3
Participation in University athletic event	38.1	38.6	6.7	16.7	29.6	59.1	4.5	6.8
Death of close friend	37.6	31.4	10.0	21.0	63.6	30.7	4.6	1.1
Family emergency	37.3	30.1	11.5	21.1	54.5	36.4	5.7	3.4
Sick child	36.7	31.9	11.9	19.5	43.7	39.1	12.6	4.6
Personally sick	28.4	40.3	10.0	21.3	37.5	52.3	6.8	3.4
Interview	26.1	31.8	9.9	32.2	15.9	48.9	18.2	17.0
Car trouble	24.5	27.4	15.6	32.5	35.2	28.4	29.6	6.8
Event required for another Class	17.1	34.1	11.4	37.4	13.6	59.1	10.2	17.1
Full-time job	14.8	12.4	13.8	59.0	17.0	25.0	23.9	34.1
Part-time job	12.0	13.0	12.5	62.5	10.3	23.0	16.1	50.6
Overslept	7.1	0.5	12.3	80.2	6.8	0.0	19.3	73.9
Vacation	3.8	1.9	10.4	84.0	3.4	19.3	26.1	51.1
Heavy course load on that Day	3.8	2.8	14.7	78.7	3.4	4.5	29.6	62.5

TABLE 3 (CONTINUED)

	Response (%)							
	Professor (n = 217)				Student (n = 88)			
Missed activity/Excuse	**Accept**	**Accept with Proof**	**Accept with Penalty**	**Reject**	**Accept**	**Accept with Proof**	**Accept with Penalty**	**Reject**
Exam:								
Death in family	50.5	40.6	7.1	1.9	64.4	32.2	3.4	0.0
Military drill or active duty	50.2	44.1	4.7	1.0	43.2	48.9	3.4	4.5
Childcare emergency	46.2	31.6	17.5	4.7	46.6	31.8	20.5	1.1
Family emergency	43.8	40.0	13.3	2.9	52.3	38.6	9.1	0.0
Sick child	43.4	38.2	14.1	4.3	42.5	41.4	12.6	3.5
Death of close friend	42.6	40.3	11.4	5.7	61.4	32.9	5.7	0.0
Participation in University athletic event	40.3	45.0	8.1	6.6	30.7	60.2	4.6	4.5
Personally sick	35.8	50.5	9.9	3.8	33.0	53.4	12.5	1.1
Car trouble	28.9	39.8	18.0	13.3	36.4	30.7	31.8	1.1
Interview	27.5	40.8	13.7	18.0	14.8	46.6	19.3	19.3
Event required for another Class	20.7	39.2	13.7	26.4	13.6	58.0	11.4	17.0
Part-time job	16.2	21.4	15.2	47.1	12.8	19.8	24.4	43.0
Full-time job	16.0	23.0	15.5	45.5	15.9	26.1	22.7	35.2
Overslept	10.9	2.8	25.1	61.1	5.7	0.0	31.8	62.5
Vacation	7.6	6.6	16.6	69.2	3.4	22.7	28.4	45.5
Heavy course load on that Day	5.2	7.6	17.9	69.3	2.3	12.5	25.0	60.2

should be much less accepting of athletics as an excuse for missing any type of class work. Regardless of the missed work, students felt that professors should be more willing to accept childcare and sick child emergencies than university athletics as an excuse. However, students indicated that professors should be more willing to accept the excuse of university athletic participation than the excuses of part- or full-time employment.

Normally, athletes are compensated for their participation by the university, and thus athletic participation could be considered student employment. Professors indicate an approximate 15 percent rejection rate for class work missed by student athletes. In contrast, professors indicate a much higher rejection rate (45.5 to 62.5%) for class work missed by students with part- and full-time employment. Similarly, professors indicate that they are more likely to assess penalties for missed work to students with child-related issues than to students who participate in university athletics. Student opinions concur with the professorial findings that students with child care emergencies or sick children should be assessed penalties for missed class work more so than student athletes. It appears that both professors and students felt that the consideration granted to university athletes should not be extended to students with families.

Perhaps the apparent discriminatory treatment of university athletes versus employed students or students with families involves the nature of the excuses for missed class work. Makeup policies that require prior notification may be well suited to student athletes with planned athletic schedules. However, prior notification policies may not be appropriate for students with emergency child-related issues or students with outside employment who may be sent out of town on a last-minute business trip (for example). Although professors and students agree that makeup work policies should be designed to treat all students fairly, the manner in which professors administer makeup policies and how students want the policies administered may not afford equal treatment to all students.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Students and faculty are sometimes in conflict regarding the value of student attendance. Even faculty opinions differ on attendance policies, with some faculty

having strict attendance standards and limited flexibility regarding "excused absences" and "makeup" work to some faculty who offer extreme leniency for similar circumstances. Given the range of faculty opinions, the findings of this research comparing student and faculty perceptions of absenteeism, excuses, and makeup work are not too surprising. In fact, one might argue that the extremes of faculty policies pertaining to absenteeism might exacerbate the student-faculty debate. However, regardless of the range of opinions, it seems obvious that issues associated with absenteeism, excuses, and makeup work can have deleterious results for the university, the faculty, and the students. Consequently, a comparison of faculty and student attitudes regarding these issues may provide valuable insights to both faculty and administrators as they attempt to cope with these issues.

The findings of this research indicate that while some consistencies exist between student and faculty opinions, inconsistencies also exist. These inconsistencies may require greater focus by faculty and administration to minimize the undesirable outcomes that can occur as a result of faculty attendance and makeup policies. For example, one of the findings indicates that both faculty and students are only moderately aware of the university's absenteeism policy. It seems that greater communication is needed by the university's administrators to insure that faculty are aware of the university's policies. Greater faculty awareness may lead to greater student awareness, as faculty share information regarding university policies. Such an outcome would satisfy one of the student/faculty disagreements pertaining to the students' desires for a recap of the university's attendance policies.

While increasing awareness of the university's attendance policies seems possible with improved communications efforts by administrators and faculty members, some issues seem to be more challenging to resolve. For example, the findings indicate that students want greater specificity regarding the definition of an excused absence, the maximum number of absences allowed, and provisions for "dropped" assignments. It may be challenging for faculty to meet these desires. Why? While the answers to this question are beyond the scope of this research, one could assume that greater specificity with regard to these issues could be perceived as potentially leading to negative consequences for faculty. For example, many faculty members may believe that students should attend "all" classes, complete "all" assignments (punctually), and that "all" activities should count (no drops). However, being reasonable, they may accept certain excuses on a case-by-case basis. While one might challenge the fairness of such a policy, most faculty members may feel that they can recognize "valid" from "invalid" excuses and make adjustments as necessary.

Explicitly defining standards may result in a loss of flexibility for the faculty member, and this corresponding loss of flexibility could have negative effects on students. As faculty members set very exacting and demanding standards with limited flexibility, the students may discover that the "easygoing" faculty they experienced earlier have become "by-the-books" teachers who allow no deviations from established codes. Further, faculty may not wish to explicitly define standards, because students may respond in a manner that is not in the student's best interest. The maximum number of "excused" absences may become the standard, as students use their "free days" (just as a slacker at work might use all of his/her sick days). Additionally, the ability to "drop" assignments might lead to lower levels of learning as students decide "not to learn" segments for an upcoming exam. Finally, faculty members know that absent students and make-up assignments create more work for the faculty member. In fact, most faculty members have been asked to repeat segments of materials discussed in class for an absent student. Even a simple make-up exam separates the student from the rest of the class, often calls for a different exam, different grading process, and a different recording process. Thus, from the faculty member's perspective, absenteeism may have a multiplier effect on negative outcomes for both the student and the faculty member.

It seems that both groups reject the notion that strictness in terms of attendance policies is reflective of professorial leniency or course rigor. Correspondingly, neither group feels that policies should differ based on the type of educational institution (university vs. community college; residence vs. commuter) or the level of the course. The findings may lead to the conclusion that attendance policies are largely independent of extraneous factors and should not be used to interpret the institution's quality or the professor's rigor.

However, it may be noted that while certain variations exist with regard to the definition of an acceptable excuse, in general, both groups agree on the "most" versus "least" acceptable excuses. Thus, while students are more lenient in general with regard to the definition of an acceptable excuse, it seems that the rankings of "acceptability" are largely parallel. Perhaps the degree to which certain excuses are acceptable is based on the degree to which the students' challenges are preplanned, controllable, and verifiable. For example, the fact that many faculty members will not accept the "sick child" excuse may be based on the fact that it is extremely challenging to "prove" that one has a "sick child." Conversely, the military service excuse (in addition to being patriotic) is largely uncontrollable, unplanned, and verifiable. Similarly, one's family member's death is uncontrollable, unplanned, and verifiable (as well as one that generates sympathy). Other differences may be explained by the degree to which students feel personal empathy regarding a fellow student's excuse. Perhaps the students have worked in groups with other students who have had challenges attributable to death, family emergencies, car trouble, etc. On the other hand, the lack of empathy may

also explain the reason why faculty are more likely to accept excuses pertaining to university athletic events, interviews, military exercises, and events required in other classes.

These factors may help explain the differences that exist between the acceptability of work-related excuses and athletic-related excuses. One might have the attitude that when a student enrolls in a class that he/she knows the work schedule and how it relates to the class schedule. Thus, the faculty member may feel that one's work schedule is controllable and planned, and excuses are not deemed necessary. However, the student-athlete's schedule is uncontrollable, unplanned, and verifiable to the professor. In addition, the student-athlete is representing the university in a university-sanctioned activity. The fact that students are "less accepting" of the athlete's excuse may be partially attributed to the fact that most students are not athletes, but most are employed. Thus, in their self-interest, the employment excuse is more acceptable.

LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study represents an initial evaluation of faculty and student attitudes regarding what may be described as potentially contentious and damaging issues: attendance and make-up policies in the classroom. However, certain limitations should be recognized. The primary limitation concerns the sample. As stated in the study, the sample was drawn from one large Midwestern public university. Thus, the study's conclusions are limited in the degree to which they may be generalized. Additionally, the study asks both professors and students for the opinions regarding absenteeism and make-up policies. This does not necessarily reflect actions that have actually been taken with regard to absenteeism and make-up assignments.

To address these limitations research might first be expanded to include other types and locations of universities. For example, universities in other geographic regions may have different attitudes entirely on absenteeism and make-up work that reflects the region's subculture. Additionally, smaller or larger public universities may differ in their attitudes toward these subjects. Similarly, private institutions may provide different attitudes with regard to student absenteeism and make-up policies. Another avenue for future research might address questions to students regarding excuses that have worked with faculty in various circumstances. Students may also provide information regarding the validity of the excuses that they have provided and the degree to which both valid and invalid excuses have been effective. These responses could then be compared with faculty responses to assess the degree to which the faculty is being accurate in their proclamations regarding acceptable and unacceptable excuses.

Nevertheless, regardless of the limitations and avenues taken in future research, this study provides information that may be valuable to academicians and administrators alike as they attempt to assess their future actions regarding student absenteeism and make-up policies. Thus, while faculty and administrators both seek fairness and want the best for the students and the university, it should be recognized that different attitudes exist. This recognition may lead to some level of conciliation and development of policies that are workable for all parties in the equation.

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APPENDIX
UNIVERSITY ATTENDANCE POLICY

Because class attendance and course grade are demonstrably and positively related, the University expects students to attend *all* class sessions of courses in which they are enrolled. Each instructor has the *responsibility* to determine specific attendance policies for each course taught, including the role that attendance plays in calculation of final grades and the extent to which work missed due to non-attendance can be made up. On the *first day of class*, each instructor will make available to each student a written statement of the specific attendance policy for that class. The University encourages instructors not to make attendance a disproportionately weighted component of the final grade. The University expects instructors to be reasonable in accommodating students whose absence from class resulted from: (1) participation in University-sanctioned activities and programs; (2) personal illness; or (3) family and/or other compelling circumstances. Instructors have the right to request documentation verifying the basis of any absences resulting from the above factors. Any student who believes that his or her final grade for a course has been reduced unfairly because of attendance factors has the right to appeal that grade under the process outlined below.

CONFIDENTIAL SURVEY
Student Excuses for Missed Classwork

Please take a moment to answer the following questions regarding student excuses for missed classwork. There will be no attempt to track individual responses. Your opinions are appreciated and will be kept anonymous. Upon completion, please use the enclosed envelope to return the survey to us via campus mail by November 2, 2001. Thanks in advance for your cooperation.

(Please ignore the numbers alongside the answers. They are only to help us in data processing.)

1. On a scale of 1 to 3, 1 being not at all aware and 3 being extremely aware, to what extent are you aware of the University policy on excused absences? (Check the box with the description that best meets your awareness level.)

Not at all aware	**Somewhat aware**	**Very aware**
☐-1	☐-2	☐-3

2. Which of the following components are included in your class attendance policy? (Check all that apply.)

Recap of the university attendance policy ..... ☐-1
Maximum number of allowable absences ..... ☐-2
Ability to drop a test score or other scores ..... ☐-3
Differentiation between "excused" or "unexcused" absences . ☐-4
Provisions for makeup assignments or exams ..... ☐-5

Consider each of the following student excuses for classwork missed. Select for each situation whether you would *accept the excuse* (i.e., allow all missed work to be made up without condition), *reject the excuse* (allow no makeup), *accept, but require proof of the excuse* (e.g., death certificate, etc.), *accept the excuse with a penalty* (i.e., allow makeup work that is either lower in point value or requires a greater degree of work, like an essay exam). (Check only one response that best fits your action for each excuse scenario.)

3. Missed *quiz* due to full-time job ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
4. Missed *assignment* due to full-time job ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
5. Missed *exam* due to full-time job ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

6. Missed *quiz* due to part-time job ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
7. Missed *assignment* due to part-time job ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
8. Missed *exam* due to part-time job ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

9. Missed *quiz* due to military drill or active duty ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
10. Missed *assignment* due to military drill or active duty ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
11. Missed *exam* due to military drill or active duty ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

12. Missed *quiz* due to overslept ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
13. Missed *assignment* due to overslept ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
14. Missed *exam* due to overslept ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

CONFIDENTIAL SURVEY (CONTINUED)

15. Missed *quiz* due to on vacation ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
16. Missed *assignment* due to on vacation ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
17. Missed *exam* due to on vacation ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

18. Missed *quiz* due to personally sick ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
19. Missed *assignment* due to personally sick ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
20. Missed *exam* due to personally sick ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

21. Missed *quiz* due to sick child ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
22. Missed *assignment* due to sick child ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
23. Missed *exam* due to sick child ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

24. Missed *quiz* due to death in family ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
25. Missed *assignment* due to death in family ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
26. Missed *exam* due to death in family ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

27. Missed *quiz* due to death of close friend ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
28. Missed *assignment* due to death of close friend ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
29. Missed *exam* due to death of close friend ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

30. Missed *quiz* due to family emergency ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
31. Missed *assignment* due to family emergency ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
32. Missed *exam* due to family emergency ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

33. Missed *quiz* due to childcare emergency ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
34. Missed *assignment* due to childcare emergency ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
35. Missed *exam* due to childcare emergency ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

36. Missed *quiz* due to participation in University athletic event ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
37. Missed *assignment* due to participation in University athletic event ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
38. Missed *exam* due to participation in University athletic event ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

39. Missed *quiz* due to event required for another class ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
40. Missed *assignment* due to event required for another class ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
41. Missed *exam* due to event required for another class ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
42. Missed *quiz* due to heavy course load on that day ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
43. Missed *assignment* due to heavy course load on that day ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
44. Missed *exam* due to heavy course load on that day ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

45. Missed *quiz* due to interview ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

CONFIDENTIAL SURVEY (CONTINUED)

46. Missed *assignment* due to interview ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
47. Missed *exam* due to interview ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
48. Missed *quiz* due to car trouble ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
49. Missed *assignment* due to car trouble ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
50. Missed *exam* due to car trouble ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

Please answer the following questions on a scale of 1 to 5, 1 being strongly disagree and 5 being strongly agree. (Check the box with the description that best matches your level of agreement.)

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
51. I believe a classroom policy which allows missed work to be made up creates more work for me.	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
52. A lenient makeup work policy is more appropriate for a community college than a state university.	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
53. A lenient makeup work policy is more appropriate for a commuter college than a residence college	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
54. The strictness of the course makeup policy is a reflection on the rigor of the class	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
55. The strictness of the course makeup policy is a reflection on the leniency of the professor	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
56. The strictness of the course makeup policy is a reflection on the image of the university	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
57. Makeup work policies should differ for undergraduate- and graduate-level courses	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
58. Makeup work policies should differ for lower- and upper-level undergraduate courses	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
59. My makeup work policy is set up to treat all students fairly	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
60. I believe it is important to allow makeup work on a case-by-case basis	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
61. I believe it is very important to explicitly list in my syllabus which work can be made up and which cannot	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
62. It makes a difference whether I will allow makeup work if the student tells me *before* the wor is missed	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5

Please provide the following information about yourself. (Check the box that best applies.)

63. Your College ..... Arts & Letters ☐-1 ..... Business Administration ☐-2 ..... Education ☐-3 ..... Health & Human Services ☐-4 ..... Humanities & Public Affairs ☐-5 ..... Natural & Applied Sciences ☐-6
64. Years Teaching Experience ..... 0-2 years ☐-1 ..... 3-5 years ..... ☐-2 ..... 6-8 years ☐-3 ..... 8+ years ☐-4
65. Your Sex ..... M ☐-1 ..... F ☐-2
66. Your Age ..... under 35 ☐-1 ..... 36-45 ☐-2 .... 46-55 ..... ☐-3 ..... 56-65 ☐-4 ..... 65+ ☐-5
67. Grade Level You Teach . Primarily Fresh. and Soph. ☐-1 ..... Primarily Jr. and Sr. ☐-2 ..... Primarily Graduate ☐-3 ..... Teach all levels equally ☐-4
68. Your Position ..... Instructor ☐-1 ..... Assistant Professor ☐-2 Associate Professor ☐-3 ..... Full Professor ☐-4

Thank you for your cooperation!

CONFIDENTIAL STUDENT SURVEY
Student Excuses for Missed Classwork

Please take a moment to answer the following questions regarding student excuses for missed classwork. There will be no attempt to track individual responses. Your opinions are appreciated and will be kept anonymous. Upon completion, please insert the survey into the enclosed envelope and return it to your instructor for this class period.

(Please ignore the numbers alongside the answers. They are only to help us in data processing.)

1. On a scale of 1 to 3, 1 being not at all aware and 3 being extremely aware, to what extent are you aware of the University policy on excused absences? (Check the box with the description that best meets your awareness level.)

Not at all aware **Somewhat aware** **Very aware**

☐-1 ..... ☐-2 ..... ☐-3

2. Which of the following components are typically included in the class attendance policies your instructors provide? (Check all that apply.)

Recap of the university attendance policy ..... ☐-1
Maximum number of allowable absences ..... ☐-2
Ability to drop a test score or other scores ..... ☐-3
Differentiation between "excused" or "unexcused" absences ☐-4
Provisions for makeup assignments or exams ..... ☐-5

Consider each of the following excuses for classwork missed. Select for each situation whether you think the instructor should *accept the excuse* (i.e., allow all missed work to be made up without condition), *reject the excuse* (allow no makeup), *accept, but require proof of the excuse* (e.g., death certificate, etc.), *accept the excuse with a penalty* (i.e., allow makeup work that is either lower in point value or requires a greater degree of work, like an essay exam). (Check only one response that best fits your expected reaction for each excuse scenario.)

3. Missed *quiz* due to full-time job ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 .... accept with penalty ☐-4
4. Missed *assignment* due to full-time job ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 .... accept with penalty ☐-4
5. Missed *exam* due to full-time job ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 .... accept with penalty ☐-4

6. Missed *quiz* due to part-time job ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 .... accept with penalty ☐-4
7. Missed *assignment* due to part-time job ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 .... accept with penalty ☐-4
8. Missed *exam* due to part-time job ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 .... accept with penalty ☐-4

9. Missed *quiz* due to military drill or active duty ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 .... accept with penalty ☐-4
10. Missed *assignment* due to military drill or active duty ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 .... accept with penalty ☐-4
11. Missed *exam* due to military drill or active duty ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 .... accept with penalty ☐-4

12. Missed *quiz* due to overslept ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 .... accept with penalty ☐-4
13. Missed *assignment* due to overslept ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 .... accept with penalty ☐-4
14. Missed *exam* due to overslept ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 .... accept with penalty ☐-4

CONFIDENTIAL STUDENT SURVEY

15. Missed *quiz* due to on vacation ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
16. Missed *assignment* due to on vacation ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
17. Missed *exam* due to on vacation ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

18. Missed *quiz* due to personally sick ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
19. Missed *assignment* due to personally sick ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
20. Missed *exam* due to personally sick ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

21. Missed *quiz* due to sick child ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
22. Missed *assignment* due to sick child ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
23. Missed *exam* due to sick child ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

24. Missed *quiz* due to death in family ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
25. Missed *assignment* due to death in family ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
26. Missed *exam* due to death in family ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

27. Missed *quiz* due to death of close friend ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
28. Missed *assignment* due to death of close friend ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
29. Missed *exam* due to death of close friend ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

30. Missed *quiz* due to family emergency ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
31. Missed *assignment* due to family emergency ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
32. Missed *exam* due to family emergency ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
33. Missed *quiz* due to childcare emergency ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
34. Missed *assignment* due to childcare emergency ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
35. Missed *exam* due to childcare emergency ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

36. Missed *quiz* due to participation in University athletic event ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
37. Missed *assignment* due to participation in University athletic event ... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
38. Missed *exam* due to participation in University athletic event ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

39. Missed *quiz* due to event required for another class ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
40. Missed *assignment* due to event required for another class ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
41. Missed *exam* due to event required for another class ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

42. Missed *quiz* due to heavy course load on that day ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
43. Missed *assignment* due to heavy course load on that day ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
44. Missed *exam* due to heavy course load on that day ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 .... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

CONFIDENTIAL STUDENT SURVEY

45. Missed *quiz* due to interview ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
46. Missed *assignment* due to interview ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
47. Missed *exam* due to interview ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

48. Missed *quiz* due to car trouble ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
49. Missed *assignment* due to car trouble ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4
50. Missed *exam* due to car trouble ..... accept ☐-1 ..... reject ☐-2 ..... accept with proof ☐-3 ..... accept with penalty ☐-4

Please answer the following questions on a scale of 1 to 5, 1 being strongly disagree and 5 being strongly agree. (Check the box with the description that best matches your level of agreement.)

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neither agree Nor Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
51. I believe a classroom policy which allows missed work to be made up creates more work for my instructor.	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
52. A lenient makeup work policy is more appropriate for a community college than a state university.	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
53. A lenient makeup work policy is more appropriate for a commuter college than a residence college	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
54. The strictness of the course makeup policy is a reflection on the rigor of the class	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
55. The strictness of the course makeup policy is a reflection on the leniency of the professor	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
56. The strictness of the course makeup policy is a reflection on the image of the university	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
57. Makeup work policies should differ for undergraduate- and graduate-level courses	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
58. Makeup work policies should differ for lower- and upper-level undergraduate courses	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
59. Makeup work policies should be set up to treat all students fairly	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
60. I believe it is important for makeup work to be allowed on a case-by-case basis	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
61. I believe it is very important for instructors to explicitly list in the syllabus which work can be made up and which cannot	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5
62. It should make a difference whether the instructor will allow makeup work if I tell them about the missed work *ahead of time*	☐-1	☐-2	☐-3	☐-4	☐-5

Please provide the following information about yourself. (Check the box that best applies.)

63. Your College ..... Arts & Letters ☐-1 ..... Business Administration ☐-2 ..... Education ☐-3 ..... Health & Human Services ☐-4

..... Humanities & Public Affairs ☐-5 . Natural & Applied Sciences ¡%-6

64. Your Grade Level ..... Freshman ☐-1 ..... Sophomore ☐-2 ..... Junior ☐-3 ..... Senior ☐-4 ..... Graduate ☐-5

65. Your Sex ..... M ☐-1 ..... F ☐-2

66. Your Age ..... under 18 ☐-1 ..... 18-20 ☐-2 ..... 22-24 ☐-3 ..... 25+ ☐-4

Thank you for your cooperation!