

# CULTURAL LITERACY AND THE TEACHING OF MARKETING

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## INTRODUCTION

Marketing educators are expected to have competence and proficiency not only over their discipline, but also over a broad array of knowledge that impacts on and interfaces with marketing theory and practice. Prominent among these areas is culture, which forms an integral part of the social context within which marketing practitioners operate. The role of culture has been explicitly recognized in several areas of Marketing – witness the recognition of cultural influences on consumers, salespeople, and international marketing programs, to name a few. Marketing textbooks describe the influences of culture on various marketing variables, and professors seek to develop an appreciation of these influences among their students. However, the extent to which educators and students have an actual knowledge and understanding of the underlying culture cannot be taken for granted. The objective of this paper is to introduce the concept of *Cultural Literacy* into the conversation of Marketing education and its enhancement.

## CULTURAL LITERACY: WHAT IS IT?

The term *cultural literacy* came into vogue through the efforts of Hirsch (1987) who brought to the attention of educators and parents the need for developing among students knowledge of a range of subjects that he considered essential to citizenship and participant in society. While propagating the recognition for cultural literacy, Hirsch (1987, 1988) offered an inventory of knowledge that he believed “every American should know.” However, critics of Hirsch affirm that the inventory overly favors a classical orientation to cultural knowledge and discounts the need for and value of proficiency in the

contemporary and popular culture. Regardless of this debate, it can be stated that there does exist a body of knowledge on culture – arising out of both a classical understanding and a contemporary appreciation – that is essential for the prospective marketing practitioner. This body of knowledge would vary over time and location of the participants in the discourse.

## THE ROLE OF CULTURAL LITERACY IN THE TEACHING OF MARKETING

Besides the influence of culture on marketing variables, another reason cultural literacy is important is that it directly affects the effectiveness of the marketing educator in the classroom. A high degree of cultural literacy on the part of the marketing educator would enable not only the imparting of some of this literacy to the students, but would also help in the building of rapport with students, enable an affirmation of their cultural experiences, and thereby improve teacher effectiveness. While building a high level of cultural literacy in terms of both classical and contemporary cultural content may require some effort on the part of the educator, it is desirable to identify the cultural literacy gaps, decide on a level of commitment and plan to overcome these gaps, and actively utilize one’s cultural literacy in the classroom.

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# TEACHING THE MARKETING COMMUNICATIONS COURSE: SOME CHALLENGES AND SUGGESTIONS

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The marketing communications course is often taken as an upper division undergraduate course or a graduate course by students specializing in marketing. A primary objective of this course is to expose students to the concept of Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC) and to get them to apply this concept by designing an advertising and promotion campaign. The purpose of this position paper is to identify some of the challenges associated with teaching this course and to offer suggestions to address them. These suggestions are based on my past experience in teaching the course, and they seem to have worked reasonably well, given the feedback received from students.

A first challenge is to find the proper balance between exposure to the principles and practice of marketing communications. The principles are covered by introducing formally the four components of the promotion mix (advertising, sales promotion, public relations, and personal selling) via a combination of lectures, class discussions, and videos. The practice is covered by asking students to develop a complete advertising-promotion campaign about a topic of their choice (after securing my approval) and by requiring them to make a critical evaluation of magazine advertisements (adfiles) using a number of suggested criteria. The choice of a topic for the campaign is finalized shortly before midsemester.

A second challenge is to make sure that students understand the critical importance of developing strong written and verbal communications skills if they are to become successful professionals. This is done by requiring students to write short papers (3 pages or more) dealing with

marketing communications issues found on the Internet. An example would be evaluating the effectiveness of a direct marketer's website, such as LL Bean. It is also accomplished by making it clear that all written assignments (i.e., the advertising-promotion campaign, the adfiles project, and the short papers) will be graded on both their form and content, form referring to the overall quality of the English language used and to the professional "look" of the final product. Additionally, students are expected to present their advertising-promotion campaign in front of the class and to engage in role playing (i.e., pretending to be executives from an advertising agency making a sales pitch to a potential client). This last requirement is designed to foster students' verbal communications skills.

A third challenge is to get students to realize that advertising and promotion activities can be costly and therefore must strive to achieve specific and measurable objectives. In this respect a careful distinction is made between creativity and effective creativity, and strong emphasis is placed on the paramount importance of systematically measuring the results of any advertising-promotion campaign. The importance of accountability, i.e., the ability to demonstrate to a client a clear link between advertising and promotion expenditures and predetermined and agreed upon objectives is emphasized as well.

It has been my experience that the suggestions summarized above seem to stimulate students' interest and thinking and to keep them actively involved.

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# RATS AND GRATS IN PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING: DOES ANY OF IT REALLY WORK?

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## SUMMARY

In Problem Based Learning testing is used as a learning and evaluation tool rather than exclusively as an evaluation tool. Problem-based learning (PBL) is a method of teaching and learning that challenges students to determine what they need to know and to be in control of their own learning processes. The instructor takes the role of a facilitator. Students “learn to learn” while working in teams to solve real world problems. PBL trains students to think critically and analytically, and to determine what resources they need to access.

Students are expected to read the material on their own and take the test before they work on the problem segments. To ensure that the students have read and understood the material, they individually take a quiz/test over the material called RAT, or Readiness Aptitude Test, and then immediately retake the same test with their assigned

team with the ability to discuss and work as a team as they answer the quiz questions. This second test is the GRAT, or Group Readiness Aptitude Test.

The question is whether these tests work as learning tools? The authors switched their classes to problem-based learning formats in efforts to improve the interaction between students and instructor, interaction from student to student, and most importantly, to help students in their critical thinking and decision making skills.

This paper presents empirical evidence that does support the contention that the readiness aptitude tests in both individual and group formats do operate as learning tools. Student performance on both individual and group tests was compared. The results showed that a significant improvement in test scores occurred on the group tests as compared to the individual tests.

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# STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF GUEST SPEAKERS IN MARKETING EDUCATION

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## ABSTRACT

Guest speakers can form a valuable real-world adjunct to classroom education in marketing, but student perceptions of specific speakers can vary widely. This paper examines factors in student perceptions of guest speakers, using quantitative factor ratings from a student survey, a content analysis of qualitative discussions of excellent and poor speaker experience, and differences across class year and major.

## INTRODUCTION

Guest speakers from industry have become an important part of the educational experience for marketing students, and supplement the pedagogical goals of marketing education with exposure to the real-world experience of successful practitioners. Given these objectives, marketing faculty may be inclined use criteria such as the speaker's industry, experience, or position to select classroom speakers. At the same time, student assessment of a good class speaker experience appears to revolve around quantifiable factors that often go far beyond the speaker's expertise. In this paper, we examine the factors that lead to how students perceive these guest speakers, as well as the variation of these factors with demographic factors such as class year and academic major, to help establish guidelines for selecting effective speakers.

It is clear from the literature that when effectively and correctly used, the inclusion of guest speakers as one pedagogical tool of an overall varied educational experience can enrich the overall learning experience of the students. The benefits of such guest speakers include enhanced student learning as well improved relations between university/academia and community/industry.

One important learning benefit derived from guest speakers is an enhancement of the educational experience as a result of giving students real world knowledge experiences, insights and perspectives for their particular fields and disciplines (Glenwick and Chabot 1991; Metrejean and Zarzeski 2001; Sniezak 2005). In particular, Glenwick and Chabot concluded that a course that emphasized and utilized a series of guest speakers was "successful in

enhancing understanding of clinical child psychology through bringing students to the real world and the real world to students." Metrejean and Zarzeski asserted that a panel comprised of accounting professionals representing a cross-section of the accounting field provided the benefit of bringing the "branches of the accounting professionals together where students can explore their similarities and differences and see how the related to the business cultures at large."

The learning environment can also be enhanced by providing guest speakers aimed at improving students' recognition and awareness of both cultural and gender diversity (Butler 1997; Murray and Bollinger 2001; Nourse 1995). Butler concluded that use of female guest speakers provided the students with the opportunity to interact with successful female professionals and role models, and further this opportunity to observe and interact with successful women business executives and leaders "helped to reduce the gender bias that seems to permeate the minds of male students in the management area." Nourse indicated that use of a guest speaker having experience in intercultural communication may be a means for integrating a multicultural communication topic within a business communication course, with the ultimate result being students having "an increased interest and awareness of the importance of multicultural communication skills."

Other scholars and academics have asserted that the use of guest speakers can function to promote an active learning environment (Robinson and Kakela 2006). Rather than utilizing a learning environment where students sit passively as their professor delivers information by lecture, a learning environment that does not promote engaged learning, Robinson and Kakela propose using guest speakers as an "active leaning" alternative using interactive approaches as a means to "demonstrate multiple ways of seeing and knowing" a particular field. As stated by Nourse (1995), the use of guest speakers can add variety and "spice" to the classroom while at the same time augmenting the other teaching tools such as lectures, while at least one scholar has suggested that "creativity in education," including the use of outside speakers (Fatt 2000), is important for the success of future educators.

An added benefit of guest speakers is the contribution to building important linkages between the academic and university setting and the community at large (Snieszak 2005; Wortmann 1992). As succinctly stated by Snieszak, “guest speakers are not only useful [in the classroom] but also help to build important ties between the university and the community.” The use of guest speakers in the classroom can also create, as well improve, the connection between academia and practitioners in industry (Glenwick and Chabot 1991; Metrejean and Zarzeski 2001). Creating and/or improving this academia/industry connection through the use of guest speakers can lead to networking opportunities for both professors and students alike, as well the opportunity for industry to potentially meet students that might fulfill employment needs.

The objective of this study was to understand what factors lead to student perceptions of guest speakers, which in turn influence their effectiveness as an educational experience. By understanding these factors, their variation among different types of students, and their evolution over the time span of a college education, instructors can more effectively evaluate and select appropriate guest speakers to enrich the learning experience in their classrooms.

## METHODOLOGY

A survey was distributed via electronic mail to over 300 students at a liberal arts college on the East Coast shortly after the end of the spring semester, designed to assess both quantitative and qualitative ratings of factors behind both excellent and poor guest speaker experiences, as well as capture demographic information about the respondents. A total of 80 responses were received. This survey was designed as follows:

### Demographic Information

The following questions were asked to classify the demographics of the respondents:

- ◆ What year did or do you expect to graduate from college?
- ◆ What is your major or specialization?

### Quantitative Factors

Students were asked to rate the following descriptions as Poor, Average, Good, or Excellent, to indicate how they felt about these descriptions towards their ability to learn from a guest speaker in the classroom:

1. Brings the field into the classroom.
2. Offers varying view points.
3. Relevance of cases/application stories to the subject matter.
4. Offers something different in the classroom.

5. Networking opportunities with an individual in the field.
6. Providing “insiders” view of the field.
7. Being “fun” and “engaging” presenter.
8. Offering excellent content.
9. Providing specific facts and statistics to the presentation.
10. Allowing “Q&A” session at the end of the presentation.

### Qualitative Factors

Students were also asked three questions designed to elicit quantitative responses about their experiences with guest speakers in the classroom. A content analysis was performed on these responses to identify response categories and trends.

- ◆ Please list any bad experiences you have had with a guest speaker in the classroom.
- ◆ What is your perception of characteristics of an EXCELLENT guest speaker?
- ◆ What is your perception of characteristics of a POOR guest speaker?

Class years surveyed ranged from entering freshmen (class of 2010) to recent graduates (class of 2005). All students surveyed, with the exception of the entering freshman class, had taken an entry-level class in the principles of marketing. Results from the survey questions listed above were coded as followed:

- ◆ Class year was coded by its four-digit year.
- ◆ Major and specialization values were grouped into one of the following overall categories: Business (including accounting, marketing, economics and management), Education (including childhood, elementary and general education), Social Science (including anthropology, psychology), and Liberal Arts and other areas (including English, history and theater, undeclared majors and others).
- ◆ Quantitative factors were tabulated as total counts of poor, average, good, and excellent ratings, across the total survey sample and by demographic group.
- ◆ Characteristics of “excellent” speakers were qualitatively grouped into one of the following categories, based on a content analysis:
  - Presentation aids: Uses visuals such as handouts or PowerPoint slides, well-prepared.
  - Motivational aids: Uses real-life examples, real-world stories, examples.
  - Positive platform skills: High energy, friendly, passionate, easy to understand, engaging.
  - Positive attitude: Talks “to” rather than “at” students, respectful.
  - Positive climate: Interested in being there, encourages student interaction, relates well.
- ◆ Characteristics of “poor” speakers and bad speaker

- Unprepared: Disorganized, did not have a focus or goal.
- Boring: Read from slides, lacked energy, enthusiasm, and passion.
- Negative platform skills: No eye contact, spoke too fast, was inaudible, spoke in a monotone.
- Negative attitude: Talks “at” rather than “to” students, arrogant and disrespectful, defensive, rigid.
- Negative climate: Seems uninterested, talks about themselves, doesn’t relate to students.

These quantitative and qualitative factors were compiled for all respondents as a group, and then correlated against student responses for class year and major to examine how these factors vary for specific student groups and preferences.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Student perceptions of guest speakers reflect a fundamental truth about their selection – that while content is important, and becomes more important for individual majors or as a student gets close to graduation, the ability of a speaker to relate to and interact effectively with students is a key factor in their overall ratings by students. Specific findings were as follows:

### Overall Student Perceptions of Guest Speakers

As an overall group, students valued factors that engaged and entertained them most highly. While content-related

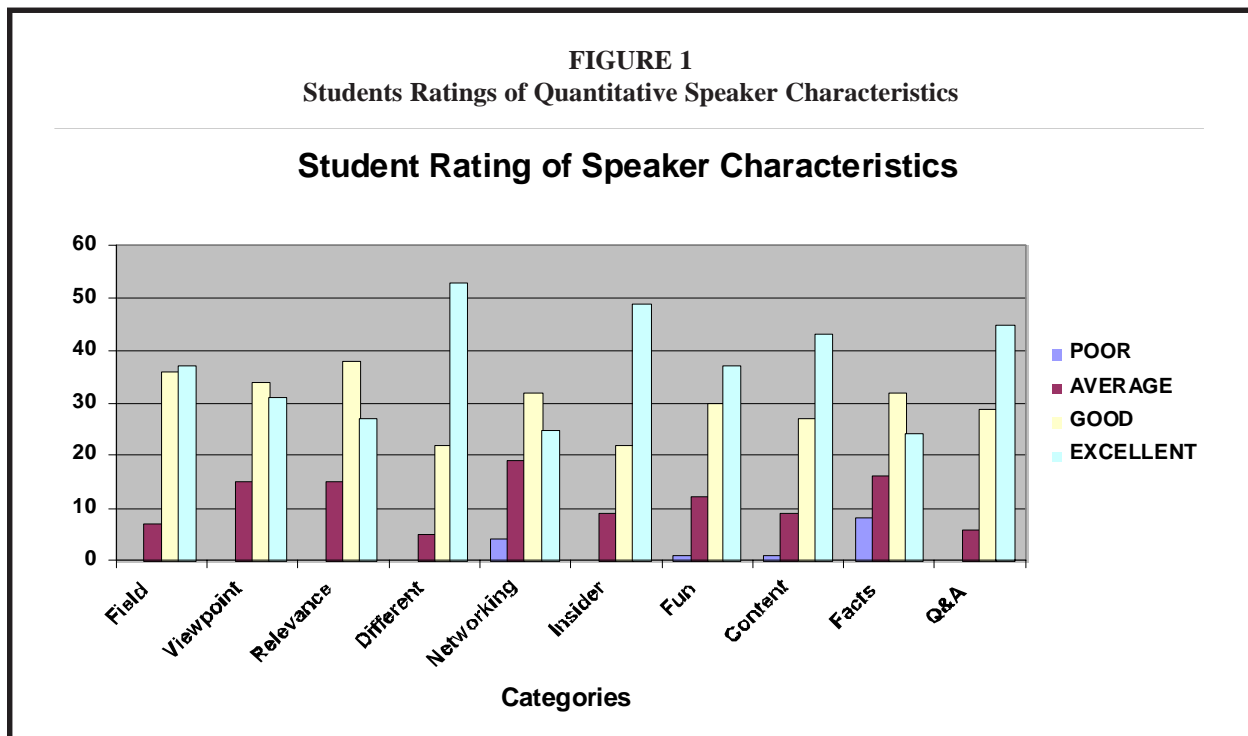
factors were likely to get ratings of “good” or above, two of the three highest levels of “excellent” ratings involved interaction-related factors, e.g., being different from the classroom experience, and allowing question and answer sessions. Figure 1 shows a distribution of these quantitative responses.

Figure 2 compares the distribution for two factors, providing specific facts and statistics versus being different from the classroom experience, highlighting the importance of these interaction-related factors. Furthermore, two key content-related factors, providing an insider’s view and providing specific facts and statistics, were the only factors rated “poor” by more than 1 percent of the respondents, at 5 percent and 8 percent respectively. This indicates that the student experience has a strong relationship with the presenter’s abilities to connect with students, versus expertise alone.

Among qualitative factors, a content analysis of the responses showed that platform skills and “climate,” e.g., the presenter’s ability to relate to students, rated most highly in evaluations of both poor and excellent class speakers. Details of these results are shown in Figure 3.

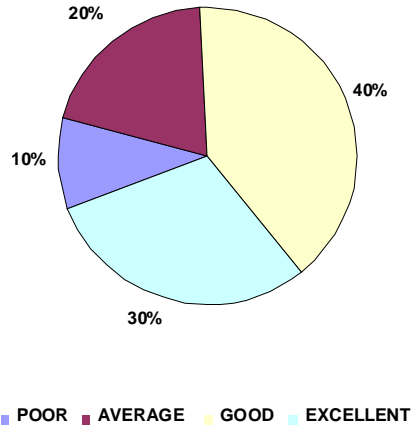
### Student Perceptions Versus Class Year

Analysis of qualitative factors by class year showed a clear bifurcation of results, as outlined for both positive and negative factors in Figure 4. In general entering freshmen, who have generally had no exposure to the college classrooms, tend to rate most factors relatively

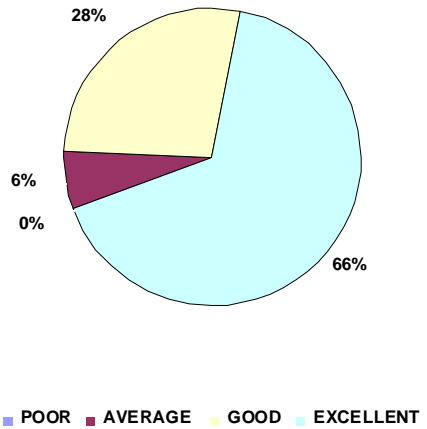


**FIGURE 2**  
**Breakdown of Rankings Between Two Factors, Providing Specific Facts and Statistics**  
**Versus Being Different from the Classroom Experience**

**Provide specific facts and statistics**

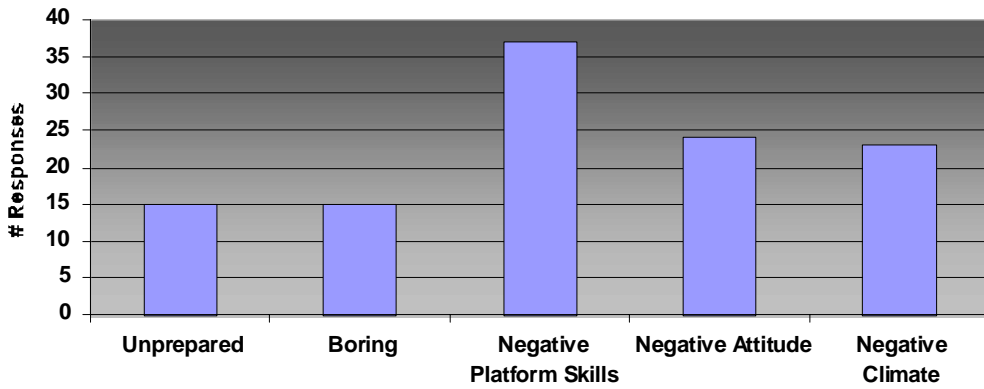


**Different from Classroom**

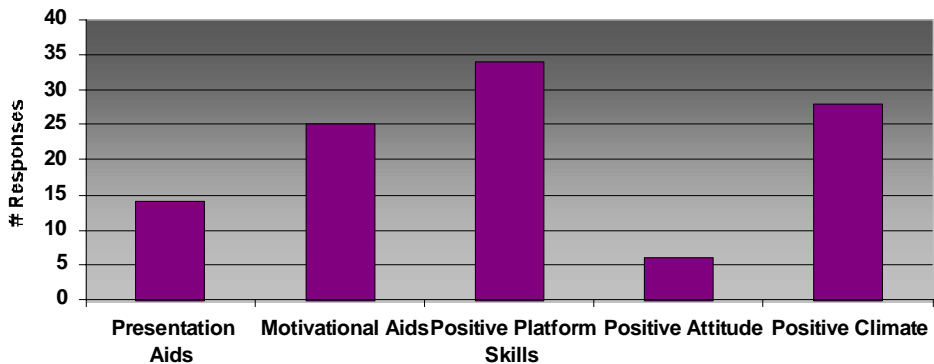


**FIGURE 3**  
**Overall Rankings of Negative and Positive Qualitative Factors**

**Top Negative Speaker Characteristics**



**Top Positive Speaker Characteristics**



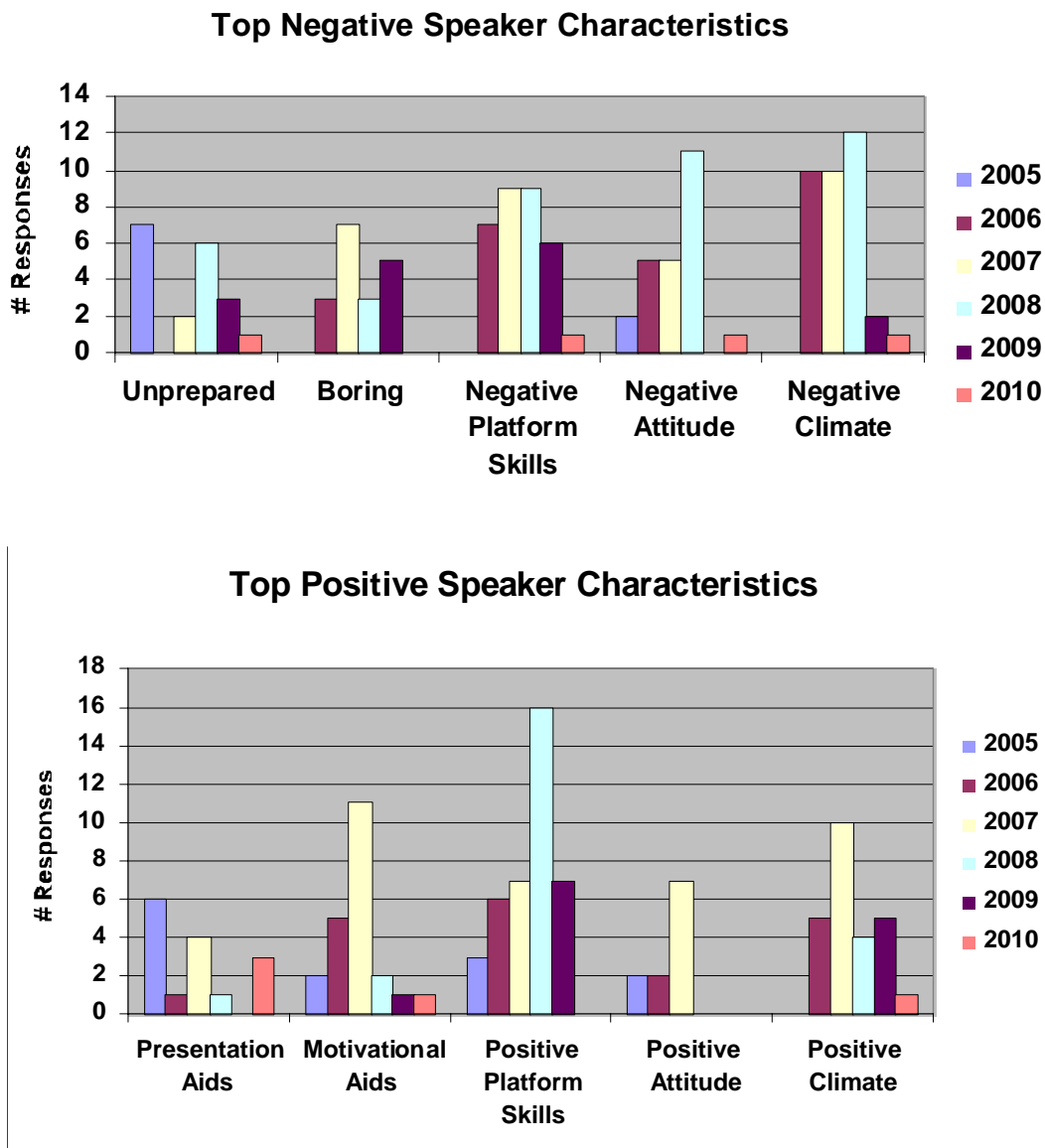
equally, while students just completing their sophomore year valued platform skills and climate issues most highly, and students who had recently graduated valued content-related factors more highly. This indicates that students who are closer to graduation evolve to become more concerned about what they will learn from a guest speaker presentation over time.

### Student Perceptions Versus Academic Major

Given that the survey sample was based largely on students who had taken an introductory marketing course, a majority of respondents selected business as an aca-

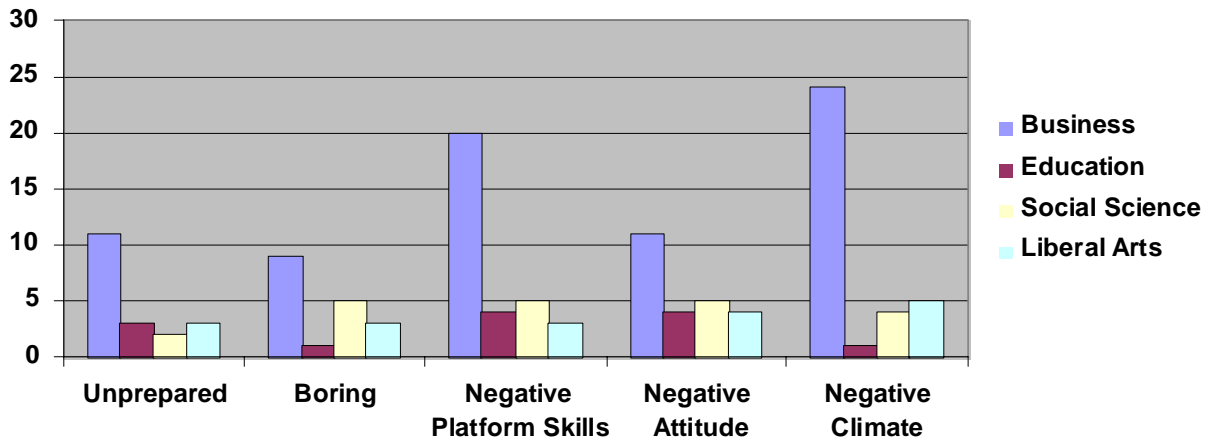
demically major. Among these students, speaker platform skills and classroom interaction (e.g., culture factors) ranked most highly for both positive and negative speaker characteristics. Within smaller sample sizes for education, social science and liberal arts students, negative factors were more uniformly ranked overall by these majors, while platform skills still represented the most highly-ranked factor among each of these groups. This underscores the importance of such platform skills for all groups, and a preference for greater interaction among business students that warrants future investigation with larger sample sizes of students from other academic majors.

**FIGURE 4**  
Rankings of Top Negative and Positive Characteristics by Class Year

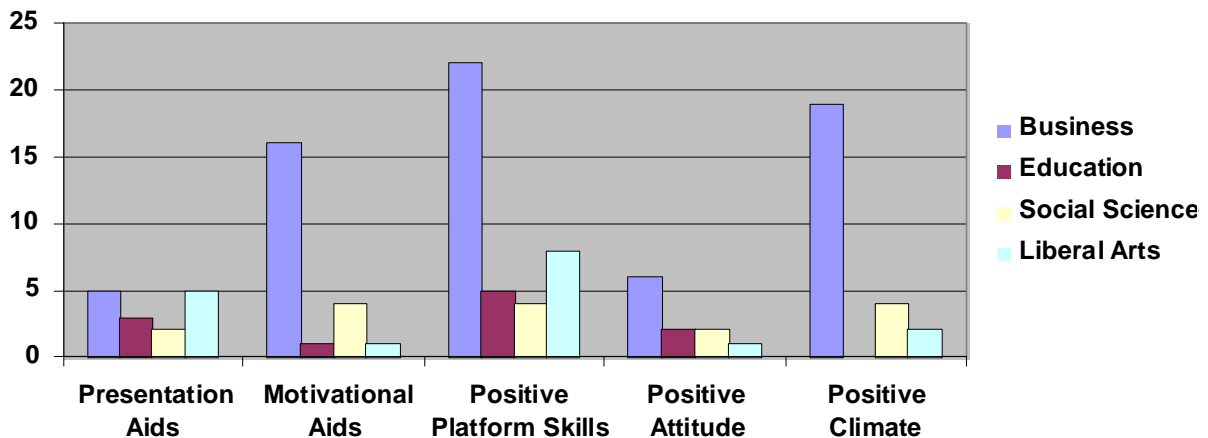


**FIGURE 5**  
**Rankings of Negative and Positive Speaker Characteristics by Academic Major**

### Negative speaker characteristics by major



### Positive speaker characteristics by major



#### SUMMARY

The results of this survey demonstrated that student perceptions of guest speakers hinge most critically around factors other than just content and subject matter – and in particular, around skills that involve building a connection with the student. Quantitative factors rated most highly include being “different” in a good way, providing inside information, and interacting with the students via questions and answers, while a content analysis of qualitative responses found that factors such as platform skills

and presentation climate weighed heavily in the perception of a poor versus excellent speaker. There is a clear trend over time for students to value platform skills and culture more highly at the mid-point of their college tenure, particularly among business students, while content-related factors are rated more highly following graduation. These results underscore the importance of assessing speaking skills and empathy with student audiences in selecting a guest speaker, as well as subject matter expertise.

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# FIRST CLASS ATTENDANCE AS A PREDICTOR OF CLASS PERFORMANCE

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## SUMMARY

Many variables have been examined as they relate to student performance in marketing courses. Among those variables examined in past published research can be found GPA, age, degree of teamwork in the class, teaching style/teacher interest, learning styles, performance expectations, previous marketing courses taken, business experience, gender, major, personality, and ethnic origin among others (see, for example, Bacon and Bean 2006; Clayson 2005; Faria 2000; Priluck 2004; Ledman 2006; Moorhead, Brenenstuhl, and Catalanello 1980; Young, Klemz, and Murphy 2003; Munday 1965).

Intuitively, as instructors, we generally accept that student class attendance affects course performance. A number of studies have reported on the relationship between attendance and course performance (see, for example, Hutchinson, Wellington, and Faria 2004; Gunn 2003; Brokaw and Merz 2000; Devadoss and Foltz 1996; Street 1995; Romer 1993; Vidler 1980). Gunn (2003) examined grade performance and student attendance across eight sections of an introductory course. Gunn (2003) reports a correlation of  $r = .66$  between attendance and course grade which is significant at the  $p < .01$  level. This is typical of the results reported with regard to overall class attendance. Only one previous study could be found examining first class attendance and course final grade. Buckalew, Daly and Coffield (1986) reported a correlation of  $r = .31$  between initial class attendance and final course grade in an introductory psychology class.

As no first class attendance studies for marketing courses could be found, the authors decided to examine first class attendance and course performance in an Introductory Marketing class. The study of 2013 marketing students across nine different semesters produced a correlation of  $r = .283$ . A more appropriate ANOVA comparison of performance grade percentages between first class attenders ( $n = 1465$ ) and non-attenders ( $n = 548$ ) produced the following results:

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	<u>Attenders</u>	<u>Non-Attenders</u>
Attendance Quiz*	74.7%	49.3%
Midterm 1*	68.6%	63.2%
Midterm 2*	68.3%	63.2%
Final Exam*	66.1%	59.8%
Assignments*	69.7%	63.0%
Simulation*	69.0%	59.0%
Final Grade*	69.5%	62.8%

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\* Significant at .000

The authors concluded that initial class attendance is a good predictor of overall class performance.

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# TECHNOLOGY USE INSIDE AND OUTSIDE OF THE CLASSROOM: A THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

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Technology use in the classroom has been championed as a one of the best ideas since Socrates developed his method for learning. Within the marketing education literature, scholarship is split, finding both advantages and limitations of using technology (Ferrell and Ferrell 2003). Also, much of the technology use discussion within marketing has focused on students bringing laptops to class (Clarke and Flaherty 2003; Elliott and Hall 2003) or integrating the internet into a course (Wood and Suter 2004; Priluck 2004), which limits the generalizability of our knowledge on course technology use. Thus, an important question remains unanswered: Does the location of technology use (i.e., inside versus outside of the classroom) affect its relationship with the perceived learning outcomes? Malhotra, Dixit, and Uslay (2003) call for research linking technology use with student-oriented outcomes.

This paper begins to answer Malhotra et al.'s (2003) call by examining (1) the factors that favor technology use in the classroom, and (2) the relationship between using technology in the classroom and the perceived learning from the perspective of the students. The paper also advances the discussion on whether attitude influences behavioral use of technology. To fill this gap, a behavioral decision model is proposed and tested. The model draws from and synthesizes the multiattribute and information technology literatures. The results of two studies are analyzed using path modeling in partial least squares regression analysis. Results are presented and discussed.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Clarke, Flaherty, and Mottner (2001) find a positive relationship between educationally related technology and learning outcomes. All of the technologies that are reviewed in their article are used exclusively outside of the classroom. Thus, the purpose of this study is to advance the literature by comparing the relationship between technologies, personal response systems (hereafter referred to as clickers) and blogs specifically, used

exclusively inside the classroom and outside of the classroom, respectively, with perceived learning outcomes.

To develop a model that links students' perceptions of technology use in the classroom and their perceptions of learning outcomes, a model built on the theory of reasoned of action is presented. The theory of reasoned action (Fishbein 1975) has been applied to various decision making situations. According to Taylor and Todd (1995), the technology acceptance model (hereafter TAM) serves as a "special case" of the theory of reasoned action, explaining a person's intention to use a particular technology. As such, it is less general than the theory of reasoned action because it only predicts a person's use of technology (Davis 1989). TAM is shown to be a serviceable model that could both explain and predict a person's intention to use a technology. Because of its ability to both explain and predict, TAM should be regarded as "at least a good theory" (Hunt 2002). Consistent with the literature on TAM (Davis 1989; Taylor and Todd 1995; Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, and Davis 2003), models and hypotheses were developed.

## METHODOLOGY

Two research studies were conducted to assess the hypotheses under differing scenarios, represented in the path models. Consistent with prior research on TAM (Mathieson 1991; Lim 2002; Taylor and Todd 1995), the sample domain for the studies consists of college students. Both studies use a questionnaire based on Venkatesh et al. (2003). Given the small sample sizes in the surveys, PLS is the more appropriate technique for path modeling because it can handle sample sizes of less than 200. PLS selects a path dependent model that explains the most variances with each path evaluated based on t-values. Based on the outer loadings, the t-values of the path, the average variance extracted and the r-square values, the models are good, but present interesting findings. Contrary to prior research on TAM (e.g., Davis 1989; Taylor and Todd 1995), behavioral intentions do not predict

behavioral use. Further, the path between behavioral use and learning outcomes is not statistically significant.

## DISCUSSION

While this study progresses the literature on technology use in educational settings, refinements and extensions could be made to our model on many fronts. First, the model should be applied to other technologies (e.g., discussion boards) to confirm and expand upon the preliminary findings in this paper. Second, the literature would also benefit from research that includes the role of motivation in the current model.

Although the findings of the research could be interpreted as bleak, or cast a weary eye on the use of technology as part of a course, another explanation could exist to justify the continued use of technology. Students could internalize the use of out of class technologies such as the blog. They could incorporate these technologies into their daily lives. The course blog becomes another blog to participate with by reading and posting comments. Thus, the student takes ownership of the blog rather than viewing the blog as a means to a learning end. This concept of ownership and participation is worth exploring.

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# EFFECTIVELY MANAGING STUDENT EXPECTATIONS

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The typical traditional college-aged student is around 20 years old. There was no email, instant messenger, cell phones or any number of other tools of technology when they were born yet they do not know a world without these conveniences. Tuition was dramatically less in both real and relative measures. And student expectations regarding their education were different as well.

Recognizing that the expectations that students have regarding their college education are changing is a necessary step for instructors being able to meet or at least manage these expectations. This presentation identifies some of the reasons that account for the common expectations held by current college students with regards to the classroom portion of their academic expectations. The focus of this presentation is a number of specific suggestions that may be incorporated by instructors seeking to deal with these expectations.

## IMPORTANCE OF MANAGING EXPECTATIONS

There are important reasons to be concerned with understanding and managing the expectations of the college students we instruct and advise. The obvious is to affect retention of existing students and the attraction of future students. The somewhat cynical, particularly those approaching a tenure or a promotion decision in their career, will add that of equal if not greater importance is managing the instructor and/or course evaluations completed by students.

## FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO STUDENTS' EXPECTATIONS

The current generation of students is often described as the "Millennial Generation." As a group many share some very significant experiences and traits. Four of these include:

1. Technology savvy. Over half of last year's entering students brought computers to college. They have never lived in a time where personal computers were not available to consumers. They have cell phones, text message, download music to their MP3 players, and instant message while they do their homework.

2. Children of Helicopter Parents. This generation of students has been scheduled and programmed by the intensely watchful eyes of their parents whose extraordinary watchfulness has earned the endearment "Helicopter Parents." High school teachers and coaches saw this coming with the increased degree of involvement parents began to have in the lives of their children. The college decision was likely a joint one with considerable parental participation and where expectations of the college experience have been significantly influenced by parents.
3. Social in an isolated sort of way. This group is an enigma with regards to its social behavior. They are perpetually in contact with their peers. Creating Facebook profiles are commonly one of the first priorities upon arriving on campus. Cell phones, email, instant messenger, and other means make communication a constant in the life of the student. Remarkably, none of these mechanisms require actually seeing another human being and only the cell phone involves real time communication. Adding to this paradox are the ubiquitous IPOD buds that lock a student into their own audio world when otherwise making their way through their world.
4. Sought after. Ask a college freshman how many pieces of direct mail solicitations they received during the college search and it is not uncommon that the response is "hundreds." Phone calls, emails, high school visits, and all of that mail revealed to the student how valuable they are.

This is neither intended to be a complete list nor one that is common to every student. The list does give valuable context to understanding exactly who these students are as a means to understanding their expectations as students.

## INSTRUCTOR AND CLASSROOM STRATEGIES

This presentation organizes strategies into five areas.

1. Behavioral Expectations. The best time and place to manage expectations is with a clear and detailed syllabus that extends beyond course schedule elements to specific behavioral standards that are expected of students. The policy on late papers as well

as being late to class. Do not assume that your perspective on the use of common sense with regards to eating in class or the use of IPOD's will be shared by your students. Spell out what behavior is acceptable.

2. **Assessment.** Students hyper-focus on grades. The elements that will determine the students' grade need to be clear as well as clear rubrics and other details of cases and examinations. Posting or distributing a typical exam from a previous semester can be a very effective means to communicate expectations. Similarly, posting the work of students (for example case work) after graded work has been returned can allow students to better understand their grade and work in the context of their peers.
3. **Availability.** Students expect access and were likely marketed to on the wonderful access they would have if they attend your college or university. Reasonable office hours are important but surprising students with unexpected opportunities for contact can be a powerful tool to manage relationships. Show up at the library the evening before an exam and wander around and ask students how things are going and if you can assist them. You may only contact 5 students but they will share this event with many peers.
4. **Communication.** Students can be puzzled that a 3:00am email has not received a response when they check again at 10:00. Define how you can best be communicated with and turnaround on messages. If you prefer using voice-mail or answer email every other day be clear on these preferences. With communication it can be helpful to define the protocol of these communications. If you prefer "Professor" over "Hey" make this clear.
5. **Treatment of students as individuals.** Nothing may have the impact on a student than greeting them by their first name when you encounter them out of class. In my classes I use note card sized sheets that

have student pictures from the online directory. I use these cards to randomly call on students, register attendance, and to help me quickly connect names to the proper student.

## CONCLUSION

Not every college student has realistic expectation or even clearly formed expectations. Still, there is both commonality among current students and the likelihood that expectations can be shaped and managed. If this is done successfully the experience of the college student will be less frustrating and more satisfying. Also, if this is done successfully the experience of the college *instructor* will be less frustrating and more satisfying. Ideally, this will translate into increased teaching efficacy and institutional retention.

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# PERILS AND PITFALLS IN USING WEBSURVEYOR AS AN ACTIVE LEARNING COMPONENT IN TEACHING RETAIL MANAGEMENT

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## EXCELLENCE IN TEACHING AND RESEARCH

Business schools throughout the country have been seeking endorsement by The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) by ensuring excellence in teaching, research, and service. The Wall College of Business at Coastal Carolina University has sought and is accredited by AACSB. Consequently, to maintain that accreditation, ways of improving teaching and research are constantly sought, especially those that provide opportunity to achieve excellence through active learning for students.

### A POSSIBLE PATH FORWARD

To move toward excellence in teaching and research, Coastal Carolina University sought participation in the Academic Grant program of WebSurveyor. This program allows colleges and universities to receive a renewable 2-year grant, with a commercial value of \$50,000, to use WebSurveyor software to support teaching and research efforts. WebSurveyor is an on-line survey research tool similar in scope and function to other web tools such as SurveyMonkey.

This approach to teaching is consistent with using active learning instructional methods to engage students in the learning process under the assumption that students remember only 10 percent of what they hear, but remember 90 percent of what they do. Active learning enables students to create a learning experience and begin to achieve the higher order learning objective of analysis and integration of content at a practical level (Anderson 1997). Consequently, WebSurveyor was integrated into four courses in the Wall College of Business including Principles of Marketing, Marketing Strategy, Retail Management, and Tourism research involving two non-profit organizations (Thrift Stores and the South Carolina Chapter of the Red Cross), the Chamber of Commerce of Myrtle Beach, and Class A PGA members in the Myrtle Beach area.

## AN EXAMPLE OF EMAIL SURVEY IMPLEMENTATION

The Class A PGA members survey provides an excellent example of the issues involved in email survey methodology as active learning using WebSurveyor. The issues involved include:

1. Making the questions easy to understand and answer.
2. Measuring the relevant concepts such as importance and performance.
3. Asking appropriate demographic questions.
4. Having a relevant email list.
5. Having a short and effective invitation.
6. Sending the email invitation at an effective time.
7. Using follow-ups as necessary.

Faculty handled items one through four above utilized WebSurveyor to create the survey instrument. The list came from the PGA and thus was relatively fresh and accurate. Items five, six, and seven were handled by the students after instruction from faculty.

## THE PERILS AND PITFALLS

Response rates are typically high for web surveys compared to other methodologies, with around 50 percent of responses coming within one day of emailing the invitations. The majority of responses come within four days. However, with a class of students involved, control over the survey process is not optimal. For example, it is best practice to send email invitations on Monday evening so they are received by the potential respondents Tuesday morning and do not remain unopened over a weekend. Also, it is important to have an inviting subject line that does not appear to be spam to encourage the respondent to open the invitation. Finally, if possible, it is helpful to have an endorsement from a relevant source to encourage cooperation. Not all of these best practices were implemented by all students participating in the survey fielding process.

There were 72 students in two Retail Management classes who participated in the PGA active learning web survey. Each student had a list of approximately 20 PGA members to contact through email. The first round of email invitations produced solicited responses from PGA Program. The second round of invitations included an endorsement letter from the Secretary of the Carolinas Section of the PGA. In addition a specific subject line was provided which said, "A Message From Karl Kimball, Secretary of the Carolinas Section of the PGA." Students were also required to copy the Retail Management professor on all outgoing emails to keep track of their efforts so they could receive course credit and so the PGA respondents could receive a summary of the results after the responses were analyzed.

In summary, using WebSurveyor in active learning requires faculty retaining control of the survey field process to ensure that email invitations are sent out in a timely fashion, have an appropriate and inviting subject line and include an endorsement by an appropriate source, and offer an incentive for participation in the form of a summary of the results (Goodman 2006). With the above issues managed by the faculty, broad use of WebSurveyor in active learning research projects in support of developing marketing strategies and tactics is recommended by implementing the following 10 guidelines to email survey implementation:

1. Indicate you have permission to use the respondent's email address to gain cooperation and prevent "opting-out" and insuring compliance with the Federal CAN-SPAM Act.
2. The "Subject" line should be inviting and suggest the value of reading the email.

3. The "From" line should indicate the organization or individual that is recognizable to the respondent.
4. If possible, test-run your email through a SPAM checker to see if it triggers filters.
5. Make sure your content is relevant to the respondent and not just you or your survey.
6. Include a "call to action" in the email to encourage participation and indicate what the value of participation includes.
7. Do not cram too much into your survey; if it takes more than five minutes to complete, early termination is likely.
8. Use common response formats to make participation easy.
9. Remember that permission is perishable and getting to the point is essential in the content of the invitation email and the survey itself.
10. Think win-win-win for the student, the respondent, and the faculty in designing the email survey from start to finish.

Following these 10 guidelines will ensure active learning for the student, reaching educational objectives for the faculty, and valuable participation for the respondents in the survey process and outcomes.

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# DEVELOPING WEB-BASED MODULES FOR TEACHING CUSTOMER SERVICE MANAGEMENT

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## SUMMARY

The service economy is growing and managers are needed to assume leadership roles in the service industry. For example, the retail industry is a key part of the service economy in the United States and has annual retail store sales exceeding 4.4 trillion with approximately 23 million people employed in retailing (<http://www.nrf.com>). Managers play an important role in how customer service is delivered. It is a manager's responsibility to educate employees about customer service and the company's philosophy of service delivery.

Web-based instructional materials designed for services management curricula are virtually nonexistent. Thus, the goal of this project was to develop web-based instructional modules to facilitate the integration of services management content into existing undergraduate courses. The web-based modules (a) allow students to use web-based instruction to gain service management competencies, (b) stimulate a higher level of critical thinking, and (c) integrate real-world problems into undergraduate curricula. The driving force behind the decision to focus on service management was that the United States is increasingly becoming a service-oriented economy.

A collaborative model was used to develop, evaluate, and disseminate the web-based instructional modules. Discussions with industry partners surfaced competencies needed for successful managers in the service industry. In addition, an extensive literature review identified concepts for inclusion in the modules. A list of core competencies was generated to guide module development. These competencies center on critical thinking skills, customer relationship management, the service environment, customer service and satisfaction, organization profitability, leadership, and training and development of people.

An integrated set of five web-based instructional modules was developed. The modules contain research-based and industry affirmed information on services management. Each web-based module includes an introduction and objectives, content related to each objective, resources related to the module topic and objectives, student activities and manager tasks based on industry problems, a pre- and posttest and an anonymous participant survey. Materials are designed so users can access the modules at any time. The modules provide students and faculty opportunities to practice and enhance problem-solving and critical thinking skills in the context of real-world problems and scenarios. Participants take an on-line test at the beginning of each module to determine their base level of module content knowledge. The Web-based instructional modules require approximately 4 to 8 hours of time to complete.

In addition to the modules, a student web site to facilitate interaction and provide an accessible location for the service management modules was developed. Also, a separate faculty web site was developed. This faculty site serves as a resource and guide for instructors with information on incorporating the modules into existing courses and answer keys for problem-based learning activities.

The evaluation plan included several stages of feedback from academic, industry experts and students. The evaluation criteria for the first objective, **develop services management instructional modules for Web-based delivery**, included input from academic and industry experts. This input was used in development of the instructional modules as well as faculty and student web sites. To assess the second objective, **evaluate acceptance and use of Web-based instructional modules**, the peer review system developed by the Multimedia Educational Resource for Learning and On line Teaching (MERLOT) was used. Faculty evaluated the instructional modules on quality of content, potential effective-

ness as a teaching tool and ease of use (MERLOT 2002). Student outcomes were evaluated through a survey assessing adoption of the web-based instructional modules and by pre-posttests of content knowledge. The Holistic Critical Thinking Scoring Rubric (Facione and Facione 1994) was used to assess student critical thinking. The summarized content of student and faculty evaluations provided suggestions for achieving objective 3, **revision of instructional modules**. To address objective 4, **dissemination of instructional modules**, institutions in Tennessee with undergraduate courses relevant to services management were contacted and invited to use the web-based modules. To achieve objective 5, **assess student and faculty outcomes**, faculty evaluated the relevance and content of the instructional modules as well as the faculty web site. In addition, faculty willingness to adopt the instructional modules into their existing courses was evaluated.

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The goal was to develop customer service management curriculum materials that could be easily adapted by other institutions. It is hoped that collaborative partnerships will emerge as the web-based modules are used by other universities for teaching, research, and service and by private businesses for professional development.

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# HOW TO GET MILLENNIALS TO CLASS

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## SUMMARY

In a perfect world all students thirst for knowledge and avidly seek opportunities to learn. In a perfect world the professor engages the minds of the students, taking them to new heights of cognitive development and knowledge. In a perfect world the students arrive for class early to grab the best seats. That is in the Perfect World. This article responds to the cry of the professor, facing the Millennials in the Real World, who ask, "How do I get the students to come to class?"

The Millennial generation, the children of the soccer mom, grew up with schedules crammed with organized activities. Born since 1982, they are connected to their PDA's and cell phones with text messaging. Technical interactivity is a given. The Millennials announce to the world who they are through blogs, Facebook, My Space, and Instant Messaging (AIM). They come to college with helicopter parents hovering and ready to advise, criticize or rescue them. Getting class in the must-do category in their crowded day planner challenges the most inventive professor.

The compensation plan for sales representatives provides a good metaphor for encouraging class attendance. The syllabus like the compensation plan defines the incentives for the student to attend class. Sales reps evaluate each task they are asked to perform against the incentives in the compensation plan. If tasks carry no bonus or commission, then the sales reps avoid them. Students behave in similar ways. If attendance in class does not directly impact their grade, students are less likely to come to class. Expectations explained clearly in the syllabus should be exactly what the professor wants the student to do. Like the sales manager who sometimes overlooks critical items in designing the compensation plan, professors may assume the students understand their policies without spelling them out. At the risk of speaking to an empty classroom, the professor should put some punch in the attendance policy. For the positive thinkers, reward attendance. For the less altruistic, punish cutting.

Punishing cutting class by lowering the students' grades for excessive cuts gets the students' attention. This tried and true method of increasing attendance sends the

Millennials, grumbling and complaining, to their planners writing in reminders to restrict the cuts in that class. This strategy may cause some resentment especially if the students find the class boring or tedious. Of course, they weather the class lectures by AIMing friends on their laptops or text messaging mom on their cell phones.

For those who want to avoid the appearance of cruel punishments for attendance they may provide more positive ways of putting punch in the attendance policy. One way is awarding points for class learning activities that can only be earned while in class. For instance, show a video in class requiring students to complete a worksheet while in class. Group project work during class time may provide some incentive for students to attend the class. If the absence of a group member is detrimental to the group's progress, the group could put some pressure on the shirker.

The content of the class, especially if it will be tested, is important to the student. Giving information in class that would be difficult for the student to get from another source gives the students a reason to attend class. However, if the smart Millennial can read the information in the book or get it from the handout of the PowerPoint slides, he does not need the inconvenience of physically being in the classroom. Some savvy professors do not provide all of the slides to the students outside of class. And the Millennial will email professors asking them to give him all of the information he missed in the class he cut.

Unannounced pop quizzes provide not only another way to evaluate how well the student understands the content of the class, but also an extra incentive for some students to come to the class. To operate as an effective incentive, the students would not be able to make up the quizzes if they missed class.

Most professors seek to get students to class by engaging them in the challenge of learning in the class. Providing a variety of activities keeps the students guessing as to what they will do in class each day. For instance, small groups discussing a case study allows the students to interact with one another. Working problems in class gets the students actively involved and interested in the content of the class.

Although punishment is an option for attracting Millennials to attend class, it is not enough to involve the students' in the class. Providing a variety of interesting and engaging

learning activities that contribute to the grade for the student enhances both the professor's and the students' experiences in the class.

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# TURNING CLASS INTO AN AGENCY EXPERIENCE: ATTENDANCE AND THE MARKETING RESEARCH CLASS

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## SUMMARY

The undergraduate Marketing Research class has a reputation for being difficult and boring. This class is usually a required course for undergraduate marketing majors. Most marketing curricula require undergraduates to complete one semester of marketing research in the latter part of their program.

The class is often taught in the senior year and almost always mandates that students demonstrate research skills through a project. Many faculty shy away from teaching this class because it often lacks the kind of “fun” one can have with so many of the other Marketing classes like Advertising, Consumer Behavior or International Business.

While the nature of this class makes it suitable for an excellent real life experience, a review of marketing programs at prominent business schools reveals that this type of experience is usually found in “practicum” classes or through internships. This paper proposes that an alternative is turning the upper-level, required course because with its consistency of enrollment, maturity of students and their advanced level of knowledge and skills in the field into a marketing research “agency.” Some call this service learning though that is not the only model.

Community assistance through universities is becoming increasingly popular in Business schools because of the many benefits these projects provide to both business and students. In the short term, the businesses involved receive assistance on projects important to them, at no cost, from young, energetic students eager to partner with them. But the rewards go beyond the initial arrangement.

Many recent authors have expounded on the long-term benefits to business. Tucker and McCarthy (1998) postulate that incorporating service learning into the business classroom reflects the increasing importance of community service to businesses in our society. Businesses that incorporate community service into corporate strategy and culture (Ben & Jerry’s, The Body Shop, Hewlett

Packard, Wal-Mart) will benefit from a potential work force that has experienced volunteerism, developed team skills, and has ventured outside the traditional classroom learning environment.

For students the benefits are clear. The more students are prepared for and know about business practices, the greater their competitive advantage will be in the workplace. Creating an active classroom, links classroom theory and real world practice – a need often cited in the Porter and McKibbin (1998) report to the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB). Reinforcing skills learned in the classroom improves students learning.

While most marketing research professors do require students to conduct research projects of some type, the transforming of this pivotal class into a student outreach program requires that a framework be established. This framework, if approved by the department, would identify this course as a service or outreach course, making it eligible for grants from organizations such as Campus Compact and Learn to Serve America. Virtually all AACSB accredited schools require Business Ethics or Business in Society courses as well as an upper-level research course. Any of these, run as an assistance program for the business community should qualify for some funding.

The key to making this work is the professor, on the first day of school, convincing the class that they have now entered a work environment. Their supervisor and co-workers will expect to see them and their real life project will necessitate them being there. One their team goes out to meet their client, this concept almost always takes hold. Class becomes the “office” where one meets and talks with colleagues. They get assistance from the on site supervisor and work along side other teams to provide a product on a timeline. Lectures become meetings or workshops. The real life project replaces the mundane term paper. The class takes on an internship flavor and students feel responsible for the outcome.

The end result is excellent attendance, a final project with actual market value, much needed assistance to local businesses and a great learning experience. Students will come to class if they see class as something special and different. When class becomes a team meeting, or a workshop to prepare for a project, students come to class.

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# A LIBRARY ASSIGNMENT YOU CAN CHECK OUT

*Lynda Duke, Illinois Wesleyan University*  
*Frederick B. Hoyt, Illinois Wesleyan University*

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In the Business Department at Illinois Wesleyan University, we do not have a class in research methodology. Hence, when students get into my strategy class, they are unprepared (in many cases) for the “big paper,” which requires research in business literature – in management, marketing, and finance.

Enter the librarian. We have a business librarian who has worked with – and frequently ahead of – me to help students learn how to use the library resources. See the attached assignment.

As they say at the front desk of the library, check it out!

## **INDUSTRY AND COMPANY ANALYSIS**

List the source(s) that will help you to answer the following questions. For many questions you should go to more than one source to answer the question in full.

1. Where will you find the most current mission statement for a company?
2. Where can you find a listing of the top managers of a company, how much money they make, and their bios?

For further information contact:  
Lynda Duke  
Illinois Wesleyan University  
1312 Park St.  
Bloomington, IL 61701

3. What print and online resources will help you to learn about the culture and history of a corporation?
4. How will you determine what strategic initiatives a company is pursuing?
5. What sources will you use to learn about recent events that may impact an industry or company?
6. How will you find out what trade journals are relevant to an industry? How will you locate the print or full-text versions of trade journals?
7. Where will you look to find out what others say about a company?
8. What source(s) will best tell you what markets the company is in and who its competitors are?
9. What are the three best sources for industry reports?
10. Where will you find financial information about a company?

## **PROCESS QUESTIONS**

1. What criteria will you use to evaluate the web sites and print sources that you use?
2. How do you avoid plagiarizing material?
3. What information do you need to collect in order to properly cite your work?

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# STUDENT PROJECTS AND MOTIVATION: LESSONS FROM THE FIELD

*Lori Lohman, Augsburg College*

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Professors are commonly urged to use student projects as a pedagogical tool. At conferences such as this one, many presenters have touted the benefits of such projects. Students supposedly become actively involved in their own learning, while clients get a supervised project for practically nothing. But this rosy scenario doesn't always work out the way the instructor intended it to. Group members go AWOL or disengage from the project, or do not do their fair share of the work (e.g., the "free rider" effect), and the quality of the project suffers. What, then, can keep students engaged in the task?

Literature on student motivation suggests that it comes from two sources. The first is extrinsic motivation (i.e., grades, public recognition, etc.). The second is intrinsic motivation, in which the student wants to learn the material for his/her own satisfaction, not for external rewards (Lowman 1990). Under this paradigm, using penalties for late submissions and attendance serve as extrinsic motivation, but do little to stimulate intrinsic motivation. Lowman recommended not using this approach, but being understanding about giving extensions, overlooking absences, etc. – in other words, building learning through intrinsic motivation to complete the task at hand. That's fine, as long as the students are indeed intrinsically motivated and not intimidated by the project. Some students, however, need the presence of an extrinsic motivator (i.e., point loss) to keep them from getting overwhelmed. For example, students in my Marketing Research class asked me to implement a point penalty for missing deadlines on the project, such as due dates for surveys, mailings, etc. It appears that even though they might be intrinsically motivated to complete the project, the newness of the task obfuscates their time management skills. And as D'Aloisio (2006) pointed out, students will be held accountable for meeting deadlines once they are employed.

Another potential attack on student motivation may come from how project groups are formed. Common teaching wisdom suggests that the professor should form student groups randomly. The logic here is that in the business world, students will have little to no control over whom

they work with, so they might as well learn how to work with strangers right from the beginning. For years, I have paid no attention to this adage, and allowed students to form their own groups without help from me. I have found this to be beneficial for a number of reasons. First, students who know each other generally also know each other's strengths and weaknesses. They know whether they can and are willing to compensate for each other. This allows them to spend more time on the work and less time on haranguing each other. Also, students often learn a valuable lesson: their friends or roommates may not make the best group members. Finally, if a student group doesn't work out, the instructor's liability is limited, since she/he did not assign the groups in the first place.

Who should the client be? Should the instructor assign the clients, or should student groups be involved in finding their own clients? Usually, I make students go out and find their own clients, but I keep a list of potential clients in reserve in case the students come up empty-handed. When students are responsible for finding their own clients, they may feel that more is at stake, since they are the ones who found the project. Usually one member of the group will have a connection with a prospective client company. Problems can arise when this member is more interested and vested in the project than the other members. All group members should be responsible for identifying at least one potential client; that way, the students can vote on the project that seems most viable and interesting to them. While this approach does not guarantee that all group members will be motivated by the project topic, it does ensure that each member gets to participate in the selection process. And if the professor assigns the client, none of the students may be interested in the project. This happened to me when one student group took on a project for a rural county historical society. The students' first unenthusiastic question was, "What's a historical society?"

Finally, the instructor's level of enthusiasm and contact with the students both in and outside of the classroom can also affect student motivation, according to Talbot (1997). In fact, Talbot noted that students tend to place more

importance on outside contacts with instructors than the instructors themselves do. Group projects allow students the perfect opportunity to interact with their teachers outside of the classroom setting.

The advantages of group projects are indisputable. D'Aloisio proposed that college provides students with the opportunity to develop competencies that will be required in the workplace: the ability to think critically, solve problems creatively, communicate competently in both writing and in oral presentations, and work with others effectively and sensitively. Projects do help students in developing these skills, but without motivators that the students value, whether extrinsic or intrinsic, these learning objectives will be undermined.

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# STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF CLASS PRESENTATIONS: DOES GENDER IMPACT THE EVALUATIONS?

*Musa Pinar, Valparaiso University*  
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## ABSTRACT

The gender effect on students' evaluations of students' presentations is investigated. The data were collected from junior and senior marketing students at two universities located in the Midwestern and eastern United States. The potential effects of the gender similarity between the presenter and evaluator on the evaluation scores are tested. Furthermore, the groups are compared between the two universities. Students were provided with an evaluation form to assess each presenter's presentation based on four attributes and assign a total score. A separate survey instrument was used to capture student perceptions of gender differences in various aspects of presentation quality. Findings indicate that female evaluators assessed female presenters with significantly higher scores than male presenters at one of the universities. However, no consistent patterns were found to allow the authors to conclude that peer evaluation cannot be relied on for grading.

## INTRODUCTION

Integrating peer assessment into a classroom setting is a useful practice by teachers to particularly increase interaction, participation, and interest in learning. First, students can learn from other presenters' strengths and weaknesses and develop better communication and presentation skills through observation. Second, students can develop skills to assess their peers' performances using objective measurement tools or rubrics. Third, students can gain knowledge from the research performed and presented by their peers. Despite the positive aspects of using peer assessment for grading, teachers must be concerned with relying solely on the peer assessment scores when grading student presentations. As the literature suggests, students are not exempt from introducing bias (i.e., gender bias, cognitive bias) into peer assessment. For example, the student presentation scores may be biased by gender similarity during the peer evaluations. In fact, Pinar and Hardin (2006) find that presenter's and/or evaluator's gender impacts the evalu-

ation of presentations. Although various factors (i.e., being on the same sports team, being from the same hometown, or from the same dormitory) may impact the peer evaluation scores, they are as common or dominant as the gender effect. Therefore, this study is important in that the authors investigate whether gender bias significantly affects peer evaluation scores.

Despite the fact that gender bias can be measured easily and accurately to test the differences in peer assessment of presentation scores, little research exists testing the potential effects of presenter and evaluator genders on presentation assessment scores and perceptions of the evaluators of the gender effect on the presentation scores. The majority of the relevant research focuses on understanding the gender bias in student evaluations of teachers (Centra and Gaubatz 2000) but not specifically gender bias in peer evaluations. Therefore, this paper contributes to the literature by exploring the potential effects of gender bias (gender match-mismatch) between the presenter and evaluator on the peer evaluation scores (scores that are assigned to the student presentations by other students in the class). Specifically, the study examines whether (1) male and female evaluators assign significantly different evaluation scores to male vs. female presenters, (2) male and female presenters receive different scores from male vs. female evaluators, (3) gender similarity (male-male and female-female) between evaluator and presenter makes a difference in the assigned scores, causing a gender bias effect, (4) there is any difference in gender bias between students from two universities, and (5) perceptions of the evaluators regarding the gender effect on the presentation scores significantly differ. The results from testing the study objectives may help teachers decide whether the student evaluations are subject to gender bias and should be used as part of assigning the overall student grade.

## BACKGROUND

Prior research has investigated the effects of gender similarity on various business decisions and outcomes.

For example, several studies examined gender bias during the employment interviews and attempted to differentiate the effects of gender similarity on recruiters' evaluations and hiring decisions. While some of these studies covered general employment interviews without considering any specific areas (Arvey and Faley 1988; Gallois, Callan, and Palmer 1993; Graves and Powell 1988, 1995; Powell 1987), other studies covered specific areas, such as accounting (Hardin, Reding, and Stocks 2002); banking (Fernandez and Weinberg 1997); academic hiring and tenure (Steinpreis, Anders, and Ritzke 1999); and restaurant hiring (Neumark, Bank, and Van Nort 1996). These studies produced mixed results concerning the effects of the similarity of applicant gender and recruiter gender on interview outcomes. For instance, while personnel managers considered same-gender applicants as more similar to themselves than opposite-gender applicants, gender similarity did not affect the ratings of likeability or suitability for the job (Gallois, Callan, and Palmer 1992). A study by Graves and Powell (1988) reported no significant effect of applicant gender on interview outcome, but the perceived similarity and interpersonal attraction were important factors in recruiters' decision processes. In another study, Graves and Powell (1995) found that female recruiters perceived male applicants as more similar to themselves and more qualified than female applicants. In addition, Hardin, Reding, and Stocks (2002) found that the gender of a hypothetical interviewee did not significantly influence the ratings assigned by recruiters, regardless of recruiter's gender. It appears that, as Graves and Powell (1995) stated, the effects of gender similarity on recruiting and interview outcome are inconsistent and complex.

Previous research (Crosby, Evans, and Cowles 1990; Smith 1998) suggests that gender similarity between sales persons and customers is positively related to the quality of the sales person/customer relationship and sales performance. Crosby, Evans, and Cowles (1990) found that same-gender relationships are associated with greater relationship investment, more open communication, and greater trust and satisfaction within relationships. These findings support conventional belief that exchange relationships are easier to develop with similar others (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1997), which suggests an existence of gender effect. However, a study by Dwyer, Orlando, and Shepherd (1998) found that female salespeople were just as effective as male salespeople, and gender similarity was not a significant factor in sales performance. In addressing the question of "Does difference matter," Jones, Moore, Stanaland, and Wyatt (1998) found that consumers appear to be more accepting of salespeople who are "dissimilar" to themselves, which contradicts some assertions in the popular press (Lucas 1996). They concluded that "gender difference" made no difference.

Three major theories provide a foundation for the studies in addressing gender similarity effect. These theories are the Similarity-Attraction Paradigm (Byrne 1971; Byrne and Neuman 1992; Graves and Powell 1995), Social Identity Theory (Tajfel 1982; Tajfel and Turner 1986) and Self-Categorization Theory (Turner 1982, 1985). The similarity-attraction paradigm suggests that individuals tend to be attracted to those similar to themselves (Byrne 1971). Similarity is the degree to which members of a group are alike in terms of personal characteristics or other attributes (Byrne and Neuman 1992; Smith 1998). Thus, similarity constitutes an important basis of interpersonal attraction and of social integration and cohesion (Baron and Pfeffer 1994). Byrne and Neuman (1992) state that gender similarity seems to have a very strong influence on perceived similarity and interpersonal attraction.

Social identity theory (Tajfel 1982; Tajfel and Turner 1986) advocates the belonging to a group creates a psychological state that confers social identity and a collective representation of self-identity and behavior, and that an individual's self-identity formation is partly a function of group membership. Social identity theory predicts that demographic similarity will have positive effects on performance by increasing interpersonal attraction and increasing cognitive biases (Linville and Jones 1980), which could lead to more open communication and decreased interpersonal tension. An important and integral aspect of social identity theory involves self-categorization. Self-Categorization theory (Turner 1982, 1985) specifies that individuals take socially defined categories into account when making evaluations about others, and that those characteristics similar to self would likely be regarded as positive and vice-versa. McNeilly and Russ (2000) point out that since age and gender are observable and accessible demographic characteristics, they are used for self-categorization. This aspect of self-categorization theory indicates that social categories such as gender, age, and race (Messick and Mackie 1989), can cause one to perceive oneself as similar to other members of a category or group and triggers stereotyping of the out-group.

These theories could provide a foundation to explain the effects of gender similarity on evaluations of student presentations. Figure 1 presents a framework to investigate the potential effects of gender similarity between presenter and evaluator on the scores assigned to the presentations. According to the Similarity-Attraction Paradigm (Byrne 1971; Byrne and Neuman 1992; Graves and Powell 1995), Social Identity Theory (Tajfel 1982; Tajfel and Turner 1986), and Self-Categorization Theory (Turner 1982, 1985), there could be a significant gender effect (or bias) on the evaluation scores. These theories suggest that presenters would be more likely to receive

higher scores by the same gender evaluators (gender matched presenter-evaluator) than by the different gender evaluators (gender mismatched presenter-evaluator). Specifically, based on the theoretical background and the framework in Figure 1, the following hypotheses are developed.

**H<sub>1</sub>:** It is expected that (a) male evaluators will assign higher presentation scores to male presenters, (b) female evaluators will assign higher presentation scores to female presenters, and (c) male and female evaluators will assign lower scores to opposite-gender presenters.

## METHODOLOGY

Senior and junior undergraduate marketing and management students at two major universities participated in the assessment of the presentations of their peers. The data were collected through two instruments: (1) a presentation evaluation form (rubric) and (2) a survey to measure the perceptions of presentation performance by each gender. In the first stage, each student was required to prepare a 7-to-10 minute presentation of an analysis of current business news article from a major newspaper (i.e., *Wall Street Journal*) or business magazine (i.e., *Business Week*) as a part of the class assignment. A total

**FIGURE 1**  
**GENDER EFFECT ON PRESENTATION EVALUATION SCORES**

		Evaluator Gender	
		Male	Female
Presenter Gender	Male	<b>Gender Match:</b> Gender Similarity	<b>Gender Mismatch:</b> Gender Dissimilarity
	Female	<b>Gender Mismatch:</b> Gender Dissimilarity	<b>Gender Match:</b> Gender Similarity

of 20 points could be assigned by an evaluator to each presentation based on the four presentation attributes adopted from Pinar and Hardin (2006). Those attributes are: (1) quality of the article content (max. 6 pts.); (2) relevance to the course material (max. 5 pts.); (3) content of the presentation (max. 5 pts.), and (4) quality of presentation (max. 4 pts.). Non-presenting students assigned scores to each of the four attributes and calculate the overall score by summing up the four score on the presentation evaluation form (rubric). The total scores assigned to each presenter by each evaluator were used to test the potential effect of presenter gender and evaluator gender on the presentation assessments. The presenters' and evaluators' genders were captured from students' names on the evaluation forms at the time of the data entry. To increase the learning experience, and interest in the presentation topics, students were also asked to list on the evaluation form three important things they learned from each of the presentations. In order to avoid introducing external bias by the teachers (researchers), the purpose of the study was not revealed to the students until all presentations were completed and all data were collected.

A total of 87 students (33 Males and 54 females) in the Midwestern university and 51 students (25 males and 26 females) in the eastern university participated in the study, which provided a total of 138 participants (58 males and 90 females) in the study. Because each presenter was assessed by multiple non-presenters, a sufficiently large number of observations (N) were obtained for analysis between the groups in two universities (Tables 1 and 2).

The second data collection method was a survey instrument that was adapted from Hardin, Reding, and Stocks (2002) and Pinar, Hardin, Eser, and Rogers (2005) and improved to measure the student perceptions of the gender effect on a number of variables pursuant to presentation quality and scores. Those variables included students' perceptions of which gender had (1) better quality articles, (2) more relevance of the articles to the course material, (3) better quality of presentation content, (4) better overall quality presentation, (5) best quality presentation, and (6) higher presentation grades.

A semantic differential type of scale was used ranging from -5 (definitely males) to 5 (definitely females), between which a score of 0 (zero) was being equally likely. However, the survey instrument did not display the negative signs to avoid any potential confusion or cognitive bias due to a negative number. Because of its relevancy to the study, gender was the only demographic question that was asked.

### ANALYSIS

The main objective of this paper is to investigate whether students' evaluations of students' presentations are affected by the gender of the evaluator or presenter. To achieve the research objective, three types of relationships were tested: (1) impact of evaluator gender and presenter gender on student presentation scores; (2) matched-mismatched gender interaction effects on pre-

sentation scores, and (3) evaluator perceptions of gender differences in presentation performance.

### Impact of Evaluator Gender and Presenter Gender on Student Presentation Scores

The independent samples t-test was used in SPSS to investigate if the presenter gender or evaluator gender had any impact on the presentation evaluation scores. More specifically, the results of the t-tests answer the following questions: Given the presenter is a male or female, do the presentation scores significantly differ by the evaluator's gender? (Table 1). Given the evaluator is a male or female, do the presentation scores significantly differ by the presenter's gender? (Table 2). Given the presenter and evaluator is a male or female, is the gender effect on the scores the same across two universities in the Midwestern and eastern United States? (Table 1 and 2).

<b>TABLE 1</b>							
<b>Impact of Evaluator Gender on Student Presentation Scores</b>							
<b>All Classes</b>	<b>Male Evaluator</b>			<b>Female Evaluator</b>			
<b>Presenter Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Male Presenter	1646	18.44	1.67	2457	18.45	1.66	0.796
Female Presenter	965	18.42	1.70	1407	18.48	1.60	0.398
# of students: 138							
<b>Midwestern University</b>	<b>Male Evaluator</b>			<b>Female Evaluator</b>			
<b>Presenter Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Male Presenter	330	18.48	1.39	641	18.36	1.59	0.220
Female Presenter	588	18.31	1.62	1010	18.36	1.56	0.536
# of students: 87							
<b>Eastern University</b>	<b>Male Evaluator</b>			<b>Female Evaluator</b>			
<b>Presenter Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Male Presenter	327	18.40	1.87	383	18.52	1.93	0.396
Female Presenter	377	18.60	1.81	397	18.79	1.67	0.128
# of students: 51							

**TABLE 2**  
**Impact of Presenter Gender on Student Presentation Scores**

<b>All Classes</b>							
	<b>Male Presenter</b>			<b>Female Presenter</b>			
<b>Evaluator Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Male Evaluator	657	18.44	1.65	965	18.42	0.822	0.82
Female Evaluator	1024	18.42	1.72	1407	18.48	1.60	0.38
# of students: 138							
<b>Midwestern University</b>							
	<b>Male Presenter</b>			<b>Female Presenter</b>			
<b>Evaluator Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St.Dev.</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Male Evaluator	330	18.48	1.39	588	18.31	1.62	0.09
Female Evaluator	641	18.36	1.59	1010	18.36	1.56	1.00
# of students: 87							
<b>Eastern University</b>							
	<b>Male Presenter</b>			<b>Female Presenter</b>			
<b>Evaluator Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>St. Dev.</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Male Evaluator	327	18.40	1.87	377	18.60	1.81	0.154
Female Evaluator	383	<b>18.52</b>	1.93	397	<b>18.79</b>	1.67	<b>0.038</b>
# of students: 51							

### Matched-Mismatched Gender Interaction Effects on Presentation Scores

To test the alternative hypothesis, the interaction effects of presenter gender and evaluator gender (match or mismatch gender effect) on the presentation evaluation scores, a one-way univariate analysis of variance was performed (Table 3 and Figure 2). Hence, four gender groups (grouping variables) were created in order to compare the presentation evaluation scores among gender match and mismatch groups. The groups were coded in the following fashion: male presenter-male evaluator = 1, male presenter-female evaluator = 2, female presenter-male evaluator = 3, and female presenter-female evaluator = 4.

### Evaluator Perceptions of Gender Differences in Presentation Performance

To further test the alternative hypothesis to see if there are consistent patterns of gender effect (bias) on the evaluator perceptions of various aspects of presentation quality performed by male and female presenters, a one-sample t-test (with the test value = 0) was performed. The presentation quality aspects tested included: (1) better quality articles; (2) more relevance of the articles to the course material; (3) better quality of presentation content; (4) better overall quality presentation; (5) best quality presentation, and (6) higher presentation grades.

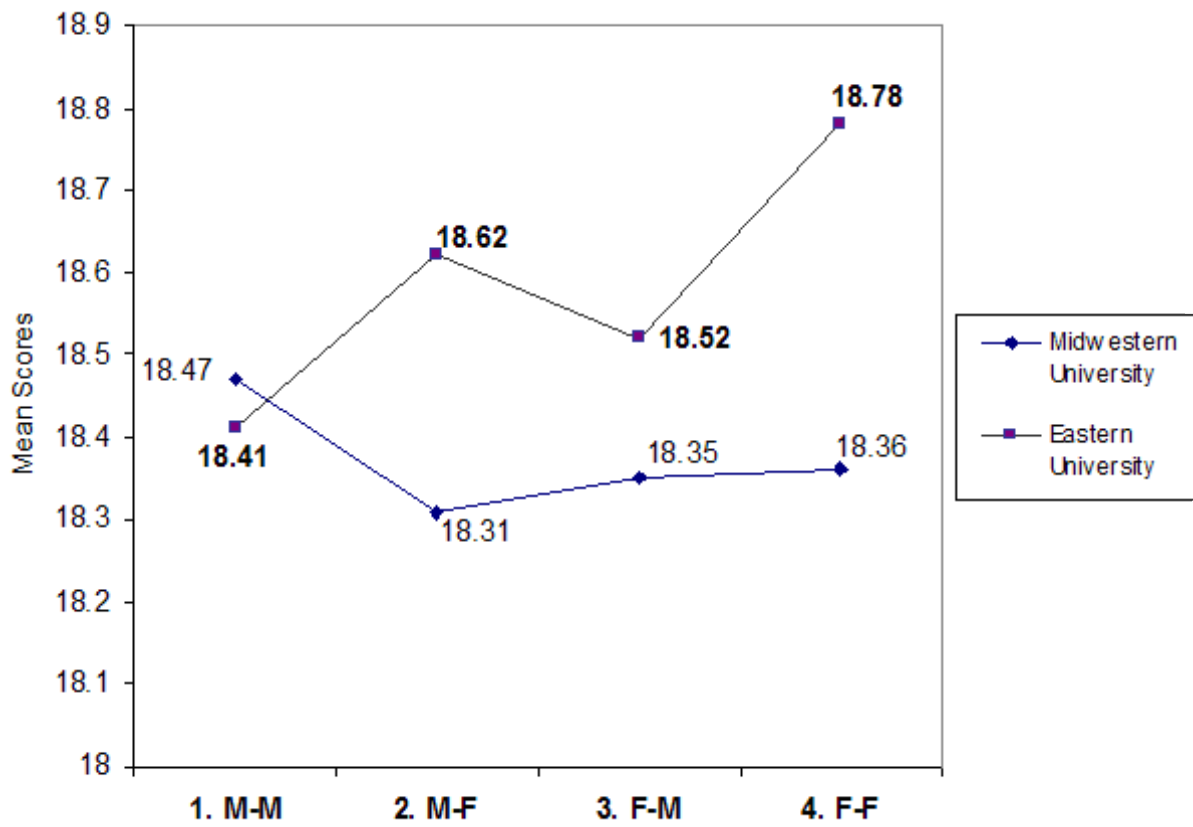
Because the data entered in SPSS ranged from -5 (definitely males) to 5 (definitely females) with 0 (equally

**TABLE 3**  
**Matched-Mismatched Gender Interaction Effects on Presentation Scores**

	Matched Genders		Mismatched Genders		F	Sig.	Mean Comparisons
	1. M-Evaluator & M-Presenter	4. F-Evaluator & F-Presenter	2. M-Evaluator & F-Presenter	3. F-Evaluator & M-Presenter			
All Classes	18.44	18.48	18.43	18.41	.31	0.819	1-4, 1-2, 1-3, 2-3, 2-4, 3-4
Midwestern University	18.47	18.36	18.31	18.35	.79	0.500	1-4, 1-2, 1-3, 2-3, 2-4, 3-4
Eastern University	18.41	18.78	18.62	18.52	2.76	<b>0.041</b>	<b>1-4**</b> , 1-2, 1-3, 2-3, 2-4, <b>3-4*</b>

Mean comparisons: \* < .05, \*\* < .01

**FIGURE 2**  
**Effect of Gender Bias on Presentation Evaluation Scores**



likely) being placed in the middle of the scale, the sign of the mean was an indication for the direction of any gender effect. Specifically, a positive (negative) sign means female (male) presenters are evaluated as performing better than male (female) presenters on the given presentation quality aspect. The results are presented in Tables 4, 5a, and 5b.

## RESULTS

### Impact of Evaluator Gender and Presenter Gender on Student Presentation Scores

The results of the independent samples t-tests indicated that given the *presenter* was a male or female, the presentation scores did not significantly differ by the evaluators' gender for neither all courses combined nor separately in two universities (Table 1). Therefore, evaluator gender did not have a significant effect on the presentation evaluation scores.

The results also indicated that given the *evaluator* was a male or female, the presentation scores did not significantly differ by the presenter's gender for all courses combined in two universities or in the Midwestern university at  $p < 0.05$  level (Table 2). These findings do not provide any support for H1a. However, in the eastern university, the presentation scores significantly differed by the evaluator's gender at  $p < 0.05$  level. That is, female evaluators assessed female presenters (18.79) significantly higher than the male presenters (18.52). This finding provides a partial support for H1b and H1c.

### Matched-Mismatched Gender Interaction Effects on Presentation Scores

The results of the one-way ANOVA are summarized in Table 3. Significant differences in the presentation scores among some of the four separate gender match-mismatch mean comparisons were found in the eastern university. The univariate F-statistics for the eastern university was statistically significant at  $p < 0.05$  level, which suggests an existence of gender effect on presentation evaluations. The pair wise comparisons of the four group means demonstrated no significant differences among the group means in the Midwestern university and with all classes combined (Table 3).

The LSD Post Hoc test for the eastern university indicated that there were significant differences between: Group 1 (male presenter – male evaluator) and Group 4 (female evaluator female–presenter) at  $p < 0.01$  level, and Group 3 (female evaluator male – presenter) and Group 4 (female evaluator female–presenter) at  $p < 0.05$  level. Figure 2 graphically presents the effect of gender match and mismatch on the presentation evaluation scores

in two universities. These findings also do not provide support for H1a. However, H1b and H1c are partially supported.

### Evaluator Perceptions of Gender Differences in Presentation Performance

Table 4 summarizes the descriptive and t-statistics of the one-sample t-test; specifically, the mean differences of the perception ratings by all respondents, and the male and female evaluators combined in two universities. The results for all responses indicated that females had better quality articles (0.58), had articles more relevant to the course material (0.48), and better overall quality presentation (0.46), all of which were significant at  $p < 0.01$  level. Surprisingly, male evaluators indicated that female presenters gave the best quality presentation (0.63) which is significant at  $p < 0.05$  level. This shows a gender effect, but is contrary to the predictions of the above theories. For other aspects of presentation, male evaluators did not see any significant difference between male and female presenters. These findings do not support H1a. On the other hand, female respondents' perceptions were parallel to the results for all respondents. Female evaluators perceived that female presenters had better quality articles (1.17), had articles more relevant to the course material (0.85), and a better overall quality presentation (0.69), which are significant at  $p < 0.01$  level. These results show a significant gender effect as predicted by the aforementioned theories and provide support for H1b.

### Comparisons of Two Universities for Male and Female Evaluator Perceptions

The study also tested for a potential gender bias in the male and female evaluator perceptions of differences in the presentation quality aspects performed by male and female presenters in each university individually. The results for male vs. female students at the midwestern university are presented in Table 5a. Since none of the presentation quality aspects are significant for male evaluators, presenter gender has no effect on male evaluators' evaluation of the presentations. These findings show, contrary to the predictions of the theories aforementioned, the presenter-evaluator gender similarity does not have any significant effect on the scores assigned to the presentation by either gender. However, this is not the case for female evaluators (Table 5a). The results show that female evaluators perceived that female students had better quality articles (1.46), had articles more relevant to course material (1.05), and had a better overall quality presentation (0.97). Because these presentation aspects were significant at  $p < 0.01$ , this shows a significant gender effect (bias) for presenter-evaluator gender similarity as predicted by the above theories. However, fe-

**TABLE 4**  
**Evaluator Perceptions of Gender Differences in Presentation Performance**

Presentation Quality Aspects	All Respondents			Male Evaluator			Female Evaluator		
	Mean	St. Dev.	Sig.	Mean	St. Dev.	Sig.	Mean	St. Dev.	Sig.
Who had better quality articles in this class, male or female students?	<b>0.58</b> N = 96 t = 3.63	1.574	<b>0.00</b>	-0.29 N = 38 t = -1.25	1.43	0.22	<b>1.17</b> N = 54 t = 6.26	1.37	<b>0.00</b>
Whose article had more relevance to the course material in this class, male or female students?	<b>0.48</b> N = 96 t = 3.37	1.39	<b>0.00</b>	-0.11 N = 38 t = -0.59	1.11	0.56	<b>0.85</b> N = 54 t = 4.45	1.41	<b>0.00</b>
Who had better quality of the presentation content in this class, male or female students?	-.10 N = 94 t = -.53	1.75	0.61	0.21 N = 38 t = 0.79	1.65	0.44	-0.39 N = 54 t = -1.65	1.73	0.11
Who had the better overall quality presentation in this class, male or female students?	<b>0.46</b> N = 94 t = 2.73	1.62	<b>0.00</b>	0.05 N = 38 t = 0.20	1.64	0.85	<b>0.69</b> N = 54 t = 3.30	1.53	<b>0.00</b>
Generally, who do you think gives the best quality presentation, male or female students?	.15 N = 94 t = .83	1.74	0.41	<b>0.63</b> N = 38 t = 2.38	1.63	<b>0.02</b>	-0.26 N = 54 t = -1.14	1.67	0.26
Generally, who do you think receives higher from presentation grades students, male or female students?	-.28 N = 94 t = -1.63	1.65	.11	-0.08 N = 38 t = -0.27	1.78	0.79	-0.37 N = 54 t = -1.76	1.55	0.08
<b>Scale:</b> Definitely Males -5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5 Definitely Females									

male evaluators perceive that male presenters had a significantly better quality of presentation content (-0.59) at  $p < 0.05$  level. Female evaluators also think that male presenters receive higher presentation grades from students (-0.57,  $p = 0.06$ ). In the midwestern university, no gender effect was found for male students concerning the student presentation evaluations. Therefore, H1a is not supported. However, some gender effect was found for female students for some aspects of student presentations. Therefore, H1b is partially supported.

The results of the similar analyses for male and female students at the eastern university are presented in Table 5b.

Because the means of both male and female evaluator perceptions of all aspects of presentation quality are not significantly different, no gender effect is found for both male and female evaluators at the eastern university. Also, based on the Similarity-Attraction Paradigm (Byrne 1971; Byrne and Neuman 1992; Graves and Powell 1995), Social Identity Theory (Tajfel 1982; Tajfel and Turner 1986), and Self-Categorization Theory (Turner 1982, 1985), if there were a gender similarity effect, the signs of the means would be all negative for male evaluators and positive for female evaluators. Because the signs of the means for both male evaluators and female evaluators do not show such a consistent pattern as

**TABLE 5A**  
**Comparison of the Evaluator Perceptions of Gender Differences in**  
**Presentation Performance Across Universities**

Midwestern University						
Presentation Quality Aspects	Male Evaluator			Female Evaluator		
	Mean	St. Dev.	Sig.	Mean	St. Dev.	Sig.
Who had better quality articles in this class, male or female students?	-0.38 N = 21 t = -1.12	1.56	0.28	<b>1.46</b> N = 37 t = 6.50	1.37	<b>0.00</b>
Whose article had more relevance to the course material in this class, male or female students?	-0.33 N = 21 t = -1.13	1.35	0.27	<b>1.05</b> N = 37 t = 4.74	1.35	<b>0.00</b>
Who had better quality of the presentation content in this class, male or female students?	0.14 N = 21 t = 0.42	1.56	0.68	<b>-0.59</b> N = 37 t = -2.10	1.72	<b>0.04</b>
Who had the better overall quality presentation in this class, male or female students?	-0.43 N = 21 t = -1.14	1.72	0.27	<b>0.97</b> N = 37 t = 3.57	1.66	<b>0.00</b>
Generally, who do you think gives the best quality presentation, male or female students?	0.57 N = 21 t = 1.43	1.83	0.17	-0.30 N = 37 t = -0.95	1.90	0.35
Generally, who do you think receives higher presentation grades from students, male or female students?	-0.57 N = 21 t = -1.39	1.89	0.18	-0.57 N = 37 t = -1.95	1.78	0.06
<b>Scale:</b> Definitely Males -5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5 Definitely Females						

suggested by the above theories, this further confirms that there is not any consistent gender effect (bias) by either male or female evaluators on the scores assigned to student presentations. As a result, H1a and H1b are not supported. Finally, the results did not show any consistent pattern of evaluators assigning significantly lower scores to opposite-gender presenters, or perception of lower presentation quality for opposite-genders. Therefore, H1c is not supported.

### CONCLUSION

This study investigated the gender effect on students' evaluations of students' presentations. It examined whether the presentation scores assigned by the evaluators differed by the gender of the evaluator or presenter. Based on the Similarity-Attraction Paradigm (Byrne 1971;

Byrne and Neuman 1992; Graves and Powell 1995), Social Identity Theory (Tajfel 1982; Tajfel and Turner 1986), and Self-Categorization Theory (Turner 1982, 1985), we tested the hypothesis that significant gender similarity bias exists during peer evaluation of presentations. The research objectives were achieved by performing separate analyses for all students combined, male and female students combined in two universities, and male and female students separately at two universities (midwest and east). The results showed that students can be asked to evaluate their peers' presentations without any concerns that the same-gender students may get higher scores than opposite-gender students.

Testing the gender effect on presentation scores revealed a significant result at one university. The female evaluators assigned significantly higher scores to female pre-

**TABLE 5B**  
**Comparison of the Evaluator Perceptions of Gender Differences in**  
**Presentation Performance Across Universities**

Eastern University						
Presentation Quality Aspects	Male Evaluator			Female Evaluator		
	Mean	St. Dev.	Sig.	Mean	St. Dev.	Sig.
Who had better quality articles in this class, male or female students?	-0.18 N = 17 t = -0.57	1.29	0.58	0.53 N = 17 t = 1.85	1.18	0.08
Whose article had more relevance to the course material in this class, male or female students?	0.18 N = 17 t = 1.14	0.64	0.27	0.41 N = 17 t = 1.16	1.46	0.26
Who had better quality of the presentation content in this class, male or female students?	0.29 N = 17 t = 0.68	1.80	0.51	0.06 N = 17 t = 0.14	1.71	0.89
Who had the better overall quality presentation in this class, male or female students?	0.65 N = 17 t = 1.95	1.37	0.07	0.06 N = 17 t = 0.25	0.97	0.81
Generally, who do you think gives the best quality presentation, male or female students?	0.71 N = 17 t = 2.07	1.40	0.06	-0.18 N = 17 t = -0.68	1.07	0.51
Generally, who do you think receives higher presentation grades from students, male or female students?	0.53 N = 17 t = 1.49	1.46	0.16	0.06 N = 17 t = 0.32	1.75	0.75
<b>Scale:</b> Definitely Males -5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5 Definitely Females						

senters than male presenters at the eastern university (Table 2). A similar result was also found in the four separate gender match-mismatch mean comparisons at the eastern university. These findings are consistent with the predictions of the Similarity-Attraction Paradigm, Social Identity and Self-Categorization Theories. Females not only assigned higher scores to female students but also lower scores to male students (Table 3 and Figure 2). Although these significant results may lead a researcher to conclude that gender similarity bias exists, they should be carefully interpreted because female students in fact might have displayed better performance during their presentations. That is why the results of one-sample t-test in table 4 provide valuable insight. When evaluator perceptions on each aspect of presentation quality are tested for gender effect, the results indicated that even the male evaluators perceived that female presenters had given the best quality presentation.

These results were further examined in detail and presented in Tables 5a and 5b. In the midwestern university, female evaluators perceived that female presenters had better quality articles, had articles more relevant to course material, and had a better overall quality presentation, which suggests an existence of gender effect. However, they also perceived that the male presenters had better quality of the presentation content. At the eastern university, since none of the student perceptions of presentation quality aspects were significant, there was no gender effect for both male and female students. These results show that, unlike the predictions of the Similarity-Attraction Paradigm, Social Identity and Self-Categorization Theories, there was no consistent gender effect concerning student presentations at the midwestern university.

These results provide useful insight to answer the question: Should the teachers be concerned with relying

solely on the peer evaluation for grading the presentations? This study finds no consistent patterns to substantiate that gender bias in peer evaluation exists as suggested by the three aforementioned theories. Given the potential benefits of student presentations and peer evaluations of these presentations, this study shows student evaluations of other student presentations could be incorporated in assigning the final presentation grade without being concerned about potential gender effect (or bias) on presentation scores. However, future research should further test whether the peer evaluation scores and the teachers' actual grades significantly differ between the female and male presenters' presentations.

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# CAUSES OF FACULTY STRESS AND BURNOUT

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## SUMMARY

The stress related to performing and succeeding in academe is not always anticipated or understood by the candidates for faculty positions. If left unattended or unrecognized, stress can lead to burnout and ultimately to turnover or perhaps even worse to a faculty member who is “retired in place (RIP).” The purpose of this paper is to look at the relationship between work stress and job burnout, to explore role ambiguity and conflict as the sources of faculty stress and burnout.

## STRESS

There is considerable research on general occupational stress. Much of it uses a definition similar to one proposed by McGrath, which describes the conditions under which stress is likely to occur. When conditions exist where an individual perceives that her or his capabilities and resources for adequately responding to a demand are threatened and where there is uncertainty about the outcomes from meeting these demands, stress is the response (McGrath 1976). The competing workloads of most university faculty often intensify these stress-producing conditions.

Researchers have given attention to stress among college and university faculty, but with limited attention to the scope of the stress. (Finkelstein 1984; Gmelch, Lovrich, and Wilke 1984) The function of faculty as scholar is one of investigating issues, asking questions, and discussing competing worldviews. The function of faculty as teacher is to organize the curriculum, motivate students, prepare and grade assignments, manage the classroom, develop new courses, and help students learn. Service on faculty and administrative committees and in the community forms a third aspect of a faculty position. Dey’s (1994) research expands on previous faculty stress research by including “off-campus” sources of stress (e.g., family obligations) that can be copious.

## BURNOUT

Burnout is defined as a state of physical, mental, and emotional exhaustion, as well as cynicism towards one’s work in response to recurring organizational stressors (Maslach and Jackson 1982; Pines and Aronson 1981;

Etzion 1984). The emotional exhaustion, one of the more extreme varieties of work-related strain, manifests itself in employees as a general loss of trust, concern, and interest (Maslach 1982). Employees’ emotional resources become depleted, and they no longer feel able to give of themselves (Gaines and Jermier 1983; Pines and Aronson 1981, 1989). Etzion (1984) relates the emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout to “feeling depressed, trapped, hopeless.” Faculty who reach this stage often no longer care about their goals or the people with whom they work. Family and friends become just one more demand on them in terms of time, patience, and their resilience to this pressure.

## RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STRESS AND BURNOUT

For decades researchers have documented the impact of above average levels of role conflict and role ambiguity on work-related stress, job satisfaction, effectiveness, and organizational commitment especially for workers in professional organizations (Seeman 1953; Kahn et al. 1964; Rizzo et al. 1970; Schaubroeck, Cotton, and Jennings 1989; Judge, Boudreau, and Bretz 1994; Sarros, Gmelch, and Tanewski 1996). Specifically, Kahn et al. (1964) found that the emotional costs of excessive role conflict include low job satisfaction, low commitment to the organization, and a high degree of job-related stress. Similarly, Schaubroeck et al. (1989) discovered through surveying blue- and white-collar workers in manufacturing plants and a large university that role conflict and role ambiguity impact job satisfaction.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), which has been used in a variety of research studies, includes three dimensions: (1) emotional exhaustion, (2) depersonalization, and (3) feelings of low personal accomplishment at work (Maslach and Jackson 1986). Depersonalization refers to a negative, dehumanizing attitude towards one’s colleagues. Feelings of low personal accomplishment are a derived component, referring to the demotivating effects of feelings of ineffectiveness. Jackson, Turner, and Brief (1987) found the three dimensions to be associated with different job conditions. Specifically, emotional exhaustion was most strongly associated with the seeming quantity of workload and role conflict; feelings of personal accomplishment were most associated with the

bosses' supportive behaviors; and depersonalization was most strongly associated with position conflict and lack of participation in decision-making.

### ROLE CONFLICT AND ROLE AMBIGUITY FOR FACULTY

The research seems to be clear that there is a correlation between stress and burnout. When there are competing demands on faculty time to balance teaching, service and research, and when the faculty are uncertain about the outcomes of meeting these demands there is a high likelihood of burnout. The uncertainty seems to come from role conflict and role ambiguity. For new faculty there can be a considerable degree of role ambiguity. Role ambiguity is an assignment whose value cannot be determined from its context. Faculty can initially feel as though they have landed in the twilight zone – that ambiguous region located among teaching, community service, and research – not knowing where to put their primary attention and energy.

The more general literature on career development and, in particular, the work of Feldman suggest that the first three years of faculty appointment constitute a developmental stage called “encounter,” the period immediately following completion of formal professional training or “anticipatory socialization” (Feldman 1981). At the encounter stage, faculty see what their chosen profession is truly like. There is some initial shifting of skills and attitudes as individuals are initiated into the tasks, norms, and values of the institution (Olsen 1993). Feldman (1981) posits “role definition” as critical at this stage.

Junior faculty encounter significant role anxiety and struggle to define their role as faculty members. This struggle usually takes two forms: (1) deciphering institutional expectations for performance and (2) learning to establish priorities for time and effort appropriately across academic tasks (Baldwin 1987; Mager 1982). Faculty are asked to prepare new courses, advise students, participate on faculty committees, and continue with research in their content specialty. For new faculty, advising students is difficult as the faculty are attempting to learn the policies of the college or university along with the students. Course preparation can also be difficult for new faculty. Depending upon the time of year in which they are hired, faculty can be locked into previous decisions about textbooks and syllabi without the benefit of consultation. Some universities provide relief from serving on faculty committees for the first year, but this is not something that new faculty member can count on.

### CONCLUSION

While issues of balance and time remain relatively consistent over the course of a career they may prove most

stressful for new faculty who face for the first time the task of allocating limited time and energy among an almost unlimited number of work demands. Findings in a national study of work stress indicate a downward turn in faculty work satisfaction over the first several years of appointment and an increased incidence of job-related stress and burnout. This confirms the pattern of stress-related variables and support the notion that role definition and, in particular, developing priorities and allocating time and energy appropriately and effectively, are key developmental tasks at this career stage (Olsen 1993; Feldman 1981).

Scholars entering the field of university teaching as a faculty member for the first time may be expecting a supportive, collegial environment highly conducive to time for research and students who are highly motivated to learn. These situations may exist, however, new faculty also need to be aware that this new career comes with stress and role conflict. Burnout is a real possibility if faculty do not receive guidance or learn how to balance the demands on their energy and time. Further, faculty need to appreciate that these pressures are not going to decrease in light of the new economics of higher education.

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# ARE FEMALE MARKETING STUDENTS ALWAYS MORE ETHICAL THAN MALE MARKETING STUDENTS?

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## ABSTRACT

Several marketing studies have found that female students are more ethical than male students and theorize that this is because females are socialized to be more sensitive about others than are males (the “socialization approach”). However, other studies have found no significant differences between the ethical orientations of female versus male students and theorize that this is because both females and males come to have similar views of ethics because of the common training they receive in preparing and studying for similar careers (the “structural approach”). We test and find that both of these approaches are evident with marketing students dependent on the type of scenario presented. In other words, some scenarios tap into socialization issues along gender lines and lead to different ethical responses between females and males. On the other hand, other scenarios tap into the common aspects of both female and male acculturation into a common career that lead them to the same ethical conclusions.

## INTRODUCTION

There has been a lot of attention focused on teaching students the topic of ethics as a result of a series of business scandals that appear to be the result of manager’s unethical behavior (Feldman and Thompson 1990; Murphy 2004) and a concurrent push by the accreditation agency for collegiate business schools, the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), to include ethics in the curriculum (Silver and Valentine 2000). As a result, a number of studies have been done in testing the ethical orientation of business students.

One finding across several studies is that female business students are more ethically-oriented than male business students (e.g., Arlow 1991; Barnett, Brown, and Bass 1994; Borkowski and Ugras 1998; Silver and Valentine 2000; Beltramini, Peterson, and Kozmetsky 1984; Lopez, Rechner, and Olson-Buchanan 2005; Luthar, DiBattistia, and Gautschi 1997; Luthar and Karri 2005). And a more

limited number of studies have found that female marketing students are more ethically-oriented than male marketing students (Dawson 1992; Singhapakdi 2004; Singhapakdi and Marta 2005; Whipple and Wolf 1991) or less masculine-oriented marketing students are more ethically oriented than more masculine-oriented marketing students (Yoo and Donthu 2002).

In general, scholars hypothesize that the reason for this difference is that females are socialized very differently than males which predispose women to become more ethically-oriented than men referred to as “gender socialization” (Mason and Mudrack 1996). For example, women are thought to be more care-oriented than men (Silver and Valentine 2000) and females are encouraged to develop social relationships, while men are encouraged to focus on competition and achievement (Beutell and Brenner 1986). Gilligan (1977) explains that the moral imperative for women is to fix “troubles” while the moral imperative for men is more pragmatic. This is somewhat supported by Feldman and Thompson (1990), who find that male business students tend to rely more on economic justification for business behavior than female business students and female business students tend to rely more on legal and moral justification for business behavior than male business students.

Despite the “gender socialization” theory that females have been molded to be more ethical than males, some researchers believe that over time, this early socialization is diluted in comparison to the role pressures of certain career choices referred to as the “structural approach” (see Dawson 1992 and Stevenson and Bodkin 1996) or “occupational socialization” (Mason and Mudrack 1996). In alignment with the “structural approach,” business students are being trained for the same or similar careers and over time their belief systems will tend to converge. Even though this convergence would become stronger over time as students actually have some experience in their careers, some level of common beliefs may be evident even when they are students because “self-selection” theory holds that men and women who are attracted

to business degrees, have common beliefs, or aspire to acquire common beliefs believed to lead to a successful business career. In partial support, some studies find that female and male business students have similar ethical beliefs (Davis and Welton 1991; Nil and Schibrowsky 2005; Tsalikis and Ortiz-Buonafina 1990). And there are some specific studies that show that female marketing students are not more ethical than male marketing students (Crittenden, Crittenden, and Hawes 1986; Dabholkar and Kellaris 1992; Feldman and Thompson 1990).

How do we reconcile the two different approaches (the “socialization approach” and the “structural approach”) that both appear to have specific studies that provide empirical support when studying marketing students? It may be that both theoretical approaches are valid. It is conceivable that some ethical scenarios that are presented to marketing students draw on different socialization processes that are gender specific; whereas, other ethical scenarios draw on common beliefs (regardless of gender) that have been developed or are in the process of being developed by students studying for a common business career. In support, Jones (1991) presents a model that outlines how ethical perceptions are issue-contingent. In other words, comparisons of ethical perceptions between genders depend on the characteristic of the dilemma at hand. In testing Jones’ model, Franke, Crown, and Spake (1997) did find that gender differences did depend in part on the nature of the ethical dilemma. More pertinent to our study, Dawson (1992) that found that ethical scenarios that appeared to draw on socialization tendencies of females were viewed as significantly different by female business students versus male business students; whereas, ethical scenarios that did not draw on socialization tendencies were not viewed as significantly different between female business students versus male business students. In order to test the possibility that both the “socialization approach” and the “structural approach” could be evident at the same time, two different ethically-oriented scenarios are presented to marketing students. One of the scenarios is hypothesized to tap into some gender-socialization issues of the marketing students and is predicted to result in a significant difference in ethical beliefs of female versus male students. And one of the scenarios is hypothesized to tap into common “structural” beliefs and is predicted to have no significant difference between ethical beliefs of female versus male marketing students. The next section outlines our specific hypotheses.

### HYPOTHESES

The first marketing scenario that we test with students is called “sexist campaign.” In this scenario a new advertising agency has been given an account to advertise a new liquid diet supplement. The account executive has di-

rected the campaign’s market research, has held extensive meetings with the client, and has overall responsibility for the upcoming campaign. The account executive is having a conversation with the copy writer on the campaign. Both the account executive and the copy writer are alumni from the same college and it was this connection that helped the copy writer to get her job. The copywriter says that she is uncomfortable with the campaign recommendations to make the television ad highlighting an attractive woman undressing as sexy and controversial as possible. The account executive says that this is what the client wants and it will work because “sex sells.” The copy writer says that as women they both should be the last ones to create sexist ads. The account manager says they have no choice but to do as the client wishes.

We predict that this scenario will tap into the early socialization differences between the genders and therefore lead to different ethical perceptions between the female and male students. According to LaTour, Pitts, and Snook-Luther (1990, p. 51), “female nudity and erotic content have become almost commonplace in contemporary advertising.” Even though there appears to be a growing acceptance about nudity in advertising over recent decades by both females and males, there is evidence that nudity and erotic content in advertising is less effective for females than for males (e.g., LaTour, Pitts, and Snook-Luther 1990; Sciglimpaglia, Belch, and Cain 1978). From a socialization perspective, many believe females are uniquely taught how to behave sexuality and/or have become more aware of sexuality issues due to feminist consciousness raising efforts (Ford, LaTour, and Middleton 1999).

In partial support of our prediction, there are two studies that test comparable scenarios that draw on the “sociological approach.” First, Whipple and Wolf (1991) find that female marketing students rated one scenario (that taps in on the gender “sociological approach”) as significantly more unethical than male marketing students. This scenario described a situation whereby the market research director used one-way mirrors in the brassiere department dressing rooms of stores. Second, Lane (1995) finds that the gender difference between female and male business students is greatest in a scenario that focuses on the portrayal of women in advertising. Consequently we hypothesize,

H1: Female marketing students will view the marketing scenario “sexist campaign” as significantly more unethical than male marketing students.

The second marketing scenario that we test with students is called “sales hype.” In this scenario two sales trainees in a furniture department are having a discussion. Sally is an aggressive trainee and is trying hard to impress man-

agement. Kara is more conservative and believes that customer loyalty is essential to success in sales. Kara confronts Sally about a recent interaction with a customer. Kara tells Sally that she overheard Sally tell the customer that she could go to any sales representative even though she was Kara's customer. Kara also tells Sally that it was not right to tell this same customer that a dining set she was looking at was a brand new design that just came in to the store even though it has been in the store for over a year. Sally responds that everyone stretches the facts a little in sales and that you need a little "hype" to get the customer interested in the sale.

We predict that this scenario will tap into common training associated with being a marketing student. One of the most basic marketing beliefs is the "marketing concept." This concept suggests that there should be a company-wide consumer orientation. In other words, all parts of an organization should contribute to assessing and then meeting customer wants and needs. This includes not only meeting a customer's product or service needs and wants but also meeting the expectation of how the customer prefers to do business with a given company. An extension of the marketing concept is the development of relationships with customers as an essential ingredient of successful repeat business over the long run (Levey 1998).

One basic need of most customers is that customers prefer to have an honest interaction with organizations (Boone and Kurtz 2005), which if experienced will positively impact their trust with a company and consequently their long term relationship with a given company. The marketing concept and the related topic of relationship marketing have a prominent place in the curriculum of introductory marketing classes (Berman and Sharland 2002; Tashchian and Frieden 1983). Further, these topics are also covered in early chapters of introductory marketing textbooks and presumably are covered early in an introductory marketing class. Because students are trained on the marketing concept and relationship marketing topics early in an introductory marketing class, we believe that both female and male marketing students will view the "sales hype" scenario as a violation of the "marketing concept" and as a violation of developing loyal long range relationships with customers in their training for business careers.

H2: There will be no significant difference between ethical beliefs of female versus male marketing students in reaction to the "sales hype" scenario.

## METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

Students were shown two different marketing scenarios ("sexist campaign" and "sales hype") on a short eight

minute videotape as described above in the hypotheses section of this paper. Eighty-seven male marketing students and fifty-eight female marketing students in a beginning marketing class watched the videotape of the two scenarios and responded to a short questionnaire after watching the videotape. The marketing students were juniors and seniors in college of business located in the rocky mountain region. The topic of ethics and social responsibility were not yet covered in the course. On the questionnaire the students were asked to decide if the each of the two scenarios was ethical or unethical and to give a short reason why they thought the scenario was ethical or unethical. For purposes of analysis, if the student wrote that the scenario was ethical the response was assigned a value of one and if the student wrote that the scenario was unethical, the response was assigned a value of two. Based on student records, the professor marked each questionnaire according to if the respondent was female or male.

Table 1 shows the means of responses made by female and male marketing students for each of the two marketing scenarios. As hypothesized female marketing students found the "sexist campaign" to be significantly more unethical than male marketing students (female means = 1.582 and male means = 1.289,  $p < .022$ ). Also as predicted, there was no significant difference between ethical beliefs of female versus male marketing students in reaction to the "sales hype" scenario (female means = 1.906 and male means = 1.876).

## DISCUSSION AND FURTHER RESEARCH

Many researchers have concluded that female business students are more ethically minded than their male counterparts, while other researchers have concluded that there are no gender differences. This study supports both conclusions and collaborates other research that indicates that comparisons of ethical perceptions between genders depend on the characteristic of the dilemma at hand (Dawson 1992; Franke, Crown, and Spake 1997; Jones 1991).

We presented two ethical scenarios to marketing students designed to draw on two different theories. One of the scenarios ("Sexist Campaign") was hypothesized to tap into "gender socialization" issues of the marketing students. "Gender socialization" is based on the belief that females are socialized very differently than males which predispose women to become more ethically-oriented than men. As predicted, there was a significant difference in ethical beliefs of female versus male students in reaction to this scenario.

The second scenario ("Sales Hype") was hypothesized to tap into "occupational socialization" (also referred to as

**TABLE 1**  
**Marketing Scenario Means by Gender**

	Female Means	Male Means
“Sexist Campaign”	1.582 <sup>a</sup>	1.289 <sup>b</sup>
“Sales Hype”	1.906 <sup>c</sup>	1.876 <sup>d</sup>
1 = Ethical and 2 = Unethical		
<sup>ab</sup> Means within the two adjacent columns differ at $p < .022$ .		
<sup>cd</sup> Means within the two adjacent columns are not significantly different.		

the “structural approach”). “Occupational Socialization” is based on the belief that individuals who are in the same occupations or are being trained for the same occupations (as is true of marketing students being trained for business careers) develop common ethical perceptions (regardless of gender). As predicted there was no significant difference between ethical beliefs of female versus male marketing students in reaction to this scenario.

An important limitation of our study is that we only test one scenario supporting each of the two theoretical approaches (“gender socialization” and “occupational socialization”). Future research should include several scenarios designed to independently test each theoretical approach in order to provide more convincing evidence that ethical perceptions are, in part, a function of the ethical dilemma itself. In addition, there may be other important considerations that impact a student’s ethical perceptions of a given dilemma. A model presented by Jones (1991), indicates that there are six characteristics of a given ethical dilemma that may have an impact on an individual’s ethical perception. These six characteristics include (1) proximity or feeling of nearness (social, cultural, psychological, or physical), (2) the magnitude of the consequences, (3) social consensus regarding the morality of the behavior, (4) the probability the behavior will cause harm, (5) the temporal immediacy of likely consequences, and (6) the concentration of effect (e.g., big impact to a small number of people). Future research should integrate these characteristics in order to more fully understand the factors that impact gender similarities and gender differences in ethical perceptions.

Finally, this study did not include any individual factors that may have an impact on ethical perceptions. Forsyth (1980) indicates that there are individual variations to moral judgment and behavior along two dimensions. The first dimension is *relativism* or the extent to which the individual rejects moral rules as being universal or absolute (i.e. assumes that we should avoid harming others).

The second dimension is *idealism* or the extent to which the individual assumes that desirable consequences can always be obtained with the “correct” action (i.e., assumes that some harm will sometimes be result in a higher good). Incorporation of Forsyth’s taxonomy of personal moral philosophies in future research might also expand our knowledge about why students react to ethical scenarios as they do.

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# MARKETING EDUCATORS SHOULD USE SECONDARY RESEARCH METHODS TO TEACH CRITICAL THINKING (REASONING) SKILLS AS OUTLINED IN BLOOM'S TAXONOMY

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Bloom's taxonomy has been heralded as the gold standard in education, and an ideal that many educators strive for. However, how to facilitate student advancement through the learning hierarchy in practical ways can be challenging. Our position is that secondary research methods are integral to facilitate the higher learning capabilities as outlined in Bloom's Taxonomy,<sup>1</sup> as outlined below:

1. **Knowledge:** This is the most basic ability to know and memorize common terms, facts, and concepts
2. **Comprehension:** The ability to understand the context of terms, facts and concepts.
3. **Application:** The ability to use material in new situations.
4. **Analysis:** The ability to break down material into component parts so an underlying structure can be detected.
5. **Synthesis:** The ability to reform those component parts into a new whole.
6. **Evaluation:** Ability to judge the value of the new whole for logical consistency, internally and externally.

Secondary research is useful at every juncture of this learning model. For example, teaching knowledge, comprehension, and application can be very straightforward. Where secondary research methods become particularly advantageous is in teaching the higher, more complex levels of analysis, synthesis and evaluation, where educators often struggle to facilitate and guide students. Secondary research can build a case, create the story, form the foundation for hypotheses, give a context, test theory and models, and essentially, "connect the dots."

For marketing students, specifically, sophisticated secondary research provides a richer, more compelling understanding of an industry, a company, its competitors and its customers. From our experience, however, most marketing students' ability to do secondary research is so basic that it is not sufficient to capture the realities of the current marketplace and its future trends.

For many marketing students, and perhaps many instructors, secondary research activities start and stop with "googling." In other words, when Google™ is exhausted, the analysis, and hence, the learning, stops. Students often search around a topic, using the material that is convenient to gather rather than critically evaluating and examining the evidence they are finding. If educators want to "push" the learning process and teach greater marketing analysis, they need to require students to go beyond "googling" to gathering more substantive content and greater judgment of sources.

Nancy and Ruth will discuss how marketing educators can use secondary research methods to improve higher order learning, as outlined in Bloom's. They will discuss the techniques they used in a marketing course they co-designed. They will talk about how they structured assignments to compel students to use vast subscription databases to investigate marketing issues that lead to primary research questions that are logical, relevant and fresh.

## ENDNOTE

<sup>1</sup> Bloom, B.S., ed. (1956), *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*. New York: David McKay Co., Inc.

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# AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CRITICAL THINKING AND RESEARCH SKILLS OF THE MILLENNIAL STUDENTS

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U.S. Census data indicate that the 90 million people born after 1980, often referred to as the millennial generation, will represent approximately 7 percent of all college enrolled students by 2012. Howe and Strauss depict Millennials as conventional, team oriented, pressured, high achieving, and sheltered. These characterizations impact the way Millennials seek out and process information much differently than previous generations. This generation of students favor knowledge collected through personal experiences and from other people rather than from more objective sources of scholarly information, such as research studies. Furthermore, Millennials tend to apply a dualism view of information sources, the belief that information is either right or wrong (Weiler).

In addition, Millennials tend to follow an advocacy model in which they have already made up their minds and therefore not be open to learning new information about an issue under study. Everything is just an opinion and no comparisons may be made between ideas and perspectives. This student orientation supports their claim that there is no way to learn about a topic beyond the students personal experience, in essence devaluing critical thinking.

The challenge for college faculty then becomes how to move students from a dualist belief to one of multiplicity, the ability to acknowledge that the world contains knowledge that cannot yet be classified as black and white, but instead requires further study and thought. At this point the student needs to start engaging critical thinking skills to determine the validity of the information encountered.

Small describes the ARCS (Attention, Relevance, Confidence, Satisfaction) motivational pedagogical model as a teaching strategy to engage students to move beyond their personal black and white opinion and instead to seek to learn more about the issue at hand in order to seek a higher level of understanding. Attention refers to perceptual arousal such as novelty, surprise, or uncertainty; inquiry arousal such as posing a question or problem to

resolve; and variability, to incorporate a range of media or methods that meet students varying needs. Relevance refers to matching objectives and purpose to student needs and motives. Confidence starts by creating learning requirements, providing challenging and meaningful opportunities for student learning, and then linking learning success to students effort and ability. Satisfaction incorporates intrinsic reinforcement of the learning experience, positive extrinsic reinforcement and feedback, and consistent standards and consequences for feedback.

The ARCS model suggests the following teaching strategies:

- ◆ Attention
  - Socratic questioning.
  - Pose a problem that requires students to apply principals.
  - Case studies.
  - Team practice or competitions.
  - Make learning experiential by engaging students in role-playing and cooperative learning experiences.
  - Multimedia motivates students to participate, integrate multiple skills, create practical reasons for reading, writing, and revising communication, require students to analyze sources and think about evidence in new ways.
  - When using multimedia move past using examples of good or bad examples and instead to present examples and raise questions rather than giving answers.
- ◆ Relevance
  - Explain, not just list the objectives of the lesson.
  - Cover content in ways that relate to students experiences and values.
  - Ask students to provide examples from their own experiences that correlate to the concepts covered in that particular lesson.
- ◆ Confidence
  - Develop and share the assessment criteria for class assignments.

- Circulate examples of successful projects completed from previous years.
- Allow students to practice obtaining and analyzing information prior to the actual assignment.
- Link learning success to personal effort and ability.
- ◆ Satisfaction
  - Encourage student effort.
  - Connect present students with former students to learn how learning critical thinking skills helped them with their assignments.
  - Provide tangible positive reinforcement connected to the students mastery of skills or understanding of the subject matter.
  - Ensure a consistent feedback and grade application using the previously developed assessment criteria.

The suggestions mentioned above represent possibilities to move students up to the next level of intellectual

development, multiplicity, or the ability to acknowledge that the student cannot yet classify as right or wrong, knowledge that requires further study and thought. Student progress from dualism to multiplicity as they encounter more diversity and uncertainty that cannot be easily answered or explained. It is at this point critical thinking has its roots; the student must use more complex reasoning to determine the validity or non-validity of any given piece of information.

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# USING TEACHING EVALUATIONS EFFECTIVELY

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Morehead State University, and in particular, the College of Business expects faculty to demonstrate a scholarly approach to teaching. In addition to the “approved” student evaluation instrument, the IDEA evaluation (<http://www.idea.ksu.edu/>), I have for years been surveying students and getting their feedback regarding teaching effectiveness, assignments, projects and in-class activities. The information gleaned from student input provides support for both making changes as well as maintaining certain approaches, activities and assignments. Thus, student evaluations should be integrated into ALL classes, not just a select few “good” classes, or those mandated by administration. The following discussion will address some of the ways I integrate student feedback and formal class evaluations on a regular basis in my classes.

1. While I am limited to administering the approved university evaluation instrument, the IDEA form, to one class per semester (since I am tenured), I will administer an online survey that students can complete anonymously that incorporates the same questions on the IDEA form, as well as some open-ended items that I add to document. At this time, I use Facilitate.com, where MSU has many online collaboration sessions and surveys. Before I had access to this tool, I administered the survey/evaluation via pencil and paper, in the same manner as the IDEA forms, and had the department administrative assistant hold them until after grades were posted for students. I then had to manually enter the responses into a database, or Excel spreadsheet to run stats. Using the Facilitate survey I automatically get frequency, mean and deviation results for each question. Either way – I can compare results with IDEA scores for other classes, or for the same course in previous terms.
2. In addition to the standardized form questions, I add open-ended questions that are pretty basic: please identify any strong points about the course/instructor, any weak points about the course/instructor, and finally the opportunity to make any suggestions for improvement in the course. The majority of students, particularly undergraduate students will not make any comments. However, those who have strong feelings, either positive or negative, will be sure to say something. Years ago, I would get comments

like change the time of the class, or eliminate all exams, etc. However, for the past several years, I get very helpful comments about revising the schedule, or breaking down large projects into smaller units. Comments if instructions were unclear, and not supplied sufficiently far enough in advance of due dates. I also get positive comments about timeliness of grading, responsiveness to students’ questions, effectiveness of projects or papers. Previously, I would ask students to tell me the one thing they liked the most and the least about the class. Sometimes this for informal type of question works better with the undergraduate students.

3. The timing and anonymity of administering these surveys seems to be very important. If not sufficiently late in the term, students do not have a great sense of just how they have fared for the semester. However, if I wait until final exam week, students are much less likely to take the time to complete the online survey. So ideally, I will post the survey sometime after the last exam and before any final project is due, but leave it open until after the final exam. In addition, I will post an announcement on Blackboard, and announce the survey in class. I always emphasize that this is voluntary and anonymous – so I will never know if they do or do not complete a survey. In addition, I tell why I am doing this – so that I can improve the class in the future, and that I want to retain the activities and methodologies that they think are effective.
4. Self-assessment is very important to me. I don’t always teach the class the following semester, and it could be two years again, before I teach one of the elective classes, so during the final exam week, I take time to reflect on how I think the class went during the term. In addition, I will make notes about changes I think I should make, how the new textbook fared – or if I feel I need to update an older text, etc. After the student evaluations results are in, I can look at their evaluations and comments, combine what I have already written, and compile the combined results for the next time I teach the class. In many instances, students have confirmed the weaknesses I myself identified, and the positive remarks about those activities that were strengths for the term. I always include these “end-of-semester” summary documents

with my annual Performance Evaluation Report, and keep a copy for each class in the respective class notes folder.

5. The BlackBoard survey tool also provides a nice, quick way to survey students during the term. Again, the survey tool provides students anonymity while providing feedback quickly to the faculty member. However, I do let my students know that I will be able to tell if they have completed it, but that is all. This tool let me determine quickly how well a particular component, activity, etc. so that I can implement changes quickly. However, I do not use this form of student feedback frequently, just if I think that I need to make substantive changes before something goes too far in the wrong direction. I do not like for students to get the idea that I will make changes at every whim, but only if I think I can make a significant improvement before the semester ends.
6. I attended the Georgia State University Master Teacher Program in 2002 (<http://www.masterteacherprogram.com/index.htm>). One statement that Harvey J. Brightman made that has stayed

with me to this day: "I can improve new faculty student teaching evaluations significantly, just by getting the faculty member to plan and organize their course. If students perceived the faculty member to be well organized and have efficiently planned the course, their student evaluations will improve significant, without making any changes to their pedagogical approach. I also have used the teaching evaluation document that was provided to attendees of the program for my personal class evaluations. I personally prefer this instrument to the university-approved IDEA form."

To summarize, I would say that most of us readily admit that student evaluations are a double-edge sword. In almost every university, some form of mandatory student evaluation plays a role in tenure and promotion. In addition to the required student evaluations, faculty can implement their own student evaluation, and incorporate the information gained from both format of student evaluations to improve teaching effectiveness, and build the tenure and promotion portfolio.

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# MAKING EFFECTIVE USE OF STUDENT EVALUATIONS TO BECOME A BETTER TEACHER

*Brian T. Engelland, Mississippi State University*

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## OVERVIEW

Student evaluations of teaching (SET) are administered in almost all American colleges and universities and are probably the main source of information used for evaluating faculty teaching performance. Over 2000 studies have been completed that delve into the subject of student evaluations of faculty, thus creating a vast scholarly literature from which to draw conclusions regarding the reliability and validity of student evaluations of faculty. Unfortunately, the literature suggests that many of the instruments employed for SET assessment have weaknesses, including inconsistency in domain definition, lack of correlation to student achievement, and uneven item quality.

While scholars have endeavored to develop precise measures of teaching proficiency, faculty committees have exerted pressures to add additional items to the assessment which may or may not fit the construct definition. These additions can work against objective comparisons of teaching performance across courses, colleges and universities, and result in different viewpoints as to the underlying factors that comprise the construct. A review of SET instruments used on over 300 college campuses suggests that many instruments contain double-barreled, unclear, and spurious items. Problematic are concerns over the objectivity and validity of SET scores and the fact that the data rarely provide clear guidance to assist faculty in improving their teaching. This session offers information and encouragement to manage the SET process more effectively so that the information obtained from SET will benefit on-going faculty efforts to become the best teacher they can be.

## WHAT IS TEACHING PROFICIENCY?

Based upon a meta-analysis conducted by this author, teaching proficiency incorporates two distinct overarching ideas or dimensions: the instructor's readiness for teaching, and the instructor's classroom excellence in imparting knowledge to students. Preparedness, professional-

ism and evaluation procedures comprise the readiness dimension, while rapport with students, enthusiasm, delivery and all-around excellence comprise the excellence dimension. The readiness dimension is antecedent to the classroom excellence dimension, as success in readiness is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition to achieve success in classroom excellence. Teaching proficiency thus contains two sub-constructs.

## HOW SHOULD TEACHING PROFICIENCY BE MEASURED?

Recent literature has suggested that a full assessment of teaching proficiency should not solely rely on SET scores, but instead should require three types of assessment, (1) authentic assessment (real-world), (2) student self-assessment and (3) appropriate student evaluation of teaching. It is essential that instructors take responsibility for gathering and assessing the kinds of information needed to assess their courses. It can't be left up to the institution's official process, especially if that process and its measures are deficient. Each of the three types of assessment is discussed in the following paragraphs.

## AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT

Authentic assessment requires that students demonstrate they can actually apply the course material to a "real world" task, and do so to the satisfaction of an outside judge. For instance, as a result of the class, can students write a marketing plan for a new product, construct a research questionnaire, make an effective sales pitch, etc., depending on the objectives of the course? Authentic assessment can be implemented with the help of practitioner alumni who volunteer as judges and help rate each of the student's submissions according to some scale.

## STUDENT SELF-ASSESSMENT

Student self-assessment requires that students take an introspective look at their own performance and learning.

Self-assessment can be made after key learning tests (such as examinations and papers), at the end of the course (through supplementary course evaluation questions) and after graduation, through administration of an instrument containing appropriate satisfaction items. Alumni surveys may be particularly effective in identifying meaningful course activities and learning achievements, especially after the student has been in a real-world job for some period of time. Self-assessment measurement attempts to discern how the student rates his or her own achievement relative to the objectives established for the course or degree program.

## SET ASSESSMENT

Even if you are required to use a university or college adopted SET instrument, you can augment the process with an instrument of your own design, one that both measures teaching effectiveness and also provides the information you need for improvement. The key is to structure the questions so that they assess what you want to measure. Questions that ask the respondent to recall certain in-class situations when learning was most/least facilitated are effective in understanding what activities worked and what didn't work. This approach is referred to as the "critical incident technique."

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# USING TEACHING EVALUATIONS EFFECTIVELY

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## SUMMARY

At Gannon University, like most schools, faculty use a standardized instrument to conduct student evaluations each semester for all classes taught. A summary of every class evaluation is then distributed to the faculty for review. These summaries often serve as the basis for reappointment, merit, rank, and tenure applications. It should be the goal of every instructor to consistently improve teaching effectiveness and efficiency. One helpful suggestion is to incorporate additional probing questions as part of the evaluation process. Additional evaluation data can often verify the results obtained from the standardized forms. Since my early years in teaching I have attempted to generate additional feedback from my students by going above and beyond the standardized evaluation instrument. Additional open and closed ended questions can be developed by the faculty to be helpful in identifying both strengths and areas for improvement. Who are the students completing the subjective responses? My experience identifies two profiles of students including those who perform very well and those who perform below average in a particular class. Teaching evaluations are important tools for assisting faculty in improving teaching but it is important to note that these evaluations are not perfect and can sometimes be used by the administration for reasons that might be negative. I would like to share some thoughts on the subject of teaching evaluations today which can be helpful for both new and experienced faculty.

The original purpose for conducting faculty evaluations in higher education was to improve overall teaching effectiveness. Although this is still the primary reason today, if not used properly, the information can invoke a sense of negative reinforcement extending to merit evaluations, promotion and even tenure decisions. Too often faculty members design a teaching style and student assessment criteria which promotes positive evaluations too often to the exclusion of an improved teaching methodology. Is it true that a more challenging faculty member receives lower teaching evaluations by the students?

1. One area that needs to be reviewed involves the profile of the students doing the subjective evaluations. Do all classes evaluate the faculty similarly?

For example, a few years ago I taught two sections of Principles of Marketing, one at noon T/Th and one at 8:00 a.m. T/Th. Since many students never prefer early classes, I was expecting my evaluations to be lower at 8:00 a.m. and higher at the noon class. The exact opposite was true. My evaluations were significantly better than expected for the 8:00 a.m. class. I asked myself how this could be when my teaching style was similar and both classes met for the same amount of time. Further investigation revealed that the academic profile of the 8:00 a.m. students proved to be superior to the noon students. The noon class had a higher number of students with lower GPA's, weaker attendance and an apparent lack of motivation. That might partially explain why the evaluations were lower for the noon class. Also, student attendance for the 8:00 a.m. class was nearly perfect as well. Throughout my years of teaching I have observed other differences such as the expectations of nontraditional students. Also, evening students when compared with day students often yielded completely different evaluations.

2. The online faculty evaluation has not yet been introduced at our university, however, discussions to do so are still ongoing. Are online evaluations more effective than evaluations conducted in class? There are two different schools of thought; the first suggesting that students filling out the evaluation in the comfort of their residences or even at a more convenient time works the best. The second school of thought suggests the possibility of "group think" and even some students completing the online evaluation under the influence of alcohol in a party atmosphere which can negatively affect the instructor's evaluations. Does this yield accurate results?
3. In some instances our school has incorporated the use of mid-term evaluations serving the purpose of assisting newer faculty with student concerns that can be addressed before the completion of the course. Problems that emerge often relate to the assessment techniques and the faculty teaching style.
4. The expectations of today's "millennium student" demand teaching creativity and continuous updating of teaching methods. A recent seminar I attended that discussed the millennium student explained

how teaching examples used even a few years ago might not be understood by these students. Losing the interest and attention of millennium students can be minimized or prevented by simply being more organized and flexible when teaching as well as using examples that are current and understood by the entire class. When class interest in the subject is lost, especially with millennium students, regaining the interest is often a very slow and tedious process.

In conclusion, the use of a faculty evaluation instrument will continue to serve as an important tool for helping to

improve faculty performance and serving as a basis for merit, promotion and tenure. However, we must not lose sight of the fact that the evaluation process can contain possible flaws and inconsistencies that need to be reviewed regularly. A mentoring process can also be used with new faculty to make an easy transition to the evaluation process as well as to provide helpful insights on what works and what has not worked in the past. Overall, faculty and administration must collectively view the evaluation process as a positive experience which benefits the instructor, the students, and the entire university community in seeking continuous improvement.

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# SERVICE LEARNING PROJECTS OFFER REAL-LIFE EXPERIENCES

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## SUMMARY

This paper discusses two service-learning projects, one in a Principles of Marketing class, and another in a Special Topics Internship class. In the first, students select a target market, establish a marketing objective, and develop a marketing mix in response to the changing marketing environment to raise \$1000 for Katrina hurricane relief efforts. In the second, students select a target market, conduct marketing research, establish a marketing database, and coordinate a special event to reach alumni for college marketing purposes. In both classes, students were surprisingly committed and actually enjoyed the extra work involved in a real-life project.

## PRINCIPLES OF MARKETING – KATRINA RELIEF BANDS

In my Principles of Marketing class, when discussing the marketing environment at the beginning of the semester, we discussed the marketing opportunities hurricane Katrina could present. After a lively discussion, I chose to “cancel” my regular end-of-semester activity and instead do a Katrina relief marketing project while still continuing to cover the weekly lecture material, using our project as an example.

In doing so, I first had students sign a written statement agreeing to participate in this project instead of the one originally outlined in the syllabus; although they had a choice to not participate, all chose to do so. Next, we identified our primary target market as the college’s students, faculty, and staff while students’ families, friends, and coworkers became our secondary target market. We then investigated various product options including T-shirts, wristbands, bumper stickers, buttons, etc. Eventually, we agreed on a wristband differentiated by green and purple Mardi Gras colors and obtained funding from the Student Government Association to buy the product from a distributor who bought the bands from a manufacturer in China. All of our promotional materials emphasized the fact that 100 percent of all proceeds would be donated to the Salvation Army for hurricane relief efforts. In addition, official “receipts” would be attached to each band so that anyone buying a

band would get a consistent message about how the bands were funded, who was selling the bands, and who would receive the proceeds.

Having decided on a target market and product, we next debated the price of each band. We ultimately decided on a *minimum* price of \$3 per band with a marketing objective of selling 300 bands and contributing \$1000 to the Salvation Army. Before actually ordering the bands, we did some exploratory research to test overall demand and interest in buying.

We decided to aggressively promote in advance the planned distribution throughout the campus in the bookstore, student government office, and student commons for a two-day period. In addition, we did an advance rollout of the product at a college-wide employee meeting and a statewide student leadership academy meeting. To help control inventory issues, we met with an accounting class who recommended various control systems, and the marketing class designed check-in and check-out records for the bands as well as salesperson records.

In addition to personal selling, our promotional strategy also involved sales promotion consisting of point-of-purchase displays throughout the college as well as a coupon for free breadsticks from a local pizza restaurant for those donating more than the expected \$3 price. In addition, college marquees and e-mail messages were used to notify our target audience of the product, distribution dates and sites, and price. Publicity was planned for the check presentation to the Salvation Army.

Not surprisingly, with a well-planned marketing strategy, our goal of selling 300 bands and contributing \$1000 was met before the end of our second day of sales. We considered issuing rainchecks but decided against it; this was a fortunate decision when a F3 tornado hit our city in the following weeks, again changing the marketing environment and the willingness of our target market to contribute to the Katrina effort given such destruction in our own backyard.

While the service aspect of this project is noteworthy, definitely more noteworthy is the enthusiasm for learn-

ing. In a period of just twelve weeks, this class, which met only once a week at night, responded to a market opportunity and saw the opportunity that created the demand change, luckily after all bands had been sold. Students also gained an appreciation for the amount of effort it takes to market a simple product and their own personal strengths and interests in the wide arena of marketing careers whether it be sales, promotion, research, product development, or a combination.

### **SPECIAL TOPICS INTERNSHIP CLASS**

Several students in the previously-mentioned Principles of Marketing class enjoyed experiential learning so much that they asked for another class with “real-life” projects. At the same time, the college was embarking on a new marketing effort that would use the outcomes of alumni as its primary platform. Unfortunately, there was no hard data available on alumni beyond one year post graduation. So, a special topics internship class was established. At the first class meeting, students discussed various target audiences for marketing the college (i.e., high school counselors, employers, etc.) With the timeframe given and the professor’s direction, students selected business administration alumni as the primary target audience. Students designed a survey to collect current personal, employment and salary information. (Incidentally, students were required to sign a confidentiality statement at the start of class. They also received “employee” nametags for the duration of the course.) They then designed a personalized letter from the appropriate faculty member and mail merged the letter as well as the survey to alumni graduating within the last ten years. The letter also gave information about an upcoming alumni luncheon. As surveys were returned, students entered the

data into a database and facilitated follow-up calls to those who had not returned the surveys. Ultimately, about a 33 percent response rate was achieved. Once the letters and surveys were mailed, students began concentrating on planning an alumni luncheon which involved catering, room, and audiovisual arrangements; networking opportunities; door prizes; and brief presentations by each student including a visual tour of our campus expansion. Students also arranged for a photographer to be present to take photos of alumni attending that could be used for promotional purposes with a signed photo release. After the luncheon, efforts were focused on thanking those involved in the luncheon as well as documenting the entire process so that other programs could recreate our effect with minimal effort.

### **CONCLUSION**

In both classes, students were asked to complete a weekly progress report, noting what they were assigned to do to contribute to the group project and what they actually did the previous week. This was used to access weekly point “grades” for progress toward individual and group objectives. By making the decisions about the target market, marketing objective, and marketing mix, students collectively controlled the learning activity. In both projects, learning confronted a practical or social problem and self-evaluation was a key component of assessing progress. While such service-learning projects require the professor to face an “unknown” semester, they definitely inspire both the student and professor, give the student experiences they will remember for a lifetime, and actually prepare the student for real-world assignments.

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# ENHANCING MARKETING CURRICULUM THROUGH EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION

*Donald P. Roy, Middle Tennessee State University*

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Experiential education has received greater attention in higher education over the last 20 years as institutions strive to adapt their offerings to the changing needs of students and other stakeholders. The traditional emphasis on teacher-centered classroom instruction is increasingly being questioned. Are students *really* learning? Are they acquiring knowledge and skills that will make them attractive to potential employers and productive citizens in the communities in which they will reside? This position paper considers the potential promise experiential learning has for marketing education.

## EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION BACKGROUND

The origins of experiential education are often traced to the philosopher John Dewey. Dewey was concerned that students were being lectured to by teachers who did not know how their students learned. Furthermore, Dewey realized that many students lacked the background or experiences to connect knowledge learned in the classroom to deeper-level learning that creates meaning (Katula and Threnhauser 1999). Dewey went so far as to state that “all genuine education comes about through experience” (cf., Estes 2004, p. 145). Another advocate of experiential education, Daniel A. Kolb, contends that experience is the foundation of learning. Kolb views learning as a four-step process with the first step carrying out an action and seeing the effects of that action (Kolb 1984).

Experiential learning has been defined as:

“that learning process that takes place beyond the traditional classroom and that enhances the personal and intellectual growth of the student. This education can occur in a wide variety of settings, but it usually takes on a ‘learn-by-doing’ aspect that engages the student directly in the subject, work or service involved” (Northeastern University 1997, p. 1).

The emphasis on learning by doing should not be taken that experiential education should replace classroom instruction. However, it is an acknowledgment that students learn in a variety of ways and that learning outside the classroom can reinforce an educator’s efforts to facilitate student learning in the classroom.

## APPLYING EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION TO MARKETING

The marketing discipline provides numerous opportunities for educators to incorporate experiential education in their curriculum. Two types of experiential education that are considered here that facilitate learning of marketing knowledge are applied learning courses, and engagement in research. Applied learning courses provide the most obvious opportunity for offering experiential education opportunities. Many marketing courses have project-based components to them or are by their nature lend themselves to hands-on learning opportunities. Examples include conducting a marketing research project for a business or non-profit in a marketing research course or developing a marketing communication plan in a promotion course. Many instructors already incorporate experience-based activities in marketing courses. The difference between current offerings and an experiential education course is the focus on learning outcomes stated at the outset of course development and a focus on student reflection following participation in experiential learning activities. Reflection guides students toward organizing thoughts about an experience and integrating those thoughts with existing knowledge. In turn, the learning achieved through an experiential activity influences future thoughts and action (Sugerman et al. 2000).

While offering formal experiential education opportunities through applied learning courses would be a new venture for many marketing educators, creating opportunities for undergraduate students to become immersed in research would likely be a much more radical departure from current practice. Undergraduate research is a type of experiential education that appears to be gaining momentum at many institutions. Undergraduate research programs typically allow a student to become involved in one of two ways: (1) a research assistant to a faculty mentor, or (2) lead investigator on a research project conducted under supervision of a faculty mentor.

Undergraduate research is a natural fit for the physical sciences where courses often have research components or students recognize the benefits of gaining research experience, but has not been embraced widely within

business disciplines. Faculty who are engaged in research may feel that undergraduate students lack the knowledge or skills to collaborate on research with them. Engaging undergraduates in research could be a first step in sparking interest in a career in research or even marketing education. Given the anticipated future needs of marketing educators in higher education institutions, any initiatives developed that promoted research should be given careful consideration.

### CONCLUSION

Experiential education initiatives can meet the learning styles of many students and provide meaningful experiences that can benefit students beyond fulfilling degree requirements. Institutions could use experiential education courses as a point of difference to attract students and recruiters looking to hire their graduates. Experiential education courses require educators to reconsider many aspects of their courses including course objectives, learning outcomes desired, course content, and evaluation of experiential learning activities. Such a departure from “business as usual” could deter educators from embracing experiential education. Also, uncertainty about additional time commitments required (often without having their workload adjusted) to implement experiential education could force faculty to avoid converting courses to experiential courses. As is the case with almost

any initiative, success is dependent on support from the highest levels of the organization. If administrators demonstrate a commitment to experiential education, encourage faculty to seek opportunities to implement experiential courses, and provide necessary support and resources, acceptance that the institution is serious about the role of experiential education as an integral part of an institution’s offerings is more likely to occur.

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# SHARING SUCCESSES IN ACTIVE LEARNING

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“What we learn to do, we learn by doing.” Aristotle

“I hear and I forget. I see and I remember. I do and I understand.” Confucius

“Learning is naturally an active process.” Bernie Dodge, San Diego State University

Many of us tend to accept these quotes as truth. Because we do agree with these quotes, we are constantly looking for activities in and out of the classroom that increase the amount of student understanding.

Theorists such as Malcolm Knowles, Carl Rogers, and Benjamin Bloom provide the theoretical basis for active, participatory, experiential learning. This presentation will blend their theories with successful practices.

Our panel will share activities, which have been effective for having students totally engaged in their learning. Activities such as teaching teamwork, positive reinforcement, the change process, and stake holder involvement will be shared. Our goal is to make this a “swap” shop so that others in the audience who have effective activities for teaching will share their successes also.

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# INCREASING THE INTERNATIONAL JOB MARKETABILITY OF GRADUATES

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## INTRODUCTION

In years past, those who went abroad during or after college – to backpack or to work legally – were thought to be students who erroneously fell behind the rest of the pack when it came to beginning a career. Not so in the present day. Those students who take the plunge and head off to another country are now thought of in much more positive terms. These days, employers are increasingly interested in individuals who have some sort of international experience, and these individuals are, in many cases, a step above those who finished their baccalaureate in the traditional four years and immediately entered the workforce. Knowing what it takes to compete in a global market, companies are searching for students who can enable them to bridge the gap between cultures (Imbs 2006).

Why are more students seeking international internships or study abroad programs? We live in an inexplicitly more global society, and to be competitive in the job market, students realize they need an international experience. Our world has become globally interdependent and continues to shrink daily, making it essential for students to develop a sense of internationalism. Any kind of international experience, such as a semester or summer term at a university overseas or an internship or work program at a company overseas, enables a student to develop the necessary skills to function in a global society.

## BENEFITS OF AN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE

There are many intrinsic benefits to interning and studying abroad. Students have the opportunity to gain invaluable cross-cultural experience, develop cultural sensitivity, become more adaptable, and experience personal growth. Many employers recognize that individuals who have an international experience of some kind are more likely to be risk takers, better critical thinkers, more willing to accept challenges, and better at managing change. These students also typically exhibit characteris-

tics of independence, entrepreneurship, resourcefulness, inquisitiveness, and flexibility (Chura 2006).

Experiential learning can provide definitive benefits to a student, benefits that may not be as readily found in a traditional classroom setting. Not only can students learn a new language or build upon existing language skills to develop fluency, they gain a better understanding of society and themselves when completing an international internship or study abroad program (Steinberg 2002). In addition, it gives students the opportunity to learn about business tactics and operations as well as societal function in another country. Being able to achieve full cultural immersion by living, working and studying alongside the people of another country affords individuals the opportunity to learn about American influence elsewhere as well as to learn about other perspectives. In this way, students are able to become more open minded to other ideas and opinions, thus reducing an ethnocentric viewpoint.

## PARTICIPATION AND DURATION

In terms of duration, over the last decade more students chose to spend one semester abroad, while the next greatest number chose to spend the summer term abroad, followed by those who desired a full academic year abroad. Recently there has been an increase in the proportion of students who go abroad for less than one semester: the majority of students (56%) now choose the summer term, January term, and other short programs instead of full semesters or a whole year (IIE Network 2005).

The Institute for International Education, a non-profit organization that is “the world’s most experienced global higher education and professional exchange agency” (IIE Network 2005), administers a variety of exchange and training programs around the globe. Each year it publishes the Open Doors report, which provides a variety of statistical data pertaining to students and faculty who study or work outside of their home countries (IIE Network 2005). The following contains, in part, information from the Open Doors 2005 report.

## SHORT-TERM STUDY ABROAD PROGRAMS

The number of students participating in a study abroad experience of less than eight-weeks has increased relatively consistently since 1993 and now outnumbers those who spend an academic year abroad (IIE Network 2005). In many cases, students are choosing these shorter term options because they feel they are more affordable than spending a more extended period of time abroad such as for a semester exchange or for an internship.

A growing number of students rely on part-time employment to subsidize their college expenses. The opportunity cost of a semester abroad is often prohibitively high for these students. In addition, non-traditional students feel they cannot be away from full-time jobs, family or other obligations for a semester but are able to spend a few weeks abroad. These short term experiences prove to be valuable tools in the internationalization process of students and should not be ignored as a viable option for an institution.

## LONGER TERM STUDY ABROAD/EXCHANGE PROGRAMS

While short-term programs do serve a useful purpose in the internationalization of college students, a longer term experience is more beneficial. These programs provide students an opportunity to study in another environment, interact with students from the host culture and learn from a variety of other international students who are studying there with them. (Short term program participants typically have minimal contact with other students in their destination countries.)

According to the Open Doors 2005 report by the Institute of International Education, approximately 191,000 U.S. students studied abroad at some point over the 2003–2004 academic year, an increase of 150 percent in the previous decade (IIE Network 2005). However, these study abroad participants encompassed a mere 1.5 percent of the total number of U.S. college students (NAFSA 2005).

Despite the increases overall, Arpan and Kwok report that 56 percent of U.S. universities are not a member of any consortia for the conduct of any international business educational activity (B.II.17), compared to non-U.S. universities where that number is 28.9 percent (B.III.17). Clearly US universities lag significantly behind universities in other countries in offering international study opportunities.

Traditionally, the United Kingdom has been the most widely sought study abroad location by Americans. In

fact, countries in Europe have tended to host the greatest majority of students with 60 percent of the total, while other popular destinations include Australia, Mexico, Japan, Costa Rica, and New Zealand (IIE Network 2005). However, in recent years less traditional destinations like China (90% increase), India (65% increase), Africa (18% increase; 3% of the total), and Latin America (9% increase; 15% of the total) have come more to forefront (IIE Network 2005).

Over the years, the majority of U.S. study abroad students have been juniors and seniors; juniors represented about 36 percent of participants in 2003–2004, while seniors represented about 20 percent. Bachelor level students, who represent 17 percent of total participants, outnumber master and doctoral level students with 4.3 percent and 0.5 percent respectively. Open Doors 2005 continues to report consistently higher numbers of female participants; women represent about 65 percent of the total study abroad participants. The vast majority of participants are Caucasian (83%), while Asian-Americans, Hispanic-Americans, and African-Americans represent very small proportions of the total, with 6 percent, 5.0 percent, and 3 percent respectively. Social Sciences students continue to represent the largest proportion of study abroad students at about 22 percent of the total in 2003–2004, an increase of 16.5 percent. Increasing 8 percent in 2003–2004, Business and Management students rank second with 17 percent of the total. Health Sciences experienced a relatively large increase (about 20%) but still only represent about 3 percent of study abroad students. The number of Math, Computer Science and Agriculture students, which traditionally have represented only a tiny proportion, declined further in 2003–2004.

## INTERNSHIPS

The least utilized internationalization option is the completion of a foreign internship. Since many students plan a work abroad experience on their own during school breaks or after they have graduated, it is difficult to know the exact number of Americans who participate, though estimates range from 35,000 people (Chura 2006) to “tens of thousands” (Johnson, Matherly, and Nolting 2005). Even without an exact count, it can easily be said that the numbers are increasing as more students realize the advantages an international experience has to their personal and professional development. However, even with the increase there is a long way to go before this number reaches beyond only a small proportion of American students.

Two of the most useful resume building activities a student can participate in while completing their univer-

sity program are an international experience and an internship. An overseas internship provides both these experiential tools, as well as the potential for making contacts which might result in a permanent career position.

### UNIVERSITY SUPPORT

Understanding the demands of our changing society, many universities are offering increasing numbers of study and work abroad programs, and a few universities are going so far as to make an international experience mandatory for all students. Goucher College in Towson, Maryland, for instance, is now requiring all of its students to study abroad prior to graduation. Although it was feared that enrollment might decline due to the new requirement, administrators enacted the change, which has resulted in their largest freshman class ever (Kinzie 2006). Although offering and encouraging international experiences sometimes creates more work and red tape, it is important for universities to provide opportunities for students to study or intern abroad in order to assist their students with achieving a competitive edge. Some schools develop their own programs, such as short-term immersion trips, bi-lateral agreements establishing exchange partnerships, or internship programs; others encourage interested students to participate in programs being administered by other universities or by third-parties. Whether it is an in-house program or not isn't the issue; the important thing is that there are available programs in which students can participate.

Some universities offer academic credit for international internships, which provides an incentive to students to participate, and in this way, many students are able to fulfill a degree requirement as well as have a rewarding and fun experience abroad; however, some universities do not offer curriculum to support this – something William Brustein, Director of the University Center for International Studies at University of Pittsburgh, thinks must change if universities are to produce global thinkers and global citizens. Brustein pointed out the importance of global competence, which is defined in a National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges report as the ability “. . . not only to contribute to knowledge, but also to comprehend, analyze and evaluate its meaning in the context of an increasingly globalized world” (Paths to Global Competence). Being capable of multi-cultural communication, being aware and adaptable to a variety of cultures, and being able to effectively work in international settings are skills that provide the basis of global competence (Paths to Global Competence). Students can also participate in things such as semester exchange programs where they can fulfill course requirements by taking comparable classes at foreign institutions, thus staying on pace for degree

completion while still reaping the benefits of an international experience. If more universities adapt their curriculum to provide academic reasons for students to complete international internships or study abroad programs, and if students are made aware of international opportunities and their benefits, young people will be better equipped to achieve the global competence so important to their career development. Additionally, universities that support these programs assist their graduates with becoming more marketable to employers (Adler and Loughrin-Sacco 2003).

### CONCLUSIONS

Although there is increased attention being paid to student internationalization, the United States is far behind many other countries around the world. Whereas only about a quarter of a million American students participate in study abroad and internship placements around the world, more than half a million international students come to the U.S. alone (Ritchie 2002). Without more significant changes in strategic goals and curriculum within American universities, American students will continue to be short-changed as they prepare to enter the job market. Internationalization of higher education must be enhanced and grown to reach the level students in this country deserve.

If one was to rank overseas experiences in a hierarchy, the minimal experience of a few weeks would be at the bottom, with an internship experience being considered the most beneficial. Universities need to explore options which will help create these opportunities for their students as well as provide a stimulus for students to participate. Career counseling, academic advising and classroom discussion should all provide encouragement for a student to seek out overseas opportunities.

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# POINT OF CONTACT POWER: THE IMPORTANCE OF SERVICING STUDENTS AS CUSTOMERS

*Richard A. Geyer, Nova Southeastern University*

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First impressions should never be underestimated in the servicing of potential students by institutions of higher education. Initial interactions with higher education personnel will develop in a potential student's mind images, whether accurate or inaccurate, of the quality of all other services provided by that university thereby impacting the likelihood of attendance (Ivy 2001). It is therefore crucial that first points of contact people are trained or naturally possess exceptional customer service abilities and view each inquiry as not only a potential student but a customer. Indeed, in a study conducted by Chervonnaya (2003) of customer characteristics in the service provider industry it was noted that importance should be placed on identifying where each individual person is on the "customer path" (p. 348).

In fall of 2005 this researcher posed as a potential student to contact various types of colleges and universities that primarily recruited for the business and criminal justice fields. It was discovered that not all institutions of higher education view students as customers. Often, initial points of contact people were rude or did not pay attention to my needs at the time of inquiry. This profoundly affected my views of that particular institution in terms of the quality of the institution as a whole, what kind of education I would receive and the satisfaction I would have in attending the university throughout completion of a degree program. According to Seeman and O'Hara (2006), it is of key importance that institutions of higher education hold the student-as-customer relationship in high regard in order to gain a competitive advantage in the recruitment and retention of students.

It will be the intent of this paper and conference presentation to emphasize the importance of servicing students as customers through the delivery of current literature on this topic and the presentation of my research data.

Conclusions will be drawn based on the research study that will demonstrate to institutions of higher education why initial point of service contact is so powerful and needs to be carefully addressed in order to maintain competitive advantages in the recruitment and retention of students as well as to form initial impressions of the institution as favorably and as a provider of quality educational services.

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# MAKING THE GRADE?

*Kelly Price, East Tennessee State University*

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For centuries, teachers have been assessing students' skill mastery via a multitude of evaluation techniques. Assigning grades and analyzing student performance have traditionally been key aspects of educators' tasks.

"The tables have turned!"

Today's students regularly "grade" their professors using the Internet. Student initiated web sites are used to evaluate grading policies, a professor's teaching ability, personality and even appearance. Students visit the sites to determine which classes to take depending on a professor's "score."

Examples comments are: "He's weird"; "The book had a better personality"; and "He breathes sleeping gas" (www.cbsnews.com 2003). One site even allows a rating for physical attraction where a chili pepper icon determines a "hottie." Comments can include positive critiques such as: "He really wants students to think and learn. I would take him again"; "Very factual, very friendly, very knowledgeable; the epitome of what a college professor should be"; and "He is demanding but makes classes interesting by giving us activities to help reinforce what was learned" (www.ratemyprofessor.com).

The sites have been generally supported by the courts due to freedom of speech issues (1<sup>st</sup> Regional Principals Council 2006). When comments become threatening or harassing courts have supported educators. However, simply derogatory remarks fall within free speech parameters. Some popular sites include www.ratemyprofessor.com, www.pickaprof.com, and www.professorperformance.com.

Arguments may be made as to the importance of these sites. Can professors accept constructive criticism and actually improve their instruction? Conversely, are pro-

fessors unfairly criticized and their reputations damaged?

While there are viable points on both sides, the position must be taken which supports the rights of students to post their opinions on these sites. There are considerations which lead to this conclusion:

1. The right of consumers to voice their opinions regarding a product or service is important – even necessary. Students pay for professor services and should have the right to critique this "service."
2. The internet is the most important global communication tool available today. Trying to eliminate such sites would not be possible nor desirable. In this case, Pandora's Box cannot be closed.
3. While the sites may contain undesirable and sometimes incorrect information, they remain controlled in the sense that threatening or harassing comments can be challenged through litigation. These parameters protect professors from truly damaging actions.
4. The right of free speech is protected in America. This is the most important consideration in allowing such sites to continue.

In general, these web sites may offer constructive criticism, allow students a voice in their educational process, and most of all, prove that the right of free speech is alive and well in America.

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# GETTING PUBLISHED: TEXTBOOKS VS. JOURNAL ARTICLE PUBLICATIONS AS RELATED TO TENURE AND PROMOTION

*Brian T. Engelland, Mississippi State University*

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## AS AN ASSISTANT PROFESSOR

In some academic fields (especially philosophy, sociology and history) book writing is an appropriate and expected activity during one's tenure track. This is not true in marketing. Although departmental tenure procedures generally grant some credit for book writing, journal article production is considered the most productive research endeavor for junior faculty, and it is rewarded appropriately. At Mississippi State University, the P&T standards for the marketing department require that the applicant show evidence of (1) being able to publish at the highest journal level in the profession; and (2) being able to sustain a high level of journal article productivity throughout the probationary period. While no minimum number of journal articles is specified by the standard, an analysis of the total amassed by successful applicants runs between 8 and 16 for the five-year tenure period, of which at least one is considered an A-level journal in the discipline. If someone is planning to achieve that level of production, he/she does not have the time to work on a textbook at the same time.

## AS AN ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR

Once tenured, a faculty member has much greater freedom in determining how and where to spend research time and effort . . . to a point. If that associate professor has designs to get promoted to a full professor some day, he or she must still play by the "promotion" rules in the P&T program. This means a continuation of journal quality research. At Mississippi State University, candidates for full professor must attain a national reputation in two of three areas, either teaching, research or service, while attaining satisfactory performance in the third. Certainly, high quality journal article production is an appropriate venue in which to attain national exposure.

## AS A FULL PROFESSOR

On the other hand, once a faculty member has reached full professor status, it may be very appropriate to author or co-author a text in the discipline. Such an activity can assist students in learning, achieve some favorable publicity for your school, and add to your income.

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# THE DECISION THEORY MODEL AND ITS APPLICATION TO GLOBALIZING HIGHER EDUCATION

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## INTRODUCTION

Global orientation in business refers to the description of “world” as the marketplace and to providing standardized products to the market (Johanson 2004). Since business survival at the marketplace is a function of implementing business management principles, *ceteris paribus*, one would expect globalization to produce convergence in business management teaching across national borders.

A recent paper on knowledge development (Rossiter 2001) posits, that in business, there are no universal principles: principles are normative statements such as “if the situation is “x,” then do “y.” If principles do differ from situation to situation, then what type of business management knowledge could we transfer across national boundaries? Put another way, can we globalize or standardize business education? This paper explores this issue using a conceptual model of business decision-making deduced from the extant literature on the topic.”

## BUSINESS DECISION MAKING: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Business decisions involve eliciting a desired response from a target. For example, obtaining a purchase response from the customer would be the objective of most, if not all, marketing managers. It could be said that there are two aspects or facets of decision-making: generating decision alternatives, and selection of one or more alternatives for implementation. Consider the case of a marketing manager attempting to select the most effective ‘impersonal’ media mix. The task involves (i) listing all plausible combinations of broadcast, and print media, and (ii) choosing a combination of media that will contribute the most to the profits of the business.

Decision aids for “task (i),” that is, generating decision alternatives, include a good understanding or description of the market. In other words, theoretical principles of the form “if the situation is “x,” then do “y” are used to deduce decision alternatives. Continuing with the media

decision example, marketing communication theory would suggest: “if low involvement product, then use radio and television to advertise about the product; if high involvement product, then use print media” (see for example, Shimp 2004). Of course, product involvement could differ from one situation to another thus restricting the usefulness of the above theoretical principle to certain markets. The point is that the task of generating decision alternatives requires situation or context-specific theoretical principles.

As regards “task (ii),” that is, selection of one or more alternatives, decision-makers either can subjectively reduce the set of choices to a manageable number (Kotler 2006; Mintzberg 1975), or they can utilize objective, decision-process models such as payoff matrix to select among the available decision alternatives. It is the latter approach to decision-making, that is, using decision-process models to select among decisions, that can be standardized and taught across national borders. For example, consider the following linear programming formulation of a media selection problem (Athiyaman 2004):

$$\text{Maximize } Z = \text{effective reach} = \sum_{jk} c_{jk} x_j$$

Where,

$c_{jk}$  = Number of listeners to radio during the  $k^{\text{th}}$  hour ( $k = 1: 6\text{am} - 7\text{am}$  to  $18: 11\text{pm} - 12\text{am}$ ) with the  $j^{\text{th}}$  ( $j = 1$  to  $5$ ) value system (for instance, “security”);  
 $x_j$  = radio station

subject to the constraint:  $\sum_{jk} a_{jk} x_j \leq b_k$

Where,

$a_{jk}$  = Technical or production coefficient “j” such as the cost of placing a 30-second commercial during the hour “k,” and

$b_k$  = available productive resources such as advertising time constraint: that is, the maximum number of advertising insertions possible in an hour “k”

Although this model was employed to choose among radio stations that provided maximum reach or coverage

of target markets in the North Queensland region of Australia, it can be employed anywhere in the world to choose among candidate radio stations for advertising purposes.

In summary, our conceptualization of globalizing business education reveals that business decisions involve two facets: one involving generating a number of decision alternatives, and another screening the decisions and choosing an optimal decision for implementation. The task of generating decision alternatives requires situation or context-specific theoretical principles. On the other hand, the process of selecting one or more decision alternatives depends on objective, decision-process models. Note that these decision process models are often generic and applicable across borders.

With this conceptual model in mind, we content analyze offshore business programs to understand the extent to which the offshore curriculum adheres to the conceptual

model. We assume that teaching relevant “localized theory” and standardized “decision-process models” will enhance student satisfaction.

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# INTERNATIONAL TEACHING TIPS

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During the fall 2005 semester, the author taught in the Missouri-London program at Imperial College in central London. This paper is designed to offer tips to professors considering teaching in a foreign country.

## INTERNATIONAL CONTACTS

Begin to make international contacts in the U.S. The first place to find international contacts would be through the companies that already recruit on your campuses or alumni. For example, the author contacted the Coca-Cola rep and he was able to set up a Coca-Cola International visit for the International Marketing class in London. At the completion of the site visit the London rep asked, "Who did you know in Atlanta to get this set up?" Normally, the company did not offer this type of service. Another resource would be the internet. Look online and identify people listed in the country of interest and email them for assistance. The International class took eight field trips: Christie's Auction House, Harrods, Coca-Cola International, BBC, Ram's Young Brewery, The American Embassy, Parliament to visit with MP Tom Clarke, and Bloomberg Financial. Walter Westervelt (alum), with the Siemens Bank Group (Germany), came to the classroom.

## PREPARATION

In preparing to teach a class overseas consider talking to someone who has taught in the country you will be visiting – even if they are located on another university campus. They can be very helpful in providing not only basic class information, but also the names of grocery stores, restaurants, medical facilities, etc. Be prepared to mail or take office supplies. Office supplies in foreign countries can be very expensive or not readily available (especially if you have specific manufacturer requirements). Contact the foreign university to find out if there will be hardware/software in your classrooms. In the United States, it's very common to put all your class notes on powerpoint, but the software might not be available overseas. In addition, find out what hardware/software the students have in their rooms. In London, the students did not have access to the internet, which then changed the planned paper requirements for the International Marketing class. Require students to buy the text in the U.S.

## CREATE EXCITEMENT FOR STUDENTS

The International Marketing class had eight students from four different U.S. universities. Each student was excited about the new adventure and was anxious to learn about London businesses. Therefore, not only did we discuss the textual material, but also the material came alive during the site visits. In addition to the site visits, the author asked the class what businessperson would they most like to meet? Their unanimous reply was Sir Richard Branson. The author composed a letter to Sir Branson and indicated the class wanted to ask him only one question. Sir Branson's office did reply to say that Sir Branson was not available due to his travels, but he would be happy to answer one question if we would submit it in writing. Now, the class challenge was to come up with one question to ask Sir Richard Branson. Not only did the class try to think of a question but they were asking other students outside of the International Marketing class for help and even bought Branson's book to read. They did come up with one question to send – "Sir Branson, one class member will have the privilege of shadowing you for a day. At the end of the day, what would you hope they would have learned?" Sir Branson's response, "Hopefully, that I put my people first whether they are cleaning the floor, operating the switchboard or a Director of the company. Listening not dictating to them, praising not criticizing them."

## RESULTS

The students learned more about London and international marketing from the lectures and especially the field trips. They started coming to the author wanting to visit additional companies – but time did not allow for additional visits. They were eager to learn more.

Upon arriving back to the U.S., each student from the class has kept in contact with the author. Each student has grown tremendously from the initial classroom meeting and now desires a career position that allows for international travel.

## FINAL NOTE

The author wants to emphasize to the reader that a significant amount of work was required to prepare,

network, arrange, and travel to the site visits. But the end results made the effort worthwhile, as now there are eight

bright, enthusiastic future international employees that are anxious to experience all the world has to offer.

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# TEACHING FOR STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES

*Dena Lieberman, Alverno College*

The interest in outcomes and assessment of outcomes continues to grow as evidenced by the number of workshops on this subject as well as the call from accrediting bodies such as AACSB for business and management programs to develop assessment processes to insure their programs are outcomes based and that outcomes assist student learning. The Alverno College Business and Management Faculty have been using learning outcomes to guide our curriculum work since the creation of our core business and management program of study in 1976. We have since added majors in management accounting, marketing management and international business and this fall semester we are launching our first graduate MBA program. Each of these major programs is organized around learning outcomes that guide the design of courses and subsequent learning experiences and assessments in each course.

This session will first review some key components of the assessment process and will use specific courses examples to illustrate the need for an integration between outcomes for a department or major area of study, outcomes for courses and outcomes for particular assessments within courses. The emphasis will be on how outcomes inform the design of learning experiences and how learning experiences are designed developmentally. Following, the session will review some useful worksheet prompts to assist participants to design their own learning and assessment experiences when they return to their campuses and will suggest some useful resources for further assistance in the design and assessment of outcomes.

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# MARKETING ON THE FIRST DAY

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## SUMMARY

Some faculty set aside the first day of class to confirm the class roster, share information regarding the needed course materials such as textbooks, and to go over the course syllabus. One rationale for this approach is that since some students may add the course after the first day, instructors do not want new enrollees to get too far behind. Also, since most, if not all students do not purchase the required text for the course until after the first class meeting, students are usually not ready to go over the introductory material on the first day. Students have come to expect this, so they are not shocked, and usually relieved, when class is let out early.

Other faculty however, view the first day of class as a regular class session and engage in the course material right away. They recognize that students are not necessarily prepared, but the instructor wants to utilize every class session to avoid getting behind later in the course so they dive right into the material after a brief introduction to the course. Students do not necessarily like this method, but faculty are not dismayed since students usually do not complain about it on teaching evaluations.

There is an alternative approach to the first day of class that may satisfy students and the instructor. Going over the syllabus and taking attendance if necessary are essential but are usually not that time consuming. The balance of the first class meeting can be used to introduce the students to the course content using a class activity. The activity should engage the entire class, be simple enough

to explain in a brief period but substantial enough that students have to think and execute a chosen strategy. Also, the activity should be somewhat competitive so rewards can be offered to outstanding performers thus encouraging class participation. The *Principles of Marketing* course is an ideal setting for this type of approach.

In this panel session, the presenter will outline a 10-minute in-class activity demonstrating how products flow through a traditional distribution channel from manufacturer to wholesaler to retailer to consumer. This is designed for the first day of class for a *Principles of Marketing* course to encourage class participation, to help students to get to know each other, and to build excitement for the course.

Several students win small prizes as a reward for their achievement in the activity. The activity is followed up by an extensive discussion period. The activity takes five minutes to explain to the class, 10 minutes to execute, five minutes to select winners, and up to 20 minutes for debriefing and discussion.

Students really engaged in the learning process during the debriefing period where they were asked questions addressing place, marketing channel, time sensitivity, ethics, and strategy execution. Verbal feedback and written course evaluations indicate that students appreciated the hands-on approach, favoring extensive use of activities that make application of course material rather than significant time devoted to lectures.

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# CONNECTING THEORY WITH PRACTICE

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## SUMMARY

There are numerous approaches to creating an active learning environment that facilitates the learning process for today's student. The specific course content will play a major role in selecting the appropriate techniques to create the learning process most appropriate for each class.

The Integrative Business Experience (IBE) program was implemented at Central in January 2004 and provides a

unique active learning environment for students with a specific interest in entrepreneurship. The block of four-three hour classes includes a three-hour practicum class, which requires the students to set up and operate a company for one semester and be involved with another organization for a service-learning project. By integrating the theory from the other three basic classes in marketing, management, and Information Systems, the students can apply the theory to the practice of operating the actual business and helping the organization involved in the service-learning project.

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# USE OF ELECTRONIC FOCUS GROUPS AS AN ASSESSMENT TOOL IN A PRINCIPLES OF MARKETING CLASS

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## ABSTRACT

The use of the focus group interview as a qualitative research tool has long been a staple for marketing researchers and is commonly covered in a wide range marketing textbooks and courses. This paper describes the application of electronic focus groups in a principles of marketing course as both a hands-on teaching experience as well as a course assessment tool. The potential benefits from the use of either electronic or traditional focus group structures are varied and are explained in the form of conclusions and recommendations.

## INTRODUCTION

Introducing students to the focus group interview as a qualitative research tool is a common part of the curriculum for a range of courses including Principles and Marketing Research courses. As a research tool the focus group lends itself to in-class demonstration or other hands-on learning settings more easily than most other research tools.

This paper summarizes a study where a version of an electronic focus group was used to evaluate the perceptions of students in a Principles of Marketing course with regards to a number of questions focusing upon instructional tools and assessment methods used in the course.

An electronic focus group format was used but in a setting where students could interact verbally with the moderator as well as with each other using synchronous group processing software. The questions of the focus group were directed to evaluating the use of the syllabus and specific assessment tools within the course including case studies and examinations.

The overarching purpose of the study was to gain insights into the perceived efficacy of instructional tools by students and to gain a sense of the uniformity or lack of uniformity of opinion of students on these questions. The inclusion of quantitative questions where the computation of group average and standard deviation were possible allowed for this outcome.

The secondary purpose was to expose students to the focus group interview as a qualitative research tool with an in-class demonstration and hands-on learning experience.

This paper will summarize the results of this study and offer specific conclusions drawn from the assembled data.

## METHODOLOGY

The data for this paper were gathered using two separate sections of a Principles of Marketing course. Forty-seven of the 48 registered students participated in the study.

The participants were all traditional aged upper class students and predominantly in their third year. The class included approximately 20 percent of the students who enrolled in the course as an elective and whose majors were not management or business related disciplines.

Each focus group took place during a ninety-minute session in the latter part of the semester. Students had previously been exposed to the concept of focus groups through readings, lectures, and discussions.

For these electronic-based focus groups the students were assembled in a computer lab type of setting that had a large viewing screen that could display participants' responses. The computers were networked and used a commercially available group processing software.

The focus group interviews were conducted with a traditional moderator and questions were presented as if the structure were a traditional focus group. Participants, however, responded electronically to the questions posed by the moderator. Responses were given by participants to the questions of the moderator as well as to responses of other participants.

Participants' responses were anonymous with no attribution made to the individual responses.

## QUESTIONS

A variety of formats were used for the questions within the interview. Questions varied in the extent they were either purely open-ended or called for a response from a closed number of possible choices. Questions also varied in that for some the responses of to the questions were visible to all participants and with some questions where the participants did not have the capacity to view or know the responses of other participants. This range of formats allowed for participants to react to and be influenced by other participants on the questions where this was appropriate for data collect. It also allowed for responses that only reflected the thinking of the individual participants where this was the more appropriate means for data collection.

The initial questions were partially intended to be a warm-up question to allow students to get comfortable with the software and the setting. The responses to these questions were viewable by all participants and simply asked students to “Specifically describe the role of the course syllabus for a college level course” and “What elements should be included in a syllabus?”

The second series of questions were closed questions. Using a scale of 1–7 with one being “very ineffective” and seven being “very effective” participants were asked to evaluate examinations, case studies, and a marketing plan as tools to evaluate student learning. The responses to these questions were not available for group viewing until after the completion of the focus group exercise.

The next question asked participants to assign a weighting of the relative importance these three assessment tools should have in the determination of the final grade. Each participant allocated 100 percentage points between the three tools. The responses to these questions were not available for group viewing.

A third series of questions was structured to give students the opportunity to identify ways they believed would effective in assessing their performance in the course. These responses were viewable by all participants and allowed for students to pose clarifying questions or to provide commentary on the responses.

Finally, was a series of questions that asked the participants to individually rank eight different activities as to the extent they are “effective in facilitating learning.” These responses were not available for group viewing.

## OUTCOMES

The responses to the first series of questions were largely unsurprising. Students commonly cited that the role of a

syllabus is providing a course guide that generally describes the academic plan for the course. When asked to detail what specific elements should be included patterns of responses emerged. The two most frequently cited expectations of students beyond the schedule of the course were specific grading policies including explanation of rubrics, late penalties, and other grade related elements and contact information including the preferred way to contact the professor and expectations of turn-around time for email contacts.

While the responses did not break any new ground the purpose of familiarizing the students with the software and the general process being utilized for the focus group was accomplished. The number of responses provided by the participants was more than double the number of participants in the focus group. This suggests more than minimal engagement on the part of the students. The responses were not limited to individual comments but reflected a number of contributions that were specific responses, either comments or questions, to peer’s comments.

The second series of questions focused on the three tools currently used for assessment in the course. These are case studies, examinations, and creation of a marketing plan. The purpose of the question was to assess student’s perspective on the effectiveness of the respective grading tools to evaluate student learning.

Of the three basis the tool rated most effective was the use of case studies with a group average of 5.61 on the scale of one being very ineffective to seven being very effective. Significant also was the standard deviation of the responses being only .92; indicative of the high degree of relative agreement amongst the students.

The next highest rated tool was that of the marketing plan. The group average was 5.50. The standard deviation was higher at 1.18 A greater number of students rated the marketing plan with the highest score (11) than compared with case studies (8) as well as more giving lower ratings of 4 or less (9) than with case studies (4).

The lowest rated tool was the use of examinations. In this course each of the exams is made up of short answer and essay questions and each exam is cumulative. The group average was 4.06 which is significantly lower than the response to the other tools. There was a relatively greater standard deviation on this question of 1.37. No students rated this question most effective but 28 rated it at four or lower with two students giving the tool the minimum rating.

The third series was intended to allow students to express ways they believed would be effective in evaluating

student performance. The purpose was to determine if there are types of assessments that students consider more effective in evaluating their performance than those currently used. As this was both an open-ended question and one that students could react and respond to contributions of peers the focus group behaved in a fashion similar to a discussion.

Many of the responses expressed that the three tools currently used are most effective. Several additional tools were identified. Those that surfaced in both sessions included:

1. Student presentations in class.
2. Individual conferences with students with a series of questions dealing with the main concepts of the course. Essentially this would be an oral examination.
3. Group projects.
4. Attendance.

The fourth series of questions was intended to gain input from the students on which of the activities they engaged in during the semester was most important in facilitating the mastering the learning objectives of the course. The specific learning objectives for the course are: To introduce students to the principles of marketing and to provide a working understanding of marketing planning and strategy. Specific objectives include:

- ◆ To gain an understanding and the capacity to apply the elements of the marketing mix.
- ◆ To gain an understanding and the capacity to apply models of strategic marketing.
- ◆ To gain an understanding and the capacity to analyze tools of industry competitive intensity.
- ◆ To gain an understanding and the capacity to analyze company competitive positions.
- ◆ To gain an understanding and the capacity of methods to analyze and organize customer markets.

Students were asked to evaluate eight separate activities on a scale of one being very unimportant to seven being very important. In descending order from those ranked most important to least important along with the group averages and standard deviations the results were:

1. Class Attendance. 5.40/1.30.
2. Case Assignments. 5.25/1.04.
3. Lectures. 5.21/1.4.
4. Marketing Plan. 5.01/1.10.
5. Time spent preparing for examinations. 4.89/1.48.
6. Time spent with instructor out of class. 4.6/1.34.
7. Assigned readings. 3.92/1.05.
8. Out of class interaction with other students. 3.75/1.30.

There was consistency between these responses and those of earlier questions that evaluated student perceptions of the effectiveness of currently used assessment tools.

One unexpected result was the perceived low value of required readings. The group average of 3.92 and the low standard deviation among responses reflects clear consensus as to perceived low importance. Whether it is due to lectures covering the material, the extent in which the readings are incorporated into other aspects of the class or the actual value of the readings themselves, the clear message is that students do not see them as important.

## CONCLUSIONS

This study used a facility and technology that is not available in every teaching setting. The flexibility of the group processing software allows for a number of types of applications and questions that easily facilitate this type of exercise. (Some of the electronic tools are available as a part of course management software widely used on campuses.) At the core of the study are some very basic focus group interview techniques as well as basic classroom assessment processes.

A number of conclusions or recommendations can be drawn from this study and applied in marketing and other courses regardless of the availability of technology. These include:

1. Relevant hands-on application of focus group interview techniques. Students are able to view and in some cases participate in the construction of the questions or topics of the session, facilitating, and interpreting of results.
2. Broad engagement on the part of students. The flexibility to accommodate larger class sizes can be a desirable advantage coming from the use of electronic group processing software as the basis for all or part of the session.
3. Classroom assessment. While the value of classroom assessment is not generally questioned, finding time to conduct meaningful assessments can be the challenge. By combining the assessment into course content a professor can gain valuable data without giving up course content.
4. Use with future classes. Convincing students of the benefits of attending class or being serious about coursework can be a challenge. What else would a student expect to hear from their instructor. Presenting the assessment data from a previous class that had substantially completed the course can be a very effective means to communicate expectations and stimulate desired behavior.

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# DVR AND SATELLITE RADIO TECHNOLOGIES' IMPACT ON MAGAZINE ADVERTISING

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## ABSTRACT

A description of new technologies, Digital Video Recorder and Satellite Radio, is given. The study discusses how the escalating amount of subscribers to these technologies is making it increasingly more difficult for businesses to reach customers through TV and radio advertisements and how magazine advertising is becoming more desirable to companies as a way to reach their target markets. The strengths of magazine advertising are also discussed against these technologies. Data are provided that illustrates the number of new technology subscribers, advertising spending for each of three media, and potential for future growth and earnings.

## INTRODUCTION

In an era when innovative technologies are changing the way companies do business from one day to the next, it is important to evaluate these new technologies to gauge how they might help or hinder a particular industry. Two relatively new media technologies, Digital Video Recorders (DVRs) and Satellite Radio have impacted not only the media and communications industries but also the advertising and marketing industries. These technologies allow subscribers to avoid or eliminate commercials from two popular traditional advertising media, television and radio. There have been many articles written to examine and discuss the implications that DVR and Satellite Radios have on advertising (Kliger 2005), (Emmis 2005), (Atkinson 2006), (Lieberman 2006), (Consoli 2006), (Steinberg 2006), (Wurtzel 2006), (Leonhardt 2006), (Match 2006), (Johnson 2006), (Smith 2006), (Trombino 2006), (Grover 2006), and (Karlgaard 2005). Companies are realizing that their advertisements are so often viewed as "interruptions" (Whitaker 2006) or "overwhelming" intrusions (McCainn 2005) that technology has been created to alleviate this problem. Now companies must seek out means of advertisement that attract customers' attention and awareness instead of driving them to purchase the latest gadget that helps them to avoid the advertisement. Magazine advertisement may very well be the answer to this "advertising-avoidance" (Kliger 2005). Because of its content, layout, targeted market segments, etc., magazines are realizing a rise in

advertising sales thanks to DVR and Satellite Radio technology.

## DIGITAL VIDEO RECORDING

The first DVR was tested on July 8, 1965, with the first commercial hard disk video recorder being released by Ampex in 1967. Due to the limited storage time (only 30 seconds), the DVR did not see much public interest until its reintroduction in 1999 at the Consumer Electronics Show in Las Vegas. Here the model introduced by ReplayTV won "Best of Show" honors. Today, ReplayTV and TiVo are the two consumer DVR brands in the United States (Wikipedia, "Digital Video Recorder" 2006). TiVo has gained much more of the commercial market share, and as a result, will be the main focus in this paper.

Consumers in about 9 percent of U.S. homes currently use TiVo or other DVR devices (Trombino 2006). Standard & Poor's Equity Research expects that DVR penetration of U.S. homes will climb between 30 percent and 35 percent by 2010 (Trombino 2006). Some researchers are predicting as high as 70 percent of U.S. homes will have a DVR by 2010 (Karlgaard 2005). As more households get DVRs, allowing them to "zap" past commercials, it's harder for networks to get top dollar for ads (Grover 2006). It is estimated that about 87 percent of people who own DVRs fast forward through the commercials. This translates to about 79 percent of TV ads skipped by users of TiVo and other DVRs (Karlgaard 2005). This has left advertisers "further disenchanted with TV" (Atkinson 2006), and for good reason. All those "zapped" commercials converts to a loss to advertisers of about \$2 million to \$5 million for a single prime-time night. Compounding this problem is the rise in television advertising rates even while viewer ship has fallen (Grover 2006). This has many people predicting the "death of ad-supported broadcast television" (Wurtzel 2006).

## SATELLITE RADIO

A satellite radio is a digital radio that receives signals broadcast by communications satellite, which covers a much wider geographical range than terrestrial radio

signals. Because the technology requires access to commercial satellite for signal propagation, satellite radio services are commercial business entities, offering a package of channels at a subscription rate of about \$13 for end users to access its channels (Wikipedia, "Satellite Radio" 2006). The services promise superior sound and transmission quality, and fewer or no commercials (Greenspan 2002). The services have news, weather, sports, and multiple music channels (Wikipedia, "Satellite Radio" 2006). Currently XM Satellite Radio Holdings Inc. (XM) and Sirius Satellite Radio Inc. (Sirius) are the two main satellite radio providers for North America. XM has nearly 7 million subscribers and Sirius reports 4.7 million subscribers (Li 2006). Early predictions estimated that as many as 25 million Americans will subscribe to satellite radio by 2010 (Greenspan 2002), but more recent studies show that that number is expected to be "upwards of 50 million subscribers" (Match 2006) over the next decade, "making it as ubiquitous and profitable as cable television" (Match 2006). With the rise and increase in satellite radio subscriptions, fewer companies are electing to spend their precious advertising dollars on local broadcast radio. From 2005 to 2006, local radio advertising dollars decreased by 1.1 percent. Consumers prefer to subscribe to satellite radio to receive not only better sound quality than AM/FM radio (Wikipedia, "Satellite Radio" 2006), or even because of the larger number of channels to choose from, but because for a small monthly fee they can escape the commercials and numerous other interruptions that litter most other local broadcast radio stations. Some critics of satellite radio services have expressed concerns that satellite radio will lead to a decline in the number and variety of local radio stations and programming and greater concentration of mass media in the hands of fewer companies (Wikipedia, "Satellite Radio" 2006).

#### **MAGAZINE INDUSTRY ADVANTAGES/ OPPORTUNITIES**

The challenges and limitations that DVR and Satellite Radio technologies have posed for businesses looking to advertise using television and radio commercials is astounding. This technology is leaving businesses scrambling to find new ways (or revert back to more traditional methods) to present their product or service to their target market. Magazines are quickly becoming the "next new thing" (McCann 2005) for many advertisers.

Where ever one looks, in parks, offices, lunch counters, planes, trains, etc., magazines are present. A passion for print remains no matter how many other forms of media compete for consumers' attention. Magazines offer benefits that are distinct among competing forms of media (McCann 2005). Readers trust magazines, both the editorial content and advertising, more than any other media

(Kliger 2005). Magazine readers do not view advertisements as interruptions as consumers of other forms of media do. Magazines do not have an advertising avoidance problem; actually quite the opposite is true. Numerous studies have shown that magazine readers welcome and value the advertising portion of publications (Kliger 2005). The advertising compliments the editorial (Whitaker 2006) and becomes seen as part of the content (Kliger 2005). Advertisers can leverage that relationship and build on the unique bond of trust that readers have for their favorite publication (McCann 2005).

Another benefit to magazine advertising is the richness of engagement that readers have for the content of the publication. Renetta McCann, CEO of Starcom MediaVest Group states, "In a world where the consumers increasingly seek control, magazines give it to them in a way that speaks volumes" (2005). Magazines let consumers customize their reading experience to suit their own tastes by letting them decide where, how, and when they read magazines. A number of studies show that magazines read in public places bring a valuable audience and return to the advertiser. MRI data shows that in 2005, 24 percent of magazine reading is done in public places, which is up from only 14 percent in the last ten years (Kliger 2005).

These benefits have already led to some impressive numbers for the magazine industry. Consumer magazine measured advertising spending for the first quarter of 2006 totaled \$4,829.1 million. That is up 5.9 percent from 2005's first quarter figure of \$4,560 million. Local magazines advertising spending saw in even greater growth in the past year. Their first quarter's measured advertising spending measured \$110.3 million, which was an 11.1 percent increase from first quarter 2005 at \$99.3 million (Johnson 2006).

Advertisers and magazines seem to find a good fit with one another. Since they share a mutual goal to better serve both the people who trust them with their brand message and the people who trust them with their time, it only seems logical that a relationship should flourish. McCann may have put it best when she said, "Just as the quality of magazines to compel readers is timeless, so too, must advertisers see their opportunity in magazines as timeless" (2005). Since the advent of DVR and Satellite Radio and the increased usage of each, advertising in magazines has become increasingly more valuable to companies trying to reach their target market.

#### **LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

This study is slightly biased to the style of lifestyle magazines. This study realizes that DVR and Satellite Radio are more apt to be purchased by affluent or techno-

logically savvy consumers. As a result of this, technology, lifestyle, and fashion magazines are likely to see the most positive increase in advertising interest and sales, due to the loss of media outlets created by DVR and Satellite Radio. Also some of the research gained from interviews with magazine executives, although factual and knowledgeable, could be biased when discussing one's own company's performance (Whitaker 2006).

### IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study has shown magazine advertising's ability to withstand technology aimed to aid "commercial-avoidance" (Kliger 2005). It will be interesting to see the degree to which magazine advertising sales increase as the estimated amount of subscribers rises for both DVR and Satellite Radio.

### RECOMMENDATIONS/SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Future research on this topic is encouraged and warranted. A cross comparison of various companies' advertising budgets for years 2000–2010 could be performed that might predict whether or not, as DVR and Satellite Radio advertising decreases, magazine and other alternative advertising mediums will increase.

### CONCLUSION

Digital Video Recorders and Satellite Radio allows consumers to get information and entertainment through a media that is uninterrupted by commercial advertisement. As the public continue to find more ways to shy away from advertisements, businesses are finding it increasingly more difficult to reach their target market. Magazines provide a medium that presents advertisements not as interruptions, but as incorporations, and oftentimes enhancements, to editorial content. Magazines are quickly becoming advertisers medium of choice for targeting an interested and engaged target market that will not try to "zap" through their ads like DVR consumers do, or eliminate them completely as Satellite Radio subscribers have done. Magazines have evolved from what's tried and true, to the "next new thing."

Note: The term "advertising" as used through out this study is defined as, "The promotion of goods, services, companies and ideas, usually performed by an identified sponsor, part of an overall promotional strategy." And can encompass, "other components of the promotional mix, including publicity, public relations, personal selling, and sales promotion." (Wikipedia, "Advertising" 2006).

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# BUSINESS AND MARKETING STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING OBJECTIVES ACHIEVED IN CLASSES AND EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

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## ABSTRACT

Given the increasing emphasis on outcomes assessments in colleges of business administration, a more thorough understanding of the attitudes students have towards the achievement of learning objectives in their classes and extracurricular activities would be useful to support other, more direct measures of achievement. A marketing department in a regional, state-university conducted surveys of fifteen personal, interpersonal, and career development objectives achieved in classes and in extracurricular activities. This exploratory study then compared responses by marketing major or not; by gender; by year; and by learning situation.

## INTRODUCTION

Given the increasing emphasis on outcomes assessments in colleges of business administration, a more thorough understanding of the attitudes students have towards the achievement of learning objectives in their classes and extracurricular activities would be useful to support other, more direct measures of achievement. As business instructors place more emphasis on student involvement activities such as oral reports, live cases, service learning, simulations, role play, field trips, and teamwork among others, the appropriate set of learning objectives may need to be expanded from the traditional communication, critical thinking, quantitative analysis, ethical reasoning, multicultural understanding, and international environment understanding to include more interpersonal, personal, and career development/leadership objectives. For these objectives, classes are not the only important element of the learning environment. Co-curricular learning (workplace skills, planning, goal setting, time management, team work, mentoring, networking, and leadership

in professional organization activities on and off campus, student government activities, social activities, public service and charitable activities) may reinforce and extend the achievement of learning objectives that concern the student's personal, interpersonal, and career development. Although not all colleges may wish to set such behavioral objectives, it would be interesting to see which objectives students feel are actually being met. Such an exploration does not, of course, prove that the objectives are being met, since a response bias towards yea-saying is fairly likely with such data (Waldman and Korbar 2004); it is, however, useful to corroborate other more direct measures of assessment and to assist with diagnostic analysis of programs.

What should such objectives include? Based on selected previous literature, suggestions for objectives might include:

1. **Ethical reasoning and behavior** – supporting corporate social responsibility and good business citizenship (AACSB International 2006);
2. **Multicultural understanding** – supporting an appreciation of the improved productivity and effectiveness of business teamwork when diversity and tolerance are valued (AACSB International 2006; Lester, Tomkovick, Wells, Flunker, and Kickul 2005; Waldman and Korbar 2004);
3. **Leadership** – supporting adaptable, charismatic managers of change (Lester, Tomkovick, Wells, Flunker, and Kickul 2005; Scott and Frontczak 1996);
4. **Active participation and contribution to others' learning** (for example, motivating others; working in groups effectively; and projecting enthusiasm) – supporting applications of business knowledge at a deeper level (AACSB International 2006; Davis and Miller 1996);

5. **Interpersonal and intrapersonal skills and emotional intelligence** (for example, dealing with difficult people; projecting self confidence; listening; exercising maturity, self-starter, managing self, managing others) – supporting successful, productive managers of people (Berman and Ritchie 2006; Lester, Tomkovick, Wells, Flunker, and Kickul 2005; Waldman and Korbar 2004; Davis and Miller 1996; Scott and Frontczak 1996);
6. **Problem solving, goal setting, time management, and planning** – supporting organized managers of tasks, time, and resources (Lester, Tomkovick, Wells, Flunker, and Kickul 2005; Waldman and Korbar 2004; Scott and Frontczak 1996);
7. **Creativity** – supporting thinking outside the box (Scott and Frontczak 1996); and
8. **Professionalism, appearance and business etiquette** – supporting an easy transition to the culture of work (Clark 2005; Mintzberg and Gosling 2002).

How well do business and marketing students feel that curriculum and extracurricular activities allow them to move forward on these intrapersonal, interpersonal, and career objectives? Will all business majors support these objectives? Because of its emphasis on interpersonal interaction, communication, creativity, and service learning, the marketing major may more actively incorporate many of these objectives in comparison to other business majors. There may also be some differences demographically in the students' perception of how well these objectives are achieved, if they are differentially more sensitive to certain objectives.

## METHODS

### Population, Sample, and Administration

Marketing majors and other business students enrolled in marketing classes in spring 2005 were asked to fill out a survey anonymously, that was given in two forms – a long form for upper and short for lower classmen. After being briefed by the instructors on the importance of the task as part of the departmental five-year review process and on their protection as human subjects, students could complete them in class or take them home to complete them. There was a small “thank-you” gift, an inexpensive calculator, for those who participated and no penalty for those who did not participate. Since the response rate may differ for those completing the survey in-class and at home, this is a limitation on the study. There could also be a difference in rate between long and short form respondents. For that reason and because long form respondents have had enough experience at college to form opinions about the curriculum, his analysis will be restricted to the long form to improve response quality.

### Measures

A set of fifteen questions about their perceptions of the level of achievement of different learning objectives was repeated for classes and extracurricular activities. The demographics included: (1) up to two majors and a minor; (2) year of studies; (3) gender; (4) transfer student or not; (5) international student or not; (6) minority student or not; and (7) graduating senior or not. All of these measures had been created and tested about two and a half years prior to this survey (at the midpoint of the five-year review process). Two of these demographic measures were selected because the primary determinants of the curriculum, after the learning objectives themselves, are knowledge of the field (majors and minors), classes increasing in pedagogy and difficulty from surveys and basic knowledge in the lower division common core that are primarily taken in freshman and sophomore years, and practical applications of theory and specialized knowledge in the upper division common core and majors and minors primarily taken in the junior and senior years (year of studies). The remaining demographic measures were selected as possible influences of the student's attitudes. Given the increasing trend of enrollment of women in colleges of business and the gains that women have made towards equality in employment, there may or may not be a gender effect. Transfer students may well have had different general education requirements and been exposed to different pedagogical styles; their perceptions may differ from students who have never switched colleges or universities. International and minority students may well place a different level of emphasis on certain learning objectives because of cultural or subcultural forces that shaped their earlier educational experiences. Lastly, graduating seniors who are likely to be actively considering how they can promote themselves to employers and are at the end of the curriculum may also place a different level of emphasis on certain learning objectives. To some extent, the same could be said of dividing responses at the senior year although the urgency of job hunting may not be quite as strong.

### Data Analysis and Tests

This study will conduct descriptive analysis on both sets of attitudes to learning objectives, will rank the top and bottom objectives achieved for both sets of attitudes, will use t-tests on the null hypothesis of no difference between means of the following groups in which the smallest cells have at least five subjects: male versus female; marketing major versus non-major, and an upper/lower split on year of enrollment between junior and below and senior and above (a surrogate for graduating seniors). The other demographics have too sparse cells to be tested. The

sample size and composition are, therefore, limitations on exploring the impact of all the demographics.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Sample Size and Response Rate

Out of the seventy-two students who participated, there were 31 majors (long form), 10 majors (short form), 26 non-majors (long form), and 5 non-majors (short form). A combined response rate of 38.9 percent marketing majors participated, based on a headcount of 142. Non-majors had a response rate of 21.1 percent out of the 147 non-majors enrolled in marketing classes that term. Although the sample is small, it represents enough of a percentage of the population to work with. Long-form respondents number 57 – roughly equal between 31 majors and 26 non-majors.

### Profile of the Sample

Thirty-one of the 57 long-form respondents were marketing majors. Other, commonly mentioned majors and double majors included: Management (12.3%), Accounting (10.5%), and Finance/Real Estate (7.0%). One MBA student completed the survey; this student was removing deficiencies. Forty-five respondents had a minor. The most common minors were: computer science/information systems (3) and economics (2). Forty-nine of the respondents were juniors or seniors. Males (34) slightly outnumbered females (25). There were only a few transfer students (8), international students (2), and minority students (10). Only six of the students were graduating seniors. The profiles of marketing and non-marketing majors are quite similar except that there are more male than female non-marketing majors, and the marketing majors include more seniors than non-majors.

### Tests Performed

T-tests on differences between the pairs of attitudes for objectives achieved in classes and in extracurricular activities were also performed. Tables 1 and 2 present the results of the t-tests on major/non-major, male/female, and senior and postgraduate/junior and earlier differences in attitudes towards the personal/career development objectives achieved in classes and extracurricular activities; Table 3 presents the results of the paired t-test on class/extracurricular activities differences in these attitudes.

### Marketing and Non-Marketing Major Attitudes

Marketing majors felt more strongly that their classes helped them to learn how to behave ethically, how to manage time, and how to set personal goals than did non-

marketing majors (all statistically significant). The top five learning objectives achieved in classes about which marketing majors responded most strongly also included these three: (1) learning time management; (2) learning how to behave ethically; (3) learning to set personal goals; (4) developing problem solving skills; and (5) having the opportunity to work in groups. There was a positive response, about the scale mean of 3, on all fifteen objectives for both marketing and non-marketing majors. The top five learning objectives achieved in class about which non-marketing majors responded most strong were slightly different in rank, but had considerable overlap: (1) learning to exercise maturity; (2) having the opportunity to work in groups; (3) learning how to behave ethically; (4) developing problem solving skills; and (5) learning time management. There were no statistically significant differences in attitude between marketing and non-marketing majors about learning objectives achieved in extracurricular activities. Again, attitudes to the set of objectives were positive, above the scale mean of 3. The top five learning objectives for marketing majors were: (1) behaving ethically; (2) projecting self confidence; (3) learning time management; (4) working in groups; and (5) developing leadership skills. For non-marketing majors, these were (1) exercising maturity; (2) projecting self confidence; (3) projecting enthusiasm/motivation; (4) learning time management; and (5) behaving ethically.

### Male and Female Attitudes

There were no statistically significant differences in attitude between males and females for objectives achieved in classes although there was one difference for working in groups in extracurricular activities; women agreed much more strongly with this than men. The top five learning objectives achieved in classes for males were: (1) working in groups; (2) developing problem solving skills; (3) behaving ethically; (4) learning time management; and (5) projecting self confidence. Once again, the top five had some overlap for females, but less than for the previous set of comparisons: (1) learning time management; (2) exercising maturity; (3) behaving ethically; (4) learning to set personal goals; (5) working in groups tied with exercising creativity. For extracurricular activities, all attitudes are again above the scale mean of 3 and the top five lists are again slightly different. For males, these are: (1) behaving ethically; (2) projecting self-confidence; (3) projecting enthusiasm/motivation; (4) learning time management; and (5) developing leadership skills tied with exercising maturity. For females, these are: (1) working in groups; (2) behaving ethically; (3) projecting self confidence; (4) projecting enthusiasm/motivation; and (5) behaving ethically tied with exercising maturity.

**TABLE 1**  
**Marketing versus Non-Marketing Major, Male versus Female, and Senior**  
**versus Earlier Attitudes to Objectives in Classes**

Attitudes to Objectives in Classes	Marketing Majors			Male			Senior and Post-graduate Junior and Earlier		
	Non-Majors			Female					
	#	Mean	SD	#	Mean	SD	#	Mean	SD
opportunity to work in groups	30	4.30	.83	33	4.24	.96	18	4.28	.89
	26	4.04	1.11	23	4.09	.99	38	4.13	1.01
deal with difficult people in my groups	30	3.57	1.10	33	3.61	1.22	18	3.61	1.24
	26	3.50	1.36	23	3.43	1.23	38	3.50	1.22
motivate others in my groups	30	3.37	1.15	33	3.67	1.21	18	3.33	1.32
	26	3.62	1.29	23	3.22	1.20	38	3.55	1.17
understand different cultural backgrounds	29	3.21	1.20	32	3.44	1.21	18	<b>2.88<sup>b</sup></b>	1.49
	26	3.38	1.13	23	3.09	1.08	38	<b>3.47<sup>b</sup></b>	.95
exercise creativity	30	4.10	.99	33	3.97	1.04	18	3.72	1.22
	25	3.92	.95	22	4.09	.86	37	4.16	.80
exercise maturity	30	4.23	1.00	33	4.03	1.21	18	<b>3.78<sup>b</sup></b>	1.35
	26	4.08	1.12	23	4.35	.77	38	<b>4.34<sup>b</sup></b>	.84
maintain a professional appearance	30	3.87	.81	32	3.88	.97	18	3.78	.87
	25	3.88	1.09	23	3.87	.92	37	3.92	.98
behave ethically	30	<b>4.47<sup>a</sup></b>	.68	33	4.21	1.02	18	4.22	.87
	26	<b>3.96<sup>a</sup></b>	1.07	23	4.26	.75	38	4.24	.94
project enthusiasm motivation	30	4.13	.86	33	3.97	1.01	18	3.89	1.07
	26	3.73	.96	23	3.91	.79	38	3.97	.85
project self confidence	30	4.17	.79	33	4.09	1.10	18	3.94	1.05
	26	3.88	1.21	23	3.96	.87	38	4.08	.99
develop problem solving skills	30	4.33	.71	33	4.24	.93	18	4.00	1.13
	26	3.96	1.21	23	4.04	1.06	38	4.24	.91
develop leadership skills	30	4.17	.79	33	3.97	.95	18	3.89	.96
	25	3.76	1.12	23	4.00	1.02	37	4.03	.98
learn to set personal goals	30	<b>4.33<sup>b</sup></b>	.84	33	4.03	.91	18	4.00	1.02
	26	<b>3.88<sup>b</sup></b>	.95	23	4.26	.91	38	4.18	.86
learn time management	30	<b>4.53<sup>a</sup></b>	.68	33	4.18	1.10	18	4.28	.95
	26	<b>3.96<sup>a</sup></b>	1.28	23	4.39	.94	38	4.26	1.08
learn to be a self starter	30	3.93	.86	33	3.91	1.10	18	3.72	1.22
	26	3.85	1.28	23	3.87	1.05	38	3.97	1.00

Key: Items in boldface are significant as follows: a = .05 or better; b = .10 or better

**TABLE 2**  
**Marketing versus Non-Marketing Major, Male versus Female, and Senior versus Earlier Attitudes to Objectives in Extracurricular Activities**

Attitudes to Objectives in Classes	Marketing Majors			Male			Senior and Post-graduate Junior and Earlier		
	Non-Majors			Female					
	#	Mean	SD	#	Mean	SD	#	Mean	SD
opportunity to work in groups	29	4.10	1.09	32	<b>3.75<sup>b</sup></b>	1.34	18	4.33	.90
	25	3.92	1.47	23	<b>4.39<sup>b</sup></b>	1.07	37	3.86	1.39
deal with difficult people in my groups	29	3.38	1.17	32	3.22	1.31	18	3.33	1.18
	25	3.32	1.62	22	3.55	1.50	36	3.36	1.49
motivate others in my groups	29	3.41	.98	32	3.38	1.26	18	3.56	1.09
	25	3.44	1.71	22	3.50	1.50	36	3.56	1.46
understand different cultural backgrounds	29	3.48	1.02	32	3.38	1.21	18	3.36	1.18
	25	3.20	1.50	22	3.32	1.35	36	3.36	1.31
exercise creativity	29	3.90	.98	32	3.66	1.18	18	3.72	.75
	25	3.72	1.37	22	4.14	1.12	36	3.72	1.32
exercise maturity	29	4.00	1.10	32	4.00	1.01	18	4.11	1.05
	25	4.20	.91	22	4.23	1.02	36	4.11	1.00
maintain a professional appearance	29	3.97	1.05	32	3.75	.91	18	3.92	.87
	25	3.88	1.01	22	4.18	1.14	36	3.92	1.10
behave ethically	29	4.38	.97	32	4.22	.94	18	4.22	.87
	25	4.04	.93	22	4.23	1.02	36	4.22	1.01
project enthusiasm motivation	29	4.17	.92	32	4.06	.91	18	4.11	.90
	25	4.12	1.05	22	4.27	1.07	36	4.17	1.02
project self confidence	29	4.24	.98	32	4.13	1.04	18	4.17	.85
	25	4.12	1.09	22	4.27	1.03	36	4.19	1.11
develop problem solving skills	29	3.97	1.11	32	3.91	1.05	18	3.89	.90
	25	3.88	1.09	22	3.95	1.17	36	3.94	1.19
develop leadership skills	29	4.10	1.08	32	4.00	1.10	18	4.00	1.18
	25	3.96	1.20	22	4.09	1.19	36	4.06	1.12
learn to set personal goals	29	4.07	1.06	32	3.88	1.12	18	3.94	.99
	25	3.74	1.24	22	3.95	1.21	36	3.89	1.23
learn time management	29	4.14	1.06	31	4.03	1.08	18	4.11	.96
	24	4.04	1.16	22	4.18	1.14	35	4.09	1.17
learn to be a self starter	29	3.90	1.20	32	3.91	1.14	18	3.78	1.35
	25	3.76	1.26	22	3.73	1.35	36	3.86	1.17

Key: Items in boldface are significant as follows: a = .05 or better; b = .10 or better

### Senior/Postgraduate and Earlier Class Standing

There were two objectives achieved in classes that had statistical significance: exercising maturity and understanding the perspectives of others from different cultural backgrounds. In both cases, the students earlier in the program placed stronger emphasis on these objectives. Indeed, the seniors rated understanding different cultural backgrounds below the scale mean – a very strong response. This may be a warning sign of a curriculum deficiency. For the seniors, the top five learning objectives achieved in classes were: (1) learning time management; (2) working in groups; (3) behaving ethically; (4) setting personal goals; and (5) developing problem solving skills. For the juniors and earlier, the top five were: (1) exercising maturity; (2) learning time management; (3) developing problem solving; (4) behaving ethically; and (5) setting personal goals. Clearly, there was a good deal of consensus among all the respondents of which of these objectives are being addressed in their classes. There were no significant differences between senior and earlier students' views on the objectives achieved in extracurricular activities, but there is a difference in emphasis. For seniors, the top five objectives were: (1) working in groups; (2) behaving ethically; (3)

projecting self confidence; (4) exercising maturity; (5) learning time management (also tied with projecting enthusiasm). For juniors and before, the top five were: (1) behaving ethically; (2) projecting self confidence; (3) projecting enthusiasm; (4) learning time management; (5) leadership.

### Class and Extracurricular Activity Situations

There was one significant difference by situation, in setting personal goals (stronger in classes). Otherwise, the respondents had a fairly high level of consensus about the objectives that classes and extracurricular activities were helping with. Table 3 also shows the lower means for the objectives that the respondents felt were not being as actively pursued in their classes: learning to motivate others; dealing with difficult people; understanding people with different cultural backgrounds; exercising creativity; projecting enthusiasm/motivation; learning to be a self-starter; and maintaining a professional appearance. There is a lot of overlap across situations; projecting enthusiasm and maintaining a professional appearance are more important in extracurricular activities than in classes while setting personal goals and developing problem solving skills are less important (below 4.0).

Objectives Achieved in	Classes			Extracurricular Activities		
	Mean	Number	SD	Mean	Number	SD
Work in groups	4.18	56	.97	4.02	55	1.26
Deal with difficult people	3.54	56	1.22	3.35	54	1.38
Motivate Others	3.48	56	1.22	3.43	54	1.35
Understand Perspectives	3.29	55	1.16	3.35	54	1.26
Exercise creativity	4.02	55	.97	3.85	54	1.17
Exercise Maturity	4.16	56	1.05	4.09	54	1.01
Maintain professional appearance	3.87	55	.94	3.93	54	1.02
Behave ethically	4.23	56	.91	4.22	54	.96
Project enthusiasm	3.95	56	.92	4.15	54	.97
Project self-confidence	4.04	56	1.00	4.19	54	1.02
Develop problem solving skills	4.16	56	.98	3.93	54	1.09
Develop leadership skills	3.98	55	.97	4.04	54	1.13
Set personal goals	<b>4.13<sup>b</sup></b>	56	.91	<b>3.91<sup>b</sup></b>	54	1.15
Learn time management skills	4.27	56	1.03	4.09	53	1.09
Learn to be a self starter	3.89	56	1.07	3.83	54	1.22

Key: Items in boldface are significant as follows: a = .05 or better; b = .10 or better

## CONCLUSION

Although the study has many limitations (its small size, its differential response rates for long and short form, and for in-class and at home administration, its restriction to one college of business), it may still be useful as a diagnostic tool in evaluating the student's learning environment – both curriculum and extracurricular activities. As part of a set of analyses, a survey of student perceptions of achievement of personal, interpersonal, are career objectives may provide insight into the strengths and weaknesses of a program, although nothing definite can be claimed as proof of learning.

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# **SUPPORTING ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND INTRAPRENEURSHIP AT UNIVERSITIES FOR SMALL BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT FROM MARKETING PERSPECTIVE IS THE KEY TO SUPPORT COMMUNITY, FACULTY, AND STUDENTS. CONTRACTS WITH LARGE MULTINATIONAL CORPORATIONS: A HURDLE**

*Zafar A. Bokhari, Chicago State University*

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## **SUMMARY**

One of the most promising recent developments in the entrepreneurial revolution is entrepreneurship becoming a central, non partisan cornerstone in America's economic policy debates. It is above any political rhetoric, which exploited E-word in the last three presidential elections, the relevance and economic impact of the entrepreneurial phenomenon has legitimized entrepreneurship as vital to any debate on social and economic policies. The creation of the National Commission on Entrepreneurship in 1999 launched an awareness of building educational initiatives to assist legislators, governors, and policymakers to understand the contributions and potential of entrepreneurial economy.

The role of entrepreneurship in economic development involves more than just increasing per capita output and income. It also involves constituting and initiating change in the structure of business and society. One theory in economic growth takes innovation as the key in development not only in product and services but also in stimulating investment interest. The new capital created expands the capacity for growth (supply side), and new spending utilizes the new capacity and output (demand side.)

Entrepreneurship involves the creation process, creating something new of value to the entrepreneur and to the audience. For small businesses the development of university's "U" brand may be some thing new and unique in water, energy drinks, and other beverages from marketing perspective. It requires the devotion of the necessary time and effort. The local community based small business by faculty as "Intrapreneur," by local community business or alumni as an "Entrepreneur," and university as sponsor can create win/win situation for everyone: Student can buy at lower price, Faculty can be more creative in the practice, and local small business can grow because that what universities teach. Now the universities have to practice for the benefits of small business, local community. At the same time this activity will provide increased revenues for universities and more funds in scholarships. It involves assuming the necessary risks on the part of businesses. The rewards of being an entrepreneur are independence, personal satisfaction, and monetary reward. This multiple approach is practical and beneficial for all the players involved. The marketing approach has new dimensions. The time has come for this revolution on campuses to support small entrepreneurs and businesses than supporting large MNCs.

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# A TEXT BOOK AUTHOR'S PERSPECTIVE LESSONS LEARNED FROM PUBLISHING EXPERIENCES

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## SUMMARY

This article examines the text publishing process. It includes finding a publisher, writing the text proposal, negotiating the contract, working with an author team, writing the text manuscript and ancillaries, conducting the marketing and sales effort, and using the book as a promotion and tenure tool. The author is a veteran writer with a twenty-six-year "publishing career" working for three major publishers. His efforts have resulted in twelve texts/editions, numerous ancillaries, and one business trade book.

In the first section of the paper, the author discusses tips on how to land a contract with a publisher. Prospective authors should volunteer to write ancillaries and answer publisher inquiries from sales and/or editorial staff who seek authors for new products. Excluding pure luck and timing, the key to landing a contract is to write a book proposal which includes a marketing plan with a detailed competitive analysis. It is also a good idea to include three sample chapters, or at least one from each co-author on the project. Having at least one well-known co-author on the project is also a help. The article also discusses contract terms such as what type of book royalties to request, ancillary package royalties or fee payments, grants, and advances on royalties.

The author discusses the pros and cons of co-authoring a text. Most writing projects require an author team; thus, the lead author must be careful to select the best person(s)

and not someone who is a friend and convenient. The question must be asked: What skills and special expertise does this person bring to the project? Perhaps and even more important questions are: Can they write? Can they meet deadlines? Chapter development depends on the individual author, but as a rule of thumb, a draft chapter can be written in approximately two weeks. Once the project is underway, close attention must be paid to chapter reviews. If reviews are bad and chapters cannot be easily fixed, publishers may hold back badly needed marketing funds. Once the manuscript is complete and the review process is underway, the instructors guide should start to take shape. To save hours of later unnecessary research and writing, the IM should be pieced together as each chapter is written. PowerPoints, test banks, etc. can be outsourced as well as the index and glossary. Also, attention must be paid to very carefully reading galleys and page proofs from the publisher. Once these are complete, publication is usually about six to eight weeks away.

In the last section, the author discusses venturing into writing business trade books. The ups and downs of this side of publishing and its requirements are discussed in detail from selecting an agent to the importance of a personal marketing plan when attracting both agents and publishers. In conclusion, the author discusses the effect of text publishing on his career. Issues of tenure and promotion are also discussed and the author reaches the conclusion that textbook publishing can be very rewarding both personally and professionally.

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# RENEWING YOUR THREE R'S

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## SUMMARY

Professional educators will have different perceptions of what the three R's mean to them. For faculty and administrators of Business Programs, the three R's identifies three cohorts which faculty (especially new faculty) must develop relationships with if they are seeking long-term success in higher education. The first group will be the

faculty's students, which will continually change. The second group is the faculty with which the individual interacts with on a daily basis. The third group is the business and professional community, which can provide a valuable long-term relationship. Establishing and maintaining positive relationships with these three groups are critical to achieving a successful and rewarding career in higher education.

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# NETWORKING FOR TENURE, PROMOTION, AND EVEN THE NEXT JOB

*Julie F. Toner, Bellarmine University*

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## INTRODUCTION

Networking is more than simply socializing. It is collecting a group of people who can assist you with your goals and who you can help with their goals. Americans tend to be goal-driven and often get down to business faster than many other cultures. We often don't take the time to get to know one another. Numerous studies have shown, however, that mere exposure to a product or person can produce increased likeability. Thus, exposing yourself to networking may increase your chances for tenure and promotion as well as the possibility of finding a new job.

Too often, I see young professors "hiding" in their offices working on their research or their lesson plans. They are so focused on the quantitative aspects of tenure and promotion that they forget about the qualitative aspects. They often think it is a "waste of time" to attend a reception for a retiring secretary or to serve pancakes at a breakfast for students. When it then comes time for the tenure or promotion decision, however, no one on the university-wide rank and tenure committee even knows who they are. Worse yet, these young scholars do not have anyone to write the ever-popular "outside" letters for them.

## MARKET YOURSELF

The more that people see you, the more they will like you. Make a conscious effort to be seen in a variety of situations on campus, off-campus and at professional meetings. Whether you are seeking tenure, promotion or a new job, you are "selling" yourself to those who are judging your credentials and "fit." Although we may be very good at teaching and writing about marketing, many faculty are not so good at marketing themselves. It can seem a little crass. From my experience, marketing yourself is extremely important to your career success. I have had members of the university-wide rank and tenure committee comment to me that my portfolio "sold" them on my credentials. As a member of a school-wide rank and tenure committee, I can also tell you that when a faculty member does not "sell" themselves, it is much harder to recommend them for tenure or promotion.

Thus, we should all have a marketing plan for our careers. Much like a personal budget, some will have their plans in their heads while others will have a formal written document while still others will wonder why they don't have any money or good prospects for tenure and promotion.

I am not discounting the importance of quantifiable credentials. You must be a good "product" or the communication about your product will appear false and/or misleading. You must have an outstanding teaching, research and service record, but you must also be "known." From a marketing point-of-view, networking is a major component of brand recognition.

## KNOW YOURSELF

Consciously knowing yourself is one of the most important facets of networking. For some, networking is as automatic as breathing. For others, however, networking will involve much more work and planning. You must know both your short-term and long-term career goals to make the best decisions about your networking. Your short-term goal may be to have a good performance review for the year, but your long-term goal may be to become a tenured full professor or president of the university. Usually, multiple people are involved in decisions concerning your employment, tenure and promotion. It is often good to think of them in terms of a buying center: influencer, decider, user, purchaser, gatekeeper, and purchaser. All faculty should make a conscious decision to network with a variety of people.

## MULTIPLE NETWORKS

Everyone should have one or more mentors who will help introduce them to others. If you don't have a mentor or your mentor is shy, you will have to work harder at developing your networks. Networks should be developed at the department, school, and university levels as well as in the community and within professional organizations. Service opportunities are often beneficial not merely to have "lines" for service, but because of the networks established through service. Choose your ser-

vice opportunities wisely, however. For instance, you can certainly get to know a faculty member from another department during a three-hour breakfast for students, but you may not get to know anyone by reading scholarship applications for three hours at home. Both of these activities usually “count” as lines for service, but one provides a networking opportunity and the other does not.

The importance of networking with faculty at other colleges and universities is especially important to career success today. Due to the fact that many Provosts do not identify with our discipline (or other disciplines), most require outside letters for tenure and promotion. Who will write these letters for your portfolio? Will you be willing to write letters for others?

## **HAVE FUN**

Networking can make your work life more fun. Finding people with common interests is exciting. Of course extroverts will have the most fun, but even introverts may enjoy widening their circle of colleagues and associates. Approach networking with a sense of humor and light-heartedness.

## **CONCLUSION**

Who do you know? Who knows you? I would challenge each of my readers to sit down and make the following lists for each of their networks: (1) people I already know, (2) people I want/need to meet, (3) events I can attend to increase my networks. The greater your network, the greater will be your potential for success.

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# ENGAGING STUDENTS IN INDEPENDENT RESEARCH: A WORKSHOP AND SYMPOSIUM APPROACH

*Pamela J. Carstens, Coe College*

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## INTRODUCTION

As a supplement and extension of a student's classroom learning, faculty have long recognized the potential learning opportunity that independent research presents undergraduate students. The Department of Business Administration and Economics at Coe College puts a particular emphasis on independent student research. This paper explains our current workshop and symposium approach to such research. It is our belief that by using a workshop and symposium approach, students gain more than they would through more traditional approaches to independent student research.

Although our department has a long and rich history of faculty-student collaboration on research, we only recently adopted our workshop and symposium approach. In prior years, when using a more traditional approach, we had repeatedly identified certain issues that limited the quality of some student projects. Common stumbling blocks included time demands on supervising professors and students during the regular academic year, difficulty in communicating exactly how to do research, issues related to the availability of empirical data, and difficulty in keeping students motivated throughout the process. We had long sought a mechanism that would allow our students to get a head start on the research process during the summer. The research workshop provides this opportunity. Funding for the workshop is provided by the Department's William E. Spellman Fund, a fund established to honor the memory of Dr. William Spellman, one of the first economics professors at Coe to engage in student-faculty research. This paper discusses our research workshop as well as the College's Student Research Symposium and the role it plays in our efforts.

## PRE-WORKSHOP

The work begins in the spring semester, typically for a student of junior academic standing. The first step usually involves convincing a student that taking on a project of this magnitude is indeed worthwhile. In the modern

environment of increased pressure on admission to top graduate programs, difficult employment opportunities, and inflated grades, a research project at minimum presents a mechanism for a student to separate themselves from their peers. The research project is something unique that a student can put on a resume and talk about with graduate schools and/or potential employers. It shows everyone that a student is able to take on a big project and see it through from beginning to end. It also provides tangible evidence of a student's research and writing skills. Further, if a student does a project in an area related to the jobs or the graduate degree he or she might be pursuing, he or she has a stronger knowledge base going in than other job candidates or graduate school applicants. Finally, the research experience is similar to writing a graduate school thesis (but done in a much more supportive environment) so if a student does enter a masters program or Ph.D. program he or she typically has an easier time completing a thesis/dissertation than those who have not had the honors thesis experience.

In the spring semester, participating faculty work with a student to identify potential research topics that may be of interest to the student. The student must then prepare a research proposal that explores the topic in a preliminary manner, including a time line for the project and a preliminary bibliography. The purpose of this proposal is to measure both the viability of the topic and the student's commitment to the program.

## THE WORKSHOP

Students and faculty participating in summer research meet as a group once or twice a week throughout the summer. The workshop is informal in nature and led by six faculty members. An intriguing component of the workshop is the variety of academic interests and specializations of the faculty. Members participating have backgrounds in economics, management, marketing, and law. This adds a unique multidisciplinary perspective to the collaborative sessions. Students and faculty become very familiar with all of the summer projects and are thus able

to provide support for each other as difficulties and frustrations arise.

The goals of the workshop experience are multifaceted. We hope that students will gain an understanding of how to locate and tackle professional, scholarly work. Critical reading skills are honed. Additionally, students become much more adept at presenting ideas and thinking on their feet. They gain a better understanding of how to define a research question. Lastly, at the conclusion of the summer workshop, students are expected to have a preliminary (but by no means a rough) draft of their survey of literature completed.

The early focus of the workshop is designed to develop basic research skills and methods. Although all students have been exposed to some introductory research required for typical term and research papers, few frequently have a working knowledge of the range of databases available for use. An introduction to sources of scholarly literature is coupled with short assignments designed to force the students to find resources across the databases.

At this very early stage we also begin to explore the data question. Although the Department occasionally approves a pure literature review or theoretical study, the overwhelming majority of our students' research projects feature empirical analysis. Over the years, we have had a number of otherwise solid projects implode due lack of data: sources failing to provide data as promised, poor survey results, or data only available for an unreasonable fee. To avoid later difficulties, we encourage our students to begin exploring avenues for data collection or retrieval so that they can evaluate the feasibility of their work before investing too much time into an unworkable project.

The next stage is to frame the research issue. A student begins by reviewing his or her research proposal and the preliminary literature considered. The student is then asked to present a research question and a hypothesis to the larger group. We ask our students to discuss the question they hope to answer, what problem they hope to solve (or explain to some degree), and how their work will contribute to the field. By discussing their topics in front of their classmates at this early stage, students learn to focus their attention to a narrow, well-framed idea.

Students then begin to survey the applicable literature with their supervising faculty member(s). As this review of academic articles unfolds, students frequently revise or amend their research question. Prior to this extensive review of the literature, a student is often really working with only a research topic – a general area of interest. A

significant portion of the summer research workshop is dedicated to helping the students explore, read, digest, and understand the articles they are reading. As a student works through the literature, we hope that a model emerges that can be incorporated into the research. A series of assignments requires the student to present his or her understanding of the articles to the larger group.

As summer's end draws near, each student must present a summary of his or her work to both the Spellman Fund committee and Departmental faculty. This serves two purposes. First, the Spellman Fund committee will determine if the student has completed enough work to justify the final payment of the summer research stipend. Second, the faculty determine if the student will be allowed to continue his or her work in pursuit of departmental honors through the completion and defense of an honors thesis.

### POST-WORKSHOP

Students continuing their research after the summer workshop will then work with their faculty supervisor to test the research question. This work typically happens during the fall semester and the winter break. For many students this stage will include direct data collection via the use of a survey, focus groups, or review and entry of available data sets. Before or around spring break, a student completes the research project by conducting a thorough analysis of the research results and drawing conclusions from this analysis.

At our college-wide Student Research Symposium in April, our students present their research projects including conclusions and suggestions for further research during panel sessions involving two or three other students, plus a faculty facilitator. Audiences range from a handful of students and supervising faculty to packed classrooms containing the Deans and President of the College and faculty from all parts of campus. This public environment presents a stage that really encourages students to refine, rethink, and enhance their work. Also, substantive comments from the audience frequently help students with their analysis and conclusions.

### CONCLUSION

The quality of independent student research in our Department has increased with our adoption of a summer workshop and symposium approach. This approach fosters development of experiential learning, written and oral communication skills, data analysis, interdisciplinary thinking, and teamwork. By participating in our program, students are immersed in not only their own research project, but also the projects of their peers.

Students leave with a much clearer idea of how to complete a research project. In addition, the program provides students with an introduction to how faculty and

graduate students discuss research, which sometimes sparks an interest in students to consider academic careers.

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# CREATING AN ONLINE PROSPECTIVE CUSTOMER DATABASE: USING A STUDENT PROJECT TO HIGHLIGHT DIRECT MARKETING PROMOTIONAL STRATEGY

*Brian A. Vander Schee, University of Pittsburgh – Bradford*

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Students in *Direct Marketing* appreciate engaging in class activities and outside projects that make practical application of theoretical concepts. They are even more excited by class projects with practical application in the local area. At the same time, students often spend too much time focusing on the creative aspects of direct marketing and neglect taking the appropriate steps to achieve tangible results. Their experience with utilizing technology is extensive, but their ability to make application in direct marketing is limited. This class project addressed each of these concerns. The presenter will detail the planning and execution of the project as well as student assessment of learning and feedback on the project itself.

The class project was for the upper-level *Direct Marketing* course at the University of Pittsburgh at Bradford. It was designed to increase student enthusiasm and challenge students to prepare, create, and execute a direct marketing campaign that keeps them directly connected to the campus community. In this project students worked in teams of two to independently design a web page that promoted a potential product or service idea.

There was space on the student pages for prospects to enter their name, email address, mailing address, and phone number only. There was also a privacy statement and an opt-out clause regarding the receipt of communication from the students in the future. It was important for students to design and implement an attractive web page, but they also needed an effective promotional campaign

to be successful in building the database of prospective names.

Students had ten days for promotion to drive traffic to their respective web pages. Effectiveness of their promotion campaign was measured by the number of independent verified names entered in the database associated with their web page. Students then had to report on what criteria and ideas they used to design their page and what techniques they incorporated to encourage prospect name submission. They also had to report on what they perceived to be effective and what they would do differently in the future.

A follow up activity involved designing a direct marketing campaign with the prospect database. This consisted of direct marketing mail pieces, telemarketing, and email contacts. The goal was to have prospects revisit the updated student web pages to enter demographic and lifestyle information to create a more comprehensive prospect database. Students then reflected on their experience and reported on the effectiveness of each of these approaches.

This activity demonstrated the importance of having an effective promotion campaign to build a prospect name database. Students also gained experience in designing an appropriate privacy statement and learned how to administer an opt-out online feature. Student feedback indicated that self-evaluation was also a valuable aspect of the project.

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# ONE PROJECT, MANY DISCIPLINES; ONE PROJECT, MANY GROUPS. BUILDING INTEREST AND INNOVATION ACROSS THE UNIVERSITY

*John Farris, Grand Valley State University*  
*Paul Lane, Grand Valley University*

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A theater student in a first year entrepreneurship course had an idea for a machine that roasted green coffee beans, ground the beans and brewed coffee. The student reasoned that the machine could create the freshest coffee possible. Since then the idea has been modified and refined in a total of seven classes in three disciplines, Entrepreneurship, Marketing, and Engineering. The concept develops as each team of students provides a fresh perspective. There is no such product on the market or a good distribution channel for retail green coffee beans. Since its inception the project has morphed into passion driven social entrepreneurship movement using the physical product as the projected method for increasing the income and welfare of Nicaraguan villagers.

## ORIGINS OF THE IDEA

The student was assigned to propose five different products from an opportunity identification exercise. The student had several good ideas including a toothbrush that automatically refilled with toothpaste and a coffee machine which roasted, ground, and brewed coffee. Other students in the entrepreneurship class were impressed with both ideas. The student decided to pursue the self pasting toothbrush idea.

The authors looked at coffee machine idea and saw potential. First, each piece of the machine was separately available. You can buy coffee roasters, grinders and brewers separately. You can not buy all three combined. The challenge and the opportunity would be in combining them into one integrated machine. This is not as easy as it might seem because the roasting requires high temperatures and produces unpleasant odors. Serendipitously, the authors were preparing to leave on a trip to Nicaragua. The goal of the trip was to expand the relationship between a group of villages and the university. For several years the nursing school had been sending health brigades to the villages to deliver health care. The main source of income for the villagers is growing coffee.

## ADDING SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

After the entrepreneurship student gave his permission to use his product idea, the focus of the ideas was changed. Now the machine would be used as a vehicle to increase the revenue of the Nicaraguan coffee farmers. As envisioned the machine would now be sold with a subscription for green coffee beans from specific cooperatives in Nicaragua. Cooperatives are important because they have larger quantities of coffee to sell. Each shipment of green coffee beans will come with a news letter describing the village or cooperative that produced the beans. All of a sudden, the machine had become a way to create a new niche in the coffee market. While most coffee in the United States is sold to the end user in roasted form, there are some enthusiasts who roast their own green beans. What makes this a new niche is that in addition to being in the smaller green bean market, the product has the potential to forge a personal connection between the coffee growers and the consumers.

Fortunately the authors were Nicaragua bound as part of a University delegation and were able to spend some time chasing down the coffee process and channel. To understand the coffee channel from seed to tree to processing, shipping, and then wholesale and retail sales in the United States was the first challenge. There are many stages to this process and the opportunity to follow it in person was rich and rewarding. There were important questions that needed to be answered before the project could move forward.

1. Could green coffee beans be shipped to the United States? The answer is not only yes but that is the way most beans are shipped.
2. Could you track beans from individual farms or cooperative? The answer was yes. Beans are not mixed until after they have been processed and a great deal of care is taken to keeping individual producer's beans separated.
3. Where would they enter the United States? Most beans enter the United States through only a few

ports and are then transshipped to roasters of all sizes.

Now there was a product concept that included a coffee machine that could roast, grind, and brew green coffee beans and a subscription to a monthly shipment of green beans from different sources. The green beans would be delivered monthly for the first year as part of the purchase and would contain the stories of the producers. Many Nicaraguan households are headed by women and the hope that the women to women connection would lead to return subscribers, help for community projects and possibly even visits to the communities. The next step was to ascertain if a machine could be produced.

### **CAN YOU DO THIS?**

“The process of roasting coffee produces an awful smell. The smell will cling to clothes and everything in a house. We have expensive afterburners to prevent the smell from leaving our facility. How will your machine get rid of the smell?” With these words the owner of a local coffee roasting business made the class of engineering students visibly wince. The class was on a tour of the coffee preparing plant to learn how coffee was roasted, ground, and brewed. The students in the class had been divided into six teams and charged to design and produce a prototype system that could deliver a precise number of beans to the roaster, roast the beans to a desired color, and then deliver the beans to a grinding chamber. These tasks were chosen because they represented the most difficult functions to achieve in the proposed roast, grind, and brew coffee machine.

At the next class meeting, the students clamored to be released from the requirement to contain the awful smell of the roasting process. The professor countered with a lecture on the importance of innovation. Routine design work has been moved overseas and is now performed by engineers making a fraction of the salaries American engineers command. The students reluctantly accepted the challenge. Over the course of the semester many experts came to the class to help the students meet the challenge. First the professor of thermodynamics who was an expert in combustion explained the source and make up of the “awful smell.” Then industry representatives were invited to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of ceramic and charcoal filters. Finally, a chemistry professor was consulted about how to test and evaluate different design alternatives. The students knew the difficulty of the challenge and they effectively mined the experts for information.

At the end of the semester, each student team presented a design and a functioning prototype to the class. Each

prototype was different. The advantages and disadvantages of each design were hotly debated. The project was a great vehicle to teach engineering students how to approach and solve open-ended design problems. The answer to this challenge could not be found in the back of a text book. The class had proven that the critical functions of the roast, grind, and brew machine could be accomplished more than one way.

The next semester, the advanced product design class took on the challenge of producing a complete prototype of the roast, grind, and brew machine. With the work of the first class to build on, these students faced the challenges of selecting the best methods and integrating the many subsystems into one functioning prototype. This time the teams within the class were assigned related subsystems to design and prototype. All members of the class were responsible for integrating the subsystems into one functioning prototype. The quality of each subsystem was tested before integration into the final prototype.

The prototype created was technically very good. The machine could take green coffee beans and produce coffee. Unfortunately, the machine was ugly and not very user friendly. The machine resembled a large aluminum box. The prototype could not fit under a counter because space inside the machine was not used efficiently. The user interface was complicated and gave no indication what the machine was doing. When the engineers were questioned about these features of the machine, they replied that they could change the design but they did not know what the customer preferred. What should the machine look like? What were the important performance criteria of the machine? How long would a customer wait for the machine to produce coffee? How much control did the user want over the process? What information did the customer want from the machine?

### **DOES ANYONE WANT THIS?**

The engineers said it was possible! Using a lot of talent, they made a machine that starts with green beans and turns out a black liquid. Sadly, this first prototype was made from available materials but not from food quality materials. The prototype works, even if tasting will have to happen later. Now it is time to test if there is any perceived need or want on the part of the customers. Two marketing management courses were given the option on working on the coffee project. In the graduate marketing course, three out of the ten students volunteered to work on the coffee project. In the undergraduate marketing management class eight of the 22 students chose to work on the coffee.

These students were interested in the social cause of helping the small farmers in the hemisphere's second poorest country, Nicaragua. They reported on a number of favorable trends and design elements.

- ◆ Trend to drinking black coffee among younger consumers wishing to avoid the weight impact of the more complex coffee drinks.
- ◆ Growing interest in the social impact of the coffee drinker's habits. In particular, interest in fair trade and other methods to raise the income of the poor coffee farmers.
- ◆ Increasing recognition that coffee differs from country to country.
- ◆ The large market of coffee drinkers.
- ◆ Substantial interest in green bean processing.
- ◆ Expectation of a substantial price initially supporting the targeted \$300.00.

They also provided some very interesting suggestions on design to the engineers.

- ◆ Metal and Black were the texture and colors of choice.
- ◆ Visible operations – see through portions of the machine.
- ◆ Flexible interface for the user.
- ◆ High-tech control pad.
- ◆ Must fit in the typical 18" space between counter and cupboards.
- ◆ Speed of process.
- ◆ Ability to stop and start the process in order to remove roasted and ground beans or use already ground beans in the machine.

All of these suggestions were from beginning classes with assignments that were designed only to teach how marketing research is done. The 11 studies were consistent and the message that people were interested in the potential of the machine. They were also consistent in the secondary research provided, indicating general trends that would be favorable to a product concept as envisioned.

This gives some information for the engineers and marketing students to continue to work on.

Engineering class goals for the next round of product development:

- ◆ Food quality materials – it is important to be able to taste the output.
- ◆ Sized for under the counter.
- ◆ Much more customer friendly interface.
- ◆ Design that allows the customer to see the inner workings of the machine.

Marketing class goals for the next round.

- ◆ Improved definition of target market.
- ◆ More structured market research.

- ◆ Where will the product package be available?
- ◆ What will the product package be like?  
Machine and package  
Connection to Beans  
Web Site  
Description of process  
Beans in the package
- ◆ How will the target market find out about it?
- ◆ Pricing strategy.
- ◆ Market Entry Planning.

### **MACHINE DESIGN FOR RETAIL**

This year the product design classes will have input from the marketing classes to guide the redesign of the machine. Students will be challenged to evaluate the current design against the desires of the target market and to alter the design to meet those desires. The iterative nature of product design will be concretely demonstrated. Cost and reliability concerns will be used to force the design teams to simplify the designs. In addition to building an improved prototype, this year's students will be required to write a grant proposal to the National Collegiate Inventors and Innovators Association (NCIIA). Writing the proposal will force the students to determine what steps must be taken to get the machine ready for the market. Finally, students must estimate the costs of each step.

### **PACKAGE/PRODUCT DESIGN**

While the engineers are busy improving the prototype, the marketing aspects should be developed in additional Marketing classes. While the initial work was informative, it is now time for a more structured approach to develop materials for the many goals that there are now in marketing. This is an opportunity for the class to understand the iterative nature of product development as it moves from an idea into a real product.

Students will have to grapple with learning how to develop marketing ideas while the product is being designed. They will have to figure out how to get the opinions of coffee drinkers outside the region of the University. They will have to reach out using technology to get the opinions of different generations in different locations. They will have to be able to describe the bean service and the product efficiently.

### **WHO IS THE DRIVER?**

To bring something like this to the market requires many stages and someone to drive it. The faculty authors have jobs focused on facilitating the learning of their students. Currently, they are involved in interviewing graduate students, who have the passion for helping the farmers,

who would like to drive this project. One of the students from the marketing management graduate course has indicated such an interest. What would this person do?

- ◆ Form or search out an appropriate corporate home for the project.
- ◆ Act as client for the class projects in Engineering, New Product, Marketing and potentially Art and Design.
- ◆ Lead the application for developmental grants with such organizations as the National Collegiate Innovators and Inventors Association, the Small Business Development Corporation, Elevator Pitch Competitions, Business Plan Competitions, and organizations focused on Social Entrepreneurship.
- ◆ Consider the potential of patents, copyrights and trademarks.
- ◆ Arrange for the development of the Website for Green Coffee owned by a related consortium.
- ◆ Develop Vision, Mission and a Business Plan using as many university and community resources as possible.

## SO WHY IS THIS IMPORTANT?

This is about students learning in a meaningful way. It is about students learning how to put the tools that they are learning in Art and Design, Engineering, Entrepreneurship and Marketing to work to make the world a better place. It is about connecting up theoretical lessons with real applications. It is about understanding the markets and their needs. It is about developing channels from the coffee tree in the shade of the mountain forest, right to the kitchen table. It is about target markets and how they impact engineering, design as well as promotional campaigns. It is about the whole new product process and the relationship between several different disciplines. It is about faculty working together across disciplines.

Taking a project across the campus can make a difference in learning. If your goal is student learning, then take a look at the impact you can have in a project that can shift from class to class across the campus. Is this not interdisciplinary? Is this not a chance for students to really be part of using what they are studying? Is this not a chance for faculty to keep on learning and growing with their students?

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# IDENTIFYING RESEARCH NEEDS ON EDUCATIONAL MARKETING SIMULATIONS BASED ON COURSE AND STUDENT DIFFERENCES

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## ABSTRACT

Computer-based marketing simulations are widely-used educational tools for marketing professors. Depending on the specific simulation, these tools offer an experiential-based learning approach that can vary greatly in complexity. Given such variance in complexity, marketing professors utilizing simulations face difficult decisions regarding selecting the simulation, determining the format and instructor's involvement level, and designing the final debrief and learning measures. Current research on simulations has failed, however, to offer marketing professors any assistance or guidelines in making these determinations in light of varying course objectives or varying student needs. A research agenda is proposed to offer marketing professors such guidelines.

## INTRODUCTION

Since the inception of higher education, college professors have continuously searched for creative ways to stimulate student learning both in and out of the classroom. As part of their never-ending quest, professors seek out ways to reach the needs of varying student groups through a wide variety of tools and approaches. Allred and Swenson (2006) (along with many others), for example, have trumpeted the benefits of utilizing technology as a critical component of these classroom tools in reaching today's college students.

As a whole, marketing instructors seem to concur with the arguments for enhancing classroom instruction with technological advances. For many marketing professors, whether teaching undergraduate or graduate students or even facilitating business executive training sessions, the use of computer simulations has become an important tool in delivering marketing education. Depending on the specific simulation, these computer simulation "games"

typically allow students to compete as individuals or as teams against their fellow students or executives, against the computer itself, or even against some outside parties (other students, for example, who are participating in the simulation at another institution). In so doing, participants actively engage in a variety of marketing activities from developing marketing strategies to answering specific content-related questions.

As marketing simulations have become more popular and widely accepted, the number of simulation choices has increased dramatically. A marketing professor who wishes to incorporate a simulation exercise within his/her course now must select a simulation out of a plethora of options that offer a wide variety of features and complexity. Research has failed, however, to offer any empirical or even conceptual studies to determine *how* varying levels of complexity *should* be considered in selecting a simulation for varying student groups or for varying course objectives. Marketing faculty, therefore, have received little guidance as to how much complexity within any or all of a simulation's components is best suited for a particular course or for a particular student group. Previous research has also offered little guidance to marketing professors in other areas such as determining ways for administering the simulation or reinforcing the learning objectives through a final debriefing based on course or student differences. This research paper intends to illustrate how an individual marketing professor would likely benefit from guidelines in selecting and in utilizing marketing simulations and calls for research that would lead to such guidelines.

## BENEFITS OF SIMULATION USAGE

Marketing computer simulations enjoy widespread usage because of their unique benefits. As Zych (1997) points out, "A recurring concern for educators is how to

immerse students in the learning process, rather than have them be passive receptors of theory or knowledge expounded by the teacher” (p. 51). Actual marketing case studies can certainly serve this purpose. An effective case discussion can encourage a debate between multiple options and multiple viewpoints that fosters learning through the decision process. A case discussion is limited, however, to conjecture about what *might* happen if a company were to develop a plan and implement it well. Cases offer almost no measure of probable competitive response to the proposed strategy and the actual results of implementing a plan are always purely speculative. In a sense, therefore, cases are one-dimensional tools that are only capable of generating internal debates over alternatives from one company’s perspective.

Burns and Gentry (1992), however, explain how computer simulations effectively offer participants very robust experiential learning opportunities. Such experiential learning is extremely valuable for teaching a discipline such as marketing. Although using a context of children as learners instead of adults, Hilton (2006), for example, describes how this experiential learning component of computer simulations offers a particularly significant benefit in teaching non-linear skills. Hilton points out that simulations are particularly effective in teaching “multifarious solutions to problems, and consequential ramifications that are not easily taught or discussed. Only through experience can these skills be described, or their results demonstrated, to the pupil (p.16).” Offering empirical evidence consistent with Hilton’s assertions, Herche and Fox (1994) had previously demonstrated that the use of nine iterations of a marketing simulation game improved undergraduate marketing students’ forecasting and decision-making skills. Anyone who has ever “taught” marketing to adults will immediately see how Hilton’s (2006) description fits the challenges of leading adult students to understand more than concepts, but actually how they are integrated in addressing very complex situations that may not have one clear cut “best” solution.

Marketing simulations allow students to experience the complex integration of marketing inputs, the importance of anticipating or reacting to competitive decisions, and the impact of marketing decisions in driving the company’s financial numbers. Unlike case studies, the simulation gives students direct feedback on their decision making – “rewarding” them for implementing shrewd strategies in reaching their target market as compared to their competitors and “punishing” them for poor strategies or for poor implementation of strategies.

An additional benefit to utilizing computer simulations stems from the participants being required to work through a great deal of uncertainty as a team. Lamont (2001)

argues that simulations should be used to teach teamwork and collaboration skills. Obviously, these additional skill-building opportunities are not possible if students do not work within a team format. For students who do participate within teams, however, further developing these skills can prove to be extremely valuable.

Clearly each of these benefits can serve the needs of a variety of different marketing courses. Similarly, these benefits can also serve the needs of marketing students at different levels (i.e., undergraduate students, graduate students, executive “students”). Such a broad usefulness of highly desirable benefits helps to explain why marketing simulations have become so popular.

### A NEW RESEARCH AGENDA

Given these widely recognized benefits of marketing computer simulations and their correspondingly widespread use one would expect that this tool would have received far greater attention from researchers in the academic community than it actually has. The limited amount of research on marketing simulations and their effectiveness as an educational tool is far from complete and it leaves an individual marketing faculty member with a slew of unanswered questions. Furthermore, like teaching approaches in general, much of the published research on simulation games offers only a time-constrained usefulness. As rapid changes in technology allow for continuous improvements through innovations, research on specific simulations can become outdated fairly quickly.

There are many decisions for the marketing instructor for which current research offers little to no guidelines. The marketing instructor is typically forced, therefore, to utilize a less-than-informed opinion (1) for selecting a specific simulation, (2) for determining the appropriate instructor involvement level and the most desirable simulation format, and (3) for determining a debriefing and grading/feedback approach. A trial and error method of attempting different options then ensues for each of these decisions to either confirm or disconfirm the instructor’s original opinion. Such trial and error processes, however, could take several semesters before any reliable conclusions are reached. In the meantime, students who were part of a trial and error process may have received a less-than-ideal experience. Furthermore, even when the marketing professor finally feels completely comfortable with each of the above decisions, technological changes or other changes may have incurred that require him/her to revisit the process again. Marketing professors, therefore, would likely benefit from a process that would provide them current guidelines for selecting a simulation as well as guidelines for incorporating it into a particular course curriculum.

With large gaps in each of the three decision areas for simulation usage listed above, a new research agenda is proposed. Specifically, this proposed research agenda should consider the implications for how each of these three broadly-defined areas of decisions is dependant upon two variables: the specific course objectives and the needs of the specific marketing students. Each “area of decisions” is considered individually and questions are included within the consideration of each area for future research to consider. Such a research agenda could offer valuable guidelines to assist marketing professors in making decisions for simulation usage. Ideally, such guidelines would save marketing professors time and frustration and offer new insights into a widely-utilized marketing education tool.

### **Area 1: Evaluating/Exploring Simulation Options**

With a plethora of options from which to choose, selecting a particular simulation game can be a challenging task. Marketing simulation games can vary greatly both in format and in complexity. Selecting a specific simulation should logically vary by the needs of the students and by the needs of the course.

A typical marketing simulation requires students to set strategies and to make decisions for implementing those strategies within an electronically simulated marketplace that includes many unknown variables. The participants typically go through a series of decisions that require them to design marketing variables as if they were in control of the marketing functions of an actual company. Each participant, or participant group, therefore, represents one “firm” within the simulation game. It is worth noting, however, that while this format may be the most popular one for marketing simulations, it is not the only one. Drea, Tripp, and Struenkel (2005), for example, offer an analysis of two marketing simulations that follow more of a game-show format in which students play the role of contestants. Participants in these simulations compete by answering questions specific to the marketing discipline in keeping with this game-show approach. While these and numerous other possibilities may also exist, this call for research focuses solely on the computer simulation format in which students compete in an electronically simulated marketing environment as described above.

The most commonly used form of such electronic simulations compiles input data regarding the marketing variables from each competing “firm” and then outputs simulated marketing results for each of these firms based on their relative decisions. Within these “batch” simulations several firms are able to compete against each other. (As an alternative to batch simulations, students may also

participate in an “interactive” simulation where a single firm competes against the computer. See Burns and Gentry 1992 and Lamont 2001 for additional comparisons between batch and interactive simulations). The simulation software then compares each competing firm’s decisions against both the parameters of the “marketplace” and the competitors’ decisions and then determines a variety of results – including sales levels and profitability. Market share can then be calculated for each firm and for each brand that a firm offers. As the simulation progresses through additional iterations, each firm is able to further capitalize on its previous successes or must overcome its previous mistakes. More sophisticated simulations may even account for the ongoing development of “brand equity” that would be created among loyal customers whose needs are being satisfied. Ideally, any simulation should require that students think and act strategically in order to achieve the best results.

As stated previously, the complexities of these decisions vary by the specific simulation utilized. At a minimum, most marketing simulations require that participants compete in an electronic marketplace by directly inputting levels for each of the marketing mix variables (the traditional “4 Ps”) into a computer software file and then selecting from marketing research report options to aid them in the next upcoming decision. One only needs to consider one component of this process to recognize that stark differences between simulation options can (and do) exist. Various simulations, for example, require specific decisions on choosing between disparately priced marketing research reports to purchase for the next decision (each participant or group typically works off of a limited “budget” of funds). In different simulations, the extent of research report options ranges from simple and few to complex and many.

These differences in the complexities of the research options of differing simulations are typical of the differences found in other simulation components as well. Simulation options can range from simple to complex for example, in determining product attributes, promotional approaches and content, sales force deployment and incentives, distribution approaches, or many other possibilities. Some marketing simulations also require participants to determine production capacity or even inventory management. Different simulations have different parameters for each of these variables as well as a variety of others. In moving toward a capstone strategy simulation, some marketing simulations even enhance the marketing discipline by integrating it with “non-marketing” specific decisions such as human labor deployment or financing production and capacity requirements or cash flows from operations. The differences among all of these variables are dramatic across differing simulation

games. They are so dramatic that Burns and Gentry (1992) categorize the simulation options of that time (early 1990s) into four categories based on levels of complexity. With dramatic changes in the technology supporting simulation offerings as well as the dramatic impact technological advances have brought about within college students over time (see Drea et al. 2005 among many others) even their four categorization scheme may or may not still be useful for marketing educators.

Within such varying options what guidelines exist for a professor in searching for the most appropriate simulation? In examining various administrative issues surrounding marketing simulations, Gentry, Burns, and Fritzsche (1993) propose that the course objectives and the specific student groups should be among the instructor's considerations in selecting a simulation game. As noted above, however, research on marketing simulations as an educational tool is severely lacking in offering any conclusions, either conceptually or empirically, that would assist the professor in determine *how* varying levels of complexity *should* be considered in selecting a simulation for varying student groups or for varying course objectives. Obviously, a professor could rely on the advice of the developer(s) of a specific simulation. Such advice would likely be found in the instructor's manual that would accompany the simulation package. While their opinions are no doubt valuable, one must also consider that such developers do have an objective of making a sale. A publisher's sales representative represents another source of information in selecting a simulation, but this "book rep" also is looking to make a sale. Neither of these sources, therefore, should be considered as being completely unbiased sources. A research agenda that would evaluate how such complexities should be considered in light of course objectives and in light of student needs could offer marketing professors unbiased assistance in selecting a simulation.

In the past, research has offered some assistance to professors looking for the right simulation by offering published reviews of various simulation games. Burns and Gentry (1992), for example, offer a review of the characteristics of ten marketing simulations that were popular back in the early 1990s. Just a quick scan of these reviews, however, demonstrates how quickly any review of a specific simulation can become outdated. A bigger problem for the marketing professor in search of a simulation is probably the issue of understanding *which* simulation characteristics are relatively more important for the purposes of a specific course and/or of a specific student group. Various simulations seem to be a potential fit for use in teaching marketing courses from undergraduate introductory marketing principles to an Executive MBA capstone marketing strategy course. In most

cases, however, the published research offers the faculty member little insight as to what are the key marketing *areas of focus* that a simulation should offer to best meet the objectives of various courses or of various student groups.

Consistently, various marketing simulations require a wide range of interdependence on other disciplines. Some simulations require the participants to integrate their marketing decisions with information and/or additional decisions regarding their firm's R&D, production, accounting, finance, and/or operations requirements. The course requirements and the student sophistication levels should obviously impact such decisions on the appropriate levels of required integration with other disciplines.

Again, however, research has offered the individual professor little guidance in making these determinations. A marketing professor should certainly rely on his/her estimation of the relevance of a particular simulation prior to adopting it and "testing it out" on students. Theoretically, for example, simulations with many complex options should require students to proceed with a more complex decision-making approach. Assumedly, more advanced students may, therefore, gain from the greater decision-making experience that accompanies greater simulation complexity. But that begs the basic question of how much complexity would offer a more (or less) ideal learning environment for students at differing levels of marketing (and business in general) acumen.

All of these issues demonstrate the need for more empirical research to examine the varying characteristics in existing marketing simulations in light of various course requirements and various student groups. In other words, would graduate students actually benefit more than undergraduate students in participating in more complex options? If so, then would "executives" (either "Executive MBAs" or non-degree executives) benefit more than "non-executive" MBA students from greater complexity? Furthermore, different undergraduate students may vary in sophistication levels. Would undergrad students in a capstone marketing course, therefore, benefit more than those in a marketing principles course from greater complexity? If one argues that the answer to that question is "yes," then such an argument would be consistent with Wellington, Faria, and Nulsen's (1996) ancillary conclusions that introductory marketing students should not participate in a particularly sophisticated marketing simulation. Interrelated with the complexity level, would students with lesser marketing sophistication benefit more from simulations that require a less challenging learning curve? If so, then what other characteristics (in addition to variable complexity) might contribute to that learning curve?

## Area II: Instructor Involvement Level and Simulation Format

The marketing instructor can also choose how involved he/she will be in the processes of introducing and of running the computer simulation. On one extreme the instructor could simply inform the students of their required participation in the game and then leave each student or group to work through their own questions by process of trial and error. On the opposite extreme, the instructor could become so highly involved in the students' decision-making process that he/she begins to lead every decision that the "students" make. Certainly, there are many options of faculty involvement level that fall between these two extremes. Baglione, Tucci, Talaga, and Burson (2003) demonstrated that participants who rated their instructor as being more involved prior to and during the simulation game also evaluated the simulation exercise higher than those who rated their instructor's participation lower on the same scale items. Their research offers some important insights as to the value of the professor's participation in the simulation activities.

**Simulation Introduction.** Follow-up research is needed, however, to ascertain specifically how much and what type of involvement are ideal in administering simulations with various groups. Marketing professors should benefit, for example, from research that examines how much initial introduction to the simulation is most appropriate for various students. Should this introduction include a detailed description of the simulation customer groups and/or key decision variables? How much would participants benefit from one or more "trial" decisions? How much importance should the professor place on finding a simulation that offers a tutorial or some other form of built-in practice session? Much uncertainty still exists for professors who wish to help participants become comfortable with the simulation tool, but simultaneously not provide so much introductory information that the participant feels unnecessarily overwhelmed or frustrated.

**Additional Assignments/Requirements.** Additional research also needs to consider the implications (both positive and negative) of augmenting the simulation experience with additional coordinated course requirements. One such possibility would be to incorporate some form of testing the participants as part of graded (or not graded) exams and/or quizzes on simulation material that ensures their understanding of game parameters. Doing so, for example, could offer the professor a method of measuring each individual student's understanding of the marketing interactions (which may otherwise prove difficult if students are participating in teams). A professor could also require additional assignments that pertain

to the simulation components such as developing a "competitor" and/or a "customer" profile. In offering another approach, Alpert (1995) argues for the importance of using "executive briefing" sessions with each group throughout the simulation. He defines executive briefings in terms of the instructor (playing the role of company CEO) periodically meeting with each group and stimulating the participants' thoughts by questioning their decisions. He then identifies other instructor interaction methods such as requiring oral team presentations, requiring written briefs, and "MBWA," which is his label for "management by walking around." He offers a solid conceptual argument for the relative strengths and weaknesses of each approach. Zych (1997), on the other hand, offers a rationale for incorporating case analyses that are consistent with the principles that the instructor wants to highlight throughout the simulation experience.

Considering the fact that simulation exercises easily lend themselves to incorporating any, all, or none of these options into the participant's experience, frameworks such as Alpert's (1995) and Zych's (1997) could serve as a legitimate starting point for matching the needs of various student groups and various course objectives with the appropriate faculty interaction approach. Much empirical data would be needed, however, to offer significant insights into such a research stream. Additional questions in this research stream could also be addressed, particularly in light of the potentially varying needs of differing student groups. If an instructor were to meet with the participants, how *often* should he/she meet with each competing individual/group? Furthermore, how should instructors handle special requests such as budget increases or even group mergers?

**Team Size.** Finally, Cosse, Ashworth, and Weisenberger (1999) studied undergraduates in a principles of marketing course and provided evidence for greater team financial performance in teams of four vs. three and also in teams of three vs. two respectively. They also demonstrated that participant ratings both of personal performance and of satisfaction levels were positively correlated with team size when comparing teams of four, three, and two. Since Cosse et al. (1999) has demonstrated that a relationship does exist on these important variables, additional research is now needed to consider how team size relates to such variables within various student groups.

Conducting reliable research on any of the above questions would certainly not be easy. Additional empirical discovery in these areas, however, could be very beneficial as professors try to find the right balance of helpfulness, fairness, and integrity to the academic objectives of the game.

### Area III: Wrap-up/Debrief and Grading/Measuring Outcomes

A final area of uncertainty for the marketing instructor is how best to end the participants' experience in the simulation and then measure participant outcomes. While this area could certainly be considered as two areas (wrap up and debrief being one area and grading/feedback being another), it is considered here as one because of the potentially high interdependence between the wrap and the measurement processes. Just as the marketing professor has a myriad of options for game complexity, game involvement, and game format, he/she also faces many options for the debriefing process. Gentry et al. (1993) stress the importance of debriefing the participants while simultaneously expressing concern over how little attention many marketing instructors give it. They contend that the debrief session is "crucial to integrate the experience with the underlying theories on which the educational objectives are based" (p. 31).

Integrating the educational objectives with the debriefing session also allows grading to be integrated with the debriefing as well. Gentry et al. (1993) strongly recommended grading the participants' process instead of their financial outcomes. Their argument is based on the benefits of experiential learning as well as the fact that there are factors outside of the participants' control (such as competitors' successes or mistakes for example) that could affect any given team's financial performance. They argue that a better measure of success is left to the individual instructor's subjective evaluation of the teams' soundness of marketing strategy and their implementation of that strategy. One could also argue for an evaluation of a given team's performance based on the team's ability to identify why it was – or was not – successful in achieving its objectives. Such evaluations would necessitate that each team offer some summarization, either written, oral, or both, of its strategy, of its strategy implementation and of the factors that led to its success or its lack thereof. A significant benefit for utilizing oral presentations would be that they can simultaneously offer a format for debriefing the entire class while also offering a platform for grading the students' levels of understanding of the marketing concepts that the simulation utilized.

Other than written or oral analyses, other debriefing options would include class discussions, individual group discussions, written feedback to each group, and/or peer evaluations within group members. To varying degrees, any of these options also could be tied directly into the grading or performance measurement process. Conversely any (or all) of these options could also be utilized independently of a grading/feedback mechanism that could be based on some other option such as an exam. Again,

current research offers individual marketing instructors little to no guidance on the implications of each option for various student groups or for various course objectives. Which groups, for example, would respond better to which methods?

### IMPLICATIONS OF FUTURE RESEARCH AGENDA

Certainly, an individual marketing professor may not, and perhaps should not, desire to look to research alone in making decisions regarding simulations. Research could serve as one source among others, however, in providing the professor some guidelines in making simulation determinations. As an added benefit, such research could also assist the simulation developers in understanding how various simulation components and levels of complexity serve the needs of various course objectives and various students. Such research, for example, could assist the developers in designing forthcoming simulations that provide the professors with more options for adjusting the simulation components (and thereby the complexities of these components) than they are currently offering. In offering these benefits, research should not simply focus solely on evaluating specific simulation games, but should evaluate how simulation characteristics and formats fit the needs of various students and of various courses.

Despite being such a widely utilized educational resource, the research into this tool still has many gaps in considering differences in participants and differences in class objectives. As marketing professors continually strive to improve their students' educational experiences, additional research into these gaps could lead to an improved understanding of these questions and save a great deal of time and frustration as compared to a traditional *purely* trial and error process.

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# MARKETING AND MONEY, A NEW COURSE IN THE CURRICULUM: STRENGTHENING THE ANALYTICAL AND PRESENTATION SKILLS OF MARKETING UNDERGRADUATES

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A new required course, Marketing and Money (M&M), has been added to the core requirements of undergraduate Marketing majors. Students typically take M&M, offered in face to face and web-delivered formats, after the required Principles of Marketing core course, but may take it concurrently to facilitate scheduling. However, they must take M&M before advanced classes such as the required Market Research and Marketing Management courses. Through Spring 2005, the author taught most face to face students and all Internet students (about 1,000 in all, about a fourth of that taking the web class). Beginning Summer 2005, a doctoral student teaches the web class. Materials developed by the author have been exclusively used for this class from the beginning, regardless of who taught it.

The impetus for creating M&M was faculty frustration with undergraduates’ inability to handle marketing math. An additional concern was the students’ poor worksheet and presentation software skills. These deficiencies hampered senior-level marketing courses, such as the capstone case course. Typically, business students are expected to pick up these skills in other required non-marketing core courses in the undergraduate curriculum. Regardless of whether they were exposed to these skills in those courses or not, the students were still found to be deficit in their ability to apply these techniques in a marketing context. In addition, many transfer students did not have the level of prior skills as non-transfer students. Marketing faculty believe that their students would be handicapped by these shortcomings, in their future careers as marketing managers. M&M was put together to take care of marketing undergraduates.

M&M took initial shape with the help of a summer 1998 College of Business Administration teaching grant to the author, who was charged by the Marketing faculty to develop a course that would enhance student abilities in the following areas:

a. search for relevant marketing information from the Internet and WWW.

- b. recognize the need for and then carry out appropriate basic, simple quantitative methods often needed to analyze marketing problems. Such techniques include weighted average, channel markups, break-even analysis, simple forecasting, present value analysis etc.
- c. create as well as work with Excel workbooks for marketing decision making.
- d. work with their own marketing data bases.
- e. sharpen their skills at using presentation software to create charts and graphs.

Since use of the Internet and secondary data sources is addressed satisfactorily by the mandatory Market Research course, the author elected to eliminate the first objective and concentrate on the remaining four.

During summer 1998, the author started off by teaching M&M using a contingency approach, “making things up as the course proceeded.” Most current course materials were developed during the summer of 1999, using the time afforded by a second, university-wide, a competitive undergraduate instructional grant. These materials have been refined through teaching the course from Fall 1999 onwards. Starting with Fall 2003, M&M is also offered as a web section. The online section is delivered via WebCT and McGraw-Hill PageOut, each platform serving as a backup for the other, to ensure uninterrupted student access during the semester. The web and face to face sections are taught using nearly identical content. Students in both formats are required to do the same graded projects. Likewise, all of them take the two mandatory tests face to face on campus. The Internet section has not reduced the typically 100 students per semester total enrollment in the face to face sections. Instead, contrary to expectations, it has added another 50–80 students, resulting in a substantial increase in enrollment. Several non-marketing business majors and non-business majors have started taking M&M as a “useful” elective, perhaps because the only prerequisite is Principles of Marketing.

Currently, M&M begins with an optional, self-taught orientation assignment in MS Office XP (Word, Excel, PowerPoint and Access). A highly structured programmed approach book is used for this assignment, which is intended as a deficiency brush-up.

Simultaneously, in class and on the web, the author discusses select analytical concepts, using one-page mini cases, drawn from a resource base of well over 200 problems. An advantage of using a mini case is that it can be read, understood and solved in about 30–45 minutes,

allowing as many as three mini cases in a three-hour class, 5–6 per topic. The author typically incorporates 5 to 10 specific questions at the end of each mini case, leading to the solution, “step-by-step.” The students complete nearly 50–60 such mini cases during the semester, in class/web lectures, assignments etc. All mini cases are easily modified by, (1) changing the company name, or (2) changing key numbers, and/or (3) changing the problem itself by borrowing idea from the pool, affording infinite permutations for future semesters. The mini cases cover a wide variety of topics as indicated in the following Table:

interpreting percentages correctly	incremental breakeven, with profit
weighted average	cannibalization of sales
Income statement and balance sheet	marketing mix: product
Channel markups	marketing mix: price
fixed, variable and sunk costs	marketing mix: promotion
contribution analysis	marketing mix: distribution
simple breakeven analysis	net present value
simple breakeven, with profit	Decision making under uncertainty
incremental breakeven analysis	

In the second month of the semester, M&M students work on a two-week long Excel homework assignment. The assignment consists of five mini cases, at least three of which have been already completed by hand in the class and on the web. Students in both instructional formats receive author-designed Excel workbooks for all five cases, but must write the formulae and determine the answers themselves. They are required to use their notes for the already solved by hand cases and obtain the same answers using the workbooks. The 1–2 new mini cases in this assignment involve the same concepts as the others and represent a very reasonable challenge situation.

During the third month of the semester, students are assigned the Comprehensive Case assignment, Part 1 and Part 2. The CC case is brand new, and has not been discussed in the class. This time, they are asked to demonstrate that they have learned the following skills from their earlier work in M&M.

In Part 1, create their own CC case worksheet, from scratch. The author provides bottom line clue answers.

In Part 2, create column, clustered column, dollar stacked column, percentage stacked column and pie charts and add these to the completed Part 1 CC workbook. Import the charts to PowerPoint, polish and create a great looking presentation.

As preparation for the CC assignment, the author takes the students (face to face and web), step-by-step, through both parts of a trial CC presentation. This is typically the CC assignment from the previous semester. With the practice, most students are able to confidently tackle their own CC assignment.

The CC assignment is followed by a second Excel homework assignment, consisting of 5 new cases. Once again, the students work with the author’s workbooks.

The requirements for M&M also include open book/notes mid-term exam and/or a final exam. From the author’s perspective, the major problem with M&M is the grading burden. With a total of 160+ students enrolled in the two face to face and one web section, and the earlier noted sequence of individual assignments, there are nearly 1,000 assignments to grade during the semester, including 300+ exams. This problem has been solved by creating detailed solutions and grading criteria, which are then implemented by MBA or first year doctoral student Teaching Assistants. The TAs bring only the exceptions to the author. Students are also allowed to appeal their grade on an assignment to the author for expeditious review.

To facilitate learning, students, the TAs and the author to participate in WebCT/PageOut discussion areas. In addi-

tion, several students from previous semesters voluntarily serve as real and virtual tutors for the course. Typically, the discussion areas get quite busy as the deadline for an assignment approaches.

Over the years, supplementing COBA course evaluations, the author has collected limited data on the time spent on assignments and self-reported rating of the

usefulness of these as learning tools (1–10 scale, 1 = little useful, 10 = very useful). More recently, the author has also collected data using a custom attitudinal scale for the M&M class. The attitude scale is administered via the web to all students (face to face and web). The results are quite encouraging and will be presented in detail during the special session at MMA 2006, if this proposal is accepted for presentation at the conference.

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# CAN STUDENTS' LEARNING STYLE PREFERENCES EXPLAIN THEIR ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE IN MARKETING COURSES?

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## ABSTRACT

The *Index of Learning Styles* (ILS) was administered to 84 college students who were enrolled in a Market Research course between fall 2005 and spring 2006. The purpose of this exploratory study was twofold: (1) to test whether learning styles could explain a student's overall course grade and (2) to test whether learning styles could explain a student's performance on course exams. Multiple regression analysis was used to test the explanatory power of the learning indices. None of the learning style indices were statistically significant at the .01 or .05 levels for any of the models. The Visual-Verbal learning style dimension was statistically significant at the .10 level.

## INTRODUCTION AND LEARNING STYLE MODELS

The research field of learning styles is both extensive and conceptually diverse. With learning styles models being developed simultaneously and relatively autonomously within departments of business, education, law, science and psychology in universities throughout the world there are over 100 models in existence (Mitchell 1994). Since the 1970's there has been a growing interest in applying the concept of learning styles to methods of teaching and learning. A brief summary of selected models follows.

According to the Dunn and Dunn model (2003) learning styles are divided into five stimuli strands: environmental, emotional, sociological, psychological and physiological. Strong student preferences form the basis for encouraging teachers to make changes to areas such as light, sound and design. Entwistle's Approaches and Study Skills Inventory for Students (Entwistle 1998) attempts to encompass approaches to learning study strategies, attitudes and development skills in higher education. Teachers and learners are encouraged to share ideas about effective and ineffective strategies to learning. Gregorc's Style Delineator (Gregorc 1985) designed a model with two dimensions: concrete-abstract and

sequential-random. Students tend to be strong in one or two of the four categories: concrete sequential, concrete random, abstract sequential and abstract random. The Hermann Brain Dominance Instrument (1989) defines learning styles as learned patterns of behavior rather than fixed personality traits. Hermann argues that all learners need to develop stylistic flexibility, and both teachers and students need to refine their ideas about communication and learning. Jackson's Learning Styles Profiler (2002) is a model that describes four styles: initiator, analyst, reasoner and implementer. Students are given suggestions for building on strengths, dealing with challenges, and changing maladaptive learning. According to Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (Kolb 1999) learning styles are both flexible and stable. The model evaluates students on four learning styles: active, reflective, abstract and concrete. Students are encouraged to become competent in all areas so as to become balanced, integrated learners. Myers-Briggs (1985) uses four bipolar scales to produce a possible 16 personality types. The model suggests that matching teacher and learner types may increase student effectiveness in the classroom. Riding's Cognitive Styles Analysis (Riding and Rayner 1998) suggests that learning strategies may be learned and improved. The model is designed to measure ways of organizing information (holist-analytic) and ways of representing information (verbalizer-imager). Riding claims that teachers need to take account of the learner's individual differences in working memory as well as style. The Felder-Soloman Index of Learning Styles (ILS) created in 1991 was adapted from the Felder-Silverman Learning Style Model (Felder and Silverman 1988). This model consists of four dichotomous dimensions: active-reflective, sensing-intuitive, visual-verbal and sequential-global. Students learning style preferences on a given dimension may be strong, moderate or mild. Vermunt's Inventory of Learning Styles (Vermunt 1998) specifically applies to the thinking and learning of university students. The emphasis of this model is not on individual differences, but on the whole teaching-learning environment. The results can provide a common language for teachers and students to discuss and advance changes in the learning environment.

Additionally, in the research literature, there have been numerous illustrations of how addressing student learning styles had led to improved learning (Spoon and Schell 1998; Henak 1992; Davidson 1990). To gain some insight regarding the learning styles of students in a market research course two questions were addressed: (1) Can a student's learning style explain his/her overall course grade? (2) Can a student's learning style explain his/her performance on exams? The following sections describe the: market research course and the hypotheses of this study, research methodology, description of the sample, empirical results of multiple regression analysis, and the conclusions drawn.

## COURSE DESCRIPTION AND HYPOTHESES

The Market Research course is required for all Marketing majors. Students typically take the course as a junior or senior since prerequisites of various marketing and statistics courses are necessary. The course is designed to teach research concepts and at the same time have students apply those concepts to actual research problems of business clients. In any given term the business clients can represent small entrepreneurs, large corporations, and non-profit organizations. Four students comprise a team, and each team works with a different business client. Students meet with their clients the first week of the term to assess the research problem and brainstorm potential courses of action. Students are responsible for designing a survey instrument, collecting and analyzing the data, drawing conclusions and making recommendations to solve the research problem. The end products are typically a lengthy, comprehensive document and a PowerPoint presentation to the client and whomever the client wishes to invite to the oral presentation. Throughout the term three essay exams are given which cover approximately one-third of the course material.

A student's grade is determined on the basis of 500 total points for the term. The essay exams are each worth 100 points and focus on the application of concepts to different research scenarios. The remaining 200 points of the course are divided among a: team peer evaluation, team oral presentation, team paper grade and an individual paper grade. Each of these components is worth 50 points. A student's peer evaluation grade is the average score given by individual teammates. The class as well as the course instructor grades each team's oral presentation. The team's final oral presentation grade is the average between the instructor's grade and the class average grade. Each team member receives the same oral presentation grade. Each team submits one research paper. The course instructor assigns the team paper grade, and all team members received the identical grade. Team members are asked to identify what sections of the paper they write, and their individual paper grade is based on

the quality of their work. Typically no two teammates received exactly the same individual paper grade.

In this research the following two sets of null and alternative hypotheses are presented.

$H_0$  = A student's learning style cannot explain his/her overall course grade.

$H_1$  = A student's learning style can explain his/her overall course grade.

$H_0$  = A student's learning style cannot explain his/her performance on course exams.

$H_1$  = A student's learning style can explain his/her performance on course exams.

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To test the aforementioned hypotheses the Felder-Solomon Index of Learning Styles (ILS) was chosen for various reasons: the questionnaire is available on-line, free, simple to use and interpret, easily applicable, and the instrument has good validation results (Felder and Spurlin 2005; Litzinger et al. 2005; Zywno 2003; Livesay et al. 2002).

The current version of ILS consists of four dichotomous dimensions and a student's learning style can be defined in terms of the answers to the following questions (Felder 1993): How does the student prefer to process information: *actively* – through engagement in physical activity or discussion, or *reflectively* – through introspection? What type of information does the student preferentially perceive: *sensory* – sights, sounds, physical sensations, or intuitive – memories, ideas, insights? Through which modality is sensory information most effectively perceived: *visual* – pictures, diagrams, graphs, demonstrations, or *verbal* – sounds, written and spoken words and formulas? How does the student progress toward understanding: *sequentially* – in a logical progression of small incremental steps, or *globally* – in large jumps, holistically?

The ILS was administered to 84 Market Research students during the first week of the fall, winter and spring terms of the 2005–2006 academic year. Students were given a printed version of the ILS questionnaire that consisted of 44 incomplete sentences to which an "a" or "b" response could be selected to finish the statement. The questionnaire took approximately 10–15 minutes to complete. The responses of students were submitted online and a profile for each student was returned with scores on all four dimensions. Each learning style dimension was scored on a scale from -11 to +11 and showed an emerging preference for the given modality. For statistical analyses it was convenient to calculate only the "a" responses so that a score on a dimension would be an

integer ranging from 0 to 11 (Felder and Spurlin 2005). Using the visual-verbal dimension as an example, 0 or 1 “a” responses represented a strong preference for verbal learning, 2 or 3 a moderate preference for verbal learning, 4 or 5 a mild preference for verbal, 6 or 7 a mild preference for visual, 8 or 9 a moderate preference for visual and 10 or 11 a strong preference for visual learning.

### DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

Data presented in Table 1 shows the frequency distributions for each of the four dichotomous dimensions: active-reflective, sensing-intuitive, visual-verbal, and sequential-global. Of the 84 respondents eight students represented strong active, 16 students moderate active and 26 students mild active. Mild reflective and moderate reflective responses combined represented 33 students, and only one student fell into the strong reflective category. Active learners tend to understand and retain information best by engaging in hands-on activities. Unlike reflective learners who like to study and solve problems alone, active learners like group work where they discuss material with others.

In the sensing-intuitive dimension 12 students recorded a strong sensing, 22 students moderate sensing and 22

students mild sensing. On the intuitive side 13 students were mild intuitive, seven students moderate intuitive and eight students strong intuitive. Sensing learners understand information better with real-world applications. They like learning facts, brainstorming solutions with group members and solving problems in a methodical way. The intuitive learners are comfortable with abstract ideas, mathematical formulas and reflecting on creative methods of problem solving.

The visual-verbal dimension showed the largest frequencies favoring the visual learner. Of the 84 students 20 were strong visual, 28 represented moderate visual and 18 mild visual. Mild verbal, moderate verbal and strong verbal represented 15 students, two students and one student respectively. Visual learners learn and remember information best when they see diagrams, pictures, videos, and demonstrations unlike their verbal counterparts that learn best by reading written material from textbooks or handouts and listening to class lecture and discussion.

In the sequential-global dimension six students were strong sequential, 13 students were moderate sequential and 35 students were mild sequential. The number of students in the mild global category was 19, with 11 representing moderate global and zero students in strong global. Sequential learners first understand logical se-

**TABLE 1**  
**Frequency Distributions for All Learning Dimensions**

Preference	# of Students	Preference	# of Students	Preference	# of Students	Preference	# of Students
Strong Active	8	Strong Sensing	12	Strong Visual	20	Strong Sequential	6
Moderate Active	16	Moderate Sensing	22	Moderate Visual	28	Moderate Sequential	13
Mild Active	26	Mild Sensing	22	Mild Visual	18	Mild Sequential	35
Mild Reflective	24	Mild Intuitive	13	Mild Verbal	15	Mild I Global	19
Moderate Reflective	9	Moderate Intuitive	7	Moderate Verbal	2	Moderate Global	11
Strong Reflective	1	Strong Intuitive	8	Strong Verbal	1	Strong Global	0
Total	84	Total	84	Total	84	Total	84

quential steps that comprise the whole picture rather than global learners who need to grasp the whole picture first before understanding the individual steps.

In addition to learning style preferences, there were 31 males and 53 females who completed the questionnaire. Of the 84 students one student was in the age category of 17 and under, 36 students were between 18 and 20 years old, 31 students between 21 and 23 years old, and 16 students were 24 and older.

### MULTIPLE REGRESSION RESULTS

Multiple regressions were used to investigate whether or not learning styles could explain a student's overall course grade or performance on exams in the Market Research class. Table 2 describes the variables that were used for the regression analysis. Table 3 shows the least squares regression output of overall course grade (OVERALL) on all components (ACT-REF, SEN-INT, VIS-VRB, SEQ-GLO, TOTALEXAM, ORALPRES, GPAPER, IPAPER, PEER, GENDER, AGE). For this model 96.1 percent of the variation in the overall course grade can be explained by the variations in the dependent variables. Of the independent variables TOTALEXAM,

ORALPRES and PEER were statistically significant at the .01 levels and GENDER was statistically significant at the .05 level. The p-values of the t-tests on each of the learning style indices (ACT-REF, SEN-INT, VIS-VRB, SEQ-GLO) were significantly larger than the .05 significance level. Thus, none of the learning style indices were significant in explaining the overall course grade. To examine this latter point further Table 4 shows the least squares regression output of overall course grade (OVERALL) on all components but learning style indices. In this regression 96% of the variation in OVERALL can be explained by the variations in TOTALEXAM, ORALPRES, GPAPER, IPAPER, PEER, GENDER, and AGE. TOTALEXAM, ORALPRES, and PEER were statistically significant at the .01 level and IPAPER was statistically significant at the .05 level.

In an attempt to obtain a more complete picture of the effect of learning styles on students' performance several more regressions were run. Table 5 and Table 6 show the results of least squares regression output of total exam scores (TOTALEXAM) on all components and least squares regression output of total exam scores (TOTALEXAM) on all components but learning style indices respectively. In Table 5 the results show a mul-

<b>TABLE 2</b> <b>Description of Variables Used in Regression Analysis</b>	
<b>Variable Name</b>	<b>Description</b>
<b>Dependent Variable:</b>	
OVERALL	Overall Grade for the Course (Percentage of 500 total points)
<b>Independent Variables:</b>	
ACT-REF	Active-Reflective Learning Style Preference (Scale of 0 to 11)
SEN-INT	Sensing-Intuitive Learning Style Preference (Scale of 0 to 11)
VIS-VRB	Visual-Verbal Learning Style Preference (Scale of 0 to 11)
SEQ-GLO	Sequential-Global Learning Style Preference (Scale of 0 to 11)
TOTALEXAM*	Total of three exam scores (Percentage of 300 total points)
ORALPRES	Oral Presentation Grade (Percentage of 50 total points)
GPAPER	Group Paper Grade (Percentage of 50 total points)
IPAPER	Individual Paper Grade (Percentage of 50 total points)
PEER	Peer Evaluations (Percentage of 50 total points)
GENDER	Gender: 1 = Male, 2 = Female
AGE	Age: 1 = 17 & under, 2 = 18-20, 3 = 21-23, 4 = 24 & older
*Note: Table 5 and Table 6 show regression results using TOTALEXAM as the Dependent Variable	

**TABLE 3**  
**Least Squares Regression Output of Overall Course Grade on All Components**

	<b>Coefficients</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>t-Ratio</b>	<b>p-value</b>
Intercept	-9.033	6.513	-1.387	.170
ACT-REF	-.059	.073	-.809	.421
SEN-INT	.053	.063	.850	.398
VIS-VRB	.043	.079	.539	.592
SEQ-GLO	-.023	.095	-.241	.810
TOTALEXAM	.541	.017	32.712	.000**
ORALPRES	.173	.060	2.891	.005**
GPAPER	.096	.125	.767	.445
IPAPER	.179	.113	1.588	.117
PEER	.102	.031	3.305	.001**
GENDER	.681	.339	2.009	.048*
AGE	-.347	.269	-1.292	.201

\*\*Significant at .01 level \*Significant at .05 level Multiple R-Squared = .961 Adjust R-Squared = .955  
 F-statistic = 162.737 on 11 and 72 DF p-value = .000

**TABLE 4**  
**Least Squares Regression Output of Overall Course Grade on All Components but Learning Style Indices**

	<b>Coefficients</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>t-Ratio</b>	<b>p-value</b>
Intercept	-9.741	6.102	-1.597	.114
TOTALEXAM	.540	.016	34.422	.000**
ORALPRES	.176	.056	3.120	.003**
GPAPER	.082	.116	.704	.483
IPAPER	.202	.105	1.919	.050*
PEER	.105	.029	3.622	.001**
GENDER	.581	.322	1.802	.075
AGE	-.435	.246	-1.767	.081

\*\*Significant at .01 level \*Significant at .05 level Multiple R-Squared = .960 Adjust R-Squared = .957  
 F-Statistic = 262.111 on 7 and 76 DF p-value = .000

multiple R-Squared of .269. Only 26.9 percent of the variations in TOTALEXAM can be explained by the variations in the explanatory variables. Of the independent variables only IPAPER was statistically significant at the .01 level. ORALPRES, GPAPER, and GENDER were

statistically significant at the .05 levels. VIS-VRB was statistically significant at the .10 level. In this model all the learning style indices had lower p-values than in the previous model, which explained the overall course grade (OVERLL). The results illustrated in Table 6 show that

**TABLE 5**  
**Least Squares Regression Output of Total Exam Scores on All Components**

	<b>Coefficients</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>t-Ratio</b>	<b>p-value</b>
Intercept	-14.691	46.028	-.319	.750
ACT-REF	.709	.513	1.382	.171
SEN-INT	.669	.438	1.526	.131
VIS-VRB	-1.009	.549	-1.839	.070
SEQ-GLO	-.269	.670	-.401	.689
ORALPRES	.872	.412	2.119	.037*
GPAPER	-1.977	.852	-2.319	.023*
IPAPER	2.185	.755	2.895	.005**
PEER	-.108	.217	-.499	.620
GENDER	5.034	2.324	2.167	.034*
AGE	.107	1.901	.056	.955

\*\*Significant at .01 level \*Significant at .05 level Multiple R-Squared =.269 Adjust R-Squared =.169  
 F-Statistic = 2.690 on 10 and 73 DF p-value = .007

**TABLE 6**  
**Least Squares Regression Output of Total Exam Scores on All Components  
 but Learning Style Indices**

	<b>Coefficients</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>t-Ratio</b>	<b>p-value</b>
Intercept	-28.285	44.194	-.640	.524
ORALPRES	.798	.399	1.999	.049*
GPAPER	-1.566	.822	-1.906	.060
IPAPER	1.871	.735	2.547	.010**
PEER	.011	.211	.053	.958
GENDER	4.786	2.275	2.104	.039*
AGE	.124	1.788	.069	.945

\*\*Significant at .01 level \*Significant at .05 level Multiple R-Squared =.208 Adjusted R-Squared =.146  
 F-Statistic = 3.369 on 6 and 77 DF p-value = .005

20.8 percent of the variation in TOTALEXAM can be explained by the independent variables excluding the learning style indices. IPAPER was statistically significant at the .01 level. ORALPRES and GENDER were statistically significant at the .05 levels.

From the multiple regression output it can be concluded that there is not enough evidence to reject the null

hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis that a student's learning style can explain his/her overall course grade. Likewise there is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis that a student's learning style can explain his/her performance on course exams. None of the learning style indices were statistically significant at the .01 or .05 levels. In the regressions where the learning style indices

were deleted from the models there were only small reductions in the multiple R-Squares coefficients. This suggests that learning styles indices did little to explain either total course grade or total exam score.

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This exploratory research has been an attempt to use multiple regression analysis as a tool to test whether or not learning styles can explain academic performance. Eighty-four students enrolled in Marketing Research for the 2005–2006 academic year were given Felder and Soloman's Index of Learning Styles questionnaire. In addition scores from course exams, peer evaluation, oral presentation, team paper grade, individual paper grade were recorded along with the demographic variables of gender and age.

Frequency distributions suggest that the majority of students prefer learning styles that are active, sensing, visual and sequential. However, learning styles were not statistically significant in explaining either the overall course grade or performance on course exams.

A major limitation to the study is the small sample size. Additional statistical tests could have been performed on the data but were beyond the scope of this particular study. For example a regression quantile analysis that was first proposed by Koenker and Bassett (1978) and later refined by Portnoy and Koenker (1997) may give a more complete picture of the effect of learning styles on students' performance. In future research running chi-squares and testing for differences between male and female learning style preferences should be considered. It is possible that there are cultural differences in learning styles as well. The 84 students who completed the ILS in this study were predominantly Caucasian so no multi-cultural analysis could be performed.

Although there is conceptual and empirical complexity and controversy that characterizes the array of research in the field of learning styles there is an importance of continuing to add to this literature. How can we effectively teach students if we do not know how they learn? Is it possible that students, who we urge to be lifelong learners, will be more motivated to learn by knowing more about their own strengths and weaknesses as learners? If teachers can respond to individual strengths and weakness in the classroom, is it possible that retention and academic achievement in degree programs will rise? These and other questions need to be addressed in future research endeavors.

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# EMERGING TRENDS IN CHANNEL MANAGEMENT EDUCATION REGARDING ELECTRONIC DATA INTERCHANGE AND AUTOMATIC DATA COLLECTION

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## ASIAN COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

With the increasing use of EDI education becomes an important tool. The education needs to take place at the University level as well as in the organizations implementing of EDI. With an increase in education there will be greater acceptance of EDI within the organization. Many firms implement EDI and only get the minimal benefit from it because of lack of education and familiarity among employees. Many organizations view EDI as only a way to get faster mail. With this view EDI proves to be inefficient (Parker 1995).

In 2003 Yen, Chen, Lee, and Koh noted that there seems to be misunderstanding among business professionals and academia and what is most important to be taught. Business professional believe one subject is important while the individuals in academia believe other areas are important. Students are being taught more of certain subjects but it is not what professional believe are important. Table 1 and 2 taken from Yen et al show what academia and business professionals believe are the most important topics.

These two tables show that there is a gap between what professionals are looking for and what academia is teaching to students. This leads to students being ill prepared for what professionals expect of them.

A recent survey of students at Southeast Missouri State University and the (**Schools in India**) has provided the following additional information regarding MIS and EDI education. Table 3 shows the results of the survey when students were asked about channel power and EDI. This table shows that the students who were asked if retailers will be inclined to join channels with manufacturers who can deliver more computerized custom-made products efficiently were familiar with MIS. These same individuals were also familiar with EDI.

Table 4 shows student response to the question if major retailers will encourage the development of EDI inventory control system standards in order to reduce exit costs associated with changing suppliers. It can be summarized as those who were familiar with EDI and MIS were good predictors of this question, whereas many of the other variables were not. The position title was almost significant which might signify that position in a company

**TABLE 1**  
**Academia**

IS Knowledge Skill	Level of Proficiency Required; scale 1-5	Level of Proficiency Achieved	Significant Level of the Difference (p)
IS Technological Trends	4.47	3.53	.000
Package Products (Spreadsheet, word processing, etc.)	4.40	4.27	.499
Personal motivation and working independently	4.33	3.13	.000

<b>TABLE 2 Business Professionals</b>			
<b>IS Knowledge Skill</b>	<b>Level of Proficiency Required</b>	<b>Level of Proficiency Achieved</b>	<b>Significant Level of the Difference (p)</b>
Critical Thinking	4.13	3.97	.083
Creative Thinking	4.05	3.91	.078
Personal Motivation and working independently	4.04	4.13	.031

<b>TABLE 3</b>		
<b>Variable</b>	<b>Approximate T</b>	<b>Approx Significance</b>
Familiar with EDI	2.035	.042
Familiar MIS	2.878	.004
Age	.669	.504
Year in School	1.329	.184
Position Title	.037	.971
Work Experience	.844	.399

<b>TABLE 4</b>		
<b>Variable</b>	<b>Approximate T</b>	<b>Approx Significance</b>
Familiar MIS	3.110	.002
Familiar EDI	2.744	.006
Age	-.117	.907
Gender	1.167	.243
Position Title	-1.885	.059
Year in School	-1.149	.251
Work Experience	-.941	.347

would help EDI implementation and its uses be better understood.

In summary the more familiar a person is with MIS and EDI the more likely they are to understand how channel power and retail cooperation work. This shows the importance of teaching these topics in schools as well to individuals already in the profession. The tables also show that students are more familiar with MIS than EDI. This indicates that maybe MIS is being taught more at the University level than EDI.

Another interesting fact is that professionals and academia differ in what they believe are the most important technical skills. Table 5 and 6 taken from Yen et al summarizes the skills that professionals and academia find important.

In summary there is a gap in what professional and academia believe are important. This leads to a gap in what students are learning and what professionals are looking for. Professionals and academia need to work closer to ensure that students are knowledgeable in the most current technology trends. When this occurs stu-

dents will be better prepared to help the business world benefit from the newest trends in technology.

### MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The business and its trading partners must discuss and decide upon the overall strategic objectives and standards that the EDI system is to follow. Product related customer service and possibly, product customization, will become high priority concerns in the future. Further, the EDI standard should be consistent with the needs of all channel members and possibly final customers as well. Data transmissions set the “format of electronic transactions, ensuring the verifiability and audit ability of each” (Tageldin 1994). These standards work as the engines of EDI by transforming data into a format that is understood by all computer systems in the channel. The standards selected “must be consistent with the needs of all interested parties” (Ali 1994).

Once the system is running properly and efficiently, the business can expand the system. EDI conversion should start with a narrow focus to diminish political resistance and then expand as workers adjust to the new systems. Additional trading partners and transaction sets can be acquired to improve and strengthen the system (Cannon

1993). The firm’s “high-tech communications” capability can be used as a marketing and promotional selling point. This will help the channel members realize great economies of scale and many other EDI benefits. These benefits can be used to attract other channel members and hold them in the system.

Marketing theory has been moving in the direction of more channel cooperation and relationship marketing and a need for special alliances like the Japanese keiretsu. In Leenders’ (1988) book regarding Reverse Marketing, he described the advantages of greater cooperation and integration of suppliers into a major system. Electronic Data Interchange will energize these new and improved channel structures and alliances. Therefore, we need to develop and investigate the EDI effects further.

Thus, it is critical that all firms are capable of making the connections between all channel members that are in the flow of merchandise. All members must be capable of handling the EDI system. The businesses must make certain there are “mature information technology systems at both ends of the transaction and that both systems are well equipped for transmission” before installing the EDI system (Ali 1994, p. 17).

<b>TABLE 5 (Professionals)</b>			
<b>IS Knowledge Skill</b>	<b>Level of Proficiency Required; scale 1–5</b>	<b>Level of Proficiency Achieved</b>	<b>Significant Level of the Difference (p)</b>
Electronic mail tools	3.94	3.85	.389
PC operating systems	3.82	3.64	.085
Internet/Navigation tools	3.65	3.55	.0386
<b>TABLE 6 (Academia)</b>			
<b>IS Knowledge Skill</b>	<b>Level of Proficiency Required</b>	<b>Level of Proficiency Achieved</b>	<b>Significant Level of the Difference (p)</b>
Web page production tools (e.g., HTML, Java)	4.47	4.20	.164
Electronic mail tools	4.40	4.07	.019
Internet/navigation browser	4.33	4.33	1.00

It is imperative to ensure the integrity, reliability and operability of the existing and planned environments before the implementation of EDI. EDI will not improve ill-conceived business procedures and will not refurbish poorly designed systems. In fact, the introduction of EDI into an unstable channel environment will probably worsen the situation by accelerating the rate of information transfer. Eventually, poorly designed systems will become overburdened and fail (Ali 1994, p. 17).

Both the business initiating the implementation of the EDI system and its trading partners must have a well-structured business environment with up-to-date information technology systems before implementing EDI. The business must be certain that all current systems are stable and efficient before integrating them with an EDI system. Before any organization makes ADC and EDI a part of their corporate strategy, they must realize that implementation is a challenge. The business must understand the time and costs involved in implementation and the extent of impact it will have on the business functions. All corporate levels in the organization will absorb the pressure of preparing the business to implement an EDI system. Therefore, it is a major political and economic decision for all firms involved as shown by the model. The project of implementing EDI must not be taken lightly. Therefore, everyone's complete cooperation and effort are necessary. The first step is to receive top-level corporate support. One way to build corporate support is to educate them about EDI. This can be done by conducting corporate-wide presentations to introduce EDI to the organization. These presentations should be headed by a qualified third party. Once the presentations have been conducted, the organization should schedule additional meetings to determine if EDI is right for them. Throughout these meetings, they should discuss issues that could become implementation obstacles and answer questions regarding application of the technology to business processes.

Next, approval should be sought for the EDI project and funding (Cannon 1993). Once the EDI project has been approved, the next step is to establish a trading relationship with the businesses that will participate in the EDI exchange (Porter 1990). Power retailers are politically and economically forcing these reforms on channel members. Although some aspects of this model are supported by some past theory and some past empirical research, the relationships proposed in this model demand further empirical examination. Further the conceptualization and proposed proposition in this model demand further anecdotal analysis relative to distribution issues.

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# PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER: MEANINGFUL OUTCOMES OF WORKPLACE EXPERIENCES FOR MARKETING STUDENTS

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## ABSTRACT

To address the complaint of potential employers that academic programs do not prepare marketing students with practical skills, increasingly Universities are offering cooperative education curricula and formal practice oriented internship programs. Such programs offer students the opportunity to mature and develop workplace skills as well as learning and applying marketing management skills. How do they work? This paper demonstrates how one set of Marketing students who have participated in multiple cooperative education experiences have progressed over several years in developing both their marketing skill sets and maturity in workplace habits.

Most people engaged in higher education have heard potential employers decry the fact that academic programs do not prepare students well for the workplace. (Howard 2004). It is often claimed that they lack “practical intelligence” (Lind 2004). Accordingly, a range of cooperative education curricula and internship programs have come into prominence. Founded at the University of Cincinnati in 1906, cooperative education is a “managed” approach to enhance student’s workplace learning. Students alternate between classroom work and employment in their chosen field of interest. Simply stated the goal of this educational component is for students to “know how” rather than to “know what” (Linn 2004). It has been estimated that currently there are approximately 250,000 active cooperative education students in American universities (Howard 2004).

Cooperative education includes not only job placement, but also assessment, reflection, and attempts at integrating workplace experience and classroom learning. The overall purpose is to have students develop their workplace skills and understandings, along with becoming adept at performing managerial tasks in their areas of interest. Along with these learnings students are expected

to mature in their workplace interactions as well as in important communications abilities. Importantly, they progress in this education under the guidance of professional counselors from the university as well as mentoring and direction from managers in their place of employment.

At Northeastern University, cooperative education is one part of what has been termed “practice oriented education.” Typically, business school students undertake three full time work assignments each of six months duration. This experience is carefully integrated in with liberal learning and professional studies to form “The Third Way” to university education (Freeland 2004). Along with the familiar benefits of classroom learning, students in the integrated co-op programs learn practical tools related to their career interests. Additionally they learn workplace habits, how to present material, practical analytical techniques, along with a broad range of interpersonal skills (Fletcher 2006).

In this paper we will demonstrate how one set of Marketing students who have participated in cooperative education progressed in developing both their specific marketing skill set as well as maturing in workplace habits, attitudes, and general maturity.

## NORTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY COOPERATIVE EDUCATION LEARNING MODEL

In the College of Business at Northeastern University undergraduate Marketing students undertake a five-year program, which includes three co-op work assignments in industry. Each assignment is of six months duration.

Students at Northeastern earn experiential education learning credits when they’ve satisfactorily completed the three phases (preparation, activity, and reflection) of the cooperative education learning process.

Preparation involves participation in structured activities that result in an individualized learning agreement that addresses personal and professional goals. A professional co-op coordinator leads the students through self assessment and career exploration exercises. She/he assists them with developing career decision making skills and level appropriate goal setting.

Preparation leads to the “activity” or the actual work – skilled, meaningful jobs related to students academic, career or personal interests. Although the students continue to learn during their co-ops, they were not hired to be students, but contributing members of the organization. The co-op work enables students to apply abstract principles and ideas learned in the classroom to real work situations. Co-op helps the students to develop maturity as it nurtures the abilities demanded of all professionals – working with others, problem solving, communicating ideas, work life balance, setting and meeting goals, etc.

Upon completion of a co-op, students undertake reflection. The interplay of action and reflection on experience is central to cooperative education. Under the guidance of co-op faculty, students are asked to take a step back and think about what they’ve learned and accomplished during the six months of co-op.

#### **THE ROLE OF MARKETING COOPERATIVE EDUCATION COORDINATORS**

Co-op Coordinators work with students, employers and academic faculty to promote the integration of a practice oriented component with the liberal learning and discipline based components of student education. Co-op Coordinators have extensive academic and/or professional backgrounds in Marketing. They ensure that the connection between the classroom and the job site is meaningful and that the co-op experience benefits both the student and the employer. They work with employers to develop and maintain appropriate jobs, provide training and assistance in regards to supervising co-ops, etc. Co-op Coordinators work with students both individually and in the classroom providing training in job search strategies, professional behaviors, and job success. Likewise, they also play an evaluative role. Importantly, the Co-op coordinators also guide students through a reflection process that enable them to assimilate their individual job experiences.

#### **ROLE OF THE STUDENT**

Students are expected to be actively engaged in all the typical job search activities, develop appropriate goals and performance objectives for the co-op, and contribute and act professionally during co-op. Upon completion of

co-op they must participate in a reflection activity. Students will go through these activities each time they prepare for co-op.

#### **ROLE OF THE EMPLOYER**

Employers chose to participate in the cooperative education program for a number of reasons: it provides a pipeline for future hires and results in a more cost effective recruiting program, it provides a cost-effective workforce alternative, it’s an opportunity for the organization to give back to the community, it’s a way to bring fresh ideas and new perspectives into the organization. Employers are active and key partners in the co-op process. These organizations commit time and resources in hiring, training and evaluating the co-op student(s).

#### **ROLE OF THE BUSINESS SCHOOL FACULTY**

In support of the argument that all learning is deepened through experience, it is also true that co-op experiences can be deepened through classroom integration and follow-up. Observation tells us that students, particularly in co-op experiences one and two, are often not fully aware of how important and relevant their co-op job activities may have been in supporting an organization’s marketing strategy. It becomes the role of the Instructor to integrate the principles of a given marketing curriculum with the student’s co-op work experience by building co-op experience into interactive daily curriculum, discussion and student participation.

#### **STUDENT HISTORY ANALYSIS/RESEARCH**

The case histories of fifteen undergraduate Marketing students who completed three co-op jobs were analyzed in depth for evidence of increased marketing and business acumen by isolating marketing and business skills and the identification of professional development factors. Observation during the progressive co-op jobs show increasing levels of responsibility defined by transition from coordination and support roles to planning and execution, and finally to project management responsibility. In professional development a theme emerges around self-esteem and self-efficacy and supporting the research of Wilson (1974) of co-op jobs leading to a greater perceived self recognition of one’s own abilities, limitations and interests. In addition, through the comments of supervisors in the various co-op jobs it can be noted that personal development occurs in building confidence, in the ability to take on projects with minimal supervision and effective group/team communication. Table One presents representative examples of responsibility and professional development growth over the co-op assignments.

**TABLE ONE**

<b><u>SOPHOMORE</u></b> COORDINATE	<b><u>MIDDLER*</u></b> PLAN	<b><u>JUNIOR/SENIOR</u></b> MANAGE
<b>Student 1 – Responsibilities</b>		
Assist in events planning	Planned corporate events; wrote RFPs	Developed statewide taxi-top marketing campaign; wrote copy
Professional Development (Self Assessment and Supervisor Comments – in quotes)		
Learned time management “Her computer skills were very strong at the end of her Co-op but not that strong when she arrived”		Learned to create and design advertising “maturity beyond her years; can identify, evaluate and recommend solutions to problems”
<b>Student 2 – Responsibilities</b>		
Logistical analysis	Analyzed research and wrote reports	Developed a marketing strategy for re-launch of energy saving light bulb product line
Professional Development		
“Needs to go extra mile to identify certain needs out on her own” “Have more confidence in problem solving”		“Has the ability to synthesize data from multiple sources to develop solution strategy.” “Can-do attitude”
<b>Student 3 – Responsibilities</b>		
Assist in one-off projects in asset management	Supervised ad and video creation	Developed naming options for Globe’s “Boston Works” event – staffed events
Professional Development		
“Sometimes external vendors misinterpreted his words or had trouble understanding his direction”		“He shows strength in his ability to assess his responsibilities and communicate his agenda clearly”
<b>Student 4 – Responsibilities</b>		
Assist inside sales – Extract reports and format into data base	Conduct outbound calls to customers	Managed production of collateral material and final budgeting for Gillette’s confidential Executive Incentive program
Professional Development		
Learned that in-side sales is not for me.		“Forth-coming with ideas, mature, needed very little direction”

<b>TABLE ONE (CONTINUED)</b>		
<b><u>SOPHOMORE</u></b> COORDINATE	<b><u>MIDDLER*</u></b> PLAN	<b><u>JUNIOR/SENIOR</u></b> MANAGE
<b>Student 5 – Responsibilities</b>		
Internet research on prospects	Customized, enhanced and updated ACT! (Customer Service Software)	Analyzed performance data and offered suggestions to clients – cold calls
Professional Development		
“Needs to continue to improve her written communications skills”		“She is very eloquent in her written communications. Her writing is always concise and to the point.”
<b>Student 6 – Responsibilities</b>		
Prepare sales orders	Respond to phone inquiries	
Professional Development		
“Experience will help will help her gain greater confidence and team working skills”		“She quickly picked up some of the more challenging concepts of her job”
<b>Student 7 – Responsibilities</b>		
Inside sales support	Develop sales presentations	Manage development of new display materials
Professional Development		
I learned to read people		“One area where she showed great improvement is her public speaking”
<b>Student 8 – Responsibilities</b>		
Logged Calls	Trouble shoot customer complaints	Conduct balance sheet review
Professional Development		
“She needs to more effectively utilize her day”		“She has made significant improvement. She has stepped up and taken ownership of her projects”
<b>Student 9 – Responsibilities</b>		
Assist sales people	Support wholesalers in sales activities	Conduct market research studies
<b>Student 10 – Responsibilities</b>		
Shadow people at ad agency	Work with marketing department in creating proposals	Created coupon program

<b>TABLE ONE (CONTINUED)</b>		
<b><u>SOPHOMORE</u></b> COORDINATE	<b><u>MIDDLER*</u></b> PLAN	<b><u>JUNIOR/SENIOR</u></b> MANAGE
Professional Development		
“He grew up very much during this co-op period.”		“One of his strengths is his ability to develop alternative solutions to issues and look at data from different perspectives. He also maintains a level head during pressure situations”
<b>Student 11 – Responsibilities</b>		
Requested Quotes/obtained bids for clients	Analyzed and documented compliance issues	Managed 8 operations tech projects
Professional Development		
Learned phone etiquette “By taking a more proactive stance she will be better to able to identify potential problems and provide solutions”		Data analysis on large amounts of data using excel “able to research and manage materials to deliver audience” “Was essential to our projects and meeting dead-lines”
<b>Student 12 – Responsibilities</b>		
Updated excel data bases, SAP	Organized race day Boston Marathon operations	Produced sponsor packets for Ideas Boston Conference
Professional Development		
“He will benefit from gaining additional confidence in his problem solving abilities”		“More analytical and much better at problem solving than any 1 <sup>st</sup> year employee”
<b>Student 13 – Responsibilities</b>		
Data entry / processed payments	Assisted in planning events events for Boston	Managed events and promotion Globe marketing department; Managed Minor League pitch and run event
Professional Development		
Learned excel Learned the importance of networking		“She is extremely responsible member of the team while also able to work independently”
<b>Student 14 – Responsibilities</b>		
Prepared and shipped orders to customers	Wrote product descriptions for new products	Priced lines per manufacturer’s guidelines and competitors’ prices
Professional Development		

<b>TABLE ONE (CONTINUED)</b>		
<b><u>SOPHOMORE</u></b> COORDINATE	<b><u>MIDDLER*</u></b> PLAN	<b><u>JUNIOR/SENIOR</u></b> MANAGE
Professional Development		
Learned to work in a small business with little supervision		“Able to identify problems and work through them”
<b>Student 15 – Responsibilities</b>		
Customer service	Daily data collection and reporting results to clients	Market analysis and feasibility study for launch of new branch
Professional Development		
The experience has enabled me to make decisions on my own; it has made me believe in myself; it has made me more confident		“She has a pleasant and professional demeanor and showed this in ability to work effectively with others both at the same and higher levels within the organization”
* At Northeastern University “middler” is the third year of a five-year undergraduate program		

### DISCUSSION

The above data demonstrate that these particular students progressed in the complexity of work assignments as they moved through their three-year experience with co-op. In most of the first assignments (“coordinate”) students were given structured tasks which taught basic office skills as well as providing the opportunity to participate in the marketing system of the firm. Descriptors such as “Assists in events planning” and “Prepare sales reports” indicate an elementary set of responsibilities with limited decision making. Yet, these roles were ones in which students could learn what marketers actually do. The second (“plan”) jobs involved working with other units and, in some cases, limited decision making. Tasks included “supervised ad and video creation,” “develop sales presentations,” and “wrote product descriptions for new products.” Clearly these students were exposed to ever greater horizons and began to practice limited decision making. In the third set (“manage”) students were responsible for activities that required a rather sophisticated understanding of the firm’s marketing strategy. In addition, in these assignments, students were given tasks in which they could practice multi functional decision making. Roles such as “Managed events and promotion events,” “managed eight opera-

tions tech projects,” and “managed production of collateral material and final budgeting for Gillette’s incentive program” show clearly that these students had progressed and were performing in significant decision making roles. They had evolved into junior marketing managers.

In the students “professional development” an emerging maturity can be seen over the three years. In addition, in several incidents students clearly “learned” from the feedback of early assignments and adjusted both their work routines as well as their interpersonal behaviors. For instance one student was evaluated in her first assignment, “Needs to continue to improve her written communications skills,” while in her last co-op assignment her supervisor said “she is very eloquent in her written communications.” Another student began with an assessment that said, “vendors had trouble understanding his direction,” while in his last assignment his employer concluded, “communicates his agenda clearly.”

### CONCLUSION

The above data demonstrate the value and the power of supervised co-operative education. Students clearly progressed in their specific marketing oriented skills and the sophistication of the jobs they could undertake. As well,

supervisor's comments indicate that most of our sample matured in interpersonal skills, communications abilities, and personal maturity. While such progress is obviously possible in a setting other than a co-op position, in the program described here we have seen this evolution over and over again. Credit must be given to the individual students who have taken full advantage of the opportunities offered them. However, a well designed and professionally supervised cooperative education program appears to have been the stimulus or the guiding force for most of these students to achieve such business maturity at a relatively young age.

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# HISTORY, CURRENT USAGE, AND LEARNING FROM MARKETING SIMULATION GAMES: A DETAILED LITERATURE REVIEW

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Business simulation games have now been in use for nearly fifty years dating to the first known use of a business game in a university class at the University of Washington in 1957. A survey of marketing games that appeared in the *Journal of Marketing* in 1962 (McRaith and Goeldner) cited 29 marketing simulation games then known to be in existence. The *Business Games Handbook* (Graham and Gray), published in 1969, described 190 business simulation games (over 40 of which were marketing games). *The Guide to Simulation/Games for Education and Training* (Horn and Cleaves), published in 1980, described over 230 business games containing a marketing chapter with descriptions of 46 marketing simulation games. Over the years, the number of marketing simulation games has grown along with their use in marketing courses.

The first known survey of simulation game usage, undertaken by Dale and Klasson (1962), indicated that one or more business simulation games were in use in 71.1 percent of the universities surveyed. In follow-up surveys, reported usage of business simulation games continued to grow through the years as follows: Graham and Gray (1969) reported simulation game usage in 90.7 percent of the universities surveyed; Roberts and Strauss (1975) reported usage in 94.5 percent of the universities surveyed; Faria (1987) reported usage in 95.1 percent of the universities surveyed; and Faria (1998) reported usage in 97.5 percent of the universities surveyed. It is currently estimated (Faria, 1998) that business simulation games are in use in 1,733 degree granting universities in the U.S. alone, are being used by 11,836 university business professors at any point in time, and are being used by 7,808 business firms in employee training programs. In addition, simulation games are being used in university competitions, executive seminars and in other ways. Surveys of simulation game usage have also been undertaken in other countries (McKenna 1991; Chang 1997).

A recent e-mail survey (Faria and Wellington 2004), directed to 14,497 university business school teachers in the U.S., reported that 47.7 percent of those who re-

sponded were either current or former simulation game users. Within the marketing area, a full 64.1 percent of survey respondents were either current or former simulation game users. The most typical marketing user was a full or associate professor with a Ph.D. and approximately 17 years of teaching experience. Marketing simulation games were most typically used in marketing management, strategic marketing, and principles of marketing courses.

Over the years, the most heavily researched areas of marketing simulation game usage have been: (a) the learning aspects of marketing games; (b) the relative merit of marketing simulation games; (c) the external validity of marketing games; and (d) the internal validity of marketing games. While measures of the external and internal validity of marketing games are quite interesting, and much research has been presented, this discussion will be confined to the other two major research areas.

With regard to the learning aspects of marketing games, or what marketing games teach, considerable research findings have been presented. While it would be impossible to cite all of the research studies, one overview study will be cited. Gosenpud (1990) reported that previous research has shown that marketing games provide analytic skills, entrepreneurial skills, illustrate ethics, provide administrative skills, teach mathematical modeling, provide research and data analysis skills, bargaining skills, survey research skills, creative skills, planning skills, teach financial concepts, interpersonal skills, communication skills, problem-solving skills, economic forecasting, leadership skills, and knowledge of basic economics.

The use of marketing simulation games in university marketing courses has frequently been compared to other teaching approaches. A study by Faria (2001) reports on 79 comparisons between the use of a simulation game versus other approaches, most notably cases, lectures and readings. End of class final exams were used to determine whether students in the simulation sections of the same course scored better or students in the non-simulation

sections. A summary of these comparisons shows that simulation game sections outperformed non-simulation game sections in 46 of the reported studies (58.3%), the non-simulation section students performed better in 16 of the comparisons (20.2%), while no differences were reported in 17 of the comparisons (21.5%).

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