Marketing Management Association 2004 Fall Educators' Conference Proceedings

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Prefact

This year's Conference on Marketing Education marked a return to St. Louis, the city where it started. After several years of having a board and officer meeting in St. Louis, Peter Gordon got the idea of having an informal conference where participants discussed teaching pedagogy. The first year there were the officers, board and about 40 other participants. Peter continued as the chairperson for the conference for three years, when he passed the leadership responsibility to Judy Wiles. The conference continued to grow with Judy in charge, even weathering the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks with some loss of attendance but still a healthy and interesting conference. Steve Corbin with the able assistance of Larry Zigler then replaced Judy as chairperson. The first year that Steve was in charge we met in Memphis and enjoyed Beale Street, Rendez-vous Barbeque and other high spots of Memphis. The following year our meeting ventured to Nashville and once again enjoyed a large attendance. The Marketing Management Association has prided itself in being a conference that strives to meet the needs of marketing faculty at small and mid-sized colleges throughout the Midwest. Hopefully this year's education conference will be no exception.

I owe a substantial "word of thanks" to numerous people who helped me in a variety of ways relative to the conference. First is Judy Wiles. Judy coordinated efforts with the publishing companies. In addition she kind of followed behind me with a "pooper scooper" helping to clean up my messes. To cap it off, she had to endure my frustrations with the conference by being the person to receive my venting when things didn't go as planned. Thanks again Judy! Fred Hoyt as MMA President helped by providing encouragement and helping to remedy some problems. Brian Engelland as past president and my department head, also experience a lot of venting from me and served as a steadying force when things got a bit rough. JoAnn Linrud and Marie Steinhoff both supplied excellent suggestions as to how to best deal with conference registration and other related aspects. Michelle Kunz did an outstanding job putting together the early career faculty sessions. Karen Goodwin virtually assembled the proceedings on her own, all of the creative things and other good things about the proceedings should be credited to her. If there are problems with the proceedings, then that is probably my fault. Other people that I owe a tip of the hat to are: Gary Brockway, Charles Wood, Melissa Moore, Rob Moore, Nicole Lueg, Jason Lueg, Vicki Mann, and Mike Dorsch.

Ronald D. Taylor

September 8, 2004

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APPLYING KOLB'S LEARNING THEORY TO MARKETING INTERNSHIPS

Mary M. Albrecht, Marysville University

INTRODUCTION

With the growth of experiential learning in the marketing curriculum in universities a need arises to structure this inherently unstructured learning experience. Kolb's Learning Theory serves as a helpful tool to incorporate experiential learning into the marketing curriculum. By properly structuring the experiential learning process, the professor guides the student into all of Kolb's four stages of the learning process. This paper applies Kolb's Learning Theory to the experiential learning tool of internships in a marketing curriculum of a university.

KOLB'S LEARNING THEORY

Kolb's learning theory is based on stages of learning (Kolb 1984). The student must complete all four stages to have a complete learning experience. Each person has a preferred learning style that is associated with one of the four dimensions or stages of the model. The four dimensions of the model are as follows.

The first dimension is Concrete Experience that is learning through experience. An intuitive learning style is associated with Concrete Experience (Raschick, Maypole, and Day, 1998). The students involve themselves openly and fully without bias in the new learning experiences (Sugarman 1985).

The second dimension is Reflective Observation that is learning through examining. A reflective learning style is associated with Reflective Observation (Raschick, Maypole, and Day 1998). The students take a step back and reflect on the experience (Sugarman 1985).

The third dimension, Abstract Conceptualization, is learning through explaining. The theorizing learning style is associated with Abstract Conceptualization (Raschick, Maypole, and Day, 1998). The students understand the observations made and integrate the observations into logically sound theories (Sugarman 1985).

The fourth dimension, Active Experimentation, is learning through applying. A doing learning style is associated with Active Experimentation (Raschick, Maypole, and Day, 1998). The students test theories and use them as the basis of problem solving and decision making (Sugarman 1985).

The four dimensions or stages of the model form two continua each reflecting a learning orientation. Concrete Experience versus Abstract Conceptualization reflects an _inductive_ learning orientation. Reflective observation versus Active Experimentation, reflects a _deductive_ learning orientation.

Kolb and Smith (1986) suggest the best learning experience includes all four stages and follows a set sequence. This sequence, the Learning Cycle (Figure 1), progresses from Concrete Experience to Reflective Observation to Abstract Conceptualization and finally to Active Experimentation Others (Raschick, Maypole, and Day, 1998; Von Soest and Kruzich

1994) suggest that rather than following a set sequence the students preferred learning styles serve as a guide for the best starting point. Those with an inductive learning style would do well beginning with the Concrete Experience. Students with the deductive learning style probably do better starting with Abstract Conceptualization.

Kolb's four-stage, cyclical process of effective learning describes how experience translates into concepts that can be used to guide the choice of new experiences (Sugarman 1985). A complete learning experience requires flexibility. Learners must shift from being actors to being observers and from being directly involved to being analytically detached. Each stage of the cycle puts different demands on learners (Sugarman 1985).

Kolb (1984) developed a conceptual framework (Figure 2) using the four dimensions to form four quadrants representing four learning styles. These can be used for statistical analysis. The four learning styles are:

1. The Accommodator is people-oriented and learns through trial-and-error combining Active Experimentation and Concrete Experience.

FIGURE 1
Klob Learning Cycle
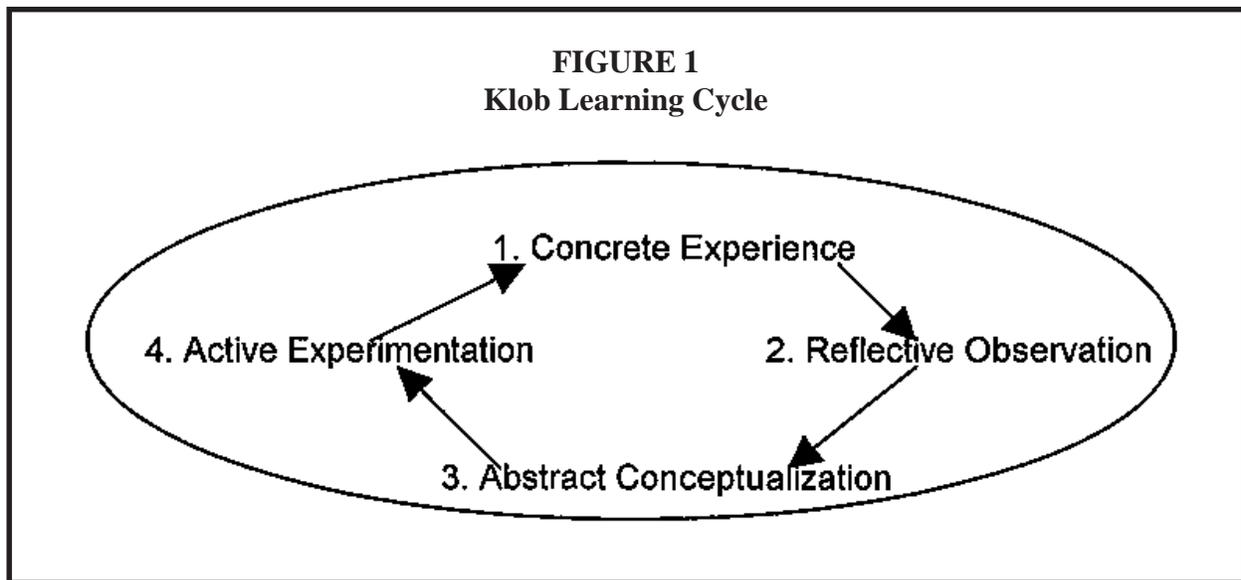
2. The Diverger uses information from senses and feelings. This style combines Concrete Experience and Reflective Observation.

3. The Assimilator uses abstract thinking and theoretical orientation. This style combines Reflective Observation and Abstract Conceptualization.

4. The Converger tends to understand practical ideas and their applications combining Abstract Conceptualization and Active Experimentation.

LEARNING STYLES AND THE BUSINESS STUDENT

Jaju, Kwak, and Zinkhan (2002) recommend including field internships in the undergraduate business school's curriculum to provide a complete learning experiences for all learning styles. Corporate criticism of business schools (O'Brien and Deans 1995) includes dissatisfaction with the preparedness of the students for the real world. Practical skills suffer as emphasis is placed on theory in the curriculum. Incorporating experiential learning tools such as intern-

FIGURE 2
Kolb Learning Style Quadrants
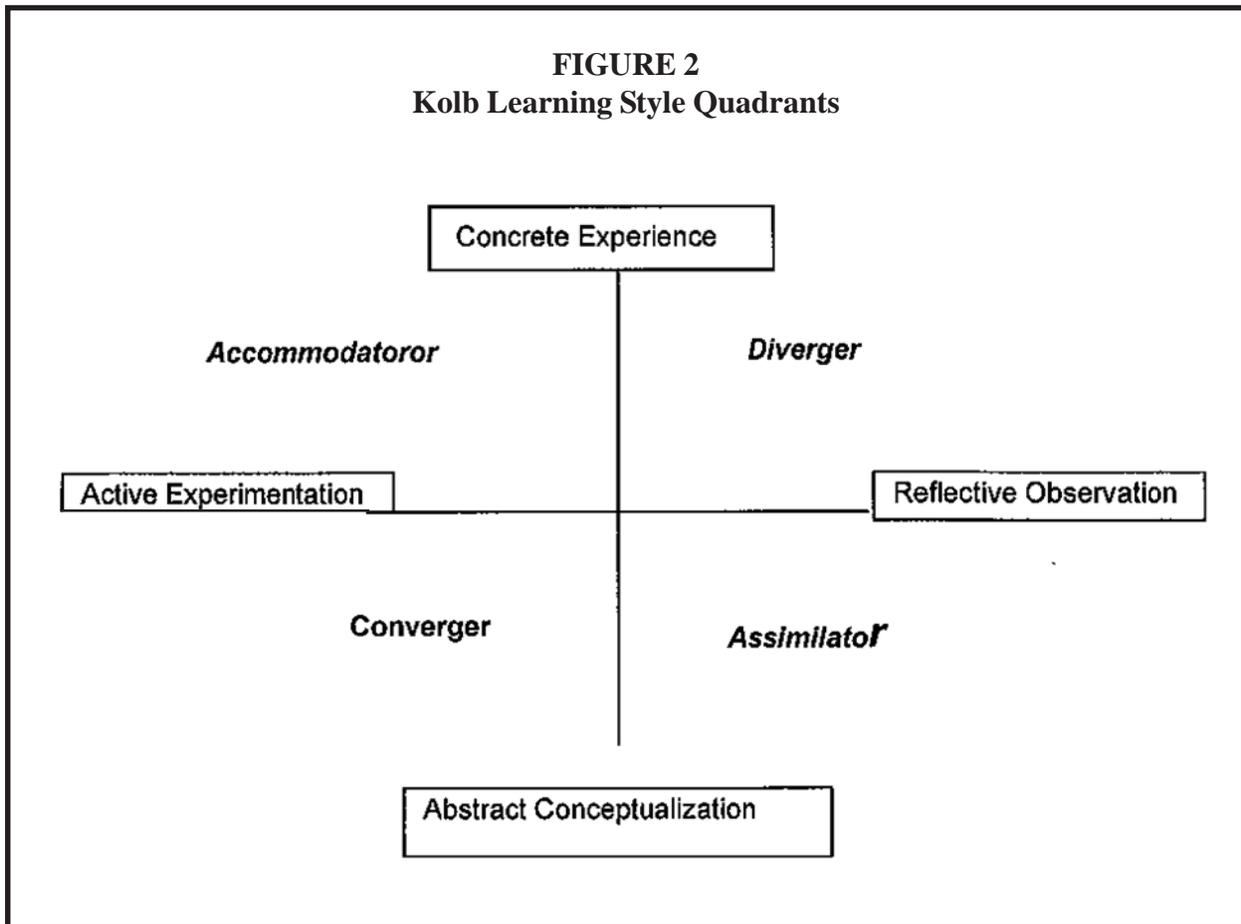
ships can help the students bridge the gap between the classroom and the office.

Maryville University reformed the marketing major so students may choose concentrations. The concentration will better prepare students for their area of professional interest. Each concentration has an experiential learning component such as an internship. In managing this component, the professors serve as advisors for students and guide the student through the experience.

The Kolb's learning theory provides the structure to give the student the most comprehensive learning experience. Ideally, the internship provides the student practice in all four stages of the learning process, Concrete Experience, Reflective Observation, Abstract Conceptualization, and Active Experimentation. To attain this ideal the professor/advisor must structure activities for each of the four learning stages. An example of an activity for the Reflective Observation stage is writing a reflective piece about what is experienced on the job and how the student feels about the experience. A paper describing the relationships between what the student learned in the experience with the concepts learned in the courses serves the Abstract Conceptualization stage of the learning process. For the Active Experimentation stage the student demonstrates through learning outcomes how the theories are used as the basis of problem solving or decision making. Frontczak (1998) suggests that the advisor formulates certain questions to ask the student for each of the stages of learning. The student can reflect on his feelings toward the experience, and show how concepts apply to the experience.

CONCLUSION

Kolb's Learning Theory provides a strong structure to guide students through experiential learning like internships. These experiences provide excellent opportunities to bridge the gap between the classroom and the office. To maximize the benefit of to the students the professor develops activities and outcomes based on the four stages of the learning cycle and the learning style of the student.

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UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING TECHNOLOGY TO PROVIDE STUDENTS WITH PROMPT FEEDBACK

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Principle 4. Gives Prompt Feedback: *Knowing what you know and don't know focuses learning. Students need appropriate feedback on performance to benefit from courses. When getting started, students need help in assessing existing knowledge and competence. In classes, students need frequent opportunities to perform and receive suggestions for improvement. At various points during college, and at the end, students need chances to reflect on what they have learned, what they still need to know, and how to assess themselves* (Chickering and Gamson 1987).

Undergraduate business students find few things more frustrating than confusion surrounding "where they stand" in a particular class at any given time. With the growth of technologically advanced communication tools such as email, instant messaging, sophisticated cell phones, and other mobile communication devices, many students have come to expect almost immediate answers to their questions and subsequently the evaluation of their class work. Professors must therefore be aware of these high standards of responsiveness expected by today's students and be willing to provide these students with the same level of responsiveness that students will be expected to uphold in their professional careers.

In order to address this growing need for prompt student feedback a number of viable pedagogical alternatives are readily available. While some options are technology based, others may be relatively simple additions and/or modifications to an existing syllabus. Selecting appropriate responsiveness tactics will obviously vary depending upon a professor's teaching style, the subject matter being taught, and the types of projects and exams that are required in the course. But regardless of the techniques considered for adoption, professors must be aware that the need to respond quickly to students has never been stronger and professors must be willing to meet these needs in any of a number of creative techniques.

Make the Most Use of Available Technology. Software programs such as Blackboard and WcbCast allow professors the opportunity to post student grades on-line immediately after students' project have been evaluated. Privacy is typically not an issue when this type of software is utilized because students are given access to only their own grades. Emailing students their grades is also a viable option, but privacy is an issue that must be considered. In other words, while a professor may be emailing a particular student his/her grade, the professor is not certain who will be opening the email message and reading it. Steps must be taken prior to the emailing of grades to insure the email address provided by the student is his/her personal email account and that no one else has access to that account.

Have Students Provide Peer Evaluations. Allowing students the opportunity to evaluate the work of their peers can be an expeditious means by

which to provide feedback. Student evaluations, and/or rankings, can be done in ass, individually, or by group allowing students the opportunity to gain constructive criticism from peers very quickly and allow students the opportunity to see the work of their classmates.

Personal Advisement Sessions. Meeting with students one-on-one to review drafts of work prior to submission, or even final drafts, is obviously time consuming but typically well-received by students. By taking a day and scheduling 15–20 minute personal advisement sessions once or twice a semester students will learn first hand how their individual work could be enhanced and how well they are performing in the class at that time.

Provide "Personal Commitments" to Turn-around Time of Graded Work. By including in the syllabus a personal commitment regarding when graded work will be returned to students (e.g. Quiz – the next class session; Mid-Term Exam – the next week; Major Paper – within two weeks) students will know what to expect from their professor which, according to basic cueing theory, makes the wait seem far shorter.

Grade Parts of the Project. For major projects such a marketing or business plans it may be wise to grade parts of the paper as opposed to waiting for the entire, final paper to be submit-

ted and then graded. By grading the paper part-by-part students will have a far better understanding of where they stand during the course of the paper's production, and the surprises" that sometimes arise at the end of the class will be significantly reduced.

Discuss Presentation Grades Immediately Following the Presentation. Make it a point to grade a presentation immediately after it has been given to a class. Save time at the end of the class to go over the presentation with the presenting individual or group so that comments m·e fresh and therefore more meaningful.

Discuss a Paper's Grade Immediately Following Its Presentation. If students are asked to present a paper, make the paper submission deadline a week or so prior to its presentation. Then, grade the paper and discuss it with the student or group at the same time the presentation grade is discussed.

By implementing these and other pedagogical tactics professors will address a growing need of today's business student and in so doing set a performance example that students will find is expected in today's fast paced working environment.

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A BASIC PRIMER FOR TEACHING ONLINE: LESSONS FOR THE FIRST-TIME TEACHER

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Universities are increasingly using online methods to meet the needs of a diverse student body. Business degrees and courses are especially popular, given the growing adult education market and job opportunities. However, effectively administering online courses can be a daunting task. In this paper, using our experiences in teaching several online marketing courses, we offer tips for improving the effectiveness of this method and compare/contrast the techniques to in-class delivery.

GETTING STARTED

Once you've agreed to the challenge of teaching online, your choices include developing a course from scratch with materials you've accumulated and tested over time or using a turnkey program available from the platform supported by your institution (e.g., Blackboard, WebCT). Start up costs in terms of time and effort are formidable. If you are not offered incentives such as overload pay or release time to develop a unique course, choosing an existing pre-packaged "e-pack" is the way to go.

E-PACK SELECTION

Assuming you have taught the course before and have a preferred text, research the availability of pre-packaged support materials. Otherwise, you must review publishers' offerings and limit your choice to a text with an online edition. Typically, the student must purchase access to these materials for an additional charge. They cannot simply purchase access to the support package and not purchase the text. Many publishers sell the text and access code together. Some bookstores prefer the "e-pack" be purchased separately for ease of buying back books at the end of the semester. Once an e-pack access code has been purchased, it cannot be re-used. Students have a better appreciation for the value of the access code when it is purchased separately. It is critical that tech support personnel at your university are available to help with loading the course onto the server and answering questions you and the students will have.

REQUIRE AN INITIAL ORIENTATION MEETING

All online students are encouraged to attend an orientation meeting on campus at the beginning of the semester, which means that students enter the courses with an understanding of WebCT (or other platform) and what it takes to succeed in an online course. Of course, if students are true distance learners, they should not be expected to travel and the materials offered to students at the orientation should be made available to the off campus students through email.

GET TO KNOW YOUR STUDENTS

Online classes can be very impersonal; therefore, it is a good idea to spend time during the start of the semester getting to know the stu-

dents on a more personal basis. Since the students do not have an opportunity to get to know you, a nice starting point is an informative e-mail that discusses your professional background and some personal details. Students should be encouraged to respond with similar information. This information can be used to personalize communications for each student throughout the duration of the course.

IN-CLASS VERSUS ONLINE COURSE ADMINISTRATION

When teaching multiple sections of the same course, most professors attempt to keep the course content and class administration similar. Regional electronic consortia and accrediting bodies require this, ensuring the integrity of the online course. (Faculty qualifications, contact hours, and course coverage of essential business content are held also to this standard.) Generally, the in-class section becomes the guide for the online section with chapter topics being covered during the same week and exam/assignment dates occurring at the same time. Although online classes are usually similar to in-class courses, there are still administration issues that are inherently different. For example, online students are not present for in-class lectures, therefore, it is often necessary to provide the students withE-lectures or attachments of well-crafted notes and illustrations. In addition, the typical class discussions must take the form of threaded discussions using a bulletin board or chat room available in the electronic medium. With students signing on and off at different times of the day and week, it is more difficult to generate enthusiasm via your physical presence. It is possible to personalize the learning experience for each student and address individual concerns privately.

CLASS ATTENDANCE AND PARTICIPATION

One problem with online courses is how to duplicate the in-class setting with respect to class attendance and participation. Discussions can be an excellent solution to this problem and can also serve as a way to enhance critical thinking skills. Because fellow students are often great learning resources, threaded discussions via the WebCT Discussion Board works well. Student responses are posted in a public arena that can be viewed by everyone in the class as well as the instructor.

Many students find the online discussions favorable to the in-class discussion counterpart. Students with introverted personalities do not have to worry about the pressure to discuss issues in front of a group of people. Also, everyone in the class has an equal opportunity to participate, unlike the face-to-face classroom where two or three students tend to dominate the discussions. In addition, students have more time to think about their answer, which ultimately results in higher quality discussions.

One of the authors requires students to respond to the "Discussion of the Week" via threaded discussions. Each week the students can post responses to a question that the professor has proposed. The questions are always relevant to the material being covered during that week. They are thought-provoking questions that usually focus on hot topics or on concepts which students find difficult.

Many professors do not grade participation in any formalized way, however, in order to ensure quality discussions, it may be necessary to attach a grade to each discussion. One suggestion is to allot two points for each discussion. The grading scale is as follows: 0 = Unacceptable – no response, inadequate coverage of topic, or poorly written; 1 = Needs Some Improvement – discussion is not fully developed or improvement in writing skills needed; 2 = Excellent – adequate coverage of topic, high quality response, and little or not grammatical mistakes. The grading merely requires a quick glance at the answers because comments or corrections to the mistakes are not made (that is

reserved for the application/written assignments). In addition, students are informed that the instructor expects the discussions to be concise, limiting a comment to one or two points, and the logic behind the comment should be included. The students are also required to end their dialogue with questions that generate more discussion from classmates.

Assessing Student Progress

It is important to use a range of criteria to assess students' performance. Reliance upon multiple-choice exams as the sole means of evaluation is discouraged in regular and online classes for obvious reasons. The almost instantaneous grading and reporting available with online testing materials is very tempting to use. Assuming course goals go beyond identification of concepts and include integration and critical thinking, other types of evaluation methods are necessary. Examples of assessments that may be included in an online class are application assignments, written assignments, timed or "take home" essay exams, participation via threaded discussions, and specified logon requirements (e.g., they must log onto WebCT a minimum of three times a week). Evaluating essay and lengthier assignments can be done online and returned to the student quicker than the traditional method. It does, however, require being logged on while grading.

Two important observations should be noted here. Students who take online courses value convenience and flexibility and are generally more independent learners than many on campus students. They are more pro-active in their learning style and committed to the course without the benefit of physical interaction. At the same time, they may have the same testing phobias and communication challenges that other students have under examination. A timed exam produces anxiety in even the best prepared student, so other methods of testing are appreciated and elicit more and better information.

A second concern of distance educators is whether the student enrolled in the course is the same student participating online. The integrity of the course is somewhat compromised by the inability to absolutely identify the participants. How do I know that a student hasn't hired her roommate to sign in and take the test? How do I know a student doesn't have the book in his lap while he takes the online timed multiple-choice test?

Just as students find ways to cheat in class, the online course almost encourages it. What to do? By testing in multiple ways and assessing participation at regular intervals (and of course including the university's academic dishonesty policy in the syllabus), we do as much as we can in any course to promote ethical behavior. There are ways to determine if a student is taking advantage of the testing method by comparing quality of work over time, length of time taken to complete an exam, coding of assignments, and personalizing assignments. The time and energy expended to cheat is often greater than the time and energy that could have been devoted to learning the material.

VARIABLE SUBJECT DELIVERY

No two individuals learn in the same way, therefore, it is important to utilize a subject delivery approach that is variable in nature and incorporates a variety of different learning processes. For face-to-face classes professors can use guest speakers, videos, in-class activities, group projects, exciting visual overheads, informative supplemental is not easily transferable to the online setting. Still there are ways to enhance and individualize the learning experience for online students. Often the e-packs include a host of educational supplements for the students such as flashcards, videos, educational games, sample exams, and links to informative Internet sites. References to these or links to literature obtained online (through the university library website, e.g.) lead students to break out of the text and explore other sources.

The key is to pay close attention to the students and adjust the course accordingly. This can be done easily in an online setting because the instructor can solicit feedback from the students

quickly and make adjustments to the course as necessary. For example, one of the authors realized early in the semester that students were nervous about taking a timed exam online. The solution was to simply supply them with a practice exam prior to the first graded exam. This eradicated much of their concerns and also eliminated many of the common problems that occur during the first online exam.

In conclusion, online classes can be valuable educational tools for any university. They allow universities to reach students who may not be able to take the traditional in-class courses. Favoring flexibility and convenience, many students are willing to enroll in these courses; and with the use of a good text supported e-pack, instructors may actually find online courses to be an enjoyable teaching experience. Granted, the instructor may have to think "out of the box" to find appropriate and controllable ways to provide the best educational experience. However, if managed effectively, on-line courses can be of the same quality as the regular in-class courses.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING TECHNOLOGY TO GIVE PROMPT FEEDBACK TO STUDENTS

John F. Bennett, Stephens College

Principle 4. Gives Prompt Feedback: *Knowing what you know and don't know focuses learning. Students need appropriate feedback on performance to benefit from courses. When getting started, students need help in assessing existing knowledge and competence. In classes, students need frequent opportunities to perform and receive suggestions for improvement. At various points during college, and at the end, students need chances to reflect on what they have learned, what they still need to know, and how to assess themselves* (Chickering and Gamson 1987).

According to the American Association of Higher Education (AAHE) one of the seven principles for good practice in education is to provide prompt feedback to students. Providing prompt feedback to students conveys to the students that the instructor is concerned with their performance in the course and with providing them with any assistance necessary to improve that performance. Through the use of Internet-related technologies the instructor is able to improve both the quality and the timeliness of this feedback. In fact, one of the primary advantages of using technology in the classroom is its enormous potential to improve the flow of communication between the instructor and his/her students. This position paper highlights a few examples of how various Internet-based technologies can be utilized to implement this principle of effective teaching.

One of the advantages of using a course management system like Blackboard or WebCT is that it incorporates many of the tools that can be useful for providing quality feedback to students in a timely manner. One of the most useful features in many course management systems is the electronic grade book that students can use to evaluate their progress in the class at any time throughout the course. In addition, the instructor can configure the grade book so that the student can access comparative data for an assignment such as the mean and median scores, the high and low scores, etc. This enables the student to better assess his/her performance in the class.

Another feature of many course management systems is the test and survey managers that allow the instructor to create online tests and surveys for the class. In the Blackboard course management system, the test/quiz feature can be configured so that the student obtains detailed results indicating rot only their overall score but a detailed analysis of each question showing the correct answer as well as an explanation for the why it is the correct choice. In classrooms with computer workstations, the test/quiz can be given during a class session in order to assess comprehension of the lecture material in real time. The survey manager on Blackboard can be used to create anonymous surveys to solicit feedback on teaching, student presentations, quest speakers, technology used in the course,

etc. This tool is particularly useful for soliciting the students' opinions about controversial topics that they may not be willing to express without the assurance of confidentiality.

Another set of useful tools included in many course management systems is the asynchronous and synchronous communication tools such as the electronic discussion board, email and chat room. These tools facilitate interaction between student and teacher and between students by enabling the student to the post or email a message at their convenience. The electronic discussion board can be used to extend a discussion begun in class. The advantage of doing this is that everyone is given an opportunity to voice their opinion including students who are often too shy to participate in classroom discussions. The discussion board can be particularly useful for encouraging candid responses since it can be set up so that the users remain anonymous. The chat room can be used to hold "virtual" for those students who are either not able to or do not prefer to come by the instructor's office his/her office hours - perhaps because they find their instructor intimidating!

In a class where the students are assigned to work on group projects, many course management systems allow the instructor to create group pages on the course website. These group pages facilitate communicate among the group's members and between the instructor and the group by providing a set of communication tools on each group page including an electronic discussion board, chat room, email list, and file exchange function.

Technology also has a growing role in recording and analyzing personal and professional performances. Teachers can use technology to provide critical observations for an apprentice; for example, video to help a novice salesperson critique his or her own performance. Drafts of student reports can be easily disseminated or "published" on the course website for peer editing purposes using email or tools like the digital "drop box" on Blackboard. Faculty (or other students) can react to a writer's draft using the "hidden text" option available in word processors: Turned on, the "hidden" comments spring up; turned off, the comments recede and the writer's work is again free of "red ink." These critiques can either be submitted to the digital drop box or sent as an attachment to the student's email address.

In this digital age, more students are expecting, if not demanding, that their teachers utilize various internet-based technologies to provide feedback to their students. These technologies hold the potential for the instructor to provide greater feedback more promptly than more traditional methods allowed. This, in turn, affords the student with more opportunities to reflect on what they have learned, what they still need to know, and how they might assess themselves resulting in a more positive and improved learning experience. In summary, computers can enhance teaching and learning by facilitating feedback, one of the most important principles of effective teaching.

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SALES PRESENTATION EVALUATION FORM

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Sales presentations are an important pedagogical tool for developing students' communication skills essential for successful careers in professional sales. Perhaps the best method for evaluating sales presentations would be to videotape each student and provide feedback in a consultative one-on-one setting critiquing the performance individually. However, this may not be practical for many schools due to lack of resources (i.e., equipment) as well as prohibitively large class sizes. Therefore, an alternative to recording students' sales presentations is to evaluate each student in real time. However, one of the difficulties with a sales presentation, from the teacher's perspective, is how to impartially grade and evaluate each student in as fair and equitable a manner as possible. From a students' perspective, one issue is a misunderstanding exactly how the presentation will be evaluated and graded in comparison to their peers. Thus, the need arises for some uniform type of evaluation form, which can be used by faculty members teaching personal selling and/or sales management courses.

Therefore, one possible solution to the problem of uniformly evaluating and grading students' performance on sales presentations would be to use an evaluation form. Many options exist for creating a useful evaluation form; one practical alternative would be to develop the form utilizing available on-line resources. For example, teach-nology.com is a valuable free access portal for educators with thousands of lesson plans, printable worksheets, educational games, and teaching tools and tips. A printable version of an excellent presentation evaluation forms applicable to sales courses is readily available (see references). Ideally, students should be given a copy of the form beforehand so they may prepare adequately for the sales presentation. One advantage of the evaluation form is the descriptions of each point value, which help to alleviate any ambiguity as to how the overall score was calculated. Also, the teacher comment section may be utilized to make notes for any areas that the student may not have performed as well as expected. In summary, using this or any standardized evaluation form may assist in making the grading system for student presentations more fair and equitable by limiting some of the inherent subjectivity involved.

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GETTING THE "REAL WORLD" INTO BUSA100: INCORPORATING BUSINESS SIMULATION

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INTRODUCTION

A major goal of a business professor is to prepare students for their future employment. This involves exposing them to experiences that simulate situations they will encounter in the "real world" of business. Research increasingly touts the value of experiential activities to maximize student learning (e.g., Kolb 1984). Similarly, evidence suggests that prospective employers seek students who have the ability to work effectively in teams, therefore encouraging the need for educators to incorporate meaningful group-based activities (Miles 1981; Slavin 1996). In short, our pedagogical approaches must evolve to meet the changing needs of the business environment. This challenge is further complicated by the unique learning style of the current "video generation," for whom traditional techniques are arguably less effective (see Faust et al. 2001).

One way to train students to obtain these essential skills is through the incorporation of problem-based learning (PBL) techniques into business courses (e.g., Wilkerson and Gijselaers 1996). PBL is an instructional method characterized by the use of "real world" problems as a context for students to learn critical thinking and problem solving skills. PBL is recognized as a highly effective approach to learning, specifically by enhancing critical thinking, developing problem-solving capabilities, promoting team-work, and improving communication skills. Business simulation programs are an in-creasingly popular PBL tool used in undergraduate business curricula today (Stephen, Parente, and Brown 2002; Tompson 1995). By simulating "real" products manufactured and sold by "real" companies, such applications extend beyond the traditional textbook by challenging students to apply management principles as they work in teams to make "real world" business decisions.

DESCRIPTION OF COURSE INNOVATION

With the goal of achieving the various skills previously outlined, we have refocused our introductory business course (BUSA 100) around the business simulation software program Foundation™, by Management Simulations, Inc.™. This course is a required introductory course for pre-business and undeclared majors exploring management or accounting as possible majors, and is designed to introduce the students to basic business principles. All course activities – from tests to oral presentations - are designed around the management simulation software. The course requires the students to administer multiple business functions including production, research and development, marketing (sales forecasting, promotion and accessibility budgeting and pricing strategy), accounting, and finance (short and long term debt management, stock issuance and retirement and dividend policies). The simulation allows competing teams of approximately four students to run $40 million electronic sensor companies. Over the

course of eight rounds (correlates to one fiscal year), each team views the impact of their decisions on their company's position and profitability, allowing exposure to the myriad challenges and ambiguities facing businesses today.

The entire course is now structured around the simulation and the course "textbook" is a team member guide published by Management Simulation, Inc.™. Three tests are administered throughout the semester in order to assess student knowledge of the various terms and technical aspects presented through the simulation activities. Additionally, each team is required to complete a number of written and oral assignments throughout the semester to demonstrate knowledge of their company and all related strategies. These include an initial situation analysis, a comprehensive business plan, organizational memos, and a final presentation of performance results.

The initial formulation of the individual teams is decided by the instructor based upon gender, degree of computer competence, and completed academic credit hours (e.g., freshman, sophomore, junior). The team members then assign specific areas of responsibility to individuals within their "company," i.e., VP-Marketing, VP-Finance, VP-Production, VP-Research and Development. Twice during the semester, each team evaluates its individual team members via an anonymous, online peer evaluation. The peer evaluation addresses a range of issues including the level and quality of each member's involvement and individual contributions to the group.

In addition, five faculty members from different business disciplines serve as guest lecturers throughout the semester. The visiting instructors first provide an overview of their discipline and then incorporate specific simulation activities as they relate to their specific function. For instance, a finance management professor would discuss financial ratios utilizing the team's

individual statistics and performance over the past five rounds (years). In addition to providing helpful guidance for the simulation activities, this also exposes the new business students to professors throughout the School of Business. Furthermore, this approach provides the opportunity for the visiting faculty to integrate simulation applications into their subsequent coursework. For instance, a marketing professor who first interacts with freshman students in BUSA100 is able to incorporate specific examples from the simulation game – such as sales forecasting, demand analysis, or pricing strategies – into a marketing management course two semesters later.

Furthermore, we are finding that direct faculty interaction in this introductory course paves the way to greater communication between faculty and students going forward.

LESSONS LEARNED AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Student reactions to the first semester(Spring 2004) of the new BUSA100 course were generally very favorable. In particular, 69 percent of all students evaluated the course favorably, either as excellent (21%) or good (48%). After offering this new course in Spring 2004 and assessing student feedback, we have identified a number of noteworthy strengths as well as several areas for improvement.

Strengths

First, the students reported that they appreciated exposure to the wide variety of business disciplines with visiting faculty and "hands-on" involvement. Qualitative feedback from students enrolled in the course included the following: "This class helped me to learn how to manage a business;" and "It gave me a prelude to more advanced business courses." Further, students reported favorable perceptions of the group-based format and teamwork so integral to the

course as well as the "real world" applications provided by the simulation software. For instance, student comments included: "This course allows one an opportunity to examine how a business operates;" and "The class provides application of decisions that one would encounter in the 'real-world' and how the business disciplines interrelate." Finally, the simulation-centered activities were clearly preferred to the "traditional" learning approaches prevalent in other courses. While today's business student typically learns concepts in an ordered and structured environment, the simulation experience engages the student in an unpredictable and education discovery learning module. Interestingly, as in the case with many PBL-based activities, the students initially exhibited discontent and guarded reactions to the simulation pedagogy. However, as the semester progressed the students clearly gained confidence and growing enthusiasm with their decisions and learning. For instance, one student commented: "I had some confusion at the first of the semester yet gained confidence with practice and experience."

Weaknesses

We likewise recognize a number of areas for improvement in the semesters to come. First, throughout the semester students remarked of the need for further experience and broader exposure to the simulation and its terminology before actual performance (rounds) occur. For instance, one student commented, "The simulation was confusing and overwhelming at the beginning of the semester." Additionally, the students generally reported that the team member guide accompanying the simulation software (Management Simulation, Inc.™) was insufficient for their needs. Specifically, the guide proved inadequate in respect to both specific instructions and for learning business concepts involved in the simulation. For example, student commentary included the following: "The course had no textbook which made prepara-

tion for the tests a challenge." Further, the students reported that the visiting professors should further incorporate specific simulation activities/examples into their lectures. Finally, as is often the case with group-based activities, some students were critical of the method used to assign simulation teams. In particular, when teams had dominant members the subdued participants did not actively engage in the simulation. For instance, student feedback included the following statement: "After the first three weeks of class, two team members assumed control of the entire simulation and I was not able to be a viable, contributing member."

Future Directions

Based upon the lessons learned after the first semester of this new course offering, a number of adjustments will be made in the coming year. First, in order to gain confidence in the simulation material and executions, additional practice rounds will be added early in the semester. Within the context of these additional rounds, each team will receive customized feedback from the instructor who will explain errors and gaps in understanding. Also, with the additional practice rounds the course deliverables (i.e., business plan, organizational memo and situation analysis) will be deferred until later in the semester in order to allow greater comprehension and exposure to the appropriate concepts. Further, an additional textbook will be available as a reference in order to facilitate greater understanding of the many business concepts presented throughout the semester. Also, as a result of this semester's experience, next term the team assignments will be finalized based upon a computer generated match provided through the Management Simulation, Inc.™ website. This tool allows the students to answer questions that will direct the proper team placement of individuals. Finally, the visiting faculty will be further educated of the simulation activities so that their presentations may better incorporate specific and helpful examples.

In conclusion, we believe that the integration of business simulation has greatly improved the "real world" learning in our BUSA100 introductory business course. Although we have a number of areas for future improvements, we maintain that the benefits of this approach far outweigh the challenges, offering great potential for "hands-on" training for today's generation.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING TECHNOLOGY TO DEVELOP RECIPROCITY AND COOPERATION AMONG STUDENTS

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Principle 2. *Develops Reciprocity and Cooperation Among Students: Learning is enhanced when it is more like a team effort that a solo race. Good learning, like good work, is collaborative and social, not competitive and isolated. Working with others often increases involvement in learning. Sharing one's own ideas and responding to others' reactions sharpens thinking and deepens understanding* (Chickering and Gamson 1987).

Living in a technological society today, we use technology for a variety of purposes. Most college campuses are equipped with a variety of these technological advances. Since it is all around us, it would make perfect sense to learn how to further utilize this powerful tool as a resource to enhance student learning and understanding of the content material. According to the concepts of the authors Arthur W. Chickering and Zelda F. Gamson, and their *Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education* (March 1997) and *Implementing the Seven Principles: Technologv as Lever* (Chickering and Ehrmann (October 1996) one of the seven principles of good practice is to develop sharing and team work among students and one vehicle to accomplish this is through the use of technology. However, in order to utilize this vehicle effectively for developing teamwork and sharing there needs to be an atmosphere of respect and rapport that is developed between students and between the professor and the students (Danielson 1996).

When one is working to establish an atmosphere of respect and rapport one is seeking to create an environment of learning. One method that seems to contribute to a positive working environment is to provide students with methods to contact their fellow students and the professor. One method of exchange that seems valuable to our goal is allowing the students to exchange email addresses and other contact information. In addition to the exchange the class discusses the manner in which these contacts might be used. The team agrees upon etiquette in the use of this tool and adds preferences, i.e., when students would like to be called or emailed and how long is appropriate before sending another email regarding the same subject etc. This allows the students to start taking an active role in creating a professional working environment. This also allows the students to start seeing themselves as a resource to each other verses always viewing the instructor as the only one that can problem-solve. Not only do the students see themselves and their fellow classmates as valuable members of the learning process but this also gets them started working as a team. The students must all agree on the policies and procedures of interaction. The instructor is there

as a facilitator to model the processes by asking and clarifying issues. Each student then gets a copy of the agreed upon product.

Another method that is helpful in contributing to an atmosphere of learning is to provide the students with another hub of information where they can also participate. One method is to provide the students with access to a website dedicated to the class. where they can view the assignments and the minutes of the last class and for the upcoming class. The students are responsible for contributing to the content by posting answers to an upcoming essential or thematic question for the next class period. The instructor uses the student's comments to tailor the next lesson to the class needs. The students can choose to post private messages to the instructor but are also encouraged to post information and inquires to fellow students related to the questions of the week.

To maintain the website each team is responsible for providing a short summary of the class activities of the previous week to the instructor to post on the class website weekly. This small exercise has increased students ability to take responsibility for their learning. The discussant has found that students tend to develop more as a class and a group with this type exchange.

The email exchange and the website are just two examples of how Chickering and Gamson's principles can be implemented using technology (Chickering and Ehrmann 1996) in a traditional classroom setting. These ideas not only provide students with the opportunity to work in teams cooperatively but also create an atmosphere of respect and rapport between students and between the students and the professor, which is vital in creating an atmosphere for learning (Danielson 1996). These ideas can be easily adapted to an online learning environment. These examples will be discussed in the context of the panel discussion: *Best Practices for Early Career Professors Consortium "Implementing the Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education: Leveraging with Technology and Touch."*

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EDUCATING THE VIDEO GENERATION: STRATEGIES FOR UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

Since the advent of Sesame Street on the Public Broadcasting System, people have been alternately praising the show, for its ability to cater to a group of viewers that thrives on visual images and short bursts of information, and condemning the show, for contributing to and increasing a generation's need for visual images and short bursts of information. Yet, the show is successful and has taught young people for over thirty years.

As the Sesame Street viewers grew up, their tendencies to react favorably to visual images and short messages were further affected by the popularity of videos, both music videos and video games. Again, it has been argued which came first, an innate preference for the video format, or a preference developed by the video format.

We neither agree nor disagree with the praise and condemnation for highly visual, fast- paced information delivery; rather, we recognize the tendency in our own students to be more attentive and more involved when visual images are used in the classroom. At the same time, technology and different delivery methods have both given us new tools and new challenges in teaching students today. We would like to share with our colleagues some of the approaches we have used in undergraduate and graduate level education at Kettering University to teach this video generation of students.

UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION

At the undergraduate level, Kettering University has a traditional classroom approach with small classes; few classes have more than 30 students. However, within the traditional approach and with a lack of widely available "high tech" equipment, it is still possible to appeal to the students' positive response to visual imagery.

One of the simplest forms of visual aids used is a PowerPoint lecture slide. Creating a picture to illustrate a concept is invaluable in the learning process for this generation, especially at Kettering where most of the students are engineers. For example, instead of listing the four main points of a concept on the slide, create a flower with four petals and put the four main points on each petal. When students then think about the concept, they will see the four-petal flower instead of a list. This makes it easier for them to remember the concept.

Visuals are used extensively in the Marketing classes. Whenever possible product demonstrations, print and taped (video and audio) advertisements, brochures, and pictures are used. For

example, product demonstrations are used to demonstrate the functions of packaging; digital pictures are used to demonstrate both proper and improper mechanizing; print and taped advertisements are used to demonstrate the use of color, message format, tone, style, and copy.

Another way of overcoming the challenges of educating this video generation is choreographing the class period. For example, explain a concept and then have a class discussion or do a group activity in class with a debriefing. This keeps the students' attention by covering the material in short bursts of information.

In the Advancement Management class, current motion pictures are used to help explain management concepts and leadership theories. Students watch the film or sections of a film and then discuss the main points covered in the film as it relates to lecture material. The instructor then administers a series of exercises that reinforces the lecture material and film. The use of film combined with exercises assists students in understanding theoretical concepts; the visual images stimulate their analysis and creativity while holding their attention.

GRADUATE EDUCATION

Graduate education at Kettering presents new opportunities and challenges. Most of the graduate classes at Kettering are delivered through a distance-based mechanism. All classes are taught on campus in state of the art classrooms with a live class and are videotaped, then distributed worldwide to students via videotape, CD-ROM, or video streaming. In one way, the delivery system is beneficial because the students see a lecture and a professor; it differs greatly from text-based distance learning approaches. However, there are also challenges because students are used to seeing far more interesting video than a 2 *Y.hour* lecture. Also, due to the three-camera placement, even the range of the lecturer's movement is severely restricted. So, how do you hold their attention and facilitate learning?

One of the frequent activities in the Business to Business Marketing graduate course that is the use of small vignettes that will force students to apply the material just covered. This also helps to present information in short segments. The faculty member will read the vignette and then ask questions of the live class. If the class does not respond to the questions, the faculty needs to answer the question in a creative way. For example the faculty would respond by saying, "Did anyone think of . . . ? If you did, you are on the right track, but not quite there" "What about this idea . . . ? Let's dissect this idea." When dissecting this concept/idea, a PowerPoint visual is used to illustrate why the concept is the correct/incorrect answer to the problem.

Larger case studies are also used in the graduate class; brochures, advertisements and or products from the case company are brought into class to illustrate points; questions are asked of the live class and a discussion occurs. Again if the class does not respond, the instructor needs to be creative in eliciting discussion.

Product demonstrations are particularly effective on camera. For example, when discussing product development and why products "flop," the smokeless cigarette is used as an illustration. The cigarette is shown and dissected (so one can see the composition of the cigarette) along with the advertisements that were used in the test studies. Again the use of visual imagery is valuable and powerful.

In the Managing People and Technology graduate course, guest speakers and self- assessment exercises are often used. The self-assessment exercises enable students to evaluate themselves, their leadership qualities, work culture, and peers and appeal to their interest in self-knowledge. The change in the rhythm of learning from hearing to doing also provides a break

and engages attention again. Additionally, by providing a guest speaker to present and discuss a real life management situation, the students have the ability to conceptualize and apply management/leadership concepts to their work life. They also experience a different voice and approach to the material.

The foundation course in Management is often regarded as a challenge because there is such a quantity of conceptual material to cover and some find the material, especially the historic aspects, to be dry. We have developed a different approach. As a supplement to the lecture, students view over 1,000 photographs, graphs, and other visual images presented within the PowerPoint format. Throughout the course, it is not only the concept that students hear about but also they see the people who developed the theory, the places where historic events took place, and the industrial conditions in which early management thought developed. The size of the files for each lecture is too large to be placed on Blackboard, our system for delivering documents and administering courses, so the students are given a CD-ROM of the visual images used in the course.

Students might ordinarily have difficulty remembering Scientific Management and standardized work, but when they see original photographs of Gilbreth's brick laying studies, Frederick Taylor as a baby, and the rail yard at Midvale Steel Company, the images reinforce the stories and the concepts so that the students understand and remember. People are familiar with the image of Maslow's hierarchy of needs and using it to illustrate his theory is good. But, by adding pictures of Maslow, his books, and the results of studies testing his theory we give students a series of visual images that play to their preferences and keep their attention. Seeing the women who took part in the Relay Assembly Test Room at Hawthorne, the actual room, the parts of the relay before assembly, the Hawthorne plant itself, and Elton Mayo help students to understand the beginnings of behavioral theory. Stories are good, examples of applications are better, but best of all is adding appropriate visuals and photographs to enhance the learning experience of the video generation. (Copies of the CD-ROM created for the Management course are available to any interested educator.)

SUMMARY

Sesame Street viewers have grown up and display and tend to react favorably to visual images and short messages. This presents challenges to the academic world.

The undergraduate and graduate level courses at Kettering University have responded to this generation by using visual images and short messages to capture this audience. Whenever possible product demonstrations, print and taped (video and audio) advertisements, brochures, pictures, movies, cases, vignettes, exercises, guest speakers, and photographs are used to enhance the learning of this video generation.

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A CHECKLIST FOR EVALUATING SALES PRESENTATIONS

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Personal Selling courses typically include one or more sales presentations. Depending on the class size, students develop sales presentations either individually or in groups. The evaluations and grades on these presentations may have a significant impact on the final course grade of students, and the teaching evaluations of the instructor. This paper discusses a checklist for grading sales presentations that has been well received by undergraduate students enrolled in the personal selling course.

The development of the checklist involved three steps. First, students listed the attributes/characteristics of sales presentations that they believe should be used to evaluate their sales presentations. Second, the responses from the students were coded int o a total of 44 attributes that are importan.tfor evaluating sales presentations. Finally, students rated the importance of these 44 attributes on a 7-point scale. The anchors ranged from 1 (not important) to 7 (very important). The 20 most important attributes, as perceived by students, were used to construct the checklist called the "sales presentation scorecard." Since students constructed the scorecard, they were committed to implementing the scorecard for evaluating their own presentations. The scorecard is displayed-in-the-appendix.

In addition to ensuring student compliance, there are two major advantages of using this sales presentation scorecard. First, by using this scorecard, an instructor can evaluate each presenter independently from the team. Second, instructors can tailor their feedbacks to the performance of each student and demonstrate how and why grades of individual team members might vary. Overall, this grading style has been well accepted by students enrolled in the personal selling course.

APPENDIX

SALES PRESENTATION SCORECARD

Sales presentations will be scored on the following 20 sales presentation attributes that were rated as very important by buyers. Each of these attributes will be graded on 1.5 points for a total of 30 points for each presenter. The sales presentation attributes are as follows:

Attribute	Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory
1. Product knowledge				
2. Being on time				

Attribute	Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory

3. Greets and thanks buyers for the opportunity to present
4. Asks for order
5. Professional attire
6. Eye contact
7. Confidence in the product
8. Clear and clear and concise presentation (speaks clearly)
9. Accurate information
10. Organized (well planned)
11. Gets attention of the audience
12. Trustworthy
13. Sincere in what they are selling (honesty)
14. Holds interest of the audience
15. Completed the presentation on time
16. Attitude during the presentation
17. Effective handling of questions
18. Meets call objectives
19. Anticipates objections and addresses them
20. Maintains a positive attitude

Team# _____

Presenter _____

IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING TECHNOLOGY TO RESPECT DIVERSE TALENTS AND WAYS OF LEARNING

John Cherry, Southeast Missouri State University

Principle 7. Respects Diverse Talents and Ways of Learning: *There are many roads to learning. People bring different talents and styles of/earning to college. Brilliant students in the seminar room may be all thumbs in the lab or art studio. Students rich in hands-on experience may not do so well with theory. Students need the opportunity to show their talents and learn in ways that work for them. Then they can be pushed to learn in new ways that do not come so easily* (Chickering and Gamson 1987).

Technology, when applied appropriately, can make a pronounced contribution to the delivery of effective instruction. It is important to remember, however, that users of technology – including our students – have different learning styles and aptitudes. Therefore, it may be useful to consider the interaction of technology and learning modalities when designing our courses and teaching materials.

A widely -used approach to classifying and understanding learning modalities comes from Fleming (1995), who proposes the VARK framework. Basically, the idea is that students have diverse styles of communication and learning. Some students prefer their information in the form of graphs, diagrams, pictures, and other visual means. These we call Visual learners. Aural learners prefer spoken presentations, lectures, small group discussions, video and tape recorded materials. The traditional ideal of learning, embodied by the **Read/Write** learner entails written materials, manuals, handouts, textbooks, and the like. Finally, **Kinesthetic** learners prefer immediate sensory inputs such as smells, tastes, feeling, and prefer hands on, direct experience gained from field trips, simulations, and case work.

I believe it's possible to identify technology-based applications that lend themselves to the learning modalities. I'll discuss some of teaching technologies and tools that I use, with a short discussion of some considerations for matching modality and technology.

The Internet is the most obvious place to begin. Whether the class is a conventional or online course, the web Provides a unique combination of breadth and depth of materials, examples, and applications. I find that Visual and Kinesthetic learners (those seeking first hand experiences) benefit from my ability to direct them to a web site, letting them tour the site at their own pace to see the important elements of a web site for Internet marketers. Students can take online surveys, participate in simulations, and engage in any number of interactive activities which provide true experiential learning. I have increasingly moved toward putting all my video materials online, so that students (and this is especially valuable to aural learners) now can watch and listen to lectures, documentaries, music, advertisements, etc. For an online course, the

possibilities for multimedia teaching innovation are still revealing themselves to me.

For all the internet teaching materials I create – web pages, presentations, PowerPoint online, etc. – I take special care to use visual elements like color, fonts (both style and size), tables, and other graphic elements to organize my materials, to reinforce the themes of the materials, and generally provide an overall integrated approach which helps to reduce confusion, especially for learners who rely heavily on visual cues. We all agree that Integrated Marketing reduces confusion among consumers (who, like students are basically learners), and at the same time enhances message acceptance and retention. In a similar way, I use visuals to replicate this for my students. For those who learn best by doing, I am considering having them – in lieu of some kind of exam - actually set up a web site as part of their grade for my Internet Marketing course. The other technology with great potential is directly related to the Internet. At our institution, we have an Online Instructors' Suite (similar to Blackboard and other products) which enables us to have both synchronous and asynchronous chats, discussions, conferences between instructor and students, or among the students themselves. Not only does this technology benefit the Aural-modality student, it provides all students an opportunity to participate, especially those who might otherwise prefer to keep silent in a classroom. It is not uncommon for me to find students in my online classes who always remained quiet in my face-to-face courses just blossoming in discussions and chats. By using the technology to allow and even require all students to put their thoughts into words, we can enhance the learning experience for all our students.

Another useful component of our Online Instructor Suite is the testing software. "Utest" as we call it, allows us a wider variety of stimuli for testing purposes – again, in the interest of engaging the visual and aural learner, allowing them to "leverage" their preferred mode of learning

in the testing venue. An unlimited variety of pictures - both static and moving - can be inserted directly into an online quiz or exam. If the instructor is familiar with Flash, Macromedia, and similar programs, she or he can create movable, interactive graphs, diagrams and illustrations which the student can manipulate and add to, as opposed to merely answering questions about course topics.

Finally, what about the conventional read/write modality learner? Our accepted methods of teaching have traditionally assumed this to be the "natural" method of learning, and as a result, there are no large problems for the delivery of instruction for read/write learners. Technology, however, has allowed us to significantly increase the scope, breadth, and depth of materials, manuals, handouts, and the like. I find it simple and direct to compile reading materials from the press, and to post these (password-protected) to the Internet using Front Page. Many of us require students to read *Wall Street Journal* and the like for the currency and relevance of information; the ability to store these articles on the web makes them simple and convenient to sort, store, search, and retrieve for both instructors and students.

As a footnote to this, I'll recommend to the novice instructor always to ask: "what benefit doe a particular application of technology provide?" The over-use of tech-based gimmicks is tempting and easy. Remember to avoid clutter, make messages simple and clear. Technology has the unique ability to handle complexity, but the result should always be simplicity and clarity.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING HUMAN TOUCH TO DEVELOP RECIPROCITY AND COOPERATION AMONG STUDENTS

Dennis E. Clayson, University of Northern Iowa

Principle 2. Develops Reciprocity and Cooperation Among Students*:*

"Learning is enhanced when it is more like a team effort that a solo race. Good learning, like good work, is collaborative and social, not competitive and isolated. Working with others often increases involvement in learning. Sharing one's own ideas and responding to others' reactions sharpens thinking and deepens understanding," (Chick-ering and Gamson 1987).

"Learning is enhanced when it is more like a team effort than a solo race. Good learning, like good work, is collaborative and social, not competitive and isolated. Working with others often increases involvement in learning. Sharing one's ideas and responding to others' improves thinking and deepens understanding" (Chickering and Ehrmann 1996, p. 2).

Over the years I have tried several strategies to encourage more interaction between students. Several of these have been successful.

1. In our marketing research classes, students are required to conduct a project for a real business client. The groups are formed with four to five students early in the term. The groups must find their own client, interview them to gain an accurate perspective of their business problem, and design a research project to gain actionable information for the client. The project then must be completed, and the students, as a group, must make a presentation of the entire project to the class and submit a report to the client. Except for a peer review, which can modify a student's grade by no more than a half grade point, each student in a group receives the same grade. Group conflicts are the norm and strategies for handling them are discussed in the first days of the class.

Students learn very early that they must cooperate with each other and learn from the collective experience. Regular conversations with the instructor indicate that the students learn not only to do marketing research, but also interpersonal skills needed to succeed in a business environment. The procedure has been successful enough that the class comes with a guarantee that any student receiving a grade of B or higher will be able to do a marketing research project for a future employer.

2. To encourage a partnership mentality, students are encouraged to conduct projects with local charitable organizations in whatever class that may be appropriate. Not only

do such projects further the goals of serving the community, students also begin to appreciate the challenges they will face as graduates and simultaneously recognize how fortunate they are in being able to obtain a university education. The students begin to understand that what they learn can make difference in the quality of life within a community while simultaneously learning from each other and from the people they work with. This type of reciprocity is a win-win situation not only for the purposes of education, but also for the community that supports the institutions of higher education.

3. Computer simulations can be a good opportunity to encourage reciprocity among students. The simulation needs to be selected carefully, however. The goal is to increase interaction among students rather than isolated interactions with computers. For a number of years I used a simulation as part of our senior capstone course. Students formed teams and started their own businesses. Regular lectures were held only in the first four weeks of class; after that each team meets individually with the instructor weekly to report progress and concerns. Each team was required to make a formal presentation on the state of their business every two weeks. Students were graded as a group.

Within several years, graduates were informing the Department that they learned as much marketing in this class as in any other group of classes. The key to success, however, was a unique part of the simulation. Each group was required to buy their products and supplies from other students, and to sell their product only to other students. No sales could be made to the computer program itself. Students had to learn to negotiate, how to get along with other groups who had their own set of interests, and to manage the talents within their own-team to the group's benefit.

One of the problems with creating an atmosphere of reciprocity among students is the instructor. In each of the examples above, the instructor needed to adopt the role of a mentor and facilitator, not a lecturer. I have found it most beneficial to tell the students in these examples that I am their CEO. I will tell them what I want and how I want it, but they will have to do it. The goal is to alternate between very rigid guidelines and almost total freedom. As Gremler, Hoffman, Keaveney, and Wright (2000) so well put it, these exercises allow instructors to be "the guide on the side" rather than the "sage on the stage."

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRADES AND THE STUDENT EVALUATION OF INSTRUCTION: A TEST OF THE ATTRIBUTION HYPOTHESIS

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ABSTRACT

Extensive research has shown that there is a relationship between the grades given to students and evaluations students give to their instructors. A vigorous debate has ensued about the reason for this relationship. One explanation has been attribution. The current study looks at four predictions made by this hypothesis and finds little evidence for attribution as an explanation of the grade/evaluation effect.

INTRODUCTION

Almost all marketing instructors are evaluated regularly by their students, and the students' perceptions can have consequences for pay, promotion, and tenure. It is understandable, therefore, that the student evaluation of teaching (SET) has been of interest to many marketing educators. In literally hundreds of studies, one finding continues to re-appear. There is an association between grades that an instructor gives and the evaluations students give to the instructor. This relationship has implication for the validity of the SET process. The present study expands this discussion by looking at one area of the grade/evaluation effect which both sides of the issue find in common; i.e., the effects of attribution on the strength of the relationship between grades and evaluations.

WHAT IS CURRENTLY KNOWN?

Many instructors and students believe that there is a relationship between the grades they give and evaluations students give to them (e.g., Birnbaum 2000; Goldman 1985; Redding 1998; Ryan, Anderson, and Birchler 1980; Simpson and Siguaw 2000).

A vigorous debate has developed about the accuracy of this belief. Early studies found a grade/evaluation relationship (see Feldman 1976; Johnson 2003; Stumpf and Freedman 1979 for extensive reviews), but some data indicated that it might be a statistical artifact (Seiver 1983). Recently, Marsh and Roche (1999) referred to the idea that lower grades would result in lower student teacher evaluations as only a "presumption." Gillmore and Greenwald (1999), however, reported that out of six published studies that manipulated grading leniency in actual classrooms, all found higher evaluations from students in the more lenient conditions. They also reported that the correlations between expected grade and the evaluation, in three studies at the University of Washington, ranged from .38 to .50. In business classes, lenient-grading instructors generally receive higher evaluations (Bacon and Novotny 2002). Further, the grades students expect to receive have been found to create a highly sig-

nificant difference in the evaluations of business instructors (Goldberg and Callahan 1991). The final course grade has also been shown to have a negative impact on the evaluations (Bharadwaj, Futrell, and Kantak 1993). Marsh, Hau, Chung, and Siu (1997) found a significant difference between the grades students indicated they received from those instructors chosen as "good" and "poor" teachers. While they found that course grades were positively correlated with the students' perception of learning, they were negatively correlated with rigor. Wilhelm (2004) compared course evaluations, course worth, grading leniency, and course workload as factors of business students choosing classes. A conjoint analysis showed that, ". . . students are 10 times more likely to choose a course with a lenient grader, all else being equal" (p. 24).

Marsh and Roche (2000) responded in a long article in *The Journal of Educational Psychology,* questioning the accuracy of Gillmore and Greenwald's findings while showing no grade/evaluation relationship due to grading leniency in their own study. Johnson (2003) countered with a large study conducted at Duke University, which found a distinct effect that he attributes to grade leniency. Johnson maintains that everyone, except certain insiders in the colleges of education, *knows* that the relationship exists. He implies that some of the researchers claiming no relationship have financial and professional interests in the SET process that would be harmed if the instruments were found to be invalid.

THEORIES

Several hypotheses have been proposed to account for the relationship between grades and SET (e.g., Stumpf and Freedman 1979; Greenwald and Gillmore 1997; Johnson 2003; Marsh and Roehe1999; Marsh and Roche 2000). They include *grading leniency,* which states that,

". . . students will reward teachers who grade leniently with higher teacher and course evaluations" (Bacon and Novotny 2002, p. 5). An *interaction with prior characteristics* hypothesis states that the leniency effect appears to exist, but it is not real. It occurs either as a statistical artifact of other determining variables, or is largely modified to the point of practical insignificance by intervening variables. These could include the rigor of the instructor's grading policies, class workloads, and prior student interest in the class. A favorite hypothesis of those defending SET is the *teaching effectiveness* hypothesis. This states that teaching effectiveness influences both the evaluations and the grades. Good instructors create positive learning environments that are reflected in more positive grades. The *motivation* hypothesis states that the students' level of motivation influences both evaluations and grades. More highly motivated students are expected to do better academically and to more appreciate the efforts of the instructor. Certain instructors may attract motivated students or be better at motivating students than other instructors.

Surprisingly, there is one hypothesis that Gillmore and Greenwald (1999), Marsh and Roche (2000), and Johnson (2003) all agree on. They all find some evidence for an *attribution effect.* Since learning and achievement are difficult for students to evaluate (Kennedy, Lawton, and Plumlee 2002), they may infer the ability of the instructor to teach, and their level of learning, from the grade they receive (Snyder and Clair 1976). Attribution is seen as a psychological variable that predisposes students to attribute good grades to themselves and poor grades to an external source, i.e., the teacher. Thus students getting a good grade would attribute it to their own good performance, minimizing the role of the instructor. On the other hand, a low grade would be attributed to the instructor, who thus becomes a poor teacher.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

This study looked for evidence of the attribution effect in a large sample of business students.

Both Marsh and Roche (2000) and Johnson (2003) maintain that an attribution effect would result in a curvilinear relationship between grades and the evaluations, with lower grades being much more correlated with evaluations than higher grades. Marsh and Roche (2000) state, "Attribution theory implies an asymmetry or nonlinearity in predicted grade relation . . . *[with SET]*" (p. 205, italics mine).

> Hypothesis l: A curvilinear relationship will better explain the grade/evaluation relationship than will a linear one.

Since the relationship would be curvilinear because of a stronger association among students receiving lower grades, and since the leniency effect proposes a relationship between teacher grading standards and evaluations, then if Gillmore, Greenwald, and Johnson are correct, sections receiving lower average grades should have a larger correlation between grades and the SET than sections with higher average grades. If Marsh and Roche are correct in rejecting the leniency effect, then high average graded sections should show little to no grade/evaluation relationship.

> Hypothesis 2: The correlation between expected grades and the evaluations will be higher for students in sections receiving low average grades than for students in sections receiving high average grades.

Johnson (2003) suggests that attribution should be relative. He states, "If it is true that students make such comparisons, then those students who earn low marks in stringently graded classes are less likely to view their performance as a failure than are students who earn low marks in classes that are graded leniently (p. 97)."

> Hypothesis 3: There should be a significant difference in the mean evaluation of lenient and difficult graded sections for students receiving poor grades, but not for students receiving high grades.

It is also possible that students may use their past performance as a standard rather than the average grade of the immediate class being evaluated. Therefore, a student receiving a grade lower than their own norm would attribute their performance to the instructor, while a student receiving a grade higher than their own norm would attribute this to themselves.

> Hypothesis 4: The correlation between the expected grades and the evaluations will be higher for students receiving grades lower than their cumulative GPA, compared to students receiving grades higher than their cumulative GPA.

METHODOLOGY

Procedure

Instructors from 14 sections of introduction, undergraduate business courses (six sections of Organizational Management, and eight sections of Principles of Marketing) gave permission for the study to be conducted in their classes.

As part of a larger study on SET, each student at the beginning of the semester was given a permission form stating that if they agreed to be a subject, one of the researchers would access their cumulative GPA and their final grade in the current class at the end of the semester. All data would be collected by student identification only. A separate researcher compiled the data without seeing any student identification, except for student number. The instructor would never see any individual's data, or any information that would allow any student to be identified. Subjects could withdraw from the study at any time. The researchers taught none of the sections studied.

In the last week of the term (week 16), students were asked to evaluate the instructor and the class using two different measures. The first was a simple question which asked, *"What grade would you give your instructor?"* Marsh and Roche (1997) maintain that global ratings may be more susceptible to context, mood, and other potential biases than items directly related to actual teaching behavior. Therefore, a second measure was also sought which consisted of five statements that are identical to the statements used on the current student evaluation of instruction at the students' university.

Participants

In total, 560 students participated in the study on the last week of the term. Forty-nine percent of the total participants were female, 86 percent were juniors or seniors, and 14 percent were sophomores. The average age was 20.9 years *(SD* = 2.03), and the average cumulative GPA was 3.06 *(SD* = 0.46) at the beginning of the study.

Variables

Evaluation: The five statements from the respondents' university evaluation were summed, averaged, and called *"evaluation"* (The instructor: "Created an atmosphere conducive of learning," Instructor explains material appropriately, "Instructor shows interest in student learning," "Instructor set high but reasonable standards," and "Rate your satisfaction with your learning in this class." Each statement could be answered with a letter grade (A through F). Cronbach's alpha was 0.912. The results from the statement, *"What grade would you give your instructor?"* was identified as *"instructor evaluation."* The measures are similar, but not exact. The correlation between the two measures was 0.880 (r^2 = 0.77). Since *instructor evaluation* was a simple grade measure and asked directly after the question about the students' expected

grade, it would be expected to be more sensitive to grade and to halo effects than would *evaluation.*

The students were asked what grade they expected to receive at the end of the term. This was simply called *expected grade.*

RESULTS

Hypothesis 1: A curvilinear relationship will better explain the grade/evaluation relationship than will a linear one. The correlation between the expected grade and *evaluation* was r = 0.274 (p < .001), accounting for .074 of the variance. The best-curved regressional fit was R = 0.281 (p < .001), accounting for .079 of the variance. The correlation between the expected grade and instructor evaluation was r = .318 (p < .001; 0.101 of the variance), the curved regressional fit was R = 0.319 (p < .001; 0.102 of the variance. There was no significant difference between the linear and the curvilinear associations. The means of the evaluations broken down by expected grades can be found in Table 1. F tests revealed a significant deviation from linear for the *evaluation* measure, but not for the *instructor evaluation* measure. The linear term accounts for the majority of the variance *(Evaluation:* linear F(l, 553) = 20.58; deviation from linear, F(l, 553) 4.02, p .010: *Instructor Evaluation:* linear, F(l, 557) 46.12, deviation from linear; F(l, 553) 3.18, p .065).

The results are ambivalent for Hypothesis l.

Hypothesis 2: The correlation between the expected grade and the evaluations will be higher for students in sections receiving low grades than for students in sections receiving high grades. The fourteen sections were divided into three groups; the top four sections by expected grades (mean expected grade = 3.21 (SE = .055, n 162)), the bottom four sections by expected grade (mean expected grade = 2.80

TABLE 1
Evaluation Means by Grade Expected

Grade Expected	Evaluation	Instructor Evaluation
C or less	2.58 (109, .08)[1]	2.28 (109, .10)
B	3.05 (315, .04)	2.87 (317, .05)
A	3.17 (132, .07)	3.16 (134, .09)

[1] First number is sample size; the second number is the standard error.

(SE = .048, n = 212)), and the middle sections (mean = 3.01 (SE = .043, n = 189). In the sections with the lowest expected grades, the correlation between expected grades was $r = 0.098$ ($p = 192$) with *evaluation,* and $r = 0.100$ ($p = .148$) with *instructor evaluation.* In the sections with the highest expected grades, the correlation between expected grades and the *evaluation* was $r = 0.372$ ($p < .001$), and $r = 0.432$ ($p < .001$) for *instructor evaluation.* The correlation coefficients are significantly different *(evaluation:* $Z = -2.47$ ($p = 0.007$; *instructor evaluation:* $Z = -2.63$ ($p = .004$). The results are directly opposite those postulated by Hypothesis 2, which is rejected.

Hypothesis 3: There should be a significant difference in the mean evaluation of lenient and difficult graded sections for students receiving poor grades, but not for students receiving high grades. Student expecting grades of C or less were placed in the "poor grade" category, while student expecting an A grade were placed in the "high grade" category. There were no significant differences in the evaluation of students expecting poor grades in the top four graded sections compared to the bottom four sections ($t(81) = 0.57$, $p = 0.569$ for *evaluation;* $t(81) = 0.74$, $p = 0.462$ for *instructor evaluation).* For students expecting an A there was a significantly

higher evaluation given in the most lenient sections compared to least lenient sections ($t(94) = 4.17$, $p < .001$ for *evaluation:* $t(96) = 5.07$, $p < .001$ for *instructor evaluation).*

The results are directly opposite those postulated by Hypothesis 3, which is rejected.

Hypothesis 4: The correlation between the expected grades and the evaluations will be higher for students receiving grades lower than their cumulative GPA compared to students receiving grades higher than their cumulative GPA.

Deviation from GPA was calculated as (Expected Grade cumulative – GPA). Students were separated into three groups. The first group expected to receive a grade lower than their cumulative GPA. The second group expected a grade equal to their cumulative GPA (with +/- 0.33 of a GPA point). The third group expected a grade higher than their cumulative GPA. The correlation between the expected grade and the evaluation was significant for those students who expected a grade less than their cumulative GPA ($r = 0.294$ ($p < .001$) for *evaluation;* $r = 0.277$ ($p < .001$) for *instructor evaluation.* The association was non significant for students expecting a grade higher than their GPA ($r =$

0.139 (p = .122) for *evaluation;* r = 0.199 (p = 0.25) for *instructor evaluation).* The correlation coefficients for the two conditions are not significantly different *(evaluation:* Z = 1.38 (p = 0.084; *instructor evaluation:* Z = 0.69 (p = .245).

The means of the evaluations broken down by deviation from GPA can be found in Table 2. F tests reveal a significant difference (F(2, 487) = 15.01, p < .001 for *evaluation,* and F(2, 491) = 26.91, p < .001 for *instructor evaluation.* There was no significant deviation from linear for the *evaluation* measure (F(l, 487) = 0.41), or with the *instructor evaluation* measure (F(l, 491) = 0.31). Hypothesis 4 is rejected.

DISCUSSION

There is little support found for the attribution hypothesis. The association between expected grades and SET could be seen as either linear or curvilinear with a regression analysis. An ANOVA procedure showed a significant deviation from linear with the evaluation measure from the students' own school's evaluation, but none when students were simply asked to give their instructor a grade. There was actually a stronger grade/evaluation effect in sections giving higher grades than in sections giving lower grades. There was also a larger difference between the evaluations given by good students

between above and below average graded sections, while poor students showed no such difference. These findings are opposite that predicted by the attribution hypothesis. The correlations between grades and SET were not found to be higher for students that expect a grade lower than their cumulative GPA than for students who expect a grade higher than their cumulative GPA. Further, the breakdown of mean evaluations by GPA deviation showed no significant deviation from a linear relationship.

Gillmore and Greenwald (1999), Marsh and Roche (2000), and Johnson (2003) all found a grade/evaluation relationship, but Marsh and Roche maintain that it is either too small to be taken seriously, or that much of it can be explained by the attribution effect. This study casts doubt that attribution accounts for much of the grade/evaluation effect. Further, the results do not fit entirely with the leniency effect proposed by Gillmore, Greenwald, and Johnson. (The data used in this study was from between student cases rather than between class cases; i.e., the class means are not used as data points to establish aspirations. This combined with the findings that the grade/evaluation effect may actually be stronger with lenient graders than with less lenient graders, and that student gaining high grades may be more sensitive to the grade/evaluation effect than students

TABLE 2		
Evaluation Means by Deviation from Cumulative GPA		
Deviation from GPA	**Evaluation**	**Instructor Evaluation**
GPA > Exp Grade	2.75 (169, .07)[1]	2.43 (169, .08)
GPA = Exp Grade	3.05 (196, .06)	2.89 (198, .07)
Exp Grade > G{A	3.25 (1.26, .06)	3.25 (128, .08)
[1] First number is sample size; the second number is the standard error.		

receiving poor grades, suggests a mechanism incompatible with the definition of leniency. It appears more likely that students are exhibiting what may be called a "reciprocity" effect. This hypothesis would suggest that each student responds to her or his own grading situation, irrespective of overall instructor characteristics, and then tends to reciprocate on the evaluation based on their individual reactions to their grade. The current findings are compatible with such as explanation, but further research is needed to clarify the hypothesis.

IMPLICATIONS

1. There is a grade/evaluation effect. Students expecting an A gave an average evaluation to the instructor of almost B+. Students expecting a C or less, gave an average evaluation of about C+. The cause of this effect is currently unknown.

2. The grade/evaluation effect can be seen as linear, but with slight curvilinear aspects that may suggest only a weak contribution from attribution.

3. Contrary to the suggestions made by some researchers, instructors who give high grades will elicit a stronger grade/evaluation effect from good students than from poor students.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING HUMAN TOUCH TO COMMUNICATE HIGH EXPECTATIONS

Steve Corbin, University of Northern Iowa

Principle 6. Communicates High Expectations: *Expect more and you will get more. High expectations are important for everyone – for the poorly prepared, for those unwilling to exert themselves, and for the bright and well motivated. Expecting students to pe1form well becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy when teachers and institutions hold high expectations for themselves and make extra efforts* (Chickering and Gamson 1987).

During the Consortium Panel session, the following 17 "Human Touch" methodologies the author has used during his 32-year tenure at Virginia Tech and University of Northern Iowa to communicate student expectations in Principles of Marketing, Consumer Behavior, Sales Management, and Marketing Strategy classes will be shared with confab attendees:

1. Serious syllabus* review on first day of class!

2. Discussion of Professor's.
   a. Overriding Philosophy of Learning.
   b. Guiding Principle to Career Selection. &
   c. Operating Principle of Marketing.

3. "Course Description Synopsis" discussion.

4. Challenging set of learning activities* provided and discussed.

5. Day-to-day classroom schedule of activities clearly identified with accompanying "Come to Class Prepared to Answer AND Discuss" handout.

6. Previous students' straight-forward comments and time spent PER learning activity are delineated in syllabus* and discussed.

7. Previous students' feedback on classes equivalency to "other classes on campus" are noted in syllabus* provided.

8. Higher than typical "90-80-70-60" final grading scale discussion.*

9. Class discussion over Pygmalion Effect (see www.accel-team.com/pygmalion/ four key principles and eight corollaries for details and complete understanding).

10. Historical final grade data for class provided on syllabus.*

11. Serious discussion of:
    a. students rights and responsibilities, and
    b. faculty/academic policies and grievance procedures* . . . it's a two-way street – we've BOTH got to be at our best behavior.

12. Previous students' comments* on: "If I had to take this course over again, I'd . . ."

13. Previous students' comments* on: "My advice to next semester's students is to . . ."

14. Previous students' comments* on: "What one or two specific 'things' did Corbin do to *help* you learn about Sales, Sales Management, the sales profession, and/or yourself . . ."

15. Previous students' comments* on: "What one or two specific 'things' did Corbin do hat made it more *difficult* for you to learn about Sales, Sales Management, the sales profession, and/or yourself . . ."

16. Previous students' comments* on: "Other comments on the personal and professional value of the course . . .

17. Mini-discussion I have with students on:

a. professionalism in UNI's business school,
b. mind-set of me being perceived as their corporate trainer vs. college professor,
c. mind-set of them coming to each class as if they were in their entry-level job's training class vs. college junior/senior, and
d. mind-set of my accountable to them since 50% of their U.Bill makes up my salary and the other 50 percent of my salary comes from the taxpayers of Iowa . . . BUT, they're accountable to me to show me (just like they would a corporate trainer) they want to learn the subject matter T-H-E-Y registered for on their own volition.

* Sales Management syllabus & learning activity handouts will be given to ALL attendees.

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GOOD TEACHING STARTS ON THE 1ST DAY . . . ESTABLISHING HIGH EXPECTATIONS AND HIGH STUDENT PAYOFF

Steven B. Corbin, University of Northern Iowa

INTRODUCTION

Statements that we've heard, like "First impressions are lasting," "The first I0 seconds you meet someone are the most important," and "Start off on the right foot" are made by most mothers and fathers when they see that their child is starting a new era of meeting and interacting with people outside of the immediate family. It's been a known fact for nearly two decades that the same can be said for professors and students on the first day of a term. In fact, McKeachie (1986) notes that"... meeting a group of strangers who will affect your well being, is at the same time exciting and anxiety producing for both students and teacher." Research on the first day of class by Knefelkamp (1985) showed there was a **real** desire by both students and teachers for connectedness, but neither group realized the other shared that same desire.

In my 31 years of teaching at Virginia Tech and University of Northern Iowa, I have contended that one of the reasons for receiving seven local, state, and national teaching awards and strong student assessment results had absolutely nothing to do with my pedigree, humor (lack thereof), personality, understanding of Bloom's taxonomy, knowledge of subject matter, marital status, height, weight, and/or hair loss. It may be, in part, that I try to use as much "outside-in" thinking (think as if you were in the other person's shoes) as much as possible in as many situations as I possible can.

For the over 100 classes I sat in on during my own post high school education, I always wanted to know at the beginning of the semester, "what's this class all about and what am I getting myself into (or out of should I decide to drop the class)" . . . "what's this professor all about." During my tenure as professor I've continually tested my hunches over the importance of the first day experience to see if it was as important to students as I thought by continually asking students their opinion (outside – in thinking) of my hypothesis. Bottom-line: they concur.

Students today play 'psych out the professor' just like I did when I was a student. Three decades difference between when I was an undergraduate and today's undergraduate time period have not changed. On the first day of the term, students are silently thinking, and then, when the first class session ends, later publicly talking to one another, with statements like: "What's this professor like,?" "Do you like him/her,?" "Is this class gonna' be boring or exciting,?" "Will I learn anything in this class,?" "How much work am I gonna' have to do,?" "Is this professor fair?" (Clayson 2003), and "What do you think?-shall we hang in there or bail out?"

ESTABLISHING A POSITIVE 1ST DAY

McKeachie (1986) suggests that the teacher characteristics most appreciated by students are: (a) enthusiasm and willingness to work to make the course wmthwhile, (b) objectivity, which,

to students is called "fairness," and (c) a sympathetic attitude toward the· problems of students. Conveying your values and attitudes of these three characteristics with the students is important. My experience has shown that the following seven teaching strategies should be exemplified on the first day of the term:

1. Demonstrate your own excitement about the subject you are going to teach and what the students are going to learn. Scholl-Buchwald suggests that professors "rarely need to impress students with (their) command of the material. What is not always clear to students is whether we (professor) are interested in the subject and whether we (professor) will be able to help them become as competent as we (professor) are" (1985). Let students know of your genuine interest in the subject matter and why you have that zeal.

2. Whether you like it or not, the vast majority of students go to college not to "explore learning" but to pursue a vocation. Don't fight it--deal with it. Lead a discussion with the students to stimulate interest as to what the course could enable students to do from a vocationa career perspective. Lead a discussion on how the concepts to be learned in the course could impact their lives. Relate how your behavior changed when you were in college and took the same course. Personalizing the course is important.

3. Apprise the students of your background and what you like to do outside of the classroom. Again, personalization. It is well documented that learning in the classroom results from an interrelationship of people. What the student perceives about you supports this positive interaction. The more the students see you as a 'real person' vs. 'another one of those weird professors who it's hard to get to know' . . . they may respond in a way that's

the start of a constructive positive faculty-student relationship.

4. Share with the students what you expect from them. Tell them of your believes about teaching and learning. Let the students know who is responsible for what in your academic setting . . . their responsibilities to you and your respective accountability so that they'll learn. Along this same line, let your students know of the hopes you have for them when they have completed the course.

5. "A thorough and well designed syllabus goes a long way toward clarifying expectations so students have a sense of knowing what they are to do" (Wright 1999), when they are to do it, why they are to do it, the consequences of not doing it, and the value (e.g., grade, points, weight, etc.) of the detailed learning activities.

6. Provide an opportunity for students to ask questions. One of the most successful tactics I've used is to invite two of the previous semester students to come to class during the last 15 minutes of the first session of the term and ask them to enter into an open forum, honest, no holds barred, Q&A session with the new class members. I purposively sit in the back row of the class during this FAQ time period and let the questions fire away--it works as it shows you have *nothing* to hide and former students are quite candid in their responses to inquiries.

7. Student feedback is important during the entire term. But, at the end of the first class period, I give students 2-3 minutes to write (anonymous-NO name identified) their reaction to as many or as few of the following as they so choose: I) opinion of the first day's experience, 2) opinion of the course, 3) concerns of the learning activities they want further clarified, 4) questions they were afraid to ask, and/or 5) personal goal they want to achieve by the end of the term. If

students need more time, tell them to bring back their anonymous feedback to the next class session. Before the next class session starts, answer or comment on their feedback.

CONCLUSION

Motivational research of human behavior (Bonnstetter, Suiter, & Widrick) has clearly shown that "you cannot motivate another person – you can only create an environment in which people become self-motivated" (1994). Three decades worth of success by the author in the classroom will be evident by starting off the first day of the term with: (1) a classroom environment to make students comfortable with the professor, (2) an environment that permits the . . . students to motivate themselves to have higher expectations of themselves, (3) break down the "psych out the professor" mentality, and (4) enter into a meaningful, long-term positive professor-student learning relationship.

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PEDAGOGICAL EFFECTIVENESS OF COMPUTER-BASED SIMULATIONS: LINKING INTENDED LEARNING OUTCOMES WITH PERCEIVED STUDENT SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

This research focuses on evaluation of learning outcomes derived through the use of computer-based simulation in marketing related courses. Past research establishes the comparative efficacy of simulations with other content delivery mechanisms. This research contributes by evaluating effectiveness of simulations in attaining learning outcomes in terms of skills, knowledge, and experiential learning. A scale is developed and tested and the psychometric properties of this scale are provided. Another significant contribution of this research is in linking the learning outcome scales to perceived student satisfaction with the simulation and the overall course. The implications of using this scale and effective implementation of continuous improvement based on student satisfaction are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Managers are what managers do: make decisions. In all human endeavors that require an integration of skills, knowledge, and talent we benefit from practice and repetition. By the same token, to learn how to make enlightened decisions one must actually gain experience in decision-making (Faria and Dickenson 1994; Chapman and Sorge 1999). Computer-based simulations provide a unique pedagogical tool in underscoring and achieving learning objectives related to decision making in a dynamic "real-life" environment. It is estimated that approximately 200 business simulations are available and approximately 8500 professors in close to 200 business schools report using simulations in their courses across the U.S. (Faria 1989, 1998; Cook 2004). AACSB reports that 97 percent of their accredited schools report using simulations in their courses. While no definitive findings can be provided for all business simulations, research reported by dozens of scholars over a period from late Sixties to present (Burns and Gentry 1992; Mitchell 2004) suggest that business simulations, in general, do exhibit external validity and educational value.

Some of the commonly cited advantages (Alpert 1993; Arora and Stoner 1992; Cook 2004; Mitchell 2004) of using a computer-based simulation as pedagogical devices are:

♦ They sharpen student skills at setting strategic plans and goals.
♦ They aid in teaching and learning analytical techniques.
♦ They help students work with, and through, others in a team.
♦ They provide timely, meaningful, and quick feedback facilitating reinforcement of concepts.
♦ They help students "experience" rather than merely read and talk about concepts.

- They encourage active learning and participation.
- Simulations lend excitement to the learning experience.

Simply put, simulations are perceived as *educational and fun,* a rare combination indeed! The students walking into our classrooms bring wry short attention spans and a high need for stimulation in order to generate involvement and critical thinking. Popular press reports that more than 80 percent of children between the ages of 2–7 watches TV unsupervised. Seventy percent of day care centers report some use of TV during the day. The average American child ages 2–11 watches 20 hours a week of TV and spends 4–5 hours a week playing video games. Given the deficit in attention and involvement that such habits generate, a teacher faces uphill tasks in garnering and retaining student interest in learning. Computer-based simulations provide a pedagogical tool that is uniquely suited for our finicky audience and may result in enhancing the overall learning outcomes in our courses.

All business simulations strive for "real world" situations in which students are expected to make strategic decisions and enjoy (suffer?) the consequences of their decisions. This is in line with the core learning objective set forth in most business curricula – to develop student capacity to work in groups and integrate knowledge of concepts and applications into a composite and usable whole.

This research builds on past research in the area of simulations as pedagogical devices and provides preliminary results on student perception of pedagogical efficacy of computer-based simulation in a sales management course. It contributes to our understanding of student-point-of-view of learning outcomes achieved through the use of such simulations. In addition, it contributes to the extant knowledge in the area of measuring the effectiveness of simulations in teach-ing-learning endeavors by providing a scale to measure effectiveness of computer-based simulations. We build on some of the scales used in past research and provide the psychometric properties of the amended scales. Further, we examine the relationship between these learning outcomes and perceived student satisfaction. This paper concludes by underscoring the implications of our study on attainment of learning outcomes achieved through the use of a computer-based simulation upon student learning, employer expectations, and faculty expectation from teaching-learning endeavors.

A REVIEW OF RESEARCH IN SIMULATION-BASED PEDAGOGY

Past studies (e.g., O'Brien and Deans (1995) have underscored the concerns raised by potential employers of undergraduate students that relate to inordinate emphases on theoretical concepts at the expense of practical application of knowledge and skills. Employers (and graduate programs) are interested in students that possess analytical, problem-solving, and decision-making abilities. While internships aim to address some of these concerns, they seem very narrow in their exposure. Also, missing is the concurrent and contemporaneous application of concepts in the context of a formal course. In courses such as sales management an instructor is also constrained by the fact that a student will never be afforded an opportunity to manage a sales team. Simulations provide a very effective and viable alternative. Caddote (1995) states "Simulation is an experimental learning exercise in which students practice the design, implementation and control of business strategies" (p. 10).

The efficacy of simulations has been studied over the past several decades. In a 1973 study by Greenlaw and Wyman the "intangibles" of business seemed to be well captured by simulations, however, simulations were found to be

deficient in achieving course objectives and learning outcomes. Randel et al. (1992) analyzed over 65 studies and reported that more than half those studies did not establish a clear superiority of simulations over traditional textbook-based pedagogy. Superiority of simulation was reported in 32 percent of the studies while 5 percent actually reported superior pedagogical effectiveness of textbooks. Chapman and Sorge (1999) is a more recent effort at wading through inconclusive findings and establishing that simulations tend to perform as well if not better than textbooks in achieving learning objectives at least in a sales management course. Cook (2004) builds on Chapman and Sorge's comparative paradigm and Mitchell (2004) compares use of simulation versus the effectiveness of a case-driven approach. While results may vary, all studies point out that simulations are a welcome addition to the pedagogical palette of an effective teacher. Simulations are one among many pedagogical tools available for an instructor to impart knowledge, skills, and encourage experiential learning.

There are obvious gaps in the literature: no effort has been made to develop and test a scale that evaluates the effectiveness of simulations per se in achieving learning outcomes and also the link between student perception of satisfaction with simulations has not been explored. In order for teachers to continuously improve and modify their emphasis and implementation of a simulation, we need to be able to monitor the impact it is having on both, the learning outcomes and perceived student satisfaction. Our research attempts to bridge these gaps.

Based on Chapman and Sorge's findings, this research built on their scale of measuring effectiveness of simulations in achieving learning outcomes. Chapman and Sorge (1999), Cook (2004), and Mitchell (2004) focus on comparing the effectiveness of simulations with other pedagogical tools (textbooks, term papers, and case studies) while our research is more concerned with building upon their scales, measuring their psychometric properties and providing a scale that may be used by our colleagues in gauging the pedagogical usefulness of simulation in undergraduate business courses (not necessarily limited to sales management). We are also interested in linking student evaluations of simulation with perceives student satisfaction.

EVALUATIVE SCALE

Based on past research, it was conceived that the desired learning outcomes from the use of a simulation in a sales management course would broadly lead to the enhancing the following critical thinking skills: decision-making skills, analytical skills, leadership skills, time management skills, and communication skills. It was also expected that the use of a simulation would lead to enhanced experiential learning through an increase the level of interest and involvement in the course. Further, the simulation was expected to enhance student knowledge by improving retention and application of the course concepts.

With these learning outcomes in mind a modified version of the Chapman and Sorge (1999) survey was administered to the students of an undergraduate elective class in sales management. We also included items that measured the perceived satisfaction with Sales Management Simulation (SMS), with the course (referral measure), and if the simulation should be continued to be used in future classes.

In order to ensure consistency with the Chapman and Sorge (1999) and Cook (2004) scale a semantic differential scale ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (9) was used as an anchor to a Likert-type battery of construct statements. The constructs and scale items are as follows.

Critical Skills Enhancement

Improved my decision-making skills
Improved my problem-solving skills
Improved my analytical skills
Improved my leadership skills
Improved my time management skills
Improved my oral presentation skills
Provided an opportunity to develop team skills
Improved my strategy formulation skills

Core Knowledge Enhancement

Helped me understand Sales Force Management Issues
Helped me retain the knowledge I learned in the class
Is a useful learning tool?
Helped me learn course concepts
Applied what I learned in the class
Taught me the fundamentals of sales management

Experiential Learning Enhancement

Made me think
Provided a high level of personal involvement
Made the course more interesting
Kept me interested

Self-Reported Satisfaction

Overall SMS* was a very positive experience
I would recommend this course to a friend
Should continue to be used in this class

*SMS: Sales Management Simulation

METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

The simulation was used in two sections of an undergraduate sales management course at a private liberal arts college in the Northeast. All 41 students enrolled in the courses responded to the survey, making the survey a required component of the final examination ensured this perfect response rate. Respondents were assured of confidentiality and anonymity with a reassurance that the responses to the survey would not be available to the instructor prior to determination of the course grade. The sample exhibited the characteristics of any upper level elec-

Critical Skills Enhancement

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Decision Making	41	3	9	7.85	1.174
Problem Solving	41	3	9	7.61	1.262
Analytical	41	3	9	7.80	1.145
Leadership	41	3	9	7.59	1.341
Time Management	41	5	9	7.15	1.085
Oral Presentations	40	4	9	7.28	1.281
Team Skills	41	6	9	7.88	.842
Strategy Formulation	44	4	9	7.54	1.185
Valid N (listwise)	40				

Core Knowledge Enhancement

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Understand	41	3	9	6.93	1.170
Retain	41	3	9	6.83	1.465
Useful	41	4	9	7.34	1.353
Concepts	41	2	9	6.76	1.562
Applied	41	3	9	7.15	1.711
Fundamentals	41	1	9	7.24	1.758
Valid N (listwise)	41				

Experiential Learning Enhancement

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Think	41	4	9	8.12	1.249
Involvement	41	5	9	8.24	.943
Interesting	41	3	9	7.66	1.407
Interested	40	3	9	7.82	1.430
Valid N (listwise)	40				

Self-Reported Satisfaction

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Positive Experience	41	4	9	7.32	1.572
Recommend Course	41	4	9	7.93	1.403
Continue	41	3	9	7.51	1.719
Valid N (listwise)	41				

tive course on a typical campus, a close to even split of genders in favor of females (53.7%), five students reported a sophomore standing, 12 were seniors, and 24 reported being juniors. The self-reported GPA of respondents ranged from 2.50 to 3.90, with a 3.00 mode.

Three aforementioned scales were employed, each with multiple item measures. The scales exhibited reasonable psychometric properties given the limited sample size. The Critical Skills Enhancement scale was an 8-item scale with a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.883. The Core Knowledge Enhancement scale was a 6-item scale with a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.920. The Experiential Learning Enhancement scale was a four-item scale with a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.839. For a preliminary research of this nature the alpha values are considered to be within acceptable range.

COMPARISON OF EVALUATIVE DIMENSIONS

We then proceeded to compare the mean ratings on individual scales by categorical variables such as gender, status of student (Junior or Senior), self-reported GPA (below average versus above average), and student performance on the simulation component of the course grade. The mean ratings were compared using a one-way analysis of variance. Results are as follows:

We have measures of self reported student satisfaction with the simulation, overall satisfaction with the course, and whether the simulation would be a good pedagogical tool to continue using in the class. Once again we compare mean responses by categorical variables and subject them to an ANOVA.

	CRITICAL SKILL SCALE	CORE KNOWLEDGE SCALE	EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING SCALE
Gender			
Male	7.85*	7.28	8.36*
Female	7.33	6.82	7.61
Status			
Junior	7.62	6.90	7.79
Senior	7.39	7.14	8.14
GPA			
Below Average (<3.00)	7.31	6.45	7.77
Above Average (>3.00)	7.56	7.16	7.93
Team Performance			
Below Average	7.64	7.37**	8.24**
Above Average	7.42	6.55	7.48
ANOVA: *Significant at 0.10 level **Significant at 0.05 level			

	SMS SATISFACTION	OVERALL COURSE SATISFACTION	CONTINUED USE
Gender			
Male	7.84**	8.26	8.00*
Female	6.86	7.64	7.09
Status			
Junior	7.04	7.92	7.17
Senior	7.75	8.00	8.08
GPA			
Below Average (<3.00)	7.09	7.64	6.82
Above Average (>3.00)	7.17	7.92	7.54
Team Performance			
Below Average	7.75*	8.21	7.92
Above Average	6.69	7.50	7.06*

ANOVA: *Significant at 0.10 level **Significant at 0.05 level

LEARNING OUTCOMES AND STUDENT SATISFACTION

We testec.t OLS Regression models with satisfaction measures (self-reported student satisfaction with the simulation, overall satisfaction with the course, and whether the simulation would be a good pedagogical tool to continue using in the class) as the dependent variables. The satisfaction measures were regressed on the individual scales to ascertain the impact of skill, knowledge, and experiential learning on student satisfaction.

IMPLICATIONS

Recent developments in the demands placed by varying constituents of the learning process necessitates that we examine the effectiveness of our teaching-learning endeavors and learning outcomes derived by our students in a more precise and concrete way. Some of the factors that are driving our stakeholders to be even more demanding of the learning being imparted include: student concerns, industry expectations, accreditation requirements, and self- imposed standards of effective teaching-learning.

A lethargic job market and ever increasing costs of attaining college education have made our students more desirous of better learning, superior technology, better facilities, and courses that impart learning that is easily transferable to work environments. Students are demanding far more practical and application driven learning that uses critical thinking components as their cornerstone (Kelly et al. 1998). The fast paced world of TV and video games that our students have fed upon in their formative years now lead them to expect fast paced and entertaining learn-

	COEFFICIENTS	ADJUSTEDR2 (MODEL SIGNIFICANCE)
Model l: Simulation Satisfaction		
Skill	-0.213	0.755***
Knowledge	0.37**	
Experiential	1.050**	
Model 2: Overall Course Satisfaction		
Skill	0.385**	0.752***
Knowledge	-0.212	
Experiential	1.096**	
Model 3: Continued Use		
Skill	-0.523**	0.710***
Knowledge	0.665**	
Experiential	0.919**	

*Significant at 0.10 level **Signficant at 0.05 1evel ***Significant at 0.01 level

ing experiences (Smart et al. 1999). When we couple these observations from prior research with a growing perception of the failure of public school system in preparing for a college education (Buzzel and Sisodia 1997), we indeed are faced with an added responsibility and challenge to meet these new and evolving demands of our most important constituents – the students. Our results indicate that the students perceive computer-based simulation as a very satisfying experience. Students report being very involved in the learning process.

More and more companies are seeking potential employees with higher order learning skills of synthesis and application. A critical thinking individual is seen as an ideal candidate for the demands of cross-functional mobility and value adding (Borin and Watkins 1998). In a special report devoted to trends in career management published in *The Wall Street Journal* (March 29, 2004) we witness the changing expectations of corporate America and ensuing changes in perspectives of their employees from three different generations. The demands of skill sets expected by firms today is quite different from those expected a decade ago, similarly the employees are modifying their definitions of loyalty and commitment in favor of variety seeking behavior both within and across organizations. These trends present institutions of higher education with a refreshed agenda of educational learning provided to their graduates. Simulations provide an opportunity for the students to experience decision-making in realistic settings. Our results suggest that a computer-based simulation provides opportunities for the students to apply their knowledge of concepts – not just from one course, but as a composite of all courses taken up to that point. This prepares our students to meet employer expectations upon graduation.

Assurance of learning standards requires that schools define challenging and relevant learn-

ing expectations (outcomes) and that faculty institutes processes and programs to assess student achievement of expectations (AACSB 2004). Assessment processes are expected to provide real data that demonstrates the attainment (or lack thereof) of stated objectives related to both managerial knowledge and skills, and that this data is utilized for the purpose of ongoing quality improvement. The accreditation process provides new opportunities and challenges to define and measure quality in ways that may not be consistent with the level of freedom typically enjoyed by academics. Outcomes may be defined at the course, major, and degree program levels, however, assessment mechanisms are expected to address and evaluate all aspects of knowledge dissemination in our classrooms. Data must be documented, analyzed, and used to improve programs. We will no longer be able to simply *assume* that the learning objectives are accomplished. As time progresses, increasingly all our stakeholders will demand tangible evidence that learning outcomes are consistently attained across the curriculum. Our research provides colleagues with a tool to begin assessing the impact of computer-based simulation on the overall learning outcome of the course.

Viewing our students as the product of their learning experience and viewing our professional peers at graduate schools (and within corporations) as our true customers is the call of the day. Therefore, we become beholden to our vocation as teachers and profession as business practitioners to produce a product – student – that is worthy of being absorbed in the operation of a business world. Our contribution of the essential link between student learning and perceived satisfaction will provide valuable feedback to our peers in continuously improving the learning outcomes of their courses as well as ensuring that the ever important "teaching evaluation" do not suffer as a result of unintended artifacts.

This research uses a small sample of students from one semester, therefore, the generalizability of our study might be in question. We propose to continue improving and using these scales over a period of time in order to establish validity through larger samples in a longitudinal fashion. We also envision the use of this scale in all courses that use computer-based simulations rather than just a sales management elective.

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ACADEMIC PROGRAM ASSESSMENT: ONE DEPARTMENT'S MODEL

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Either as a part of accreditation review or simply as a part of self-evaluation, many academic programs are beginning to enhance their assessment of the knowledge and skills gained by students completing their studies in these programs. This assessment is typically done to determine the effectiveness of the courses, teachers and program, and to receive feedback in order to make any necessary changes or improvements. This paper presents a discussion of the assessment program implemented by one such academic program: the BBA Marketing program at Mississippi State University.

Assessment Objectives

In order to effectively assess an outcome, one must first determine what is to be assessed. Is it course specific content or more general knowledge? Knowing what is to be assessed is of the utmost importance in developing an assessment program. In the department being discussed, faculty members met to set a strategic plan for the department. This "meeting of the minds" produced seven learning outcomes that the department expected each student to achieve. These include:

1. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the core concepts of marketing and the role of marketing in business and consumer lives.

2. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the methods of collecting, processing, and analyzing information about consumers to make informed marketing decisions.

3. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the psychological and sociological factors that influence consumers in making purchase decisions, and how these factors relate to the formation of effective marketing strategies.

4. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the effects of social, legal, ethical, and technological forces on marketing decision-making.

5. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the detailed information about the marketing mix, its effective deployment, and impact on the performance of an organization.

6. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of how to communicate effectively and to work in teams.

7. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of how to utilize the steps involved in marketing planning and be able to create a marketing plan.

Assessment Tools

Since no single instrument can measure all seven of these outcomes, three separate assessments were developed and conducted in order to investigate these objectives. These incorporate a marketing proficiency examination, a capstone marketing plan project, and a student self-assessment survey. All are being conducted in conjunction with a student's enrollment in the required capstone course for the major.

The Examination

A marketing proficiency examination is used to measure the first five learning outcomes. The examination is comprised of questions contributed by several faculty members who teach different subjects. The questions are then identified as capturing one of the five learning outcomes in order to be used for program feedback. From these questions, an exam is compiled and then reviewed by several faculty members in order to insure the fairness of the questions (i.e., no question is specific to a particular teacher, class, or textbook). Students are given the incentive to give their best effort by making the proficiency exam count as 10 percent of the final course grade. The examination is pass/fail with a score of 70 percent or higher counting as a passing score. Students are allowed two opportunities to take the exam. All students take the examination at the same time in the same location just like any standardized test. Therefore, all students share a uniform introduction to the examination and testing experience. The results of the examination are then used to indicate to a student and the program any deficiencies. Feedback is shared with the faculty.

The Marketing Plan Project

The last two learning outcomes are assessed via a capstone marketing plan that requires students to work in teams to develop an effective marketing plan. Students are then expected to dem-onstrate good communication skills by presenting their marketing plan to an audience of peers and outside reviewers. These plans are presented during class time to fellow classmates and a practicing (or retired) marketing professional. Classmates and the external reviewer then provide feedback on the project to the teams. This plan counts as a substantial portion of the student's final grade in the capstone course.

Student Self-Assessment Survey

Finally, a student self-assessment survey is administered at the end of the capstone course and asks students to gauge their attainment of the program's learning outcomes. The information obtained from this survey is then used to implement changes in course structure and content in order to improve the quality of the program. Elements of this program have been introduced over the past year, and have already began making an impact on course pre-requisites, advising, and course content.

Accurate and timely assessment of the end product is becoming a requirement and necessity to insure quality output for any organization. This is also true for academic programs . . . especially when dealing with accreditation issues. This paper has presented highlights of the assessment program implemented in one department at one university. It should be noted that the three assessment instruments discussed are not at all exhaustive of several techniques an academic program might utilize (e.g., performance notebooks, purchased standardized assessment examinations). The most important issue when it comes to any assessment technique is clearly defining what is to be assessed. Once these objectives are set, the appropriate assessment techniques may become self-evident.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING TECHNOLOGY TO ENCOURAGE ACTIVE LEARNING

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Principle 3. Encourages Active Learning: *Learning is not a spectator sport. Students do not learn much just by sitting in classes listening to teachers, memorizing pre-packaged assignments, and spitting out answers. They must talk about what they are learning, write about it, relate it to past experiences and apply it to their daily lives. They must make what they learn part of themselves.*

At the University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire, we use different methods to leverage technology to encourage active learning of marketing skills. These range from use of low-tech (using video cameras) to medium tech (online learning platforms) to high technology (a course in marketing technology) levels.

Low-Tech Active Learning

Technology does not have to be elaborate or new to offer a benefit. Often in a course a concept or theory is discussed and we make the assumption that the student can take the application from the classroom to a real-world environment. In our sales management course we utilize a low-tech approach to active learning. Students are put in teams of three and given a problem that requires them to implement a concept from class. Students are given a role to play; typically a buyer, seller, and a sales manager and a video camera to capture their performance. They arc given the first two scenes (scene 1 – background

setting; 2 – problem presentation) and told to role play them in a realistic setting. Scene 3 requires that they develop a resolution and implementation of the problem within the parameters agreeable to their customer, sales personnel and/or manager.

Medium Tech – Active Learning

Online learning/teaching platforms (e.g., WebCT, Blackboard, Desire to Learn, etc.) have made great progress in being user-friendly in the last five years. Many colleges and universities have licensing agreements with one or several providers. Some textbook publishers allow instructors access to platforms if their text is adopted. We maintain that most forms of online learning (be they part of a course or a complete online course) require active learning. When a question is asked of the class, all students may be required to respond, not just those who are verbal. Frequently students comment that "taking this class online makes it easier for me to respond, where in the classroom I sometimes may not wish to be that engaged." Furthermore, it allows student time for reflection and development of a response.

While initially thought of to be the purview of online courses, these platforms are frequently used to supplement on-campus coursework. A perfect use for this technology would be to

include a supplemental lecture and discussion on a topic that may not get covered in the course. Other uses have developed. In the past when a faculty member had a conference to attend and was required to miss a class section the fallback was to either schedule an exam at that time or have a colleague substitute. Online education now allows the instructor to continue to teach their course whether they are cross country attending a conference or cross town sick in bed.

High-Tech-Active Learning

Lastly, we have a required course we call Marketing Technology and Application. The course covers several different software packages that real-world marketers use frequently. We partner with a local business, and students develop brochures, websites, database applications, analyze survey data, and sometimes develop GIS (map-based) marketing strategies for them.

For example, consider web site development. This project begins with students developing their own web page about themselves as an introduction to the more rigorous team-based web project for the partnering "client." Their personal web site must contain some brief information about themselves, in addition to their review of an article about good web site design and an actual site review. This activity not only prepares them for the more advanced design of the client web site, it incorporates a part of themselves into what they are learning.

Later in the course, students take purchased databases of company/contact names in raw form (comma delimited ASCII text files) and parse them using Excel in preparation for importing into ACT!, the marketing/sales-related contact manager in wide use by sales forces. They learn advanced database search techniques, data mining, report generation, and other skills. Another example is using SPSS. Students typically create the structure to hold data from a survey conducted by the "client," and then process the survey data. They learn SPSS procedures, commands, statistical tests, graphics, and report generation. By actually applying/doing what real marketers need and do every day, the students utilize active learning techniques in the best tradition of the Seven Principles of Good Practice for Undergraduate Education.

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DOES USING THE INTERNET AS A MODE OF DELIVERY FOR COURSE MATERIALS AND RESOURCES HELP OR HINDER STUDENT LEARNING WHEN USED IN CONJUNCTION WITH IN-CLASS SESSIONS?

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At least twenty studies dating back to 1996 have examined the use of the Internet to deliver part, or all, of the course content in otherwise traditional marketing courses. In the most recent of these studies, Priluck (2004) reported on two Principles of Marketing course sections administered using two separate formats. One was taught using the traditional methods of lectures, in-class discussions, assignments, and exams. The second section was taught with half of the class sessions involving face-to-face contact in a traditional classroom setting and half of the class sessions being asynchronous web sessions.

Priluck (2004) reports that students were more satisfied with the traditional course, preferred the traditional format, and felt that the traditional course was more effective in developing marketing skills and course knowledge including team building, critical thinking, and oral and written communication. Student performance on a comprehensive final exam, however, was not significantly different between the two sections of the course.

Delivering all, or part, of courses via the Internet or some other form of electronic technology is growing in popularity. At present, over 80 percent of all universities offer at least one on line course and over one-third offer complete on line degree programs (Conhaim 2003). On-line learning offers many potential advantages including the opportunity for students to learn at their own pace. There are also drawbacks to non-traditional instruction, such as high drop-out rates for on-line courses due to students feeling isolated (Aron 1999).

The speed with which an innovation, like the use of the Internet for teaching marketing courses, is adopted is influenced by five characteristics: relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability (Lundblad 2003). While use of the Internet can offer some advantages, as will be discussed during this panel, the advantage is often based on the view of the stakeholder. One instructor may perceive, for example, that having students enter simulation game decisions and receive results via the Internet is an advantage while another instructor may view an alternative form of decision submission and the return of game results to be far more efficient. This difference of opinion will exist among the students as well.

In the case of delivering course material electronically, adoption of this innovation is certainly being encouraged by university administrators who would like to reduce instructional costs by delivering course material to growing numbers of students using fewer instructors. While contact with the course instructor can be lost via this form of course delivery, personal interactions   can be maintained. Real-time chat lines, telephone contact, webcams, and e-mail are available for students to stay in contact with each other and with the course instructor. Enabling these means of contact can be quite time consuming for the course instructor, though.

Within the Odette School of Business at the University of Windsor, the use of electronic technology within our classes is growing across the faculty. Surveys of our faculty members on what technology they are using, with what perceived results, will be discussed. Further, to determine student reaction to the changing manner in which course content is being delivered, 502 students were surveyed after completion of their Principles of Marketing course. It was found that students, in general, were more satisfied with traditional teaching methods, class attendance was higher when course materials were not made available on a website, and course grades were higher among students who attended class rather than used the website available course material. Considerably more detail on this student survey will be presented along with implications for the use of electronic technology in our classes.

The findings from the surveys of University of Windsor faculty and students, as well as the findings presented in numerous published sources, raise many questions about the use of the Internet for teaching marketing courses. Among other issues, this panel session will: (I) summarize past studies on the use of the Internet for teaching marketing courses; (2) provide detailed information from the University of Windsor surveys of our students and faculty; (3) examine the pros and cons of electronically transmitted course material; and (4) discuss such issues as whether students use websites as a substitute for class attendance rather than as a supplement to in-class instruction.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRADES AND THE STUDENT EVALUATION OF INSTRUCTION: A TEST OF THE ATTRIBUTION HYPOTHESIS

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ABSTRACT

Extensive research has shown that there is a relationship between the grades given to students and evaluations students give to their instructors. A vigorous debate has ensued about the reason for this relationship. One explanation has been attribution. The current study looks at four predictions made by this hypothesis and finds little evidence for attribution as an explanation of the grade/evaluation effect.

INTRODUCTION

Almost all marketing instructors are evaluated regularly by their students, and the students' perceptions can have consequences for pay, promotion, and tenure. It is understandable, therefore, that the student evaluation of teaching (SET) has been of interest to many marketing educators. In literally hundreds of studies, one finding continues to re-appear. There is an association between grades that an instructor gives and the evaluations students give to the instructor. This relationship has implication for the validity of the SET process. The present study expands this discussion by looking at one area of the grade/evaluation effect which both sides of the issue find in common; i.e., the effects of attribution on the strength of the relationship between grades and evaluations.

WHAT IS CURRENTLY KNOWN?

Many instructors and students believe that there is a relationship between the grades they give and evaluations students give to them (e.g., Birnbaum 2000; Goldman 1985; Redding 1998; Ryan, Anderson, and Birchler 1980; Simpson and Siguaw 2000).

A vigorous debate has developed about the accuracy of this belief. Early studies found a grade/evaluation relationship (see Feldman 1976; Johnson 2003; Stumpf and Freedman 1979) for extensive reviews, but some data indicated that it might be a statistical artifact (Seiver 1983). Recently, Marsh and Roche (1999) referred to the idea that lower grades would result in lower student teacher evaluations as only a "presumption." Gillmore and Greenwald (1999), however, reported that out of six published studies that manipulated grading leniency in actual classrooms, all found higher evaluations from students in the more lenient conditions. They also reported that the correlations between expected grade and the evaluation, in three studies at the University of Washington, ranged from .38 to .50. In business classes, lenient-grading instructors generally receive higher evaluations (Bacon and Novotny 2002). Further, the grades students expect to receive have been found to create a highly sig-

nificant difference in the evaluations of business instructors (Goldberg and Callahan 1991). The final course grade has also been shown to have a negative impact on the evaluations (Bharadwaj, Futrell, and Kantak 1993). Marsh, Hau, Chung, and Siu (1997) found a significant difference between the grades students indicated they received from those instructors chosen as "good" and "poor" teachers. While they found that course grades were positively correlated with the students' perception of learning, they were negatively correlated with rigor. Wilhelm (2004) compared course evaluations, course worth, grading leniency, and course workload as factors of business students choosing classes. A conjoint analysis showed that,". . . students are 10 times more likely to choose a course with a lenient grader, all else being equal" (p. 24).

Marsh and Roche (2000) responded in a long article in *The Journal of Educational Psychology,* questioning the accuracy of Gillmore and Greenwald's findings while showing no grade/evaluation relationship due to grading leniency in their own study. Johnson (2003) countered with a large study conducted at Duke University, which found a distinct effect that he attributes to grade leniency. Johnson maintains that everyone, except certain insiders in the colleges of education, *knows* that the relationship exists. He implies that some of the researchers claiming no relationship have financial and professional interests in the SET process that would be harmed if the instruments were found to be invalid.

THEORIES

Several hypotheses have been proposed to account for the relationship between grades and SET (e.g., Stumpf and Freedman 1979; Greenwald and Gillmore 1997; Johnson 2003; Marsh and Roche 1999; Marsh and Roche 2000). They include *grading leniency,* which states that, ". . . students will reward teachers

who grade leniently with higher teacher and course evaluations" (Bacon and Novotny 2002, p. 5). An *interaction with prior characteristics* hypothesis states that the leniency effect appears to exist, but it is not real. It occurs either as a statistical artifact of other determining variables, or is largely modified to the point of practical insignificance by intervening variables. These could include the rigor of the instructor's grading policies, class workloads, and prior student interest in the class. A favorite hypothesis of those defending SET is the *teaching effectiveness* hypothesis. This states that teaching effectiveness influences both the evaluations and the grades. Good instructors create positive learning environments that are reflected in more positive grades. The *motivation* hypothesis states that the students' level of motivation influences both evaluations and grades. More highly motivated students are expected to do better academically and to more appreciate the efforts of the instructor. Certain instructors may attract motivated students or be better at motivating students than other instructors.

Surprisingly, there is one hypothesis that Gillmore and Greenwald (1999), Marsh and Roche (2000), and Johnson (2003) all agree on. They all find some evidence for an *attribution effect*. Since learning and achievement are difficult for students to evaluate (Kennedy, Lawton, and Plumlee 2002), they may infer the ability of the instructor to teach, and their level of learning, from the grade they receive (Snyder and Clair 1976).

Attribution is seen as a psychological variable that predisposes students to attribute good grades to themselves and poor grades to an external source, i.e., the teacher. Thus students getting a good grade would attribute it to their own good performance, minimizing the role of the instructor. On the other hand, a low grade would be attributed to the instructor, who thus becomes a poor teacher.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

This study looked for evidence of the attribution effect in a large sample of business students. Both Marsh and Roche (2000) and Johnson (2003) maintain that an attribution effect would result in a curvilinear relationship between grades and the evaluations, with lower grades being much more correlated with evaluations than higher grades. Marsh and Roche (2000) state, "Attribution theory implies an asymmetry or nonlinearity in predicted grade relation . . . [with SET]" (p. 205, italics mine).

> Hypothesis 1: A curvilinear relationship will better explain the grade/evaluation relationship than will a linear one.

Since the relationship would be curvilinear because of a stronger association among students receiving lower grades, and since the leniency effect proposes a relationship between teacher grading standards and evaluations, then if Gillmore, Greenwald and Johnson are correct, sections receiving lower average grades should have a larger correlation between grades and the SET than sections with higher average grades.

If Marsh and Roche are correct in rejecting the leniency effect, then high average graded sections should show little to no grade/evaluation relationship.

> Hypothesis 2: The correlation between expected grades and the evaluations will be higher for students in sections receiving low average grades than for students in sections receiving high average grades.

Johnson (2003) suggests that attribution should be relative. He states, "If it is true that students make such comparisons, then those students who earn low marks in stringently graded classes are less likely to view their performance as a failure than are students who earn low marks in classes that are graded leniently," (p. 97).

Hypothesis 3: There should be a significant difference in the mean evaluation of lenient and difficult graded sections for students receiving poor grades, but not for students receiving high grades.

It is also possible that students may use their past performance as a standard rather than the average grade of the immediate class being evaluated. Therefore, a student receiving a grade lower than their own norm would attribute their performance to the instructor, while a student receiving a grade higher than their own norm would attribute this to themselves.

> Hypothesis 4: The correlation between the expected grades and the evaluations will be higher for students receiving grades lower than their cumulative GPA, compared to students receiving grades higher than their cumulative GPA.

METHODOLOGY

Procedure

Instructors from 14 sections of introduction, undergraduate business courses (six sections of Organizational Management, and eight sections of Principles of Marketing) gave permission for the study to be conducted in their classes.

As part of a larger study on SET, each student at the beginning of the semester was given a permission form stating that if they agreed to be a subject, one of the researchers would access their cumulative GPA and their final grade in the current class at the end of the semester. All data would be collected by student identification only. A separate researcher compiled the data without seeing any student identification, except for student number. The instructor would never see any individual's data, or any information that would allow any student to be identified. Subjects could withdraw from the study at any time. The researchers taught none of the sections studied.

In the last week of the term (week 16), students were asked to evaluate the instructor and the class using two different measures. The first was a simple question which asked, *"What grade would you give your instructor?"* Marsh and Roche (1997) maintain that global ratings may be more susceptible to context, mood, and other potential biases than items directly related to actual teaching behavior. Therefore, a second measure was also sought which consisted of five statements that are identical to the statements used on the current student evaluation of instruction at the students' university.

Participants

In total, 560 students participated in the study on the last week of the term. Forty-nine percent of the total participants were female, 86 percent were juniors or seniors, and 14 percent were sophomores. The average age was 20.9 years *(SD* = 2.03), and the average cumulative GPA was 3.06 *(SD*= 0.46) at the beginning of the study. *Variables*

Evaluation: The five statements from the respondents' university evaluation were summed, averaged, and called *"evaluation"* (The instructor: "Created an atmosphere conducive of learning," Instructor explains material appropriately, "Instructor shows interest in student learning," "Instructor set high but reasonable standards," and "Rate your satisfaction with your learning in this class." Each statement could be answered with a letter grade (A through F). Cronbach's alpha was 0.912. The results from the statement,*"What grade would you give your instructor?"* was identified as *"instructor evaluation."* The measures are similar, but not exact. The correlation between the two measures was 0.880 *(r² = 0.77)*. Since *instructor evaluation* was a simple grade measure and asked directly after the question about the students' expected grade, it would be expected to be more sensitive to grade and to halo effects than would *evaluation.*

The students were asked what grade they expected to receive at the end of the term. This was simply called *expected grade.*

RESULTS

Hypothesis 1: A curvilinear relationship will better explain the grade/evaluation relationship than will a linear one. The correlation between the expected grade and *evaluation* was $r = 0.274$ $(p < .001)$, accounting for .074 of the variance. The best-curved regressional fit was $R = 0.281$ $(p < .001)$, accounting for .079 of the variance. The correlation between the expected grade and instructor evaluation was $r = .318$ $(p < .001;$ 0.101 of the variance), the curved regressional fit was $R = 0.319$ $(p < .001;$ 0.102 of the variance. There was no significant difference between the linear and the curvilinear associations. The means of the evaluations broken down by expected grades can be found in Table 1. F tests revealed a significant deviation from linear for the *evaluation* measure, but not for the *instructor evaluation* measure. The linear term accounts for the majority of the variance *(Evaluation:* linear $F(1, 553) = 20.58$; deviation from linear, $F(1, 553) = 4.02$, $p = .010$: *Instructor Evaluation:* linear, $F(1, 557) = 46.12$, deviation from linear; $F(1, 553) = 3.18$, $p = .065$).

The results are ambivalent for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2: The correlation between the expected grade and the evaluations will be higher for students in sections receiving low grades than for students in sections receiving high grades. The fourteen sections were divided into three groups; the top four sections by expected grades (mean expected grade = 3.21 (SE = .055, n = 162)), the bottom four sections by expected grade (mean expected grade= 2.80 (SE = .048, n = 212)), and the middle sections (mean= 3.01 (SE = .043, n = 189). In the sections with the lowest expected grades, the correlation between expected grades was $r = 0.098$ $(p = .192)$ with *evaluation,* and $r = 0.100$ $(p =$

TABLE 1
Evaluation Means by Grade Expected

Grade Expected	Evaluation	Instructor Evaluation
C or less	2.58 (109, .08)[1]	2.28 (109, .10)
B	3.05 (315, .04)	2.87 (317, .05)
A	3.17 (132, .07)	3.16 (134, .09)

[1.] First number is sample size; the second number is the standard error.

.148) with *instructor evaluation.* In the sections with the highest expected grades, the correlation between expected grades and the *evaluation* was $r = 0.372$ (p <.001), and $r = 0.432$ (p < .001) for *instructor evaluation.* The correlation coefficients are significantly different *(evaluation:* $Z = -2.47$ (p = 0.007; *instructor evaluation:* $Z = -2.63$ (p = .004). The results are directly opposite those postulated by Hypothesis 2, which is rejected.

Hypothesis 3: There should be a significant difference in the mean evaluation of lenient and difficult graded sections for students receiving poor grades, but not for students receiving high grades. Student expecting grades of C or less were placed in the "poor grade" category, while student expecting an A grade were placed in the "high grade" category. There were no significant differences in the evaluation of students expecting poor grades in the top four graded sections compared to the bottom four sections $(t(81) = 0.57$, p = 0.569 for *evaluation;* $t(81) = 0.74$, p = 0.462 for *instructor evaluation).* For students expecting an A there was a significantly higher evaluation given in the most lenient sections compared to least lenient sections $(t(94) = 4.17$, p < .001 for *evaluation:* $t(96) = 5.07$, p < .001 for *instructor evaluation).*

The results are directly opposite those postulated by Hypothesis 3, which is rejected.

Hypothesis 4: The correlation between the expected grades and the evaluations will be higher for students receiving grades lower than their cumulative GPA compared to students receiving grades higher than their cumulative GPA.

Deviation from GPA was calculated as (Expected Grade – cumulative GPA). Students were separated into three groups. The first group expected to receive a grade lower than their cumulative GPA. The second group expected a grade equal to their cumulative GPA (with+/- 0.33 of a GPA point). The third group expected a grade higher than their cumulative GPA. The correlation between the expected grade and the evaluation was significant for those students who expected a grade less than their cumulative GPA $(r =0.294$ (p < .001) for *evaluation;* $r = 0.277$ (p < .001) for *instructor evaluation.* The association was non-significant for students expecting a grade higher than their GPA $(r = 0.139$ (p = .122) for *evaluation;* $r = 0.199$ (p = 0.25) for *instructor evaluation).* The correlation coefficients for the two conditions are not significantly different *(evaluation:* $Z = 1.38$ (p = 0.084; *instructor evaluation:* $Z = 0.69$ (p = .245).

The means of the evaluations broken down by deviation from GPA can be found in Table 2. F tests reveal a significant difference (F(2, 487) = 15.Ql, p < .001 for *evaluation,* and F(2, 491) = 26.91, p < .001 for *instructor evaluation.* There was no significant deviation from linear for the *evaluation* measure (F(l, 487) = 0.41), or with the *instructor evaluation* measure (F(l, 491) = 0.31). Hypothesis 4 is rejected.

DISCUSSION

There is little support found for the attribution hypothesis. The association between expected grades and SET could be seen as either linear or curvilinear with a regression analysis. An ANOVA procedure showed a significant deviation from linear with the evaluation measure from the students' own school's evaluation, but none when students were simply asked to give their instructor a grade. There was actually a stronger grade/evaluation effect in sections giving higher grades than in sections giving lower grades. There was also a larger difference between the evaluations given by good students between above and below average graded sections, while poor students showed no such difference. These findings are opposite that predicted by the attribution hypothesis. The correlations between grades and SET were not found to be higher for students that expect a grade lower than their cumulative GPA than for students who expect a grade higher than their cumulative GPA. Further, the breakdown of mean evaluations by GPA deviation showed no significant deviation from a linear relationship.

Gillmore and Greenwald (1999), Marsh and Roche (2000), and Johnson (2003) all found a grade/evaluation relationship, but Marsh and Roche maintain that it is either too small to be taken seriously, or that much of it can be explained by the attribution effect. This study casts doubt that attribution accounts for much of the grade/evaluation effect. Further, the results do not fit entirely with the leniency effect proposed by Gillmore, Greenwald and Johnson. The data used in this study was from between student cases rather than between class cases; i.e., the class means are not used as data points to establish associations. This, combined with the findings that the grade/evaluation effect may actually be stronger with lenient graders than with less lenient graders, and that students gaining high grades may be more sensitive to the grade/evaluation effect than students receiving poor grades, suggests a mechanism incompatible with the definition of leniency. It appears more likely that students are exhibiting what may be called a "reciprocity" effect. This hypothesis would suggest that each student responds to her or his own grading situation,

TABLE 2
Evaluation Means by Deviation from Cumulative GPA

Deviation from GPA	Evaluation	Instructor Evaluation
GPA > Exp Grade	2.75 (169, .07)[1]	2.43 (169, .08)
GPA = Exp Grade	3.05 (196, .06)	2.89 (198, .07)
Exp Grade > GPA	3.26 (126, .06)	3.25 (128, .08)

[1.] First number is sample size; the second number is the standard error.

irrespective of overall instructor characteristics, and then tends to reciprocate on the evaluation based on their individual reactions to their grade. The current findings are compatible with such an explanation, but further research is needed to clarify the hypothesis.

IMPLICATIONS

1. There is a grade/evaluation effect. Students expecting an A gave an average evaluation to the instructor of almost B+. Students expecting a C or less, gave an average evaluation of about C+. The cause of this effect is currently unknown.

2. The grade/evaluation effect can be seen as linear, but with slight curvilinear aspects that may suggest only a weak contribution from attribution.

3. Contrary to the suggestions made by some researchers, instructors who give high grades will elicit a stronger grade/evaluation effect from good students than from poor students.

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EDUCATING THE VIDEO GENERATION: STRATEGIES FOR UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

Since the advent of Sesame Street on the Public Broadcasting System, people have been alternately praising the show, for its ability to cater to a group of viewers that thrives on visual images and short bursts of information, and condemning the show, for contributing to and increasing a generation's need for visual images and short bursts of information. Yet, the show is successful and has taught young people for over thirty years.

As the Sesame Street viewers grew up, their tendencies to react favorably to visual images and short messages were further affected by the popularity of videos, both music videos and video games. Again, it has been argued which came first, an innate preference for the video format, or a preference developed by the video format.

We neither agree nor disagree with the praise and condemnation for highly visual, fast paced information delivery; rather, we recognize the tendency in our own students to be more attentive and more involved when visual images are used in the classroom. At the same time, technology and different delivery methods have both given us new tools and new challenges in teaching students today. We would like to share with our colleagues some of the approaches we have used in undergraduate and graduate level education at Kettering University to teach this video generation of students.

UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION

At the undergraduate level, Kettering University has a traditional classroom approach with small classes; few classes have more than 30 students. However, within the traditional approach and with a lack of widely available "high tech" equipment, it is still possible to appeal to the students' positive response to visual imagery.

One of the simplest forms of visual aids used is a PowerPoint lecture slide. Creating a picture to illustrate a concept is invaluable in the learning process for this generation, especially at Kettering where most of the students are engineers. For example, instead of listing the four main points of a concept on the slide, create a flower with four petals and put the four main points on each petal. When students then think about the concept, they will see the four-petal flower instead of a list. This makes it easier for them to remember the concept.

Visuals are used extensively in the Marketing classes. Whenever possible product demonstrations, print and taped (video and audio) advertisements, brochures, and pictures are used. For example, product demonstrations are used to demonstrate the functions of packaging; digital

pictures are used to demonstrate both proper and improper mechanizing; print and taped advertisements are used to demonstrate the use of color, message format, tone, style, and copy.

Another way of overcoming the challenges of educating this video generation is choreographing the class period. For example, explain a concept and then have a class discussion or do a group activity in class with a debriefing. This keeps the students' attention by covering the material in short bursts of information.

In the Advancement Management class, current motion pictures are used to help explain management concepts and leadership theories. Students watch the film or sections of a film and then discuss the main points covered in the film as it relates to lecture material. The instructor then administers a series of exercises that reinforces the lecture material and film. The use of film combined with exercises assist students in understanding theoretical concepts; the visual images stimulate their analysis and creativity while holding their attention.

GRADUATE EDUCATION

Graduate education at Kettering presents' new opportunities and challenges. Most of the graduate classes at Kettering are delivered through a distance-based mechanism. All classes are taught on campus in state of the art classrooms with a live class and are videotaped, then distributed worldwide to students via videotape, CD-ROM, or video streaming. In one way, the delivery system is beneficial because the students see a lecture and a professor; it differs greatly from text-based distance learning approaches. However, there are also challenges because students are used to seeing far more interesting video than a 2 ½ hour lecture. Also, due to the three-camera placement, even the range of the lecturer's movement is severely restricted. So, how do you hold their attention and facilitate learning?

One of the frequent activities in the Business to Business Marketing graduate course that is the use of small vignettes that will force students to apply the material just covered. This also helps to present information in short segments. The faculty member will read the vignette and then ask questions of the live class. If the class does not respond to the questions, the faculty needs to answer the question in a creative way. For example the faculty would respond by saying, "Did anyone think of . . .? If you did, you are on the right track, but not quite there" "What about this idea . . . ? Let's dissect this idea." When dissecting this concept/idea, a PowerPoint visual is used to illustrate why the concept is the correct/incorrect answer to the problem.

Larger case studies are also used in the graduate class; brochures, advertisements and or products from the case company are brought into class to illustrate points; questions are asked of the live class and a discussion occurs. Again if the class does not respond, the instructor needs to be creative in eliciting discussion.

Product demonstrations are particularly effective on camera. For example, when discussing product development and why products "flop," the smokeless cigarette is used as an illustration. The cigarette is shown and dissected (so one can see the composition of the cigarette) along with the advertisements that were used in the test studies. Again the use of visual imagery is valuable and powerful.

In the Managing People and Technology graduate course, guest speakers and self-assessment exercises are often used. The self-assessment exercises enable students to evaluate themselves, their leadership qualities, work culture, and peers and appeal to their interest in self knowledge. The change in the rhythm of learning from hearing to doing also provides a break and engages attention again. Additionally, by providing a guest speaker to present and discuss real life management situation, the students have

the ability to conceptualize and apply management/leadership concepts to their work life. They also experience a different voice and approach to the material.

The foundation course in Management is often regarded as a challenge because there is such a quantity of conceptual material to cover and some find the material, especially the historic aspects, to be dry. We have developed a different approach. As a supplement to the lecture, students view over 1,000 photographs, graphs, and other visual images presented within the PowerPoint format. Throughout the course, it is not only the concept that students hear about but also they see the people who developed the theory, the places where historic events took place, and the industrial conditions in which early management thought developed. The size of the files for each lecture is too large to be placed on Blackboard, our system for delivering documents and administering courses, so the students are given a CD-ROM of the visual images used in the course.

Students might ordinarily have difficulty remembering Scientific Management and standardized work, but when they see original photographs of Gilbreth's brick laying studies, Frederick Taylor as a baby, and the rail yard at Midvale Steel Company, the images reinforce the stories and the concepts so that the students understand and remember. People are familiar with the image of Maslow's hierarchy of needs and using it to illustrate his theory is good. But, by adding pictures of Maslow, his books, and the results of studies testing his theory we give students a series of visual images that play to their preferences and keep their attention. Seeing the women who took part in the Relay Assembly Test Room at Hawthorne, the actual room, the parts of the relay before assembly, the Hawthorne plant itself, and Elton Mayo help students to understand the beginnings of behavioral theory. Stories are good, examples of applications are better, but best of all is adding appropriate visuals and photographs to enhance the learning experience of the video generation. (Copies of the CD-ROM created for the Management course are available to any interested educator.)

SUMMARY

Sesame Street viewers have grown up and display and tend to react favorably to visual images and short messages. This presents challenges to the academic world.

The undergraduate and graduate level courses at Kettering University have responded to this generation by using visual images and short messages to capture this audience. Whenever possible product demonstrations, print and taped (video and audio) advertisements, brochures, pictures, movies, cases, vignettes, exercises, guest speakers, and photographs are used to enhance the learning of this video generation.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING HUMAN TOUCH USING ACTIVE LEARNING TECHNIQUES

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SUMMARY

Principle 3. Encourages. Active Learning: *Learning is not a spectator sport. Students do not learn much just by sitting in classes listening to teachers, memorizing pre-packaged assignments, and spitting out answers. They must talk about what they are learning, write about it, relate it to past experiences and apply it to their daily lives. They must make what they learn part of themselves.*

Principle number three of the "Seven Principles of Good Practice in Undergraduate Education" recommends using active learning techniques. One established "Human Touch" version involves the use of case studies and assigning the cases to specific student teams for analysis and presentation of the team's solutions to the case's problems.

The activity of relating the terms, theories, and concepts from the assigned readings or course textbook to the situation presented in the case requires the student to develop a clearer understanding of the material than when their study approach is limited to memorizing information to pass tests.

A modified version of the case study method is to have the student teams develop the case themselves rather than using published cases. In this approach the student teams must select a specific product presently being marketed and then develop class presentations that demonstrate how the various textbook concepts are being applied currently in the marketing of that Product.

The student teams can be provided a detailed template to insure that their efforts cover all the key concepts that have been included in the course outcomes. Requiring the students to study an actual product in the marketplace and evaluate the marketing strategy in relation to these concepts as presented in the textbook creates an active learning environment both in the classrooms and outside the classroom.

Within the classroom and student team environment the students are engaged in a "Human Touch" active learning environment as they relate the textbook concepts to the product being studied, discuss this information with their team members and organize the information for a formal presentation. The presentation replaces the traditional instructor lecture outline. After the presentation the entire class can further discuss the key concepts that were illustrated. This active learning environment promotes more attention and interest in the subject than traditional instructor lectures. It is important to note that this variation of the case method actually incorporates more of the "Seven Principles" than just the active learning principle. Using student teams to analyze a products marketing strategy and then illustrate this for the entire class incorporates at least some aspects of all seven principles.

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CAMPUS-TAILORED EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION PRACTICES AT WARTBURG COLLEGE

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The Business Administration and Economics Department at Wartburg College has an extensive history with experiential education. Our internship program is our longest standing initiative, and has become a model for other departments on campus. Campus conversations regarding experiential education are at an all-time high due to the recent awarding of a Lilly grant to Wartburg that focuses on vocation as discerned by students at a liberal arts college related to the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America (ELCA). What the business faculty has found is that while the conversations are increasing, the Lilly grant has also created a dynamic tension. This tension is between our department, which sees itself steeped in experiential education, and others who are just now beginning to explore what internships, service learning, and experiential education can add to their majors' preparation. Part of the tension stems from questions like, "Can one engage in service learning in a for-profit environment?" In the end, we believe that our department can utilize its expertise and become an integral player, and even leader, in the grant's implementation.

Additionally, our department has been very committed to course projects that infuse "real world" experiences into the classroom. For example, small groups in the Advertising course regularly work for off-campus clients, creating integrated marketing communications plans for the clients based on their needs and situations. In Marketing Research, the course revolves around small groups of students conducting start-to-finish survey research for small to medium-sized companies and organizations in the local area.

Recruiting of clients is a natural extension of the community service role that many faculty in our department play. Waverly, Iowa is a relatively small Midwestern community, but one with a vibrant Main Street program, Chamber of Commerce, and county-wide economic development group. Faculty hold board positions within these organizations, which enables us to network with prospective clients regarding various forms of experiential education.

The management of our experiential education efforts is enhanced by the fact that we are a small college, with a close connection to our students. Because we know our students well and have class sizes that enable interaction, it has been much more feasible to move beyond traditional ways of teaching and learning. It has been said that the more experiential the approach, the more the professor's role becomes one of consultant and coach. We see ourselves well-positioned to make that transition.

With this changing role comes the added responsibility of overseeing the relationships with internship and project clients. More specifically, this includes the creation of processes and procedures that allow for a successful experience for students and clients alike. With course projects, for example, less time may be spent

on preparing and delivering lectures, but more time will be spent meeting with clients, preparing students for the projects, monitoring their progress, mediating any conflicts that arise, and helping both students and clients meet their expectations. Evaluation of students' work also takes on a different tone when clients are involved. It should be noted, too, that student motivation is tremendously different when they feel responsible for meeting the needs of their clients.

Overall, our department believes that the move to include more experiential education has been a healthy change. Prospective employers and graduate schools tell us that students with these kinds of experience bring an expertise, maturity, and confidence to their next stage in life that classroom education alone does not seem to create. What more motivation could there possibly be for educators in any discipline, but especially for those of us in an applied field like business?

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING HUMAN TOUCH TO EMPHASIZE TIME ON TASK

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Principle 5. Emphasizes Time on Task: Time plus energy equals learning. There is no substitute for time on task. Learning to use one's time well is critical for students and professionals alike. Students need help in learning effective time management. Allocating realistic amounts of time means effective learning for students and effective teaching for faculty. How an institution defines time expectations for students, faculty, administrators, and other professional staff can establish the basis of high performance for all (Chickering and Gamson 1987).

In the final analysis, each of us decides how to allocate time across many available choices. Collectively, these decisions have a major impact on the degree of success that each of us achieves. Faculty decisions on time allocation decisions are influenced by the employer's RTP policies, compensation system, and culture. Those allocations work their way down to each student in each class who also has a large number of time allocation decisions to make. How a professor runs a course influences how students allocate time and impacts that student's success-both in that individual class and in terms helping the student develop good habits that will carry over into other classes and into her future business career.

There are no magic secret bullets that enable high achievement without tremendous effort over the long run. Lots of time must be devoted to important tasks. People who achieve great relatively high levels of success almost always work very hard for an extraordinarily long time as one of the means for reaching that pinnacle of achievement. As Chickering and Gamson (1987) stated:

> *Emphasizes Time on Task. Time plus energy equals learning. There is no substitute for time on task. Learning to use one's time well is critical for students and professionals alike. Students need help in learning effective time management. Allocating realistic amounts of time means effective learning for students and effective teaching for faculty. How an institution defines time expectations for students, faculty, administrators, and other professional staff can establish the basis of high performance for all.*

This paper suggests some ways that professors can Improve performance by better understanding time on task, First in order to develop an appropriate time on task system, it is important to start by thinking long and hard about what you want to accomplish and how much you are willing to "pay" in order to achieve it. One of the most effective ways to spend your time is to devote at least two days each year to thinking long and hard about what you want to accomplish over the next one, three, five, and ten year periods of time. Develop a moving set of goals that are reviewed and updated each year as you evolve as a professional and mature within your career cycle. The goals must be written, mea-

surable, and consistent with your willingness to allocate time needed to achieve them in order to get the maximum benefit from this process.

Secondly, narrow your focus and specialize. For example, how many different courses have you taught within the past three yea1s? Was your time well spent with each additional preparation? Was your university able to gain additional credit hour production (revenue) because you taught an additional preparation rather than an addition section of a current course? Did you receive an incentive from your university for taking on the responsibility for an additional preparation? Did students at your university gain anything by having you teach one new course that semesters that you had not taught before? From these as well as most perspectives, time allocation decisions almost always suggest specialization of effort so that you can become exceptionally effective at a more narrow set of tasks. In research/publications, high achievers have a "research stream." In teaching, you should have a "teaching stream." You, your students, and your university will probably be best served if you select a rather small number of courses and then devote a large amount of your time becoming exceptionally well prepared and highly effective in teaching that more narrow set of courses.

The third set of suggestions related to time on task is to leverage your resources. This does not mean cheating, plagiarizing research papers, shortchanging your students, being lazy, or other unethical practices. Instead, leveraging your resources means working smart, making use of existing competencies, and maximizing outcomes based on the time already devoted to a task. Think of ways to get more output with a minimum of added input. For example, given our students views on intellectual property, it is not a good idea to use the same case assignment in more than one semester. But that doesn't mean that you can't use the same case. Most of us do a much better job the second time we teach a

case than the first. We usually do a better job the third time than the second, and so on. It is quite possible to use the same case many times. You just need to change the written assignment each semester. By using the same case repeatedly, you decrease your preparation time for class while improving your teaching performance. By changing what you require the students to prepare as a written assignment for that case, you diminish the time you need to spend discouraging improper use of a previous student's written insights regarding a case solution. For example, consider developing a set of essay questions that the students need to address for the case and then change the questions each term. If you want students to follow some type of a case solution format, you could still do that if you make major changes to the format requirements each term.

Time on task is certainly critical for success. I did not realize it at the time, but one of my now really old professors provided a good insight on the time on task factor when I was in graduate school. He said that the key to research success was what he called "chair time." He was suggesting that in order to become a prolific researcher, a person had to spend a lot of time "in the chair" doing all of the necessary research tasks. We can improve our management of time on task through goal setting, specializing, and by leveraging our resources, but there is no ultimate substitute · for spending relatively more time on these tasks than others. People who achieve more success relative to others tend to work more hours each day, more days each week, and more weeks each year. In addition, they usually work for many years to become leaders within a given field.

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GETTING THE "REAL WORLD" INTO BUSA100: INCORPORATING BUSINESS SIMULATION

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INTRODUCTION

A major goal of a business professor is to prepare students for their future employment. This involves exposing them to experiences that simulate situations they will encounter in the "real world" of business. Research increasingly touts the value of experiential activities to maximize student learning (e.g., Kolb 1984). Similarly, evidence suggests that prospective employers seek students who have the ability to work effectively in teams, therefore encouraging the need for educators to incorporate meaningful group based activities (Miles 1981; Slavin 1996). In short, our pedagogical approaches must evolve to meet the changing needs of the business environment. This challenge is further complicated by the unique learning style of the current "video generation," for whom traditional techniques are arguably less effective (see Faust et al. 2001).

One way to train students to obtain these essential skills is through the incorporation of problem-based learning (PBL) techniques into business courses (e.g., Wilkerson and Gijselaers 1996). PBL is an instructional method characterized by the use of "real world" problems as a context for students to learn critical thinking and problem solving skills. PBL is recognized as a highly effective approach to learning, specifically by enhancing critical thinking, developing problem-solving capabilities, promoting team-work, and improving communication skills. Business simulation programs are an increasingly popular PBL tool used in undergrad-

uate business curricula today (Stephen, Parente, and Brown 2002; Tompson 1995). By simulating "real" products manufactured and sold by "real" companies, such applications extend beyond the traditional textbook by challenging students to apply management principles as they work in teams to make "real world" business decisions.

DESCRIPTION OF COURSE INNOVATION

With the goal of achieving the various skills previously outlined, we have refocused our introductory business course (BUSA100) around the business simulation software program Foundation™, by Management Simulations, Inc.™. This course is a required introductory course for pre-business and undeclared majors exploring management or accounting as possible majors, and is designed to introduce the students to basic business principles. All course activities – from tests to oral presentations – are designed around the management simulation software. The course requires the students to administer multiple business functions including production, research and development, marketing (sales forecasting, promotion and accessibility budgeting and pricing strategy), accounting, and finance (short and long term debt management, stock issuance and retirement and dividend policies). The simulation allows competing teams of approximately four students to run $40 million electronic sensor companies. Over the course of eight rounds (correlates to one fiscal year), each team views the impact of

their decisions on their company's position and profitability, allowing exposure to the myriad challenges and ambiguities facing businesses today. The entire course is now structured around the simulation and the course "textbook" is a team member guide published by Management Simulation, Inc.™. Three tests are administered throughout the semester in order to assess student knowledge of the various terms and technical aspects presented through the simulation activities. Additionally, each team is required to complete a number of written and oral assignments throughout the semester to demonstrate knowledge of their company and all related strategies. These include an initial situation analysis, a comprehensive business plan, organizational memos, and a final presentation of performance results.

The initial formulation of the individual teams is decided by the instructor based upon gender, degree of computer competence, and completed academic credit hours (e.g., freshman, sophomore, junior). The team members then assign specific areas of responsibility to individuals within their "company," i.e., VP-Marketing, VP-Finance, VP-Production, VP-Research, and Development. Twice during the semester, each team evaluates its individual team members via an anonymous, online peer evaluation. The peer evaluation addresses a range of issues including the level and quality of each member's involvement and individual contributions to the group.

In addition, five faculty members from different business disciplines serve as guest lecturers throughout the semester. The visiting instructors first provide an overview of their discipline and then incorporate specific simulation activities as they relate to their specific function. For instance, a finance management professor would discuss financial ratios utilizing the team's individual statistics and performance over the past five rounds (years). In addition to providing helpful guidance for the simulation activi-

ties, this also exposes the new business students to professors throughout the School of Business. Furthermore, this approach provides the opportunity for the visiting faculty to integrate simulation applications into their subsequent coursework. For instance, a marketing professor who first interacts with freshman students in BUSA100 is able to incorporate specific examples from the simulation game - such as sales forecasting, demand analysis, or pricing strategies – into a marketing management course two semesters later. Furthermore, we are finding that direct faculty interaction in this introductory course paves the way to greater communication between faculty and students going forward.

LESSONS LEARNED AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Student reactions to the first semester (Spring 2004) of the new BUSA100 course were generally very favorable. In particular, 69% of all students evaluated the course favorably, either as excellent (21%) or good (48%). After offering this new course in Spring 2004 and assessing student feedback, we have identified a number of noteworthy strengths as well as several areas for improvement.

Strengths

First, the students repotted that they appreciated exposure to the wide variety of business disciplines with visiting faculty and "hands-on" involvement. Qualitative feedback from students enrolled in the course included the following: "This class helped me to learn how to manage a business;" and "It gave me a prelude to more advanced business courses." Further, students reported favorable perceptions of the group-based format and teamwork so integral to the course as well as the "real world" applications provided by the simulation software. For instance, student comments included: "This course allows one an opportunity to examine

how a business operates;" and "The class provides application of decisions that one would encounter in the 'real-world' and how the business disciplines interrelate." Finally, the simulation-centered activities were clearly preferred to the "traditional" learning approaches prevalent in other courses. While today's business student typically learns concepts in an ordered and structured environment, the simulation experience engages the student in an unpredictable and education discovery learning module. Interestingly, as in the case with many PBL-based activities, the students initially exhibited discontent and guarded reactions to the simulation pedagogy. However, as the semester progressed the students clearly gained confidence and growing enthusiasm with their decisions and learning. For instance, one student commented: "I had some confusion at the first of the semester yet gained confidence with practice and experience."

Weaknesses

We likewise recognize a number of areas for improvement in the semesters to come. First, throughout the semester students remarked of the need for further experience and broader exposure to the simulation and its terminology before actual performance (rounds) occur. For instance, one student commented, "The simulation was confusing and overwhelming at the beginning of the semester." Additionally, the students generally reported that the team member guide accompanying the simulation software (Management Simulation, Inc.™) was insufficient for their needs. Specifically, the guide proved inadequate in respect to both specific instructions and for learning business concepts involved in the simulation. For example, student commentary included the following: "The course had no textbook which made preparation for the tests a challenge." Further, the students reported that the visiting professors should further incorporate specific simulation activities/examples into their lectures. Finally, as is often the case with group-based activities, some students were critical of the method used to assign simulation teams. In particular, when teams had dominant members the subdued participants did not actively engage in the simulation. For instance, student feedback included the following statement: "After the first three weeks of class, two team members assumed control of the entire simulation and I was not able to be a viable, contributing member."

Future Directions

Based upon the lessons learned after the first semester of this new course offering, a number of adjustments will be made in the coming year. First, in order to gain confidence in the simulation material and executions, additional practice rounds will be added early in the semester. Within the context of these additional rounds, each team will receive customized feedback from the instructor who will explain errors and gaps in understanding. Also, with the additional practice rounds the course deliverables (i.e., business plan, organizational memo and situation analysis) will be deferred until later in the semester in order to allow greater comprehension and exposure to the appropriate concepts. Further, an additional textbook will be available as a reference in order to facilitate greater understanding of the many business concepts presented throughout the semester. Also, as a result of this semester's experience, next term the team assignments will be finalized based upon a computer generated match provided through the Management Simulation, Inc.™ website. This tool allows the students to answer questions that will direct the proper team placement of individuals. Finally, the visiting faculty will be further educated of the simulation activities so that their presentations may better incorporate specific and helpful examples.

In conclusion, we believe that the integration of business simulation has greatly improved the "real world" learning in our BUSA100 introduc-

tory business course. Although we have a number of areas for future improvements, we maintain that the benefits of this approach far outweigh the challenges, offering great potential for "hands-on" training for today's generation.

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DOES USING THE INTERNET AS A MODE OF DELIVERY FOR COURSE MATERIALS AND RESOURCES HELP OR HINDER STUDENT LEARNING WHEN USED IN CONJUNCTION WITH IN-CLASS SESSIONS?

Dave Hutchinson, University of Windsor
William Wellington, University of Windsor
A.J. Faria, University of Windsor

At least twenty studies dating back to 1996 have examined the use of the Internet to deliver part, or all, of the course content in otherwise traditional marketing courses. In the most recent of these studies, Priluck (2004) reported on two Principles of Marketing course sections administered using two separate formats. One was taught using the traditional methods of lectures, in-class discussions, assignments, and exams. The second section was taught with half of the class sessions involving face-to-face contact in a traditional classroom setting and half of the class sessions being asynchronous web sessions.

Priluck (2004) reports that students were more satisfied with the traditional course, preferred the traditional format, and felt that the traditional course was more effective in developing marketing skills and course knowledge including team building, critical thinking, and oral and written communication. Student performance on a comprehensive final exam, however, was not significantly different between the two sections of the course.

Delivering all, or part, of courses via the Internet or some other form of electronic technology is growing in popularity. At present, over 80 percent of all universities offer at least one on-line course and over one-third offer complete on-line degree programs (Conhaim 2003). On-line learning offers many potential advantages including the opportunity for student to learn at their own pace. There are also drawbacks to non-traditional instruction, such as high dropout rates for on-line courses due to students feeling isolated (Aron 1999).

The speed with which an innovation, like the use of the Internet for teaching marketing courses, is adopted is influenced by five characteristics: relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability (Lundblad 2003). While use of the Internet can offer some advantages, as will be discussed during this panel, the advantage is often based on the view of the stakeholder. One instructor may perceive, for example, that having students enter simulation game decisions and receive results via the Internet is an advantage while another instructor may view an alternative form of decision submission and the return of game results to be far more efficient. This difference of opinion will exist among the students as well.

In the case of delivering course material electronically, adoption of this innovation is certainly being encouraged by university administrators

who would like to reduce instructional costs by delivering course material to growing numbers of students using fewer instructors. While contact with the course instructor can be lost via this form of course delivery, personal interactions can be maintained. Real-time chat lines, telephone contact, webcams, and email are available for students to stay in contact with each other and with the course instructor. Enabling these means of contact can be quite time consuming for the course instructor, though.

Within the Odette School of Business at the University of Windsor, the use of electronic technology within our classes is growing across the faculty. Surveys of our faculty members on what technology they are using, with what perceived results, will be discussed. Further, to determine student reaction to the changing manner in which course content is being delivered, 502 students were surveyed after completion of their Principles of Marketing course. It was found that students, in general, were more satisfied with traditional teaching methods, class attendance was higher when course materials were not made available on a website, and course grades were higher among students who attended class rather than used the website available course material. Considerably more detail on this student survey will be presented along with implications for the use of electronic technology in our classes.

The findings from the surveys of University of Windsor faculty and students, as well as the findings presented in numerous published sources, raise many questions about the use of the Internet for teaching marketing courses. Among other issues, this panel session will: (1) summarize past studies on the use of the Internet for teaching marketing courses; (2) provide detailed information from the University of Windsor surveys of our students and faculty; (3) examine the pros and cons of electronically transmitted course material; and (4) discuss such issues as whether students use websites as a substitute for class attendance rather than as a supplement to in-class instruction.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING THE HUMAN TOUCH TO ENCOURAGE CONTACT BETWEEN STUDENTS AND FACULTY

Karen E. James, Louisiana State University in Shreveport

Principle 1: Good Practice Encourages Contacts Between Students and Faculty: Frequent student faculty contact in and out of classes is the most important factor in student motivation and involvement. Faculty concern helps students get through rough times and keep on working. Knowing a few faculty members well enhances students' intellectual commitment and encourages them to think about their own values and future plans (Chickering and Gamson, 1987).

Technology such as email and Blackboard or WebCT courseware makes contacting students easier and more efficient than ever before. While technological methods clearly compliment traditional "face-to face" contact alternatives, the "human" touch remains essential for building rapport and relationships with students.

Successful implementation of good teaching practices requires both the support of the educational institution, and a receptive student group. Gonzaga's Institute for Law School Teaching has developed an "inventory" of items that can be used to assess the degree to which each of these three groups students, faculty, and institutions are involved in practicing each of the "Seven Principles. The items relevant to encouraging faculty and student contact will be used as a framework for the ensuing discussion (see http://law.gonzaga.edu/ilst/Pl.htm).

In addition, several specific practical tips for encouraging contact with students via the "human" touch will be addressed, including those related to classroom management, group project work, internships, independent studies, informal mentoring, student organization interaction, and individual student advising, among others.

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EDUCATING THE VIDEO GENERATION: STRATEGIES FOR UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

Since the advent of Sesame Street on the Public Broadcasting System, people have been alternately praising the show, for its ability to cater to a group of viewers that thrives on visual images and short bursts of information, and condemning the show, for contributing to and increasing a generation's need for visual images and short bursts of information. Yet, the show is successful and has taught young people for over thirty years.

As the Sesame Street viewers grew up, their tendencies to react favorably to visual images and short messages were further affected by the popularity of videos, both music videos and video games. Again, it has been argued which came first, an innate preference for the video format, or a preference developed by the video format.

We neither agree nor disagree with the praise and condemnation for highly visual, fast paced information delivery; rather, we recognize the tendency in our own students to be more attentive and more involved when visual images are used in the classroom. At the same time, technology and different delivery methods have both given us new tools and new challenges in teaching students today. We would like to share with our colleagues some of the approaches we have used in undergraduate and graduate level education at Kettering University to teach this video generation of students.

UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION

At the undergraduate level, Kettering University has a traditional classroom approach with small classes; few classes have more than 30 students. However, within the traditional approach and with a lack of widely available "high tech" equipment, it is still possible to appeal to the students' positive response to visual imagery.

One of the simplest forms of visual aids used is a PowerPoint lecture slide. Creating a picture to illustrate a concept is invaluable in the learning process for this generation, especially at Kettering where most of the students are engineers. For example, instead of listing the four main points of a concept on the slide, create a flower with four petals and put the four main points on each petal. When students then think about the concept, they will see the four-petal flower instead of a list. This makes it easier for them to remember the concept.

Visuals are used extensively in the Marketing classes. Whenever possible product demonstrations, print and taped (video and audio) advertisements, brochures, and pictures are used. For

example, product demonstrations are used to demonstrate the functions of packaging; digital pictures are used to demonstrate both proper and improper merchandizing; print and taped advertisements are used to demonstrate the use of color, message format, tone, style, and copy.

Another way of overcoming the challenges of educating this video generation is choreographing the class period. For example, explain a concept and then have a class discussion or do a group activity in class with a debriefing. This keeps the students' attention by covering the material in short bursts of information.

In the Advancement Management class, current motion pictures are used to help explain management concepts and leadership theories. Students watch the film or sections of a film and then discuss the main points covered in the film as it relates to lecture material. The instructor then administers a series of exercises that reinforces the lecture material and film. The use of film combined with exercises assists students in understanding theoretical concepts; the visual images stimulate their analysis and creativity while holding their attention.

GRADUATE EDUCATION

Graduate education at Kettering presents new opportunities and challenges. Most of the graduate classes at Kettering are delivered through a distance-based mechanism. All classes are taught on campus in state of the art classrooms with a live class and are videotaped, then distributed worldwide to students via videotape, CD-ROM, or video streaming. In one way, the delivery system is beneficial because the students see a lecture and a professor; it differs greatly from text-based distance learning approaches. However, there are also challenges because students are used to seeing far more interesting video than a 2 ½ hour lecture. Also, due to the three-camera placement, even the range of the lecturer's movement is severely

restricted. So, how do you hold their attention and facilitate learning?

One of the frequent activities in the Business to Business Marketing graduate course that is the use of small vignettes that will force students to apply the material just covered. This also helps to present information in short segments. The faculty member will read the vignette and then ask questions of the live class. If the class does not respond to the questions, the faculty needs to answer the question in a creative way. For example the faculty would respond by saying, "Did anyone think of . . . ? If you did, you are on the right track, but not quite there" "What about this idea . . . ? Let's dissect this idea." When dissecting this concept/idea, a PowerPoint visual is used to illustrate why the concept is the correct/incorrect answer to the problem.

Larger case studies are also used in the graduate class; brochures, advertisements and/or products from the case company are brought into class to illustrate points; questions are asked of the live class and a discussion occurs. Again if the class does not respond, the instructor needs to be creative in eliciting discussion.

Product demonstrations are particularly effective on camera for example, when discussing product development and why products "flop," the smokeless cigarette is used as an illustration. The cigarette is shown and dissected (so one can see the composition of the cigarette) along with the advertisements that were used in the test studies. Again the use of visual imagery is valuable and powerful.

In the Managing People and Technology graduate course, guest speakers and self assessment exercises are often used. The self-assessment exercises enable students to evaluate themselves, their leadership qualities, work culture, and peers and appeal to their interest in self knowledge. The change in the rhythm of learning from hearing to doing also provides a break

and engages attention again. Additionally, by providing a guest speaker to present and discuss real life management situation, the students have the ability to conceptualize and apply management/leadership concepts to their work life. They also experience a different voice and approach to the material.

The foundation course in Management is often regarded as a challenge because there is such a quantity of conceptual material to cover and some find the material, especially the historic aspects, to be dry. We have developed a different approach. As a supplement to the lecture, students view over 1,000 photographs, graphs, and other visual images presented within the PowerPoint format. Throughout the course, it is not only the concept that students hear about but also they see the people who developed the theory, the places where historic events took place, and the industrial conditions in which early management thought developed. The size of the files for each lecture is too large to be placed on Blackboard, our system for delivering documents and administering courses, so the students are given a CD-ROM of the visual images used in the course.

Students might ordinarily have difficulty remembering Scientific Management and standardized work, but when they see original photographs of Gilbreth's brick laying studies, Frederick Taylor as a baby, and the rail yard at Midvale Steel Company, the images reinforce the stories and the concepts so that the students understand and remember. People are familiar with the image of Maslow's hierarchy of needs and using it to illustrate his theory is good. But, by adding pictures of Maslow, his books, and the results of studies testing his theory we give students a series of visual images that play to their preferences and keep their attention. Seeing the women who took part in the Relay Assembly Test Room at Hawthorne, the actual room, the parts of the relay before assembly, the Hawthorne plant itself, and Elton Mayo help students to understand the beginnings of behavioral theory. Stories are good, examples of applications are better, but best of all is adding appropriate visuals and photographs to enhance the learning experience of the video generation. (Copies of the CD-ROM created for the Management course are available to any interested educator.)

SUMMARY

Sesame Street viewers have grown up and display and tend to react favorably to visual images and short messages. This presents challenges to the academic world.

The undergraduate and graduate level courses at Kettering University have responded to this generation by using visual images and short messages to capture this audience. Whenever possible product demonstrations, print and taped (video and audio) advertisements, brochures, pictures, movies, cases, vignettes, exercises, guest speakers, and photographs are used to enhance the learning of this video generation.

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MANAGING GROUP PROJECTS AND CLASS PARTICIPATION

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In many of today's upper level marketing courses, students are required to demonstrate their mastery of the subject material in the form of a group project. Projects, such as developing an advertising campaign, designing an online website, conducting market research, and presenting case studies, are commonplace course requirements in instructors syllabi. Students have become so bombarded with group projects that the grading scale and number of tests taken are becoming an afterthought to what type of project they will be responsible for during the semester.

Many of my former students stated that they would prefer to take a course with more rigor than one involving some sort of group project. When I probed students for reasons for such resentment regarding group projects, many stated an issue related to group dynamics. Specifically, negative experiences related to group projects centered on within group differences in individual personality characteristics. For example, some students had a poor work ethic or cared little about grades, while others reported problems with leadership, creativity and decision making capabilities.

Over the course of the past two years teaching a variety of marketing courses (i.e., Principles of Marketing, Retailing, Personal Selling), I have discovered a few things that seem to excite and motivate students to perform in group-related activities. Specifically, the following have been found useful in my classes for encouraging class participation and group dynamics:

To encourage class participation, I found an activity that allows students an opportunity to express their creative skills, as well as function as an in-class group activity. The activity involves asking each student to take a piece of paper out and draw a picture of a typical *NASCAR* fan. After a few minutes, I ask each student to share their picture with a group of students and have them list similarities between drawings. I then ask each group to write up a profile (age, sex, income, education, occupation etc.) based on these similarities that would be used for future marketing activities. Typically, student's perception of the target market of a *NASCAR* fan drastically differs from that of the true market based on *NASCAR's* fan profile located at [http://www.go2pro.org/profile.htm]. This exercise is especially useful in demonstrating the importance of target market research. I have continued to add activities related to drawing into my classes, each of which has received a positive response.

Show Me The Money

In my last retailing class, I assigned a group project involving the development of a new retail venture. In hopes of assuring some creative ideas, the class was told that although the project would account for a percentage of their grade, a monetary incentive would also be given to the team/person with the best idea. Thus, there was a tradeoff between more creative minds in a group versus splitting money between pockets. I placed a few rules for the project, (1) the product or service for sale must exist (this was

not a new product development class), (2) they only had $10,000 to budget, and (3) it must be legal. Each group provided an executive summary as a part of the assignment, which was copied and disseminated to all groups. Each group had a week to analyze each retail summary and rank/order them from best to worst. On the final week of class, students inputted rankings into an Excel spreadsheet and the winner was announced and prize awarded. I had some really good ideas and a few that have actually been introduced into the marketplace. Additionally, I would often bring in silver dollar coins and pass them out to students for correctly answering questions during class. Although some students are motivated by grades, I found that many students are motivated to pay attention and demonstrate creative ideas if small monetary incentives are offered.

Sell Me

Over the summer, I taught a course in Personal Selling for the first time. Due to the time restraint in a summer session, in-class activities that allowed students to get to know one another and demonstrate abilities prior to assigning groups was out of the question. Therefore, on the first day of class I asked each person to take a moment and list three personal strengths and weaknesses as a group member. I then had each student stand up before the class and sell themselves to the other classmates based on these strengths and weaknesses. Classmates were allowed to ask questions of one another until satisfied with responses. Students were then asked to list the top three students they would like to work with and groups were formed. This seemed like a good way to form groups in a short time period, as well as allow students to function in a buying/selling role.

Many instructors use ad-hoc procedures to select group membership. Whether it is based on seating location, alphabetical order on the role, major, or random number, many groups are put together because of convenience. Instructors use a variety of simple methods to form groups, even choosing candy types from a bag, because it is easy and convenient. Likewise, if you allow students to choose groups, many will either choose friends or people seated adjacent to themselves. Such forced grouping typically end in failure and misery for both the student and the instructor.

However, I have found that if you incorporate in-class activities at the beginning of the course, allowing students to demonstrate creativity, leadership and motivation to one another, students will actively become involved in selecting individuals they relate to. This eliminates the need for students to evaluate one another at the end of the project and typically produces a project atmosphere that encourages social interaction and teamwork.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING THE HUMAN TOUCH TO CULTIVATE AND RESPECT DIVERSE TALENTS AND WAYS OF LEARNING

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Principle 7. Respects Diverse Talents and Ways of Learning: *There are many roads to learning. People bring different talents and styles of learning to college. Brilliant students in the seminar room may be all thumbs in the lab or art studio. Students rich in hands-on experience may not do so well with them. Students need the opportunity to show their talents and learn in ways that work for them. Then they can be pushed to learn in new ways that do not come so easily* (Chickering and Gamson 1987).

The process of learning given the diverse talents of students. In the article Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education by Arthur W. Chickering and Zelda F. Gamson in the March 1987 AAHE Bulletin (http://aahebulletin.com/public/archive/sevenprinciplesl987.asp), each principle was developed and explained as to the impact on learning.

The challenge of a learning instructor (note the term "teacher" is avoided) is to cultivate and respect (and reward) diverse talents and ways of learning within the student. By using coercive, legitimate, and reward power, teachers can require conformance to given pre-ordained course requirements while alienating the students. Teaching might take place but learning might be inhibited. In contrast, a learning instructor utilizes expert and reference power to encourage students to explore the topic within a given construct but with a variety of methods for success. Although greater instructor effort is required, the results in terms of verifiable student work and involvement can be truly remarkable.

The seventh principle was utilized in the development of an introductory management course. Since a variety of topical areas had to be covered to meet AACSB standards in a core course, a standard text served as the course foundation. A worksheet was developed for each chapter such that each student had to develop answers to questions that corresponded to the text. These questions were designed to incorporate the topic into their own experiences and raise questions that spanned Bloom's taxonomy of learning *levels*. Completion of the assignment in advance of class was required and about 40 percent of the course reward was associated with the task. Given that everyone had completed the work prior to class, subsequent discussion allowed student learning through verbal expression of their own prepared thoughts. Further, other exercises were developed for class rather than merely repeat the homework. Thus, video cases were shown, demonstration exercises were

developed, internet projects demonstrated via in classroom equipment, and eventually tests given on the appropriate material.

Further, students were provided the opportunity to earn bonus points of up to 30% of their grade. If the required activities were not as motivating to their learning style, over 10 different activities were provided as substitutes or add-ons. These included reading popular books on the subject, taking personality tests, taking on-line quizzes from selected web sites, attending cultural events, attending business lectures and many others. The final results of the process have been dramatic. Verifiable student effort has increased dramatically and the grade distribution (and reward) to the student is high but with justifiable cause and with verifiable effort and achievement to justify the grades.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING TECHNOLOGY TO DEVELOP RECIPROCITY AND COOPERATION AMONG STUDENTS

Rob K. Larson, Luther College

Principle 2. Develops Reciprocity and Cooperation Among Students: Learning is enhanced when it is more like a team effort that a solo race. Good learning, like good work, is collaborative and social, not competitive and isolated. Working with others often increases involvement in learning. Sharing one's own ideas and responding to others' reactions sharpens thinking and deepens understanding (Chickering and Gamson 1987).

The perceived trade-off between high touch and high tech in learning environments is a red herring that can be used to mis-characterize uses of technology in teaching. While indeed circumstances exist where these are competing alternatives, more typically the use of classroom technologies can be a powerful tool to leverage resources in a teaching environment. Properly administered this leverage can complement existing classroom structure and improve student performance.

> "At the core of most critiques of American higher education is the assertion that effective education requires close working relationships between faculty and students. . . . If these critics are right, of equal importance to faculty teaching styles and practices within the classroom may well be the for-
mal and informal teaching activities that take place outside the classroom," (Wilson, p. 30).

In a number of situations the new delivery models for Higher Education have forced the creation and development of technologies and technology-based tools to accommodate distance learning, e-learning, and other non-traditional delivery systems. While these models have limitations they have accelerated the development of tools that can be integrated in traditional or non-traditional courses to enhance the learning process.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Technology can be used as a lever to advance a number of significant learning objectives that exist in most college courses. These include:

1. Enhance access to professors and classmates. Technology supports asynchronous meetings among students and between students and faculty affording access despite differing schedules for work. Web based discussions strings, email exchanges, electronic bulletin board all increase the access to and out of class availability of other participants from a structured learning setting.

2. Encourage and increase the free exchange of ideas between students. Posting a question that forces critical thinking is valuable. Setting that same question in a discussion string creates opportunities for students to respond to the thoughts and ideas of others and have their contributions critiqued in a setting where individuals with the capacity to respond most quickly or those with the greatest strength of personality do not dominate student exchanges. On a more controlled scale having students post a case or an essay in a smaller cooperative learning group and having the other members of the group provide feedback and evaluative comments can be accommodated very efficiently using a number of technical options. In all of these cases collections of data for assessment and measuring participation are easily accomplished.

3. Overcome distance barriers to exchanges. Even in a small residential college the reality of students living in different dorms or having differing schedules makes cooperative learning difficult. This is especially likely if the objective of creating interaction between diverse groups of students is important. Technology can minimize the need to limit out of class cooperative learning due to logistical issues. Obviously, in distance delivered or Internet based courses these barriers are more significant but just as valuable to eliminate.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR INCLUSION

1. Technology access and support. Unfortunately, not every student has sufficient access to Internet or network systems to allow adequate opportunity to engage in technology-based learning. Similarly, software tools such as WebCT™ and Blackboard™ are not a part of every college or university's infrastructure. Finally, even if there is access and appropriate tools the degree of training and support will vary in ways that may limit certain applications.

2. Availability of instructor. Discussion strings, writing critiques, email and other tools and techniques are wonderful tools to engage students. Assessment, feedback, responding, and monitoring can be very time consuming. Instructors need to realistically judge their capacity to take on new initiatives for their classes.

3. Discipline limitations. Not every academic discipline will benefit equally from inclusion of new technology-based tools. The applications for a laboratory science course will be very different from those for a literature course.

4. Type of skills and level of learning. The course level and expectations along with considerations of class size need to be considered when choosing to include technology tools. A sophomore foundations course has a different need and benefit from the use of technology tools that a senior seminar will have.

CONCLUSION

For the most part technology has played a limited role in changing the experience of college students. Calculations are easier to complete, papers can be processed more efficiently, and a host of conveniences are made possible by available technologies. It is when these new tools are used to improve the extent of critical learning that is acquired by students that the power of technology in education becomes evident. Collaborative and cooperative learning as instruments for making critical thinking and higher learning possible can be increased with proper use of technology. And not at the expense of high touch.

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A BASIC PRIMER FOR TEACHING ONLINE: LESSONS FOR THE FIRST-TIME TEACHER

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Universities are increasingly using online methods to meet the needs of a diverse student body. Business degrees and courses are especially popular, given the growing adult education market and job opportunities. However, effectively administering online courses can be a daunting task. In this paper, using our experiences in teaching several online marketing courses, we offer tips for improving the effectiveness of this method and compare/contrast the techniques to in-class delivery.

Getting Started

Once you've agreed to the challenge of teaching online, your choices include developing a course from scratch with materials you've accumulated and tested over time or using a turn-key program available from the platform supported by your institution (e.g., Blackboard, WebCT). Start up costs in terms of time and efforts are formidable. If you are not offered incentives such as overload pay or release time to develop a unique course, choosing an existing pre-packaged "e-pack" is the way to go.

E-Pack Selection

Assuming you have taught the course before and have a preferred text, research the availability of pre-packaged support materials. Otherwise, you must review publishers' offerings and limit your choice to a text with an online edition. Typically, the student must purchase access to these materials for an additional charge. They cannot simply purchase access to the support package and not purchase the text. Many publishers sell the text and access code together. Some bookstores prefer the "e-pack" be purchased separately for ease of buying back books at the end of the semester. Once an e-pack access code has been purchased, it cannot be re-used. Students have a better appreciation for the value of the access code when it is purchased separately. It is critical that tech support personnel at your university are available to help with loading the course onto the server and answering questions you and the students will have.

Require An Initial Orientation Meeting

All online students are encouraged to attend an orientation meeting on campus at the beginning of the semester, which means that students enter the courses with an understanding of WebCT (or other platform) and what it takes to succeed in an online course. Of course, if students are true distance learners, they should not be expected to travel and the materials offered to students at the orientation should be made available to the off campus students through email.

Get to Know Your Students

Online classes can be very impersonal; therefore, it is a good idea to spend time during the start of the semester getting to know the students on a more personal basis. Since the students do not have an opportunity to get to know you, a nice starting point is an informative

e-mail that discusses your professional background and some personal details. Students should be encouraged to respond with similar information. This information can be used to personalize communications for each student throughout the duration of the course.

In-Class versus Online Course Administration

When teaching multiple sections of the same course, most professors attempt to keep the course content and class administration similar. Regional electronic consortia and accrediting bodies require this, ensuring the integrity of the online course. (Faculty qualifications, contact hours, and course coverage of essential business content are held also to this standard.) Generally, the in-class section becomes the guide for the online section with chapter topics being covered during the same week and exam/assignment dates occurring at the same time. Although online classes are usually similar to in-class courses, there are still administration issues that are inherently different. For example, online students are not present for in-class lectures, therefore, it is often necessary to provide the students with E-lectures or attachments of well-crafted notes and illustrations. In addition, the typical class discussions must take the form of threaded discussions using a bulletin board or chat room available in the electronic medium. With students signing on and off at different times of the day and week, it is more difficult to generate enthusiasm via your physical presence. It is possible to personalize the learning experience for each student and address individual concerns privately.

Class Attendance and Participation

One problem with online courses is how to duplicate the in-class setting with respect to class attendance and participation. Discussions can be an excellent solution to this problem and can also serve as a way to enhance critical thinking skills. Because fellow students are often great learning resources, threaded discussions via the WebCT Discussion Board works well. Student responses are posted in a public arena that can be viewed by everyone in the class as well as the instructor.

Many students find the online discussions favorable to the in-class discussion counterpart. Students with introverted personalities do not have to worry about the pressure to discuss issues in front of a group of people. Also, everyone in the class has an equal opportunity to participate, unlike the face-to-face classroom where two or three students tend to dominate the discussions. In addition, students have more time to think about their answer, which ultimately results in higher quality discussions.

One of the authors requires students to respond to the "Discussion of the Week" via threaded discussions. Each week the students can post responses to a question that the professor has proposed. The questions are always relevant to the material being covered during that week. They are thought provoking questions that usually focus on hot topics or on concepts which students find difficult.

Many professors do not grade participation in any formalized way, however, in order to ensure quality discussions, it may be necessary to attach a grade to each discussion. One suggestion is to allot 2 points for each discussion. The grading scale is as follows: 0 = Unacceptable – no response, inadequate coverage of topic, or poorly written; 1= Needs Some Improvement – discussion is not fully developed or improvement in writing skills needed; 2 = Excellent – adequate coverage of topic, high quality response, and little or not grammatical mistakes. The grading merely requires a quick glance at the answers because comments or corrections to the mistakes are not made (that

is reserved for the application/written assignments). In addition, students are informed that the instructor expects the discussions to be concise, limiting a comment to one or two points, and the logic behind the comment should be included. The students are also required to end their dialogue with questions that generate more discussion from classmates.

Assessing Student Progress

It is important to use a range of criteria to assess students' performance. Reliance upon multiple-choice exams as the sole means of evaluation is discouraged in regular and online classes for obvious reasons. The almost instantaneous grading and reporting available with online testing materials is very tempting to use. Assuming course goals go beyond identification of concepts and include integration and critical thinking, other types of evaluation methods are necessary. Examples of assessments that may be included in an online class are application assignments, written assignments, timed or "take home" essay exams, participation via threaded discussions, and specified logon requirements (e.g., they must log onto WebCT a minimum of three times a week). Evaluating essay and lengthier assignments can be done online and returned to the student quicker than the traditional method. It does, however require being logged on while grading.

Two important observations should be noted here. Students who take online courses value convenience and flexibility and are generally more independent learners than many on campus students. They are more pro-active in their learning style and committed to the course without the benefit of physical interaction. At the same time, they may have the same testing phobias and communication challenges that other students have under examination. A timed exam produces anxiety in even the best prepared student, so other methods of testing are appreciated and elicit more and better information.

A second concern of distance educators is whether the student enrolled in the course is the same student participating online. The integrity of the course is somewhat compromised by the inability to absolutely identify the participants. How do I know that a student hasn't hired her roommate to sign in and take the test? How do I know a student doesn't have the book in his lap while he takes the online timed multiple-choice test?

Just as students find ways to cheat in class, the online course almost encourages it. What to do? By testing in multiple ways and assessing participation at regular intervals (and of course including the university's academic dishonesty policy in the syllabus), we do as much as we can in any course to promote ethical behavior. There are ways to determine if a student is taking advantage of the testing method by comparing quality of work over time, length of time taken to complete an exam, coding of assignments, and personalizing assignments. The time and energy expended to cheat is often greater than the time and energy that could have been devoted to learning the material.

Variable Subject Delivery

No two individuals learn in the same way, therefore it is important to utilize a subject delivery approach that is variable in nature and incorporates a variety of different learning processes. For face-to-face classes professors can use guest speakers, videos, in-class activities, group projects, exciting visual overheads, informative supplemental handouts, and writing assignments as supplements to the lectures. However, much of this is not easily transferable to the online setting. Still there are ways to enhance and individualize the learning experience for online

students. Often the e-packs include a host of educational supplements for the students such as flashcards, videos, educational games, sample exams, and links to informative Internet sites. References to these or links to literature obtained online (through the university library website, e.g.,) lead students to break out of the text and explore other sources.

The key is to pay close attention to the students and adjust the course accordingly. This can be done easily in an online setting because the instructor can solicit feedback from the students quickly and make adjustments to the course as necessary. For example, one of the authors realized early in the semester that students were nervous about taking a timed exam online. The solution was to simply supply them with a practice exam prior to the first graded exam. This eradicated much of their concerns and also eliminated many of the common problems that occur during the first online exam.

In conclusion, online classes can be valuable educational tools for any university. They allow universities to reach students who may not be able to take the traditional in-class courses. Favoring flexibility and convenience, many students are willing to enroll in these courses; and with the use of a good text supported e-pack, instructors may actually find online courses to be an enjoyable teaching experience. Granted, the instructor may have to think "out of the box" to find appropriate and controllable ways to provide the best educational experience. However, if managed effectively, on-line courses can be of the same quality as the regular in-class courses.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING TECHNOLOGY TO ENCOURAGE CONTACT BETWEEN STUDENTS AND FACULTY

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Principle 1: Good Practice Encourages Contacts Between Students and Faculty: *Frequent student-faculty contact in and out of classes* is the most important factor in student motivation and involvement. Faculty concern helps students get through rough times and keep on working. Knowing a few faculty members well enhances students' intellectual commitment and encourages them to think about their own values and future plans (Chickering and Gamson 1987).

Priniciple 1 of the Good Practice paradigm addresses a fundamental cornerstone of learning, ensuring that he channels of communication are open and operating, that is, leading the proverbial horse to water. It's possible for a horse to find its own way to the stream, but a determined leader and a strong lead rope will more quickly move the horse to the right location. When channels of communication are functioning well, students are more likely to be motivated and involved, and learning is more likely to occur.

Technology can have a tremendous positive impact on learning by engaging students in the communication process. In particular, technology can be used to overcome barriers to communication related to topic content, the instructor, the student, the delivery medium, and the environment. For example, in terms of content,

students may experience dislike or fear of a particular topic; technology can engage students to overcome that reluctance or fear. Technology can minimize instructors' teaching and students' learning peculiarities by removing personal inhibitors and inhibitions from the communication while retaining the ability to express passion and compassion. Technology can engage students, regardless of whether they are extroverted or introverted. Technology can facilitate breaking out of the traditional "classroom" delivery method, with its one "teller," many "hearers," and standard textbook, lecture, and examination tools. Technology can transcend the time and space constraints of place-bound education, allowing for student-faculty contact outside the classroom, as well.

Through technology, instructors can encourage contact with students in many ways. Classroom mediation (overhead projection, "visualizers," and computers in the classroom) have become commonplace. Multi-media presentation.s may be used to create opportunities for enhanced interaction among faculty and students in the classroom situation. Other imaginative uses of technology have gone farther in enabling contact: simulations, electronic conferencing, and directed use of Internet capabilities have also provided greater opportunities for faculty-student communication about learning. Further,

immediate response systems (e.g., CPS) have adapted the "blind" response technique to exciting classroom frameworks for faculty-student engagement.

Electronic mail messaging may be the most important addition to instructor-student communication in our lifetimes. This, combined with electronic databases and classroom management systems (e.g., Blackboard, WebCT), has enabled greater information sharing and communication by individual students and their instructors. Effects of these tools on the learning environment and, in particular, on faculty-student communication, is explored in this session.

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COLLEGE VARIABLES THAT INFLUENCE EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

Using various forms of experiential education to help students grasp the fundamentals of marketing is not a new practice. To assist higher education institutions in incorporating experiential education into the classroom, organizations such as the Johnson Foundation have developed guidelines for incorporating service components into the learning process. Among the Johnson Foundation's recommendations: "An effective program provides structured opportunities for people to reflect critically on their service experience . . . articulates clear service and learning goals for everyone involved . . . clarifies the responsibilities of each person and organization involved . . . expects genuine, active and sustained organizational commitment . . . insures that the time commitment for service and learning is flexible, appropriate, and in the best interests of all involved . . . ." (www.johnsonfdn. org/principles.html).

Many types of marketing projects (case studies, marketing plans, marketing research projects, etc.) meet the above-mentioned guidelines. More challenging, however, is identifying appropriate projects for different types of colleges and universities. Experiential education is not a "one size fits all" proposition. Several variables may affect an institution's ability to locate acceptable opportunities for all parties involved: the size and reputation of the school; whether the institution is public or private; religious affiliations; gender-specific target mar-

kets; and the school's location. Any and all of these factors may help or hamper a school's ability to benefit from experiential education.

SIZE AND REPUTATION

This is perhaps the most obvious variable that institutions must contend with. Well-recognized, large institutions stand a much better chance of attracting high-quality projects than lesser-known, small, regional colleges because of their connections to the community; however, smaller schools that are major employers in their communities (particularly small and/or rural communities) may enjoy the same benefits as their larger counterparts. Larger corporations are also more likely to be attracted to comparable higher education institutions, in effect encouraging a symbiotic relationship.

PUBLIC VS. PRIVATE

To some extent, this variable is correlated to size and reputation. Many private colleges are smaller than corresponding public institutions, and more private than public colleges are likely to struggle with financial and endowment issues since their sources of funding are usually tuition and donation-driven. This makes these institutions somewhat less desirable as sources for experiential education projects.

RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION

Religious affiliation is more likely to drive the agenda for experiential education than to dictate whether the institution can attract high-qual-

ity experiences. The tenets of the religion may dictate that experiential education be service-oriented, for example, or be targeted specifically to non-profit organizations. Likewise, it may rule out or strongly discourage certain types of projects (a marketing plan for Planned Parenthood, for example).

GENDER-SPECIFIC TARGET MARKETS

It is possible that colleges that serve either male or female students exclusively may be affected by gender stereotypes, both on the part of the students (in terms of the types of projects they seek) and on the project sponsors. For example, a football team may look to a men's college rather than a women's college for some marketing research.

LOCATION

Institutions located in major metropolitan areas will have a wider variety of project sponsors to choose from than colleges located in small towns or rural areas; however, small-town colleges may enjoy closer relationships with area businesses and organizations. Indeed, colleges in large cities may actually be denied access to projects at major corporations because of confidentiality issues.

CONCLUSION

Every college and university is unique, and as such, the types of experiential education they have to offer will also be unique. Institutions must be able to capitalize on the connections they have to identify projects that will meet the needs of all parties involved
In the education process.

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ACADEMIC PROGRAM ASSESSMENT: ONE DEPARTMENT'S MODEL

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Either as a part of accreditation review or simply as a part of self-evaluation, many academic programs are beginning to enhance their assessment of the knowledge and skills gained by students completing their studies in these programs. This assessment is typically done to determine the effectiveness of the courses, teachers and program, and to receive feedback in order to make any necessary changes or improvements. This paper presents a discussion of the assessment program implemented by one such academic program: the BBA Marketing program at Mississippi State University.

Assessment Objectives

In order to effectively assess an outcome, one must first determine what is to be assessed. Is it course specific content or more general knowledge? Knowing what is to be assessed is of the utmost importance in developing an assessment program. In the department being discussed, faculty members met to set a strategic plan for the department. This "meeting of the minds" produced seven learning to achieve. These include:

1. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the core concepts of marketing and the role of marketing in business and consumer lives.

2. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the methods of collecting, processing, and analyzing information about consumers to make informed marketing decisions.

3. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the psychological and sociological factors that influence consumers in making purchase decisions, and how these factors relate to the formation of effective marketing strategies.

4. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the effects of social, legal, ethical and technological forces on marketing decision-making.

5. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the detailed information about the marketing mix, its effective deployment, and impact on the performance of an organization.

6. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of how to communicate effectively and to work in teams.

7. Graduates will be able to demonstrate an understanding of how to utilize the steps involved in marketing planning and be able to create a marketing plan.

Assessment Tools

Since no single instrument can measure all seven of these outcomes, three separate assessments were developed and conducted in order to inves-

tigate these objectives. These incorporate a marketing proficiency examination, a capstone marketing plan project, and a student self-assessment survey. All are being conducted in conjunction with a student's enrollment in the required capstone course for the major.

The Examination

A marketing proficiency examination is used to measure the first five learning outcomes. The examination is comprised of questions contributed by several faculty members who teach different subjects. The questions are then identified as capturing one of the five learning outcomes in order to be used for program feedback. From these questions, an exam is compiled and then reviewed by several faculty members in order to insure the fairness of the questions (i.e., no question is specific to a particular teacher, class, or textbook). Students are given the incentive to give their best effort by making the proficiency exam count as 100% of the final course grade. The examination is pass/fail with a score of 70% or higher counting as a passing score. Students are allowed two opportunities to take the exam. All students take the examination at the same time in the same location just like any standardized test. Therefore, all students share a uniform introduction to the examination and testing experience. The results of the examination are then used to indicate to a student and the program any deficiencies. Feedback is shared with the faculty.

The Marketing Plan Project

The last two learning outcomes are assessed via capstone marketing plan that requires students to work in teams to develop an effective marketing plan. Students are then expected to demonstrate good communication skills by presenting their marketing plan to an audience of peers and outside reviewers. These plans are presented during class time to fellow classmates and a practicing (or retired) marketing professional.

Classmates and the external reviewer then provide feedback on the project to the teams. This plan counts as a substantial portion of the student's final grade in the capstone course.

Student Self-Assessment Survey

Finally, a student self-assessment survey is administered at the end of the capstone course and asks students to gauge their attainment of the program's learning outcomes. The Information obtained from this survey is then used to implement changes in course structure and content in order to improve the quality of the program. Elements of this program have been introduced over the past year, and have already began making an impact on course pre-requisites, advising and course content.

Accurate and timely assessment of the end product is becoming a requirement and necessity to insure quality output for any organization. This is also true for academic programs . . . especially when dealing with accreditation issues. This paper has presented highlights of the assessment program implemented in one department at one university. It should be noted that the three assessment instruments discussed are not at all exhaustive of several techniques an academic program might utilize (e.g., performance notebooks, purchased standardized assessment examinations). The most important issue when it comes to any assessment technique is clearly defining what is to be assessed. Once these objectives are set, the appropriate assessment techniques may become self-evident.

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HOW A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF PERCEPTIONS OF FAST FOOD RESTAURANTS IN PERTH, AUSTRALIA VERSUS SEATTLE, WASHINGTON WILL BENEFIT MARKETING CLASSES

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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses how a faculty member will administer surveys on fast food consumption in Perth, Australia and Seattle, Washington. The respondents will be asked to indicate their level of importance in these purchases for the variables including location, parking, prices, taste, nutritional value, menu variety, atmosphere, cleanliness, employee friendliness, employee competence, speed of service, and in-store promotions. The survey also asks respondents to measure their level of satisfaction with the fast food restaurant they patronize most often. This paper discusses how this research project will benefit the student who is writing the paper with the faculty member and how the information from the surveys will supplement class lectures.

INTRODUCTION

One way of bringing the real world into the classroom would be to involve the students in a research project. This paper addresses how I will conduct such a project on the fast food industry with a student in my international marketing class. Further, there is an explanation for why this would be an appropriate topic and reasons for selecting Australia.

Although a tremendous amount of research has been conducted on the fast food industry with many studies focusing on individual countries such as the United States and Australia, there are relatively few comparative studies of American and Australian consumption. For example, a study on food consumption in America revealed quick-casual chains such as Panera's and Applebee's has siphoned sales away from the fast food restaurants (Brumback 2002). In Australia juice bars are taking sales away from fast food restaurants (Milliner 2003) An article that does compare the consumption of fast food menu items in the United States versus Australia considers the sales of veggie burgers, apples, low-fat yogurt and muffins (Shoebridge 2003).

This research project investigates a comparison of consumer attitudes in Perth, Australia versus Seattle by measuring their perceptions of existing fast food restaurants and identifying fast food eating habits by determining the factors that are most important in selecting a fast food restaurant. The most important factors in Perth will be compared to those in Seattle. Cleanliness and taste are the two most important factors for selecting a fast food restaurant in Central Wisconsin (Meyers and Wallace 2003). A copy of the survey that will be administered in Perth appears in Appendix 1. A similar survey will be administered in Seattle.

The fast food industry was selected because of their large presence in both countries. In the

American market Subway has eclipsed McDonald's as the largest restaurant chain. There are 13,241 Subway stores and 12,999 McDonald's in the United States (www. subway.com). There are 5472 KFC restaurants in the United States. McDonald's is the largest franchiser in Australia with 730 restaurants. KFC is in second place with 496 restaurants and Subway is in third place with 455 restaurants (Murphy 2003).

Perth, Australia was selected for a variety of reasons. I am limited to English speaking countries for international research because I am not fluent in another language. Fluency in the language is required for this project because it entails administering surveys and speaking with members of the management team of the fast food restaurants.

Respondents in many foreign countries are often more reluctant to talk to strangers. Members of many foreign cultures are even more reluctant to discuss personal consumption habits and preferences than are Americans. Respondents in some foreign cultures feel obligated to give responses that will please the interviewer rather than state true opinions or feelings. This is seen as a form of politeness, but it obviously does not contribute to effective research because the respondents are not expressing their true feelings (Terpstra 2000). Australians tend to be very willing to fill out surveys and discuss their opinions with foreign visitors. This opinion is based on previous research conducted by me in Australia.

Another reason for selecting Australia is the fact that American companies often select Australia for their first foreign market introduction because of the similarities to the American market. Vanilla Coke is doing well in its initial internationals, which are Australia and New Zealand (The Coca Cola Company 2002 Annual Report).

Another reason for selecting Perth would be the fact that it is a mid sized city with a significant Asian population. It is important that the project compare cities with similar demographics.

Seattle is similar to Perth in terms of population and diversity. The population of Perth slightly exceeds 1,000,000. Asian people have settled in Perth by the thousands because they are attracted to the relaxed lifestyle and the proximity to home (Chow 1997). The population of Seattle exceeds 600,000 and the population of neighboring Tacoma is approximately 200,000 (www.Seattle.com). Although Asian Americans are a small percentage of the total American population, they represent a fast growing demographic in the Pacific Northwest that is becoming increasingly more important to retailers (DesJardins 2002).

METHODOLOGY

A convenience sample will be administered in Perth and Seattle by me. Thirty surveys will be administered in eight different sites in both cities. Areas in the Perth community to be surveyed include:

- University of Western Australia, the academic community.
- Fremantle, a creative community nine miles southwest of the city center.
- Armadale, a lower-middle class suburb southeast of the city.
- Subiaco, a trendy suburb north of Perth
- Scarborough, a family oriented residential suburb by the sea.
- Leederville, a middle class suburb.
- Chinatown, the Asian community.
- City Center, a conservative business area of the city.
- Eight different areas of the Seattle area will be identified at a future date.

Visits with members of the management team from the fast food restaurants will be invalu-

able in gaining additional insights into the marketing of fast food restaurants.

Some of the items that will be mentioned by respondents of the surveys will be discussed with the managers. Another topic to be addressed would be how the marketing strategies in the areas of in-store promotions, advertising, and pricing have been changed to meet the needs of the Australian culture. An example of an advertisement that was slightly modified would be the use of Mark Blackwell as Subway restaurant's weight loss hero in Australia, which was inspired by the success of Jared Fogel in the United States. The commercials are the same, but star different people (www.subway.com).

My research will involve eating at fast food restaurants to gain valuable insights in the role as a customer. The hands-on method will enable me to investigate menu options, in-store promotions, cleanliness, prices, etc.

BENEFITS OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT

The faculty member will be able to supplement many class lectures from this research project. The survey could be used when the professor is covering the marketing research chapter in the rinci Jes of marketing course. Further the students could be resented with the results of the surveys. An interesting class assignment could consist of making recommendations based on the results. The students could identify marketing strategies to help increase sales for fast food restaurants.

There are many ways that the international marketing lectures could be supplemented by discussing some of the aspects of this project. The professor could give specific examples of where changes were made to meet the needs of the Australian market. For example, earlier in this paper it was mentioned Mark Blackwell has been used as Subway's weight Joss hero in Australia. This was based on the success of Jared in America.

There would be cultural diversity topics that could be incorporated into the lectures. The paper does explore how different races perceive fast food options. It would be interesting to see if there are differences between the Asians and the Caucasians. A more detailed analysis would determine if the younger Asians have different perceptions from the older ones.

There would be tremendous benefits for the student working on the research project with the professor. The student will be involved with the statistical analysis of the data. The student and the professor will spend hours studying the results. They will jointly write the paper. An added benefit would be the professor and the student presenting the paper at a national academic conference. The student has plans to pursue further education to enable her to have the qualifications to become a marketing professor. If would be great experience for her to present a paper at an academic conference while she is pursuing an undergraduate degree.

FUTURE RESEARCH

My plan is write a paper comparing the perceptions of fast food restaurants in Montreal versus Toronto. It will be interesting to determine if the perceptions in Toronto are different from French speaking Montreal. A grant might be able to cover the expenses of taking a student with me to the different sites to help with the research.

AUSTRALIA FAST FOOD SURVEY

How many times in a typical month are you a customer of fast food restaurants?

__ never (terminate)
__ 1–2
__ 3–4
__ 5–6
__ 7 or more

Which fast food restaurant do you patronize most often?

__ Hungry Jack's
__ Chicken Treat
__ Mr. Bird's
__ Dome
__ KFC
__ McDonald's
__ Red Rooster
__ Wendy's
__ Other_____
   (please specify)

Please indicate how important the following variables are to you when visiting a fast food restaurant on a scale of 1 to 5. A 1 indicates that it is very unimportant and a 5 indicates that it is very important

	Very Unimportant				Very Important
Convenient Location	1	2	3	4	5
Parking	1	2	3	4	5
Prices	1	2	3	4	5
Taste	1	2	3	4	5
Nutritional Value	1	2	3	4	5
Menu (Variety)	1	2	3	4	5
Atmosphere	1	2	3	4	5
Cleanliness	1	2	3	4	5
Friendly Employees	1	2	3	4	5
Employee Competence	1	2	3	4	5
Speed of Service	1	2	3	4	5
In-store Promotions	1	2	3	4	5

Please evaluate the fast food restaurant you patronize most often for the following variables on a scale of 1 to 5. A rating of 1 indicates it is poor and a rating of 5 indicates it is excellent.

	Poor				**Excellent**
Location	1	2	3	4	5
Parking	1	2	3	4	5
Prices	1	2	3	4	5
Taste (Quality)	1	2	3	4	5
Nutritional Value	1	2	3	4	5
Menu (Variety)	1	2	3	4	5
Atmosphere	1	2	3	4	5
Cleanliness	1	2	3	4	5
Friendly Employees	1	2	3	4	5
Employee Competence	1	2	3	4	5
Timeliness of Service (Speed)	1	2	3	4	5
In-store Promotions	1	2	3	4	5

What percent of the time do you use the "drive thru" service when patronizing fast food restaurants?

__ It doesn't offer "drive thru" services.
__ Never
__ Less than 20%
__ 20–40%
__ 41–60%
__ 61–80%
__ Over80%

Please answer the following demographic questions.

What is your gender?
__ male
__ female

What is your age?

__ 8–29
__ 30–39
__ 40–49
__ 50–59
__ 60–69
__ 70 and older

What is your annual household income?

__ Below $20,000
__ $20,000 – 39,999
__ $40,000 – 59,999
__ $60,000 – 79,999
__ $80,000- 99,999
__ $100,000 and above

How many children do you have living at home?

__ 0
__ 1
__ 2
__ 3
__ 4 and more

What is your ethnic background?

__ Caucasian
__ Aboriginal
__ Asian
__ African
__ Other (please specify) _____

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING TECHNOLOGY AND HUMAN TOUCH IN COMMUNICATING HIGH EXPECTATIONS

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Principle 6. Communicates High Expectations: Expect more and you will get more. High expectations are important for everyone R for the poorly prepared, for those unwilling to exert themselves, and for the bright and well motivated. Expecting students to pe1jorm well becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy when teachers and institutions hold high expectations for themselves and make extra efforts (Chickering and Gamson 1987).

"Practice what you preach" . . . or is that teach? This phrase often enters my mind as I lecture the "principles of marketing" to over 500 students each semester. Marketing theory might suggest that I "treat the students as customers," or "build long term relationships." And though I certainly fall short in this regard, when it comes to the topic of *expectations,* the notion of practice and preach becomes one in the same.

In this session, we will address the topic of communicating high expectations. Both authors will discuss their "winning" formulas, where one perspective is predominately technology driven and the other emphasizes a more personalized approach. Of particular interest may be the unexpected twist of marrying a technology approach in a small classroom setting (i.e., 35 students or less), coupled with using a personalized approach in a large classroom setting (i.e., 200 students plus). In addition, the discussion will address differing expectations associated with a marketing course required by all business students versus an elective offered to marketing majors and other interested individuals. Below is a sample of the topics to be discussed:

♦ Syllabus: online versus newsletter style, detailed reading, syllabus quiz.
♦ Student Profile Sheet.
♦ Sympathy Cards.
♦ Marketing Bulletin Board.
♦ Marketing News.
♦ Participation.
♦ Group Activities.
♦ Exams: Essay versus Scantron.
♦ Communication: webpage, in person, office hours, weekly email newsletter.
♦ Assignments: email versus hand collected.
♦ Grades: posted versus personalized.
♦ Academic Misconduct.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING HUMAN TOUCH TO DEVELOP RECIPROCITY AND COOPERATION AMONG STUDENTS

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Principle 2. Develops Reciprocity and Cooperation Among Students: *Learning is enhanced when it is more like a team effort than a solo race. Good learning, like good work, is collaborative and social, not competitive and isolated. Working with others often increases involvement in learning. Sharing one's own ideas and responding to others' reactions sharpens thinking and deepens understanding* (Chickering and Gamson 1987; Chickering and Ehrmann 1996).

Cooperation among students was deemed one of the seven principles of good practice for undergraduate education based on considerable evidence that collaborative work enhances student learning (Chickering and Gamson 1987). Assignments that students complete in groups can have a number of strong pedagogical and motivational advantages including the power of peer interaction. As Astin (1996) states after completing a comprehensive study of factors influencing college student learning, ". . . the peer group is powerful because it has the capacity to *involve* the student more intensely in the educational experience" (p. 126).

A variety of activities can be designed to foster cooperation among students. A number of these are outlined below.

1. The creation of a cooperative environment is a precursor to facilitating cooperation among students. This begins the first day of class by engaging in activities designed to promote interaction among students. While having students introduce themselves is one way to accomplish this, actively engaging students in the introduction of each other increases their participation and encourages cooperation and involved, active learning from day one. Examples of ways to do this include: (a) Put students in pairs and have them interview each other. This can be accomplished using a structured interview form or in a more unstructured manner. After the interviews are complete, the class comes together and each student is responsible for introducing their "partner"; (b) Advise students that they have 15 minutes to meet and interview five other students in the class that they do not already know, obtaining such information as name, hometown, adjectives that describe them, their best and/or worst trait, etc. Once the interviews are complete, the class comes together and students are asked to introduce one person they interviewed.

2. The use of informal learning groups is a wonderful way to develop cooperation among students and is consistent with the creation of an involved, active learning environment. As suggested by Davis (1993), informal groups are "'ad hoc' temporary

clustering of students within a single class session" (p. 147). Students are put into pairs, threesomes or larger groups of 4–5 and given a specific assignment to complete that typically involves the application or integration of a concept(s) previously discussed in class or in the text. Pairs or groups are changed with each assignment. This results in students getting to know a number of their classmates which facilitates informal learning groups outside of class.   To further foster interdependence among larger groups, each is given only one copy of the assignment. Members are advised to take on different roles such as reader, recorder, time keeper, leader and facilitator. Groups are developing critical problem solving skills including listening, formulating ideas, receiving feedback and responding to questions and comments (Johnson 1971). The group discussion helps students clarify ideas and the debates that often occur within groups stimulates critical thinking. This is quite different than the level of involvement of the student who listens and takes notes during a lecture.

3. To keep students on task in informal groups, one written copy of the completed assignment is collected and graded as well as a class discussion. (To keep grading simple, I generally use a 4-point system where 3 = outstanding, 2 = acceptable, 1 = unacceptable and 0 is reserved for those students who were not in class and therefore did not participate in the activity.) Depending on the assignment, groups are sometimes required to make a presentation of their results to the class. The level of discussion of the entire class is enhanced when students first have the opportunity to develop their ideas and receive feedback within their groups.

4. Informal learning groups are also invaluable when it comes to studying for exams or completing out-of- class homework or other assignments. Even for individual assignment, students are encouraged to work with other students as long as the actual write-up of the assignment is completed on an individual basis. Students who have participated in informal groups in class, often work together outside of class. Students are strongly encouraged to study together for exams. Students having difficulty with a class often benefit from the explanation of a concept that can be provided by another student while better students solidify their understanding of a concept in the in the process of explaining it to their peers.

5. Formal learning groups in which students are assigned to teams to complete a specific assignment or project outside of class are another mechanism to foster cooperation among students. Unfortunately, many students are unfamiliar with effective ways of participating on such teams. Faculty are advised to provide guidance, to students with respect to having meeting agendas, delegating responsibilities.

6. Another mechanism to foster cooperation among students that was recently attempted at my institution for the often dreaded marketing research class was the use of a student tutor. A student who successfully completed the marketing research course the prior semester was available to meet with students for a few hours a week to discuss whatever questions students had regarding the material and/or assignments. The instructor provided the tutor with the assignments and discussed anticipated questions students might have. The tutor was also provided guidelines as to what would or would not be appropriate involvement on her part. Feedback on the part of both the students and the tutor were extremely positive.

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USING CASES IN LARGE SECTIONS OF SALES MANAGEMENT

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INTRODUCTION

For many faculty members, integrating cases into large sections of classes can be a daunting challenge. This challenge can be magnified when the material included in the class is relatively new and difficult for the students. These two aspects increase the demand on the instructor to explain the material included in the text, thereby reducing time for in-class case discussions. Nevertheless, it seems that cases and case discussion are one means by which students can gain considerable amounts of application knowledge, while simultaneously learning the material provided. Thus, cases represent a true opportunity for students to gain some level of practical experience in a classroom setting.

CHALLENGES OF USING CASES

One of the key challenges of integrating cases into classes seems to be one of garnering the participation of all students in the class. As the class size increases, the opportunity for students to hide increases and the professor's ability to control participation by all students decreases. One factor that may facilitate the student's anonymity can be attributed to the fact that in large classes the professor often does not know all of his/her students. Thus, professors may often engage in "easy teaching" by selecting for participation only those students he/she can identify and those who volunteer (the two groups often overlap).

A second challenge in using cases is encouraging case completion by all students in the class

and/or group. While numerous methods exist to encourage completion, most require greater efforts on the part of the professor. For example, requiring all students to submit written case evaluations requires that the professor (or an assistant) evaluate each student's case evaluation. Having cases presented individually, while an excellent idea, requires that the professor take the time and effort to assign different cases to each individual. The extra efforts required by these activities are magnified in large classes.

A third challenge encountered in using cases in classes entails the selection of the cases. Many cases are available for use in a variety of classes. However, the practical usefulness of many cases varies. For example, some cases provide exceptional opportunities for illustrating difficult concepts and for challenging the student's ability to resolve complex issues. In general, these cases are quite long, detailed, and complex. On the opposite end of the continuum, are cases that are very brief, to the point, where the answers seem exceptionally simple to identify. In using the complex and long cases, professors find that fewer cases can be assigned, fewer students get involved in the discussion and perhaps fewer students actually read the case and provide well-conceived solutions. Again, each of these problems is amplified as the class expands in size.

SOLUTIONS TO THE CHALLENGES

One of the reasons students may seek anonymity can be attributed to the perceived threats to their ego that exist when participating in the class. By getting to know all of the students in

his/her classes, professors can encourage (i.e., require) participation by all members of the class. When all members of a class are regularly participating, some of the stigma attached to in-class involvement may be reduced. Thus, professors should require active participation by all members of the class and minimize the monopolizing of time by a few key students.

The second problem is more difficult to resolve, as it often seems difficult to discern a student's relative contribution to a group case assignment. Moreover, it frequently is not practical to assign cases to each student individually. Correspondingly, even if it were practical to assign individual cases, students may still plagiarize their comments from other students who have been assigned the same case. One possible solution entails the assignment of "unique" cases to smaller groups of students. If the professor can provide "unique" case assignments to smaller groups of students on a relatively frequent basis, one could argue that the noncontributing student will eventually be exposed.

Exposure may be the result of either the student's peers tiring of the "freeloading antics" of the noncontributing member or the student's recognition that he/she must participate in order to attain the grade they desire in the class.

The final problem often entails a sort of compromise. One method of compromising entails the professor's either finding more "short" cases that present several rather challenging problems; or using fewer "long" cases that provide the instructional rigor desired.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, using cases in larger courses will always be a challenging pedagogical issue. However, the alternative of relying on lecture alone, may not be in the students' best interests. Thus, by recognizing the challenges that are incumbent in integrating cases into one's courses, the professor is more capable of dealing with them effectively and maximizing the benefits that may accrue with casework.

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PROJECT EMKT: AN ASSIGNMENT DESIGNED TO FAMILIARIZE INTRODUCTORY MARKETING STUDENTS WITH E-MARKETING RESOURCES AND APPLICATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Online marketing-related information and applications have proliferated as usage of the World Wide Web has expanded. In addition, students are becoming more adept at the use of the Internet. When taken together, these two factors almost demand that introductory instructors incorporate the use of web-based sites related to marketing both in the classroom and in out-of-class assignments. This paper addresses efficient and effective ways to enhance learning and assessment by using an Internet-based project designed to familiarize students with marketing-related websites, while reinforcing topics typically encountered in the introductory marketing course. We also provide a scoring guide for use in evaluating students' project reports.

Project eMkt: An Assignment Designed to Familiarize Introductory Marketing Students with e-Marketing Resources and Applications

E-business revenues have continued to increase over the past several years, despite the downturn in the technology sector at the beginning of this decade. The compound annual growth rate of online retail revenues was almost 68 percent between 1999 and 2002. While this rate is skewed to the high side by an astounding rate of growth in 1999 (275%), the face that e-retailing revenues grew by 21.0 percent during 2002 and by 25.0 percent during 2003 demonstrates that the upward trend continues (eMarketer 2002; Gatti 2004). Projections of revenue growth in some retail categories are even more impressive: health and beauty – 61 percent; apparel – 42 percent; flowers, cards and gifts –41 percent (eMarketer 2004a). Spending for online ads has also shown impressive and steady growth: from $1.45 billion in Q3 of2002 to $2.30 billion in Q1 of 2004 (eMarketer 2004b).

Added to the growth of e-business is the fact that students have generally become more comfortable with the use of technology and particularly with the use of the Internet. In combination, these two factors almost mandate that instructors of most business classes incorporate the use of the Internet in their in-class presentations as well as their out-of-class assignments. Because of the wide assortment of online resources, the problem facing instructors who want to incorporate Web exposure is not one of locating resources; instead, we view it as one of deciding on efficient and effective ways to use a set of resources to enhance student learning by providing authentic tasks. Although articles describing business-related websites have been published over the past several years (examples

include Pettijohn 1996a and 1996b), it is our observation that few of these works propose how a particular selection of these sites might be used in the typical introductory marketing course. We attempt to provide at least one solution to this problem by discussing a project designed to acquaint students with online marketing-related information and applications, while reinforcing topics typically encountered in the introductory marketing course. It also employs presents a scoring guide for use in the evaluation of the project.

Purposes of the Project

The project that we describe here has three primary purposes, each of which is related to the subject matter of the typical introductory marketing course: to acquaint students with online marketing-related information and applications; to reinforce, enhance, and bring real world applications into students' learning experiences with respect to a number of topics covered in their textbook and in the course; to assist students in becoming more adept in using Internet resources as research tools.

We believe that promoting student attainment of these purposes increases the range of learning opportunities available to them during the course. In turn, this involvement provides students hands-on experience working with Internet sites and applies real world concepts that often are merely described in the pages of the typical introductory marketing textbook.

The Project Overview

Most introductory marketing textbooks are arranged in units that discuss the environment and functions of marketing. A typical organization of these units is as follows:

♦ The economic, global, and ethical environments of marketing. Market analysis and buyer behavior.
♦ Product strategies.
♦ Distribution strategies. Promotional strategies. Pricing strategies.

"Project eMkt," as we have named the assignment we describe in this paper, is divided into several sections, each of which is related to one or more of the units and/or topics listed above. (Additionally, we have included a section that requires a professional presentation of the project in order for it to be graded.) Each section, in turn, is designed to expose students to one or more sources of online marketing-related information and/or applications. We provide students with a Web-based version of the project assignment so that they may easily access hyperlinks to the appropriate websites. The reader of this paper can view a recent example of the project and access the hyperlinks to which it refers at the following URL: http://courses.smsu.edu/jbp225:flmkt/emkt.htm.

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CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS USING LISREL

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Suppose a researcher conducts an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using a statistical package such as SPSS. The EFA reveals that each of the theorized related items did indeed load on the factors they were supposed to load on, and none of the items wanted to load on any other factors. If the researcher closely examines this output, he may see that while item 1 loaded properly on factor number 1, for example, there are still small correlations that exist in the columns for factors 2, 3, 4, and 5. The use of LISREL as a statistical tool to conduct confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a very stringent test of the researcher's theorized model. It places zero constraints on the relationship between item 1 and factor 2, for example. Therefore, while the EFA provided high factor loadings for the items that were supposed to be related, this relationship may not hold when submitted to the more stringent requirement of a zero correlation of that item with another factor.

The use of CFA with LISREL is similar to a set of inter-related springs; if one of the springs is "off," then the entire spring system will be affected. This is the same occurrence with LISREL. If one aspect of the measurement model is incorrect, the entire model will be affected. Suppose part of our model resembled the following:

Once the researcher understands that his model failed to hold when subjected to the more stringent test of CFA using LISREL, he can look to the LISREL output for suggestions as to how the model might be improved in order to obtain a better fit to his data. The statistics associated with the lambda-x (ex) matrices will point to any measurement problems that could be cleaned up in order to provide a better model fit.

The researcher should start by examining the squared multiple correlations (SMC 's) for each item. The SMC is defined as the percentage of variance in x that is explained by the latent construct with which x is associated. The SMC, denoted by the formula (ex 2 (var KSI)/(var x)), indicates an individual item reliability for each of the measures. The researcher wants to see
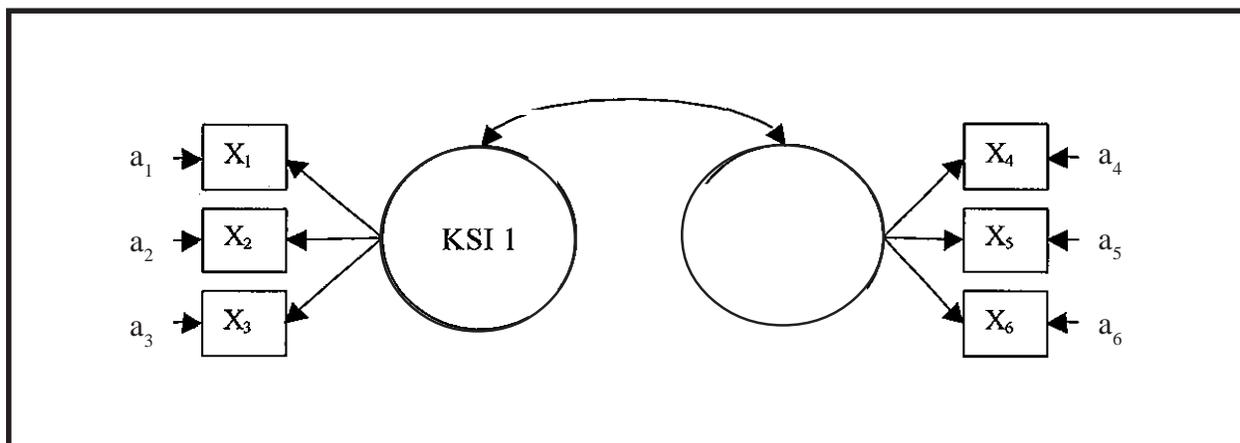
SMC's for each item of at least 0.50. If there are any SMC's lower than 0.50, this means that over half the time, this item wants to be associated with other constructs rather than the construct it is supposed to be associated with. In other words, if a low SMC is observed, the researcher can conclude that the item did a poor job in adequately capturing the construct with which it is supposed to be associated. If the researcher observes high SMC's for all of the items purported to go with a particular construct, this can be considered evidence of convergent validity (defined as the extent to which items that are supposed to go together do indeed go together).

The next consideration for the researcher should be to examine the modification indices (Ml's) associated with $\ddot{e}_x$. A statistically significant number in this matrix (anything above 3.84, but 5 is used as a practical cutoff) is an indication of a lack of evidence of discriminant validity (defined as the extent to which measures that are not supposed to go together actually do not go together). For example, a partial MI $\ddot{e}_x$ matrix associated with the above model could produce these results:

	KSI 1	KSI 2
X1	———	41.23
X2	———	1.08
X3	———	0.93
X4	1.23	———
X5	12.78	———
X6	0.43	———

The statistically significant number in row 1, column 2 means th item X1, which is supposed to be associated with KSI 1, also wants to associate with KSI 2. Also, the number in row 5, column 1means that X5 really wants to associate with KSI 1. These high MI's represent evidence that these two measures may not possess discriminant validity. If this scenario actually existed, the researcher would want to refer back to his definitions of each of the constructs to make sure that each construct truly captures different traits or events. The definitions, provided they are complete, should also aid in determining if the items crafted are truly reflective of only the construct they are supposed to represent.

After an examination of the MI's for $\ddot{e}_x$, the researcher could turn to an examination of the Ml's for theta-delta ( ). This matrix will indicate to the researcher any error terms for items that want to correlate with error terms for other items. A partial MI $\ddot{e}_x$ matrix associated with the above model might produce these results:

As anything above 3.84 is significant, the above matrix indicates that there is a problem between X2 and X3, and between X5 and X_1. The general factor analytic measurement model, $x = lx + d$, clearly states that the variance of item x comes from two and only two sources: the latent construct, and random error. These two high MI's mean that there is something else going on between X2 and X3, for example, besides the latent construct and random error. While some researchers justify within-construct error correlations (X_2 and X3), they may have a more difficult time justifying why two items associated with different constructs should be allowed to correlate (here, X_1 and X5). These error term

	Xl	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6
Xl	———					
X2	0.23	———				
X3	0.10	9.80	———			
X4	1.15	0.46	0.89	———		
X5	10.80	0.65	1.42	1.32	———	
X6	0.67	0.88	0.34	0.23	0.32	———

correlations signify evidence that the model may not possess construct validity, defined as the degree to which measures assess the construct they are purported to assess.

If the MI's do indicate problems with error term correlations or with items wanting to associate with other factors, the first step the researcher should take is to go back and carefully examine the definitions for the problematic constructs. For example, if one of the items has a low SMC, instead of simply deleting that item, the researcher should carefully examine the item in the context of the construct definition to understand why that item did not properly reflect the entire construct. Similarly, if the MI's show signs of error term correlations, the researcher should go back and carefully examine the two problematic items to determine what else is going on between the items that would make them want to correlate more than what is being allowed by the model.

By first understanding and then correcting measurement problems, instead of just simply adjusting a model according to the MI's, researchers will gain a deeper understanding of their constructs and be able to create more accurate theoretical models of how they are related.

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THE APPLICATION OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING IN MARKETING COURSES WITHIN A MANAGEMENT MAJOR

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ABSTRACT

Experiential learning provides opportunities for students to put in to practice marketing theories and concepts learned in the classroom. This study examines an experiential learning model along with the supporting implementation practices at the College of St. Benedict and St. John's University.

INTRODUCTION

Experiential learning is becoming widely established as a means to gain academic credit in a management major. Experiential learning is generally accepted to include the gaining of knowledge, applying the knowledge through an activity, and reflecting through a thoughtful analysis and assessment of how the activity contributes to personal growth. This learning is facilitated when the student participates actively in the learning process and has control over its nature and direction (Rogers & Freiberg).

LEARNING MODEL

An experiential learning model should attempt to:

♦ Identify the learning acquired through activities incorporated in a structured program.
♦ Examine the meaning of experiential learning and understand how such learning is relevant to the goals or academic degree of the student.
♦ Establish effective ways to document evidence that the student has participated in the learning experience.
♦ Measure the extent and character of the learning acquired so as to ensure equity among students who undertake an experiential learning component as part of their education.
♦ Define experiential learning standards, evaluate whether the learning meets an acceptable standard, and determine its credit equivalence.
♦ Keep adequate record keeping that will recognize the learning (Willingham, Burns, and Donlon).

PROCEDURE

The College of St. Benedict and St. John University's management department has long explored possibilities to encourage our students to gain experience in a variety of fashions. Typically, CSB/SJU students attempt experiential learning during their third or fourth years.

Management majors must complete at least four credits toward experiential learning as a discrete component of the major. Students may complete several projects if the learning is compatible with their coursework at the colleges. Students may also integrate experiential learning within a course. Current experiential learning for credit alternatives include: study abroad, practicums, internships, "Students in Free Enterprise" participation, and "Students for the Advancement

of Management" participation. Service learning provides a useful example of how experiential learning can be incorporated within a course offering.

CSB/SJU attempts to meet the experiential learning objectives by using common procedures in all projects. Students complete a contract between three parties: themselves, a site supervisor, and their faculty moderator. The contract for each project is self designed by the student with assistance from the other two parties. The contract specifies the learning goals of the student, including the relevance to their courses and academic degree. Students then describe the activities they will perform that will allow them to reach their goals. Then students describe the documentation they will be turning in to the faculty moderator. Documentation could include, but is not limited to: progress reports, reflections on academic readings, site visits, journals, reflection papers, and portfolios that all demonstrate growth and learning.

Communication within the management department and with respective support offices ensure that learning is of an acceptable standard and is equitable for each student's experience and for the amount of credit for which they have enrolled. An Experiential Learning Advisory Board facilitates discussion and provides feedback to faculty on the respective campuses.

CONCLUSIONS:

Experiential learning is most likely to succeed when it has a purpose in the curriculum is relevant to all parties, and enhances academic learning by integrating the student's education with their experience. These programs provide students with the opportunity to gain hands-on experience and learn new skills, explore a profession, apply and test theories and methods learned in the classroom, and develop a working knowledge of an organization's structure and operations.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRADES AND THE STUDENT EVALUATION OF INSTRUCTION: A TEST OF THE ATTRIBUTION HYPOTHESIS

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ABSTRACT

Extensive research has shown that there is a relationship between the grades given to students and evaluations students give to their instructors. A vigorous debate has ensued about the reason for this relationship. One explanation has been attribution. The current study looks at four predictions made by this hypothesis and finds little evidence for attribution as an explanation of the grade/evaluation effect.

Almost all marketing instructors are evaluated regularly by their students, and the students' perceptions can have consequences for pay, promotion, and tenure. It is understandable, therefore, that the student evaluation of teaching (SET) has been of interest to many marketing educators. In literally hundreds of studies, one finding continues to re-appear. There is an association between grades that an instructor gives and the evaluations students give to the instructor. This relationship has implication for the validity of the SET process. The present study expands this discussion by looking at one area of the grade/evaluation effect which both sides of the issue find in common; i.e., the effects of attribution on the strength of the relationship between grades and evaluations.

WHAT IS CURRENTLY KNOWN?

Many instructors and students believe that there is a relationship between the grades they give and evaluations students give to them (e.g., Birnbaum 2000; Goldman 1985; Redding 1998; Ryan, Anderson, and Birchler 1980; Simpson and Siguaw 2000).

A vigorous debate has developed about the accuracy of this belief. Early studies found a grade/evaluation relationship (see Feldman 1976; Johnson 2003; Stumpf and Freedman 1979 for extensive reviews), but some data indicated that it might be a statistical artifact (Seiver 1983). Recently, Marsh and Roche (1999) referred to the idea that lower grades would result in lower student teacher evaluations as only a "presumption." Gillmore and Greenwald (1999), however, reported that out of six published studies that manipulated grading leniency in actual classrooms, all found higher evaluations from students in the more lenient conditions. They also reported that the correlations between expected grade and the evaluation, in three studies at the University of Washington, ranged from .38 to .50. In business classes, lenient-grading instructors generally receive higher evaluations (Bacon and Novotny

2002). Further, the grades students expect to receive have been found to create a highly significant difference in the evaluations of business instructors (Goldberg and Callahan 1991). The final course grade has also been shown to have a negative impact on the evaluations (Bharadwaj, Futrell, and Kantak 1993). Marsh, Hau, Chung, and Siu (1997) found a significant difference between the grades students indicated they received from those instructors chosen as "good" and "poor" teachers. While they found that course grades were positively correlated with the students' perception of learning, they were negatively correlated with rigor. Wilhelm (2004) compared course evaluations, course worth, grading leniency, and course workload as factors of business students choosing classes.

A conjoint analysis showed that, ". . . students are I 0 times more likely to choose a course with a lenient grader, all else being equal" (p. 24). Marsh and Roche (2000) responded in a long article in *The Journal of Educational Psychology,* questioning the accuracy of Gillmore and Greenwald's findings while showing no grade/ evaluation relationship due to grading leniency in their own study. Johnson (2003) countered with a large study conducted at Duke University, which found a distinct effect that he attributes to grade leniency. Johnson maintains that everyone, except certain insiders in the colleges of education, *knows* that the relationship exists. He implies that some of the researchers claiming no relationship have financial and professional interests in the SET process that would be harmed if the instruments were found to be invalid.

THEORIES

Several hypotheses have been proposed to account for the relationship between grades and SET (e.g., Stumpf and Freedman 1979; Greenwald and Gillmore 1997; Johnson 2003; Marsh and Roche 1999; Marsh and Roche 2000). They include *grading leniency,* which

states that, ". . . students will reward teachers who grade leniently with higher teacher and course evaluations" (Bacon and Novotny 2002, p. 5). An *interaction with prior characteristics* hypothesis states that the leniency effect appears to exist, but it is not real. It occurs either as a statistical artifact of other determining variables, or is largely modified to the point of practical insignificance by intervening variables. These could include the rigor of the instructor's grading policies, class workloads, and prior student interest in the class. A favorite hypothesis of those defending SET is the *teaching effectiveness* hypothesis. This states that teaching effectiveness influences both the evaluations and the grades. Good instructors create positive learning environments that are reflected in more positive grades. The *motivation* hypothesis states that the students' level of motivation influences both evaluations and grades. More highly motivated students are expected to do better academically and to more appreciate the efforts of the instructor. Certain instructors may attract motivated students or be better at motivating students than other instructors.

Surprisingly, there is one hypothesis that Gillmore and Greenwald (1999), Marsh and Roche (2000), and Johnson (2003) all agree on. They all find some evidence for an *attribution effect.* Since learning and achievement are difficult for students to evaluate (Kennedy, Lawton, and Plumlee 2002), they may infer the ability of the instructor to teach, and their level of learning, from the grade they receive (Snyder and Clair 1976).

Attribution is seen as a psychological variable that predisposes students to attribute good grades to themselves and poor grades to an external source, i.e., the teacher. Thus students getting a good grade would attribute it to their own good performance, minimizing the role of the instructor. On the other hand, a low grade would be attributed to the instructor, who thus becomes a poor teacher.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

This study looked for evidence of the attribution effect in a large sample of business students. Both Marsh and Roche (2000) and Johnson (2003) maintain that an attribution effect would result in a curvilinear relationship between grades and the evaluations, with lower grades being much more correlated with evaluations than higher grades. Marsh and Roche (2000) state, "Attribution theory implies an asymmetry or nonlinearity in predicted grade relation . . . *[with SE1]*" (p. 205, italics mine).

> Hypothesis 1: A curvilinear relationship will better explain the grade/evaluation relationship than will a linear one.

Since the relationship would be curvilinear because of a stronger association among students receiving lower grades, and since the leniency effect proposes a relationship between teacher grading standards and evaluations, then if Gillmore, Greenwald, and Johnson are correct, sections receiving lower average grades should have a larger correlation between grades and the SET than sections with higher average grades. If Marsh and Roche are correct in rejecting the leniency effect, then high average graded sections should show little to no grade/evaluation relationship.

> Hypothesis 2: The correlation between expected grades and the evaluations will be higher for students in sections receiving low average grades than for students in sections receiving high average grades.

Johnson (2003) suggests that attribution should be relative. He states, "If it is true that students make such comparisons, then those students who earn low marks in stringently graded classes are less likely to view their performance as a failure than are students who earn low marks in classes that are graded leniently" (p. 97).

Hypothesis 3: There should be a significant difference in the mean evaluation of lenient and difficult graded sections for students receiving poor grades, but not for students receiving high grades.

It is also possible that students may use their past performance as a standard rather than the average grade of the immediate class being evaluated. Therefore, a student receiving a grade lower than their own norm would attribute their performance to the instructor, while a student receiving a grade higher than their own norm would attribute this to themselves.

> Hypothesis 4: The correlation between the expected grades and the evaluations will be higher for students receiving grades lower than their cumulative GPA, compared to students receiving grades higher than their cumulative GPA.

METHODOLOGY

Procedure

Instructors from 14 sections of introduction, undergraduate business courses (six sections of Organizational Management, and eight sections of Principles of Marketing) gave permission for the study to be conducted in their classes.

As part of a larger study on SET, each student at the beginning of the semester was given a permission form stating that if they agreed to be a subject, one of the · researchers would access their cumulative GPA and their final grade in the current class at the end of the semester. All data would be collected by student identification only. A separate researcher compiled the data without seeing any student identification, except for student number. The instructor would never see any individual's data, or any information that would allow any student to be identified. Subjects could withdraw from the study at

any time. The researchers taught none of the sections studied.

In the last week of the term (week 16), students were asked to evaluate the instructor and the class using two different measures. The first was a simple question which asked, *"What grade would you give your instructor?"* Marsh and Roche (1997) maintain that global ratings may be more susceptible to context, mood, and other potential biases than items directly related to actual teaching behavior. Therefore, a second measure was also sought which consisted of five statements that are identical to the statements used on the current student evaluation of instruction at the students' university.

Participants

In total, 560 students participated in the study on the last week of the term. Forty-nine percent of the total participants were female, 86 percent were juniors or seniors, and 14 percent were sophomores. The average age was 20.9 years *(SD* = 2.03), and the average cumulative GPA was 3.06 *(SD* = 0.46) at the beginning of the study.

Variables

Evaluation: The five statements from the respondents' university evaluation were summed, averaged, and called *"evaluation"* (The instructor: "Created an atmosphere conducive of learning," "Instructor explains material appropriately," "Instructor shows interest in student learning," "Instructor set high but reasonable standards," and "Rate your satisfaction with your learning in this class." Each statement could be answered with a letter grade (A through F). Cronbach's alpha was 0.912. The results from the statement, *"What grade would you give your instructor?"* was identified as *"instructor evaluation."* The measures are similar, but not exact. The correlation between the two measures was 0.880 (r^2 = 0.77). Since *instructor evaluation*

was a simple grade measure and asked directly after the question about the students' expected grade, it would be expected to be more sensitive to grade and to halo effects than would *evaluation.*

The students were asked what grade they expected to receive at the end of the term. This was simply called *expected grade.*

RESULTS

Hypothesis 1: A curvilinear relationship will better explain the grade/evaluation relationship than will a linear one. The correlation between the expected grade and *evaluation* was r = 0.274 (p < .001), accounting for .074 of the variance. The best-curved regressional fit was R = 0.281 (p < .001), accounting for .079 of the variance. The correlation between the expected grade and instructor evaluation was r = .318 (p < .001; 0.101 of the variance), the curved regressional fit was R = 0.319 (p < .001; 0.102 of the variance. There was no significant difference between the linear and the curvilinear associations. The means of the evaluations broken down by expected grades can be found in Table I. F tests revealed a significant deviation from linear for the *evaluation* measure, but not for the *instructor evaluation* measure. The linear term accounts for the majority of the variance *(Evaluation:* linear F(l, 553) = 20.58; deviation from linear, F(l, 553) = 4.02, p = .010: *Instructor Evaluation:* linear, F(1, 557) = 46.12, deviation from linear; F(l, 553) = 3.18, p = .065). The results are ambivalent for Hypothesis l.

Hypothesis 2: The correlation between the expected grade and the evaluations *will be higher for students in sections receiving low grades than for students in sections receiving high grades.* The fourteen sections were divided into three groups; the top four sections by expected grades (mean expected grade = 3.21 (SE = .055, n = 162)), the bottom four sections by expected grade (mean expected grade = 2.80

TABLE 1
Evaluation Means by Grade Expected

Grade Expected	Evaluation	Instructor Evaluation
C or less	2.58 (1 09, .08)[1]	2.28 (109, .10)
B	3.05 (315, .04)	2.87 (317, .05)
A	3.17 (132, .07)	3.16 (134, .09)

[1]First number is sample size; the second number is the standard error

(SE = .048, n = 212)), and the middle sections (mean = 3.01 (SE = .043, n = 189). In the sections with the lowest expected grades, the correlation between expected grades was $r = 0.098$ (p = .192) with *evaluation,* and $r = 0.100$ (p = .148) with *instructor evaluation.* In the sections with the highest expected grades, the correlation between expected grades and the *evaluation* was $r = 0.372$ (p <.001), and $r = 0.432$ (p <.001) for *instructor evaluation.* The correlation coefficients are significantly different *(evaluation:* Z = -2.47 (p = 0.007; *instructor evaluation:* Z = -2.63 (p = .004). The results are directly opposite those postulated by Hypothesis 2, which is rejected.

Hypothesis 3: There should be a significant difference in the mean evaluation of lenient and difficult graded sections for students receiving poor grades, but not for students receiving high grades. Student expecting grades of C or less were placed in the "poor grade" category, while student expecting an A grade were placed in the "high grade" category. There were no significant differences in the evaluation of students expecting poor grades in the top four graded sections compared to the bottom four sections (t(81) = 0.57, p = 0.569 for *evaluation;* t(81) = 0.74, p = 0.462 for *instructor evaluation).* For students expecting an A there was a significantly

higher evaluation given in the most lenient sections compared to least lenient sections (t(94) = 4.17, p < .001 for *evaluation:* t(96) = 5.07, p < .001 for *instructor evaluation).*

The results are directly opposite those postulated by Hypothesis 3, which is rejected.

Hypothesis 4: The correlation between the expected grades and the evaluations *will be higher for students receiving grades lower than their cumulative GPA compared to students receiving grades higher than their cumulative GPA.*

Deviation from GPA was calculated as (Expected Grade-cumulative GPA). Students were separated into three groups. The first group expected to receive a grade lower than their cumulative GPA. The second group expected a grade equal to their cumulative GPA (with +/- 0.33 of a GPA point). The third group expected a grade higher than their cumulative GPA. The correlation between the expected grade and the evaluation was significant for those students who expected a grade less than their cumulative GPA (r = 0.294 (p < .001) for *evaluation;* r = 0.277 (p < .001) for instructor evaluation. The association was non-significant for students expect mg a grade higher than their GPA (r =

0.139 (p = .122) for *evaluation;* r = 0.199 (p = 0.25) for *instructor evaluation).* The correlation coefficients for the two conditions are not significantly different *(evaluation:* Z = 1.38 (p = 0.084; *instructor evaluation:* Z = 0.69 (p = .245).

The means of the evaluations broken down by deviation from GPA can be found in Table 2. F tests reveal a significant difference (F(2, 487) = 15.01, p < .001 for *evaluation,* and F(2, 491) = 26.91, p < .00 I for *instructor evaluation.* There was no significant deviation from linear for the *evaluation* measure (F(1, 487) = 0.41), or with the *instructor evaluation* measure (F(l, 491) = 0.31). Hypothesis 4 is rejected.

DISCUSSION

There is little support found for the attribution hypothesis. The association between expected grades and SET could be seen as either linear or curvilinear with a regression analysis. An ANOVA procedure showed a significant deviation from linear with the evaluation measure from the students' own school's evaluation, but none when students were simply asked to give their instructor a grade. There was actually a stronger grade/evaluation effect in sections giving higher grades than in sections giving lower grades. There was also a larger difference between the evaluations given by good students between above and below average graded sections, while poor students showed no such difference. These findings are opposite that predicted by the attribution hypothesis. The correlations between grades and SET were not found to be higher for students that expect a grade lower than their cumulative GPA than for students who expect a grade higher than their cumulative GP A. Further, the breakdown of mean evaluations by GPA deviation showed no significant deviation from a linear relationship.

Gillmore and Greenwald (1999), Marsh and Roche (2000), and Johnson (2003) all found a grade/evaluation relationship, but Marsh and Roche maintain that it is either too small to be taken seriously, or that much of it can be explained by the attribution effect. This study casts doubt that attribution accounts for much of the grade/evaluation effect. Further, the results do not fit entirely with the leniency effect proposed by Gillmore, Greenwald and Johnson. The data used in this study was from between student cases rather than between class cases; i.e., the class means are not used as data points to establish associations. This, combined with the findings that the grade/evaluation effect may actually be stronger with lenient graders than with less lenient graders, and that students gaining high grades may be more sensitive to the grade/evaluation effect than students

TABLE 2
Evaluation Means by Deviation from Cumulative GPA

Deviation from GPA	Evaluation	Instructor Evaluation
GPA > Exp Grade	2.75 (169, .07)[1]	2.43 (169, .08)
GPA = Exp Grade	3.05 (196, .06)	2.89 (198, .07)
Exp Grade > GPA	3.26 (126, .06)	3.25 (128, .08)

[1]First number is sample size; the second number is the standard error.

receiving poor grades, suggests a mechanism incompatible with the definition of leniency. It appears more likely that students are exhibiting what may be called a "reciprocity" effect. This hypothesis would suggest that each student responds to her or his own grading situation, irrespective of overall instructor characteristics, and then tends to reciprocate on the evaluation based on their individual reactions to their grade. The current findings are compatible with such an explanation, but further research is needed to clarify the hypothesis.

Implications

1. There is a grade/evaluation effect. Students expecting an A gave an average evaluation to the instructor of almost B+. Students expecting a C or less, gave an average evaluation of about C+. The cause of this effect is currently unknown.

2. The grade/evaluation effect can be seen as linear, but with slight curvilinear aspects that may suggest only a weak contribution from attribution.

3. Contrary to the suggestions made by some researchers, instructors who give high grades will elicit a stronger grade/evaluation effect from good students than from poor students.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: BLENDING TECHNOLOGY AND HUMAN TOUCH TO EMPHASIZE TIME ON TASK

Sharon C. Wagner, Missouri Western State College

Principle 5. Emphasizes Time on Task: *Time plus energy equals learning. There is no substitute for time on task. Learning to use one's time well is critical for students and professionals alike. Students need help in learning effective time management. Allocating realistic amounts of time means effective learning for students and effective teaching for faculty. How an institution defines time expectations for students, faculty, administrators, and other professional staff can establish the basis of high performance for all* (Chickering and Gam son 1987).

Mixing time honored face-to-face class techniques with the growing opportunities provided by electronic media provide students and faculty new opportunities for teaching and learning.

Class discussions may be held (at least partly) by using WcbCT, Blackboard or some other platform, Some common "rules of engagement" where "netiquette" and the importance of courtesy, thorough and thoughtful answers are emphasized must precede this activity. Application questions and/or debate topics for each chapter can be posted. In order for discussions to remain timely, a deadline for responses needs to be given. In order to encourage discussion among the students, an additional assignment can be given where each student must respond to at least one other student's comments (again,

within a particular time frame). This allows students time to form a considered response, as well as allowing a student who may feel uncomfortable speaking in class the opportunity to participate.

The length and thoroughness of discussions, or the length of time spent on an online exam can be recorded and analyzed for those faculty who are interested in research related to student success.

Homework that is turned in electronically benefits the student by making the process convenient. Faculty can respond to the assignment, grade it, and make a copy for their electronic file for the class. The assignment can then be returned to the student electronically in a timely manner. This allows both the student and faculty member to work at a time that is practical for each.

Group projects provide many benefits for specially difficult for students, but especially for those who commute, work, or have families to care for. Using WebCT, the instructor can make a "chat room" available for each group where they can share ideas and progress in an asynchronous manner. In order for the groups and the faculty member to assess the amount of time each member contributes, as well as the work assigned and completed, a log of times, assign-

ments and completion dates can be kept by the students and submitted with the completed project. In many cases, a professor may ask for a peer evaluation of the contributions of each member of a group project. A log of this type can provide objective information concerning the activities of the group.

Libraries make many resources, such as catalogs and search engines, available to students and faculty, which allows everyone spend their time more productively. Electronic resources such as the World Wide Web not only provide access to current information to students, but may also (subtly) lead them to delve deeper as they update the information on a company as they prepare a case study. Several professors have referred to this as "stealing the student's coffee time."

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DOES USING THE INTERNET AS A MODE OF DELIVERY FOR COURSE MATERIALS AND RESOURCES HELP OR HINDER STUDENT LEARNING WHEN USED IN CONJUNCTION WITH IN-CLASS SESSIONS?

Dave Hutchinson, University of Windsor
William Wellington, University of Windsor
A.J. Faria, University of Windsor

At least twenty studies dating back to 1996 have examined the use of the Internet to deliver part, or all, of the course content in otherwise traditional marketing courses. In the most recent of these studies, Priluck (2004) reported on two Principles of Marketing course sections administered using two separate formats. One was taught using the traditional methods of lectures, in-class discussions, assignments, and exams. The second section was taught with half of the class sessions involving face-to-face contact in a traditional classroom setting and half of the class sessions being asynchronous web sessions.

Priluck (2004) reports that students were more satisfied with the traditional course, preferred the traditional format, and felt that the traditional course was more effective in developing marketing skills and course knowledge including team building, critical thinking, and oral and written communication. Student performance on a comprehensive final exam, however, was not significantly different between the two sections of the course.

Delivering all, or part, of courses via the Internet or some other form of electronic technology is growing in popularity. At present, over 80 percent of all universities offer at least one on-line course and over one-third offer complete on-line degree programs (Conhaim 2003). On-line learning offers many potential advantages including the opportunity for students to learn at their own pace. There are also drawbacks to non-traditional instruction, such as high drop-out rates for on-line courses due to students feeling isolated (Aron 1999).

The speed with which an innovation, like the use of the Internet for teaching marketing courses, is adopted is influenced by five characteristics: relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability (Lundblad 2003). While use of the Internet can offer some advantages, as will be discussed during this panel, the advantage is often based on the view of the stakeholder. One instructor may perceive, for example, that having students enter simulation game decisions and receive results via the Internet is an advantage while another instructor may view an alternative form of decision submission and the return of game results to be far more efficient. This difference of opinion will exist among the students as well.

In the case of delivering course material electronically, adoptions of this innovation is certainly being encouraged by university administrators who would like to reduce instructional costs by delivering course material to growing numbers of students using fewer instructors. While contact with the course instructor can be lost via this form of course delivery, personal interactions can be maintained. Real-time chat lines, telephone contact, webcams, and e-mail are available for students to stay in contact with each other and with the course instructor. Enabling these means of contact can be quite time consuming for the course instructor, though.

Within the Odette School of Business at the University of Windsor, the use of electronic technology within our classes is growing across the faculty. Surveys of our faculty members on what technology they are using, with what perceived results, will be discussed. Further, to determine student reaction to the changing manner in which course content is being delivered, 502 students were surveyed after completion of their Principles of Marketing course. It was found that students, in general, were more satisfied with traditional teaching methods, class attendance was higher when course materials were not made available on a website, and course grades were higher among students who attended class rather than used the website available course material. Considerably more detail on this student survey will be presented along with implications for the use of electronic technology in our classes.

The findings from the surveys of University of Windsor faculty and students, as well as the findings presented in numerous published sources, raise many questions about the use of the Internet for teaching marketing courses. Among other issues, this panel session will: (1) summarize past studies on the use of the Internet for teaching marketing courses; (2) provide detailed information from the University of Windsor surveys of our students and faculty; (3) examine the pros and cons of electronically transmitted course material; and (4) discuss such issues as whether students use websites as a substitute for class attendance rather than as a supplement to in-class instruction.

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DOES USING THE INTERNET AS A DELIVERY MODE FOR COURSE MATERIAL HELP OR HINDER STUDENT LEARNING WHEN USED IN CONJUNCTION WITH IN-CLASS SESSIONS?

T. Rick Whiteley, The University of Western Ontario

The improvement of marketing instruction and learning via technology has a long history in North America. In 1938, the American Marketing Association Committee on Visual Education presented the results of its 1936–1937 survey of members pertaining to the extent to which visual techniques involving the projection by artificial light were being used in teaching marketing (Cassady, Crawley, Graves, Lucas, and Stanley 1938). The *technology of the day* included moving picture projectors (with/without sound), glass slide projectors, opaque material projectors, and still pictures on a film strip. The results indicated that the *new technology* was not widely used. Some respondents did not see how it could be used. Cost, quality, and effort of use concerns also existed. The Committee's concern was whether visual education should be promoted in teaching marketing. The same concern applies to the Internet.

In the world prior to the Internet, students had to attend class or visit the instructor's office to obtain course material, instruction, and grades. The lecture was the main vehicle for the dissemination of course content. To talk to the instructor about course-related matters, the same points of contact were available, as was use of the telephone. A visit to the library was required to search the card catalogue and subject indices and then to physically locate the magazines, books, newspapers, microfilm or microfiche which contained the material.

Even with the advent of the commercial Internet market in the mid-1990s, these means of contact, interaction, and sources of resource material still exist. Traditional classes are conducted; physical libraries, now with digital catalogues and databases, continue to function; and telephone conversations (land-based and wireless) occur. The Internet, including e-mail, has evolved as a new communication channel utilized by students and instructors to interact with one another. Is this new communication channel helping or hindering students achieve course objectives? What are the major issues?

Some of the major issues are: (1) whether instructors are spoon-feeding students by placing course material on the Internet to satisfy the students' desire for passive knowledge acquisition; (2) whether instructors have changed their teaching approach, as a result of providing such material; (3) whether online, library databases help or hinder students in learning the process of research; (4) whether publisher Internet student-resource sites help or hinder student learning; (5) whether e-mail has replaced much of the dyadic interaction between students and with the instructor; (6) whether the provision of material on the Internet and the use of e-mail has resulted in a lower level of class attendance; (7) whether the use of the Internet and e-mail should be abolished so that a return to the "*good old days*" can be accomplished; and (8) whether instructors have discovered how best to use the

Internet and e-mail as modes of delivery in conjunction with class sessions to achieve the course learning objectives.

It is human nature that students like things made easier. Providing them with course material via the Internet (e.g., course outline, lecture notes, handouts, slides, notices, grades, sample tests) allows them to passively receive such information and refer to it when necessary. The need to spend class time taking notes, copying information from overhead/electronic slides, or coming to class, at all, to receive this information is eliminated.

Only the provision of lecture notes and slides may be of concern; all of the other examples cited above only require a brief explanation by the instructor. There is no need to spend much class time on any of these areas, if the sole Purpose is the distribution of the material, since the Internet is quite efficient at accomplishing this task. It is more efficient to inform an entire class about matters pertaining to the course, rather than engaging in a dyadic interaction with individual students during office hours or via e-mail.

The provision of lecture notes and slide material via the Internet can be invaluable to a student who misplaces class notes or is unable to attend a class. It can also provide the opportunity to review the material before class. However, the process of note taking provides the student with greater opportunity for the subject matter to enter short- and long-term memory because of greater engagement of cognitive processing. There is also the possibility that the student may copy incorrect information or may not copy all that is essential. The provision of lecture notes, whether via the Internet, sold at the bookstore, or distributed in class addresses these concerns. The issue, then, appears to be whether students should be provided with a copy of lecture notes at all, regardless of the mode of delivery.

Another argument supports the provision of lecture notes, regardless of the mode of delivery. Many university students are ESL students. Having someone verbally go over English text is helpful to these students. Salehi-Sangari and Foster (1999) found that graduate students in Iran, who had low proficiency in English, preferred having the topics explained in class versus having to read the English material themselves.

A more important issue related to the provision of lecture material to students is whether the instructor has changed the focus of learning. By providing such time that was previously devoted to note taking and explaining the basic details is now released. The opportunity now afforded is the quick movement from the lower to the higher levels of learning (i.e., from *knowledge, comprehension, and application* to *analysis, synthesis, and evaluation)* (Bloom, Englehart, Frost, Hill, and Krathwohl 1956). If the instructor continues to lecture as if no such notes existed, then the students may see little reason to attend class.

For those who have spend many hours searching card catalogues and hard copy reference indices, being able to search for material online is a blessing. However, the provision of a computer-generated list may short circuit the search for the best sources. Students tend to select the items listed first; it's human nature.

Publishers develop extensive student resource web sites to encourage text adoption. These sites include subject content (text, audio, video), learning objects with text-to-speech capability, slides, quizzes, and Internet links. The usefulness of such information may be limited, if the instructor considers not all of it to be relevant.

Have time-specific office hours become a dinosaur because students expect 24/7 service? With e-mail access, students assume that an

instructor's office hours are time independent. While many students still make use of regular office hours, others choose the e-mail route, expecting a quick response. Unfortunately, many of the questions asked in e-mail relate to matters covered in class. Even though the e-mail route is a less intimidating means of communicating with the instructor for many students, is this, somewhat, impersonal approach to dyadic-interaction desirable?

With less of a need to attend class, because of the Internet distributed course content and e-mail, have students intentionally chosen this route? Even before the Internet, students skipped class. So, nothing has changed, except that students can more easily contact the instructor. The need for the instructor to respond to e-mail that could have been avoided had the student attended class is the main negative aspect of this issue.

Given the identified concerns, should marketing educators return to the "good old days?" Has the Internet increased the isolation of students from the dynamics of social interaction and the value of the educational process? Or does the Internet offer certain aspects of value that can be integrated into the traditional class? And can instructors and students utilize the technology of the day to make the traditional class setting a more positive pedagogical experience?

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ISSUES RELEVANT TO THE USE OF THE INTERNET IN CONJUNCTION WITH TRADITIONAL CLASS SESSIONS

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The improvement of marketing instruction and learning via technology has a long history in North America. In 1938, the American Marketing Association Committee on Visual Education presented the results of its 1936–1937 survey of members pertaining to the extent to which visual techniques involving the projection by artificial light were being used in teaching mareting (Cassady, Crawley, Graves, Lucas, and Stanley 1938). The *technology of the day* included moving picture projectors, with and without sound; glass slide projectors; opaque material projectors; and still pictures on film strips. The results indicated that the *new technology* was not widely used; that some respondents did not see how it could be used, and that cost, quality, and effort of use concerns existed. The Committee's concern was whether visual education should be promoted in teaching marketing. The same concern applies to the Internet.

In the world prior to the Internet, students had to attend class or visit the instructor's office to obtain course material, instruction, and grades. The lecture was the main vehicle for the dissemination of course content. To talk to the instructor about course-related matters, the same points of contact were available, as was use of the telephone. A visit to the library was required to search the card catalog and subject indices and then to physically locate the relevant magazines, books, newspapers, microfilm, and microfiche.

Even with the advent of the commercial Internet market in the mid-1990s, these means of contact, interaction, and sources of resource material still exist. Traditional classes are conducted; physical libraries, now with digital catalogues and databases, continue to function; and telephone conversations (land-based/wireless) occur. The Internet, including e-mail, has become a new communication channel utilized by students and instructors to interact with one another. Is this new communication channel helping or hindering students achieve course objectives? What are the major issues?

Some of the major issues are: (1) whether instructors are spoon-feeding students by placing course material on the Internet to satisfy the students' desire for passive knowledge acquisition; (2) whether instructors have changed their teaching approach, as a result of providing such material; (3) whether online, library databases help or hinder students in learning the process of research; (4) whether publisher Internet student-resource sites help or hinder student learning; (5) whether o-mail has replaced much of the dyadic interaction between students and with the instructor; (6) whether the provision of material on the Internet and the use of e-mail has resulted in a lower level of class attendance; (7) whether the use of the Internet and e-mail should be abolished so that a return to the "good old days" can be accomplished; and (8) whether instructors have discovered how best to use the

Internet and e-mail as modes of delivery in conjunction with class sessions to achieve the course learning objectives.

It is human nature that students like things made easier. Providing them with course material via the Internet (e.g., course outline, lecture notes, handouts, slides, notices, grades, sample tests) allows them to passively receive such information and refer to it when necessary. The need to spend class time taking notes, copying information from overhead/electronic slides, or coming to class, at all, to receive this information is eliminated.

The provision of lecture notes and slide material via the Internet can be invaluable to a student who misplaces class notes or is unable to attend a class. It can also provide the opportunity to review the material before class. However, the process of note taking provides the student with greater opportunity for the material to enter short- and long-term memory because of greater engagement of cognitive processing. There is also the possibility of copying incorrect or omitting essential information. The provision of lecture notes, whether via the Internet, sold at the bookstore, or distributed in class addresses these concerns. The issue, then, is whether students should be provided with a copy of the lecture notes at all, regardless of the mode of delivery.

Another argument supports the provision of lecture notes, regardless of the mode of delivery. Many university students are ESL students. Having someone verbally go over English text is helpful to these students. Salehi-Sangari and Foster (1999) found that graduate students in Iran, who had low proficiency in English, preferred having the topics explained in class versus engaging in self-reading.

A more important issue related to the provision of lecture material to students is whether the instructor has changed the focus of learning. By providing such material, class time that was previously devoted to note taking and explaining the basic details is now released. The opportunity now afforded is the quick movement from the lower to the higher levels of learning (i.e., from knowledge, comprehension, and application to analysis, synthesis, and evaluation) (Bloom, Englehart, Frost, Hill, and Krathwohl 1956). If the lectures continue as if no such notes existed, then the students may see little reason to attend class.

For those who have spend many hours searching card catalogues and hard copy reference indices, being able to search for material online is a blessing. However, the provision of a computer-generated list may short circuit the search for the best sources. Students tend to select the items listed first.

Publishers develop extensive student resource web sites to encourage text adoption. These sites include subject content (text, audio, video), learning objects with a text -to speech mode, slides, quizzes, and Internet links. The usefulness of such information is limited, if not considered relevant by the instructor.

Have time-specific office hours become a dinosaur because students expect 24/7 service? With e-mail access, students assume that an instructor's office hours are time independent. While many students still make use of regular office hours, others choose the e-mail route, expecting a quick response. Unfortunately, many of the questions asked in e-mail relate to matters covered in class. Even though students find using e-mail is a less intimidating means of communicating with the instructor, is this impersonal approach to dyadic-interaction desirable?

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TEACHING ONLINE AND INTERNET COURSES: STRATEGIES FOR SUCCESS

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Teaching online requires consideration of the available technology and the pedagogical goals to be achieved. Classroom Management System (e.g., WebCT, Blackboard) selection requires an analysis of the technological features offered that allow for the achievement of the desired pedagogical goals. The strategies used to structure an online course must also provide for the opportunity to achieve these goals. Bloom's taxonomy of the cognitive domain (Bloom, Englehart, Frost, Hill, and Krathwohl 1956) provides a theoretical framework to ensure that the strategies selected help students achieve the learning desired.

Bloom's taxonomy comprises six sequential levels of learning: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. The knowledge level focuses on the acquisition and recall of the basic subject matter. The comprehension level focuses on understanding the subject area. The application level focuses on using a concept in a given situation. The analysis level focuses on separating material into its constituent parts. The synthesis level focuses on creating new knowledge. The evaluation level focuses on making information-based judgments.

Since an online course exists in the digital world, the physical isolation from others and the feeling of inadequacy with the course content as a result of this isolation (Miles and Lee 2004) require the implementation of strategies that focus on providing structure to the course material and on enhancing communication to deal with these concerns. Structure and communication enhancement can be provided using micro-discussion areas and assigning a specific role to e-mail. Communication enhancement can be achieved using the highlighting and commenting features of Adobe Acrobat for assignment grading.

Establishing micro-discussion areas is an efficient way of compartmentalizing course content. With an open discussion area, it is difficult to keep track of each specific area of focus. This approach will be illustrated in the context of Bloom's taxonomy.

The dissemination and acquisition of subject knowledge are the most time consuming components of any course, online or traditional. The readings in an online course are selected to provide the students with the opportunity to achieve the desired level of knowledge. For online courses, the instructor's main role is that of an information facilitator versus an information disseminator (Kaynama and Keeling 2000). In the absence of direct lectures and direct dialogue between the instructor and the student, there must be an opportunity for the student to determine, prior to formal testing, whether the requisite level of knowledge has been achieved.

This measure can be accomplished in two ways. One way is to set up a discussion area for each reading assignment (e.g., chapter, article), including any lecture files provided by the instructor. Students can then be asked questions about the subject matter, but only focusing on

the student's recall capability (e.g., identify the stages of the adoption process). This can be accomplished in a synchronous fashion via online chat sessions or in an asynchronous fashion in the discussion area. The latter approach is more likely if the course structure reflects temporal and spatial independence. The second way to assess a student's knowledge is by setting up self-testing opportunities.

Moving students to the level of compreltensio11 can also be accomplished within the appropriate discussion or chat area and by making use of the Socratic approach. Students can be asked to explain a concept, such as market segmentation. If the student docs not fully understand the concept, the instructor can then focus on the area of difficulty and keep asking questions until the student arrives at a complete understanding. Other students can also become a party to the dialogue, or at least review what took place. Students who have questions about material within a specific topic area can also post their questions to the appropriate discussion area. The instructor and other students can respond.

The *application* level of learning requires students to apply the knowledge and understanding acquired at the first two levels to problems or situations. The problems or situations involve the use of an identified quantitative technique or concept. For example, the students may be asked to determine the breakeven point in units or to segment the market for toothpaste using the approaches studied in the course. Student responses are posted to the appropriate discussion area, allowing for discussion among class members, including the instructor. The self-testing approach is also an option here, including further discussion.

The *analysis* level moves the students to the beginning of the higher levels of learning. At this stage, students are required to decompose a marketing situation or case study into its con-

stituent parts, without any particular guidance. A chat or a discussion area can be used for this purpose. Individuals or groups of students can be given an assignment to analyze, being required to identify all of the relevant marketing concepts and theories and providing an explanation as to why a particular concept or theory applies. Problem definition and symptom identification may also be required. Once the analysis is posted, other students and the instructor can respond. When the students appear to be misdirected, the Socratic approach can be used.

After the marketing situation or case study has been broken down into the constituent parts, students, individually or in groups, must now suggest ways of solving the identified problem. The *synthesis* level uses the output of the analysis stage as the base for discussion. All entries are placed within the appropriate discussion area. Discussion then occurs within the discussion or chat area. The instructor can also use the Socratic approach.

The final level of learning, *evaluation,* requires the identification and selection of the most appropriate solution to the identified marketing problem. Individuals or groups are given specific assignments, requiring the posting of solutions to the appropriate discussion area. Class members discuss the submissions within the appropriate discussion or chat area. The Socratic approach is used, when necessary.

Overall, the micro-discussion area approach results in a focused record of the course discussions. The additional discussion categories are worth the effort. The second approach deals with the role of e-mail in an online course. The e-mail area should be reserved for communications between individual students and the instructor. It should not serve as a discussion area for the content aspects of the course. All content issues must be open to view to all students.

Finally, in the traditional classroom situation, students submit a hard copy of the report; the instructor grades the hard copy; and then the instructor returns the graded assignment to the students, with comments written on the document. In the online environment, students submit a digital copy of the report. The most efficient method of grading the reports is to convert them to PDF format, and then use the highlighting and commenting capability of Adobe Acrobat. The graded report, with comments and highlighting, is returned to the student as a PDF file, allowing for a review of the evaluation using Adobe Reader.

The approach of using the discussion area in a micro-fashion ensures that everyone knows where the material fits within the overall course. Having an open discussion area where topics are mixed, makes it difficult to find particular information and discussion. Assigning a distinct role to e-mail ensures no one is left out of the communication loop. Converting all report submissions to PDF format makes it easier to grade, comment on, and redistribute such material.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING TECHNOLOGY TO EMPHASIZE TIME ON TASK

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Principle 5. Emphasizes Time on Task: *Time plus energy equals learning. There is no substitute for time on task. Learning to use one's time well is critical for students and professionals alike. Students need help in learning effective time management. Allocating realistic amounts of time means effective learning for students and effective teaching for faculty. How an institution defines time expectations for students, faculty, administrators, and other professional staff can establish the basis of high pe1formance for all* (Chickering and Gamson 1987).

Templates: If you want students to follow a particular format, you can provide them with a template in which they would insert their material in the appropriate locations. This saves the student time and helps ensure a uniform format. It can also help students understand appropriate formats for assignments such as research proposals, case study analyses, business plans, and term research papers. This can be especially useful for technical writing where suitable formats are required for the title page, abstract, headings and references.

Models & Samples: Graphic and verbal models provided in an electronic format (webpage or Word/WordPerfect documents) can be useful for some assignments. For example, if a class was provided a particular model/theory of consumer behavior, students could be expected to dissect the model and make applications to a particular example in an assignment. The instructor-provided model can help students stay on task-that of applying model variables to the example.

Providing samples of former students' work can help students understand your expectations for an assignment. For example, to illustrate the writing of a case study analysis of an ethical issue, I give students two examples through a web page unit. I consider one example a very poor analysis and one an excellent analysis, but I do not divulge this to the students at this stage. I then ask students to compare the two papers and write a comparison, covering specific criteria (which focus on the criteria I would use to judge their case study analyses in the future). By undertaking this activity, most students pick up on the fact that one of the analyses is poor and one is excellent and how they should write their first case study analysis. This process helps students learn appropriate analysis techniques as well as the Online Course Management Tools for Setting Timed Intervals and Deadlines: When you want students to be exposed to material for a designated interval, then time parameters can be set. This is especially useful when you want students to progress through the material at a designated pace as a class, rather than as an individual. Timed progression allows for students to understand through their calendar of assignments what tasks are to be completed within a particular time frame. This also has an advantage of allowing the instructor the oppor-

tunity to provide feedback for an assignment as each is completed by the class. Online discussion topics can be set for particular time periods such that the discussion feedback/grading can be conducted according to a predetermined schedule. When students understand that they can only post to a topic during a specific time period to receive credit, it helps them learn how to schedule their assignments according to their personal schedule.

Online Announcements & Calendar of Assignments: For my online courses, I advise students at the first of the term that all announcements I need to make will be posted each week on an announcements webpage. Also, I will post announcements about assignments on the Calendar of Assignments webpage. Students know that important information is accessible on the website and where this information is located.

Organization of Website: Make sure your course website is easy to navigate and allows students quick access to unit materials and assignments. Even with face-to-face classes, a website hosting course materials can save both you and the student time. For example, I always upload the course syllabus, course handouts, course PowerPoint presentations, a grade book and a calendar of assignments/announcements. For online courses I have the course organized into units of study. For each unit of study (accessible through the calendar of assignments), there are hyperlinks to lecture notes, PowerPoint presentations, video segments, discussion board, the textbook website, my home page and the course home page. I've also found that it helps students keep up with their assignments by designating the same day of each week when the unit assignments would be due, rather than changing these due dates each week.

Grading Criteria: For each assignment I provide the grading criteria. The criteria are also provided on the discussion forums and drop box used for submitting assignments. Students know the grading criteria in advance of submitting assignments and know that feedback will be provided using the specified criteria. This helps many students focus their efforts in the direction you specify in your criteria.

Writing Tools: It seems obvious that students would use spell-check and grammar-check features to help them as they proofread their documents. However, some students need to be encouraged and reminded to use these tools of technology prior to submitting their assignments.

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STUDENTS' INTERNET PLAGIARISM: DETECTIONS, PRESCRIPTIONS, AND PROTECTIONS

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ABSTRACT

Students use the Internet to plagiarize assignments with regrettable frequency. This paper discusses how educators can identify plagiarized works and what educators can do to reduce the likelihood of students using the Internet to plagiarize.

INTRODUCTION

Plagiarizing is not new to marketing professors. Technological advances of the last 25 years have made copying and plagiarizing easier; and as a result, the temptation to students greater. The Internet is a wonderful tool, but cannot be blamed for an increase in dishonest activity. While the improper use of the Internet makes plagiarism much easier than in the past, it (with other tools) can be used to combat and prevent plagiarism.

BACKGROUND

College students plagiarize and cheat frequently. Twenty three percent of students cheated during one quarter (Nowell and Laufer 1997). Eighty four percent (Nonis and Swift 1998), 67% (McCabe and Trevino 1995), 76% (Lupton, Chapman, and Weiss 2000) of college students have cheated in some form at some time in their college careers. Perhaps more troubling, business majors are more inclined to cheat than other majors (McCabe and Trevino 1995; Nonis and Swift 1998); but Coleman and Mahaffey (2000) found no difference. And marketing and management majors are more likely to cheat than other business subject majors (Rawwas and Isakson 2000).

Plagiarism by students takes several forms and includes: buying a paper from a research service or term paper mill, turning in another student's work (with or without the originator's knowledge), failing to provide citations to paraphrased materials, and failing to use quotation marks with verbatim quotations (Wilhoit 1994). Other terms have been suggested to define plagiarism more specifically: insufficient citation, fraud, excessive repetition, and "patch writing" (Howard 2000). Whether or not more exhaustive or more precise definitions of plagiarism would reduce its incidence, students recognize plagiarism as cheating and as just a severe form of cheating as allowing a student to copy answers during a test or altering answers after a test. Moreover, turning in another's work is as prevalent as copying answers during an exam or using a "crib sheet" (Allen, Fuller, and Laced 1998; Von Dram, Callahan, and Taylor 2001).

Three types of college student plagiarists exist: unintentional, sneaky, and all or nothing (Renard 1999/2000). The unintentional plagiarist is not aware of wrongdoing because he/she does not completely understand the research process or, does not know that another's words or ideas need to be properly cited. Or, perhaps the citation was omitted by accident. Both "sneaky" and "all-or-nothing" plagiarists plagiarize intentionally and

knowingly. "Sneaky" plagiarists patch write, piecing together portions from research sites and other students' papers, frequently misrepresenting or manufacturing references. "All-or-nothing" plagiarists, due to perceived time constraints or procrastination, copy whole papers off the Internet and simply add their names to it and turn them in for a grade (Renard 1999/2000).

PLAGIARISTS' TOOLS

While term paper files have probably existed since the second term paper was assigned, the Internet has made plagiarizing easier and faster. In 1998, 72 commercial term paper web sites existed, up from 27 the year earlier (Hickman 1998). Term paper mills offer "stock" or custom papers with prices ranging $8/per page for stock items and $17.95/per page for custom papers (Kliener, Lord, and Faver 1999). Quality is highly variable, both in terms of the product and the transaction. Term paper mills have overcharged student credit cards, and when challenged, threaten to report the student to his/her institution (Campbell, Swift, and Denton 2000). Another firm immediately posted a custom paper on its Web site at half the price the student had just paid (Kleiner et al. 1999). (For a more exhaustive discussion of what these sites provide, see Campbell et al. 2000). Online Journals, magazines, and newspapers are attractive sources of critiques and opinion pieces. Students post papers on the Internet to share them without of town relatives and friends or even as part of a class assignment. Professors, also, routinely post working papers or their publications on their web sites. A recent search through Google for "free term papers" resulted in 4,690,000 hits. Chat rooms and electronic bulletin boards can provide a student collaboration, but the opinions of other persons found there should not be passed-off as one's own. Full text articles and digitized books provide attractive sources for plagiarists. A plagiarist who is willing to make a little more effort and take a little more time to avoid detection can find a web page in Spanish on the desired subject and run it though a translator for an English version. Similarly a copied paper can be translated and back translated. This technique is troublesome because commercial plagiarist-catching web sites do not identify translated papers as plagiarized (see below). The familiar Cliffs Notes is available online (http://www.cliffsnotes.com). MonkeyNotes (http://www.pinkmonkey.com) and SparkNotes (http://www.sparknotes.com) provide a similar product for free. Obviously, these sites can be used for their intended purpose as study learning tools or not.

PLAGIARISM INDICATORS

Characteristics of student cheaters and plagiarists have been identified, but unreliably. As noted earlier, cheating behaviors vary by student's majors. Male students and those with low GPAs are more likely to cheat (Nonis and Swtft 1998). Those feeling pressure for grades, graduate school and/or jobs are more likely to cheat (Allen et al. 1998). Students who are employed (hence under more severe time constraints) and in larger classes were more likely to cheat (Nowell and Laufer 1997). Students placing less importance on knowledge and understanding were also more likely to be cheaters. The likelihood of plagiarism increases with the length of the assignment and when due dates conflict with other deadlines (Malouff and Sims 1996). Finally, cheating is more likely to occur in classes taught by graduate assistants (Kerkvliet and Sigmund 1999). Clearly, the evidence is non-specific enough to suggest that any form of "profiling" not be used to identity likely plagiarists.

However, plagiarized papers often carry "indicators." While not infallible these indicators should alert the professor to possible infractions:

1. The paper is "too" good or vaguely familiar. While many experienced professors will

"just know" that the student is not the author of the assignment, the error of prior probabilities must be avoided. A student who has performed poorly on multiple choice exams, may have the ability to research and write wonderfully. However the "too good" paper may warrant additional investigation, especially if written at a unrequired or unanticipated analytic or synthetic level. Similarly, if the paper contains a section or paragraph outlining "Directions for future research," while familiar and *de rigueur* to academic authors, additional attention may be warranted.

2. The spelling and/or word choice does not meet regional or contemporary usage. The student may have copied the work from sources which follow different spelling and word usage conventions. (This would not necessarily apply to international or ESL (English as Second Language) students.) Examples include: be behavior spelled "behavior" and "gay" connoting an attitude, rather than sexual orientation.

3. The paper contains unfamiliar or undefined acronyms, jargon or advanced vocabulary (Hinchliffe 1998). It is highly unlikely that an undergraduate student has an interest in or understanding that an "etic measure of MBE comprises 10 measures" (Yoo and Donthu 2001, p. 11).

4. Grammatical styles change within in the paper. While some changes in tense or person can result from poor grammar, if the student has copied items from different sources, those sources may not all be written in the same way. Samples of the student's writing from earlier in the semester may provide evidence that the paper is not written in the student's own "voice" (Nitterhouse 2003; Renard 1999/2000). Awkward grammar can also indicate the plagiarist has attempted to

thwart detection by having run the work through a language translator.

5. Font changes (style or size), uneven margins and/or spurious characters are present. An HTML (web-based) document copied into a word processor may contain formatting instructions or codes transferred inadvertently with no obvious on-screen evidence of having done so. However, some ASCII codes, such as for line feed or carriage return (e.g., ¶ or á) may be revealed by some word processors.

6. The student has a last-minute change in the topic. While this certainly could be legitimate, it could also point to "discovering" a different paper that could "work."

7. The paper has incomplete, incorrect, obscure, esoteric or fictitious citations. While "padding" a bibliography is the most prevalent form of academic dishonesty (VonDran et at. 2001) and may be actionable under some institutions' academic dishonesty policies, a padded bibliography alone is neither necessary or sufficient to suggest plagiarism. For example, *The Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice* exists, but *The American Journal of Marketing Theory* does not. Similarly, references to articles not available full text on the institution's periodical databases can be a marker of plagiarism. The inherent laziness of plagiarists makes it unlikely that an article from an esoteric journal was requested through inter-library loan.

8. Parenthetical or embedded citations are not referenced. When plagiarists copy whole paragraphs from academic sources, they frequently fail to note citations within the paragraph and fail to provide references for those citations. Uncited references may indicate that the bibliography was lifted wholesale

from another article, perhaps the one which provided the majority of the paper which is being submitted.

9. Two (or more) papers which contain the same error or selection of words suggest that the papers should receive a close examination. Students misunderstand the infinitesimal probability of two individuals stringing the same five words together. If the average high school graduate possesses a vocabulary of 2,000 words,[1] then the probably of two students using the same five words in the same order is: $1:3.18 \times 10^{16}$. While common, factual sentences (e.g., "Maslow's hierarchy has five levels") can be written by many people and reduces this probability significantly, word choice in simple, declarative sentences is more unique than would be expected. When a group of 21 undergraduate students were instructed to use a complete sentence to answer the question, "In what state; is Montgomery, Alabama located?" ten unique answers were given, with only eight providing identical answers.

10. The work refers to or cites the lectures of an unknown instructor or an instructor who is no longer at the institution (Care 2001), indicating the work may have been "borrowed" from a friend or off the Internet, having been created by someone else at a different institution or "resurrected" from a file library.

11. Equally suspicious is a paper that refers to past events in the present tense or contains factual errors which were true in the past. (e.g., Miller Brewing, a part of Philip Morris).

12. Some "markers" are so obvious as to nearly engender sympathy for the plagiarist: The paper contains a reference(usually on the last page) to its origin, e.g., "This paper from www.cheaters.com Tell your friends!" Or,

the paper was printed from the student's Internet browser with the requisite URL header or footer still in place (Care 2001).

These tools should help educators detect and prove plagiarism more easily and more reliably than in the past. However, accusations of plagiarism should not be made lightly. Accused students have sued and threatened physical violence

Schneider 1999). Using these tools in combination will also reduce the chance of false accusation. One educator recently accused a student of plagiarism when a search of the Web timed up an identical paper under another student's name. A "friend" of the true author had, without her knowledge, posted her work on the Web after changing the name on the paper (Bondi 1998).

CONFIRMING PLAGIARISM

Of course, suspecting plagiarism and proving it are two different things. Indeed, academics have been criticized for not more aggressively pursuing plagiarism (Schneider 1999). However, the same tools that make plagiarizing easier for students also make catching and confirming plagiarized works easier for students also make catching and confirming plagiarized works easier for the professor.

Check references first for accuracy and authenticity. Internet sources can be found through a general search engine such as Google or Alta Vista and online publications through Magportal.com or FindArticles.com. Using a unique search string minimizes false hits, as does choosing illogical work combinations such as "beanbags and ethics" (Bugeja 2000). Reference librarians on campus are usually eager to help. Not only are they experts in information retrieval, but are usually very enthusiastic about catching plagiarism. And they can provide information such as a particular journal is held by only five libraries in the country.

Many plagiarism detection services exist. A few are free; but most are fee based. Each has its own limitations, but can be an effective tool in spotting (and deterring) plagiarism. The best known is TurnItIn.com. TurnItIn has a high success rate in finding papers that "live" on the web without restricted access and those form term paper mills. TurnItIn functions by comparing each submitted paper against its own ever-growing database of previously submitted papers. However, it will also return false positives to properly cited material and simple, factual sentences that could easily be written independently and will not find translated items (Jasper-Parisey 2001).

An often overlooked method of proving plagiarism requires students to e-mail their paper as an attachment. Unbeknownst to most students, MS Word (and other Microsoft Office suite products) create as their defaults settings substantial data regarding a document's history. In Microsoft Word, clicking on: File, Properties, General reveals a pop-up window that tells when the document was first created, last revised and last accessed. The Summary tab reveals who (or more precisely, to whom the software license is registered) first created the document. The Statistics tab tells most of the above information in addition to how many minutes have been spent editing it and how many revisions the document has been through (i.e., how many times the document has been saved.)

While powerful, this feature is not infallible. Although the default condition is "on," it can be turned off. Most important, MS Word rests the statistics when the document is "saved as," rather than "saved." The feature is unreliable when the computer's clock in inaccurate either because it has been purposefully rest or the result of a dead CMOS battery. However, an inaccurate clock will not have an impact on the count of revisions or the total time editing. The editing time can be "adjusted" (regrettably) by

simply leaving the document "open" for a lengthy time, such as overnight. Similarly, the file can be re-saved a number of times without changes. Information such as this can also be used to determine which of two (or more) identical papers are plagiarized.

Last, provide the student suspected of plagiarizing a copy of one page of his/her paper with every fifth word blocked out. Glatt Plagiarism (www.plagiarism.com) sells software to do this, or it can be done by hand with White-Out™. If the student has truly created the work in the manner intended, he/she should be able to provide the missing words with about 80% accuracy.

PREVENTING PLAGIARISM

Although "students can always attempt to find someone else to do their work for them" (Mello 2000), professors can take steps to reduce plagiarism and increase the likelihood that plagiarists will be caught.

1. To prevent intentional plagiarism, educate the students about academic dishonesty and its consequences, including the fact that degrees have been revoked due to plagiarism. Moreover, selling term papers is illegal in some states (Campbell et al. 2000).

2. To prevent unintentional plagiarism, educate students on proper research methods and address the preferred citation format (Hricko 2001).

3. Require the students to submit rough drafts, bib cards or annotated bibliographies (Mello 2000).

4. No consensus exists as to whether allowing students select paper topics reduces or increases the likelihood of plagiarism. When students choose their own topics, the topic

is more likely to be of interest to them and hence, reduces the likelihood of plagiarism (Lathrop and Foss 2000). Conversely, when students select topics, their choice may be based on paper topics available for purchase or "in the files" rather than of genuine interest to them (Mello 2000). Assigning the same topic(s) each semester increase4s the chance that the paper received is also form the previous semester.

5. Establish a requirement on the number, date (recency) or types of references. Internet publications are less likely to reference monographs than are print references and may not use the most current publications.

6. Require oral presentations (even short ones) form the students.

7. Inform (warn) students that you are using plagiarism detection software. While no product will catch all instances of plagiarism, the students do not need to know about the shortcomings.

8. On the first assignment of class, require half of the students to provide the original (or photocopy) of one reference. Make the same requirement of the remaining students for the second assignment and then randomly for subsequent assignments. If the students know that their references might be checked in this way, they may be less willing to plagiarize. (Drogemuller 1997).

9. Design assignments that do not lend themselves to Internet plagiarism. Assignments that require a personal element or a mulitgenre project (as described by Goldfinch 2003) are excellent possibilities. If topics are assigned, they should be specific topics or issues that would not likely be addressed on the Internet.

10. Introduce a policy that requires students to sign a "certification of authorship" statement

for each paper they submit (Sims 2002).

11. Emphasize plagiarism is not just an academic concept, but has real world implications. While some students (especially likely plagiarists) see assignments as "busy work" (Nitterhouse 2003), plagiarism in the real world carries severe penalties. The firing of a New York Times reporter for plagiarizing articles was literally front page news (Kurtz 2003), as were the resultant resignations of two senior editors (Steinberg 2003).

CONCLUSION

The Internet is a powerful tool for researchers, educators and students, Just as we teach our students the correct use of the traditional tools of texts, articles, conversation and collaboration, we have the responsibility to ourselves and our students to use the tools we have available to prevent students from cheapening their educational experience through plagiarism.

ENDNOTE

1 This is a very conservative estimate. Measuring the size of a vocabulary is very difficult. For example, if a person knows the word "run" and also is aware of all twenty-eight definitions of the word does that count as knowing one word or twenty-eight? Similarly if the person knows the word "run" and all its variations (run, ran, runs, rutu1ing) does that count as one word or five?

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THE DIALECTICS OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING IN THE MARKETING CLASSROOM: THE ONLINE AUCTION PROJECT

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ABSTRACT

A brief review is offered of communication, long-term memory, and learning and a perspective is advanced that experiential learning occurs as the outcome of dialectic created between classroom instruction and real-world practice. A description of an experiential online auction project developed for the marketing classroom is also provided to illustrate this dialectic. Finally, the paper discusses the outcomes of past instructor /student efforts to resolve the tension between marketing textbook material and the realities of the online auction environment. New frontiers for marketing research and teaching are revealed.

> "The test of a first-rate intelligence is the ability to hold two opposed ideas at the same time and still retain the ability to function."
> – F. Scott Fitzgerald

> ". . . [I]t is in the dialectical tension between the two extremes that the greatest potential for learning resides" (Baker 1995).

Marketing education has many goals. Among them are:

♦ To design the delivery of courses in such a way that marketing terms and concepts will stick in students' memory;

♦ To help students synthesize this knowledge and understand the art of applying marketing tools to solve real-world marketing problems.

With these goals in mind, the purpose of this paper is to build upon what we already know about three cornerstones of good teaching (effective communication, moving information into long-term memory, and the learning process) and to advance a perspective regarding experiential learning as the outcome of dialectic created between classroom instruction and real-world practice. In the following sections, these concepts are discussed and a practical illustration of an experiential class project is provided.

COMMUNICATION, MEMORY, AND LEARNING

> "Memory is a glorious and admirable gift of nature by which we recall past things, we embrace present things, and we contemplate future things through their similarity to past things" – Boncompagno 1891 (Yates 1966, p. 58).

We know from communication theory that between the sender and receiver of any message are processes and influences that are critical to the effectiveness of communication: message

encoding by the sender, message decoding by the receiver, and message interference or "noise" from any number of sources. Once instructors attempt communication, they often then employ a number of techniques to get the information to move from students' short-term to long-term memory. Gurowitz (1969) stated that "short-term memory is electrical in nature and long-term memory is chemical in nature" (Fahey and de los Santos 2002). In other words, short-term knowledge flees away as if by the flick of a light switch, while long-term memory finds a more permanent resting place among the synapses. We know that the transfer from short-term to long-term memory is fostered through repetition and association. Association occurs when students link information to their own past or present experience. Because we assume that many of our students have little relevant experience, instructors turn to projects, examples, or applications in order to provide a present experience to which students can associate the information. For this reason, instructors have embraced experiential methods as a means of achieving this foundational component of student learning.

In the marketing and psychology literatures, learning is viewed as being explicitly linked to behavior, particularly, behavioral change. Kotler and Armstrong (2003) emphasize this link: "When people act, they learn. Learning describes changes in an individual's behavior arising from experience" (p. 205). In other words, the only real evidence that learning has occurred is when a change in behavior occurs. Learning doesn't take root until knowledge stored in memory is applied into action, because until then, there is no effective change in behavior and it remains only "head knowledge." Imagine a person who says: "I can walk a tight rope. I've read every book on the subject," or a teenager who asserts "I know how to drive a tractor-trailer; I've watched my mom do it for years." When students are given the opportunity to experientially apply knowledge, they are able to test concepts

against reality and adjust their behaviors, and this moves them closer to completion of the learning process.

An important initial step in this process is when instructors reveal clear linkages between knowledge and the various ways it might be applied. Many times instructors allow this oral explanation of linkages to serve as a surrogate for learning in our classrooms. While it is true that neural networks are broadened by conceptually the linking of concepts in a subject area, the real ingestion of knowledge and learning doesn't occur until the student forges those linkages for him/herself by trying those facts out and wrestling with the challenges of putting marketing knowledge into practice. In essence, this reflects the qualitative difference between the learning that occurs in MBAs who have work experience (the "Aha!" effect) and in undergraduate students ("will this be on the test?").

WHY USE EXPERIENTIAL METHODS IN THE MARKETING CLASSROOM?

Beyond the rationale stated above, there are several reasons why experiential teaching tools have been successful and have remained popular in marketing classrooms over the years.

1. Our students embody a broad array of learning styles, yet most of our courses are designed in a way that favors one or two learning styles. Visual and (especially) auditory learners tend to do well in classes involving lectures, or lectures with visual aids. Tactile/kinesthetic learners typically do not do well in these classes because these learners learn best experientially – i.e., through imitation, practice, touch, movement, and space. Although marketing is a discipline that is meant to be applied to the real world, instructors often communicate marketing knowledge and skills in a manner that suits visual and auditory learners, and kinesthetic learners often lag behind.

2. Although our university systems are designed to help students absorb material at a healthy and manageable pace, students are often susceptible to cognitive overload. However, learning can occur even under conditions of cognitive overload. What we know from our own discipline about consumers and consumer learning can help us design our courses and presentation of material to maximize student learning under these conditions. For example, two-factor theory states that receivers of messages experience both positive learning and tedium effects over time, and this explains why a varied presentation format increases comprehension of messages (by reducing tedium) (Bornstein 1989; Rethans et al.1986). Integrated marketing communications (IMC) emphasizes the fact that communication is enhanced when one uses multiple communication tools to deliver a single, coherent message. Variable encoding theory explains why IMC is more effective – our minds achieve deeper comprehension and retain information in memory longer when we encode a single message in a variety of ways. Also, Fink (1999) has stated that "active learning" occurs when instructors use a combination of dialogue and experience in their pedagogy.

3. Associations in memory are strengthened with examples and application. Experiential learning is a deeper, more organic type of learning-and its tools are best used as a complement, not as a substitute for other teaching methods. Well-designed experiential activities transfer information from short-term to long-term memory in a more integrative way, expanding the neural network of memory. ". . . [K]inetic experiences . . . are encoded in a context that is registered and retrieved more readily. This aspect of multi-sensory stimuli assists students in creating vivid images for association and recall" (Fahey and de los Santos 2002).

THE DIALECTIC IN EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

This paper proposes that another reason that experiential teaching is valuable to marketing instructors is because experiential learning reveals tensions and gaps –dialectic –between the information in textbooks and actual practice, and offers a means of resolving them. Dialectic has been used for centuries as a teaching tool, and is defined as "the art or practice of arriving at the truth by the exchange of logical arguments; the contradiction between two conflicting forces viewed as the determining factor in their continuing interaction" (Merriam-Webster 2004). As a means of learning, dialectics is defined as "a method of argument or exposition that systematically weighs contradictory facts or ideas with a view to the resolution of their real or apparent contradictions." This system of thought has influenced the development of nearly every academic discipline, including marketing. For example, dialectical logic has been offered as an explanation for the rise and fall of certain marketing constructs over the years (Fox and Penn 1985).

Kolb's classic model of experiential learning was developed around the concept of dialectic. The model depicts learning as a cyclic process involving four modes: (1) concrete experience, (2) reflective observation, (3) abstract conceptualization, and (4) active experimentation (Kolb 1984). When a student finds apparent discrepancies or inconsistencies between theory and observation or between two perspectives, the result is tension. Cognitive consistency motivates a person to reflect and actively attempt to reconcile apparently contradictory facts, and Kolb suggests that they employ the four-mode cyclic process to accomplish this. This is a more active and cognitively involving problem-solving process. This paper proposes that each perceived contradiction involves the student in a "mini Kolb cycle" as they work to find a satisfactory resolution. Experiential activities both

reveal and help to resolve these tensions. Through active engagement in the learning process, the student begins to discover holes in their understanding regarding some of the material or techniques, and begins to renovate, append, and perhaps reconstruct their knowledge structures in that area. Dialectics is about conflicting viewpoints and debate, and the process can also be used to address ethical dilemmas in marketing, reveal weaknesses in a viewpoint or the bases for a proposed strategy, and it can be used by instructors to help students trigger new ideas as well.

Some have a concern about dialectics being inherently associated with socialism ("dialectical materialism"). However, dialectics is simply a tool, a means of resolving discrepancies in logic. In fact, dialectical thinking is a skill that we instructors have developed and that we have been attempting to instill in our students for years:

> "Dialectics as a method of thought has no inherent political philosophy. Rather, dialectical thinking is defined as a developmental transformation that occurs through continuous and interactive relationships (Basseches 1984). In contrast to formal operational thought, which typically develops between the ages of 11 and 15 and focuses on logical propositions and resolving contradictions (Piaget 1978), dialectical thinking incorporates the flexibility, duality, and ability to tolerate ambiguity of mature adult thought. Dialectics should occur most frequently among mature, highly educated individuals, who are motivated to process information in a particular product category. Basseches (1980) found that dialectical thinking occurred more frequently among faculty members than college seniors, who in turn utilized dialectics more frequently than college freshman. In addition, dialectical thinking would be expected to occur most fre-

quently in complex or noncomparable, extended decisions" (Kahle et al. 2000, p. 54).

Beyond memory transfer, learning in marketing also includes appreciating the complexity of the interplay between text concepts and actual practice in the marketplace. Many times our instruction and general marketing text materials do not readily apply to marketing practices in the real world. The beauty of experiential tools is that students are handed the wheel, and invariably bump up against the shortcomings of definitions, the inadequacies and apparent forced fit of some frameworks and models, the appropriateness (or inappropriateness) of textbook strategies and recommended practices, the biases in many textbooks toward the practices of large corporations, the absence of guidance on specific tactical matters, and their own personal biases and misconceptions. Rather than skirt these issues, experiential methods provide a forum through which the student can attempt to resolve them. Through the dialectic process, experiential tools can help close the gap between classroom and work realities, and through discussion, many of these apparent contradictions can be cleared up.

AN EXAMPLE OF AN EXPERIENTIAL PROJECT FOR MARKETING COURSES

An experiential course project was developed to give students hands-on experience working with marketing concepts by having them sell real merchandise to real customers in a real marketplace. The instructor obtained merchandise (national brands and private labels) from a local retailer and assigned the items randomly to students, often in teams of two. The project consisted of two parts: (1) students were required to visit three online auction sites and familiarize themselves with the rules of auctions and common practices of buyers and sellers; and (2) students were assigned an item and were

required to prepare it for sale on the largest auction site: eBay.com. Students had to grapple with basic marketing issues such as: setting the level of starting price, writing an interesting headline and description for the item, deciding on the number and design of photographs to include, and figuring shipping costs. The students were also asked to turn in their predictions regarding the number of bids and final starting price for their item, and what they expected regarding the effect of starting price level and branding on auction outcomes. The instructor posted a few of the items each week on eBay using exactly what the students provided. Throughout the semester, updates on the auctions were presented, and in cases where items did not sell, the class worked together to "fix" the description, headline, photos, or starting price and the item would be re-listed. In some courses, students provided their own merchandise and completed the project on an individual basis. This project has been used several times as a supplement to Principles of Marketing and Consumer Behavior courses.

Throughout the semester, several questions would be raised by the students and the instructor about how marketing textbook principles apply to this form of commerce. By embracing these questions and discussing them, the students have become more actively involved in class discussions and, unknowingly, in the learning process. In the following sections I present a sample of the questions raised followed by a discussion of the gaps and how they have or have not been resolved.

QUESTION: HOW WELL DO OUR TEXTBOOK CONCEPTS APPLY TO ONLINE AUCTIONS?

♦ Do consumers follow the five-stage decision-making model at online auctions?

♦ What are the distribution channels used for after-market merchandise (end of life inventory)? What are the differences for a company between liquidation through eBay and through broker-based channels?

♦ In traditional retail stores, reference prices are needed by consumers to assess the value of purchases. Do consumers use reference price the same way in a dynamic price environment, when the going price is regularly changing?

♦ We know that many people use online auctions to find low price deals. How do consumers do price comparison shopping when price is a moving target?

♦ Is the concept of price floors and ceilings applicable at online auctions? Where are the floors? Where are the ceilings?

♦ Is product branding as important in online auctions as it is in traditional retail settings?

♦ What do we know about competition between consumers – e.g., Tickle Me Elmo, Sony PS2, classified ads, . . . ? There is little in our texts about this aspect of marketing and consumption.

♦ What happens to our assumptions of rational consumers when we see escalation of commitment and the "winner's curse?"

♦ We see a variety of shopping and buying styles in traditional retail. Are these different than the bidding styles we see online (e.g., snipers, bottom feeders, trudgers)?

♦ Do the time constraints present at online auctions have effects on consumers that are similar to expiration dates on coupons or "limited time offers?"

♦ Online auctions involve greater levels of perceived risk. Does this fact tend to suppress the amount of money people are willing to pay for items?

♦ Buyers tend to have a range of prices that they consider acceptable for potential purchases. At online auctions items start at a very low price to attract bidders, and final prices that may be higher than an individual's acceptable range (i.e., the winner's curse). What can we conclude about the acceptable range concept?

♦ Buyers at auctions learn from each other, dynamically altering their valuation of prod-

ucts based upon the interest expressed and actions taken by competing bidders. Is this type of process present in traditional retail?

♦ We know that for many people shopping has hedonic benefits. People at online auctions have been said to also have "competitively derived pleasure" from their participation. Do consumers in traditional retail settings also compete, but not overtly? How does this impact evaluations of the total shopping experience?

♦ People are increasingly buying and selling merchandise while at work. What impact does the workplace context have on shopping processes and outcomes? Is this an ethical practice? Could it be illegal?

DISCUSSION AND SYNTHESIS

As students discuss and grapple with questions and contradictions such as those posed above, some textbook concepts will be found to apply well to the online auction environment (or with some adjustment and expansion can include auctions), and some questions will remain unanswered, triggering a search for new theories and approaches. Both require follow-up conversation and dialogue between student and instructor to cement the learning.

By considering auctions as a new context for exchange, we can probably reconcile applications of the following concepts:

♦ The five-stage consumer decision-making model: Consumers still go through the stages, although the activities are adapted to a different environment.

♦ Perceived risk: Risk in online environments is as real as risk perceived with catalog shopping or purchases through classified ads, but it's probably higher online due to the potential for fraud.

♦ Branding effects: National brands reduce perceived risk, and with heightened risk at online auctions, we would expect national brands to be preferred, perceived value to be higher, and higher prices to be paid.

♦ Time constraints: We know from coupon research that responses to limited time offers is bimodal, a strong response at the beginning, and a large response just prior to the expiration date. The limited amount of research in auctions seems to follow this pattern.

♦ Acceptable price range: Although the range of acceptable prices is likely to be much wider at auctions, the fact that there is a range supports extant thinking, and differences at online auctions represent a contextual effect.

♦ Hedonic shopping: The fact that fun is a primary motive for shopping is true both at the mall and online.

♦ Learning effects: Bidders at auctions attempt to estimate the "true" value of an item from several attributes. One source is level interest from other buyers. This may be similar to the "bandwagon" effect in traditional retail, and research regarding opinion leaders, word of mouth communication, and group influences may be sufficient to explain this.

♦ Irrational buying: Compulsive and irrational behavior in marketing is well-documented in the consumer behavior literature. Consumers simply don't behave as we expect.

But it is clear that we need new approaches for some concepts:

♦ Reference prices are what people have been paying for the item in the auction environment, not the MSRP.

♦ How does price comparison shopping work when price is a moving target?

♦ We are told that price floors and ceilings limit the range of prices that will be paid in traditional marketing environments. In the auction environment, the question becomes "what floors?" or "what ceilings?"

- Competition between consumers is part of the marketplace. What theory might apply?
- Game theory?
- Experience at auctions is likely an important determinant of the bidding style used. Do extant frameworks regarding shopping behavior or consumption styles apply?
- People are shopping on the faster computers while at work. Perhaps the literature on polychronic behavior could be applied here?
- As auctions progress and the deadline nears, there are often escalation of commitment effects on behavior. Could theories of negotiation be helpful?

Another learning outcome from this type of learning experience is the revelation that marketing is a changing, dynamic discipline based on assumptions about our world:

> "A paradigm binds together implicit assumptions about the phenomena being studied with assumptions about the methodology appropriate for studying those phenomena. Over time, however, research may produce anomalies—findings that are not easily reconciled with other knowledge in the field. When enough such anomalies are produced to make scientists within the field uncomfortable, new alternative paradigms are advanced that compete with the dominant paradigm for followers" (Kahle et al. 2000, p. 56).

Through the process of revealing and engaging dialectic, students can begin to see that marketing, like their own knowledge base, has frontiers and is constantly developing. It also becomes apparent that marketing is theoretically based, and the knowledge and practices of marketing can and should be adapted in a variety of ways for application in organizations.

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FROM A TRADITIONAL TO A HYBRID CLASS: ACTIVE AND COLLABORATIVE LEARNING FOR THE DIGITAL GENERATION

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Instructional faculty face several challenges in today's teaching environment. Student expectations and institutional accountability standards are rising with regard to the quality of instruction (Smart, Kelley, and Conant 2003). The increased use of technology requires careful consideration of its effects in the classroom for both students and faculty (Smith and Rupp 2004). It is really the instructor's role to manage the integration of technology into the learning process, at the same time maintaining a balance between knowledge acquisition and learning. Students have distinctively different learning styles and experiences which affect the way they respond to traditional and new technological modes of teaching (Hunt, Eagle, and Kitchen 2004).

In the past three decades, university instructors have been experimenting with alternative approaches to active, experiential, and collaborative learning. Smart, Kelley and Conant (2003) claim that although many of the fundamentals associated with teaching 15 years ago remain the same today-strong communication skills, use of an interactive style, and asking thought-provoking questions-the use of technology has significantly impacted both teaching and learning environments. Table 1 summarizes some of the old and new paradigms of teaching. Active and collaborative learning has been one of the major premises of the modern teaching paradigm. Today's students learn differently, they are eas-

ily bored with regular lectures. One of the ways to address this problem is to engage the class in active learning. The availability of various technological tools, namely, web-based learning systems such as Desire2Learn (commonly referred to as D2L) or Blackboard and web-design software such as Dreamweaver or Frontpage can help enhance this type of learning.

All of us, at one point or the other, have debated whether to keep teaching the way we have taught for years or to learn how to adapt or improve in order to cater to a new generation of students. Having had the experience in teaching courses both completely online and completely face-to-face, I was interested in converting a traditional face-to-face class into a hybrid course. The purpose of this paper is to describe how a course was transformed from a traditional class to a hybrid class by integrating web-based technology in the course design. The specific goals were: to use D2L to enhance and support a traditional on-campus class, to create an active learning environment both within and outside of the classroom, to incorporate digital tools to teach the "video generation" and to enhance learning through discussions and group work using D2L. In doing this, L. Dee Fink's teaching framework was used to divide the class into four components and three of the four components were modified by actively integrating D2L into the class.

TABLE 1
Old and New Paradigms for College Teaching

	Old Paradigm	New Paradigm
Knowledge	Transferred from faculty to students	Jointly constructed by students and faculty
Student	Passive vessel to be filled by faculty's knowledge	Active constructor, discoverer, ·transformer of knowledge
Mode of learning	Memorizing	Relating
Faculty purpose	Classify, sort students	Develop students' competencies and talents
Student growth, goals	Students strive to complete requirements, achieve certification within a discipline	Students stive to focus on continual lifelong learning within a broader system
Relationships	Impersonal relationship among students and between faculty and students	Personal relationship among students and between faculty and students
Context	Competitve, individualistic	Cooperative learning in classroom and cooperative teams among faculty
Climate	Conformity, cultural uniformity	Diversity and personal esteem, cultural diversity and commonality
Power	Faculty holds and exercises power, authority, and control	Students are empowered; power is shared among students and faculty
Assessment	Norm-referenced (i.e., grading on the curve); typically use multiple choice items; student rating of instruction at end of course	Criterion referenced (i.e., grading to predefined standards; typically use performances and portifolios; continual assessment of instruction)
Ways of knowing	Logical-scientific	Narrative

	TABLE 1 (CONTINUED) **Old and New Paradigms for College Teaching**	
	Old Paradigm	**New Paradigm**
Epistemology	Reductionist; facts and memorization	Constructivist; inquiry and invention
Technology use	Drill and practice; textbook substitute; chalk-and-talk substitute	Problem solving, communication, collaboration, information access, expression
Teaching assumption	Any Expert can teach	Teaching is complex and requires considerable training
Source: Campbell and Smith 1997		

FINK'S FRAMEWORK

L. Dee Fink proposes a teaching framework that includes four components (see Figure 1 below): knowledge of the subject matter, design of instruction, teacher-student interactions, and course management. The first two usually happen before a course actually begins and the latter two after the course begins (Fink 2003).

Fink's model implies that instructors who want to improve their teaching can do so by improving their competence in one or more of the four components in the model illustrated in Figure 1. It is safe to assume faculty members are competent in the first aspect-they are trained in their field, most have terminal degrees and are trained to continuously acquire and update their knowledge of the subject.

I focused on the other three components, namely, design of instruction, teacher-student interactions, and course management in creating my hybrid class.

DESIGN OF INSTRUCTION

The skill to design a course is usually not what most instructors receive formal training in (Fink 2003). It varies by course, by discipline, and by size of the class. Most faculty start out by using a traditional design, lectures, exams and quizzes, some group work, and some application-oriented exercises. I believe that in order to re-evaluate the course design, it is extremely important to take a look at the course objectives. The first step in this endeavor of creating a hybrid class for me was to reevaluate the course objectives and to determine if the objectives were being met through the assessment tools used in the class. The objectives were revised keeping in mind the use of D2L. This was done by carefully assessing what skills I want my students to become competent in, by revisiting assessment tools and mechanisms, and by rethinking learning activities to match the objectives. At this stage, I decided what assessment tools I would retain or modify and what additional components I would include in the

FIGURE 1
The Four Components of Teaching

Knowledge of subject matter

Teacher-student interactions

Design of instruction

Course management

Beginning of instruction
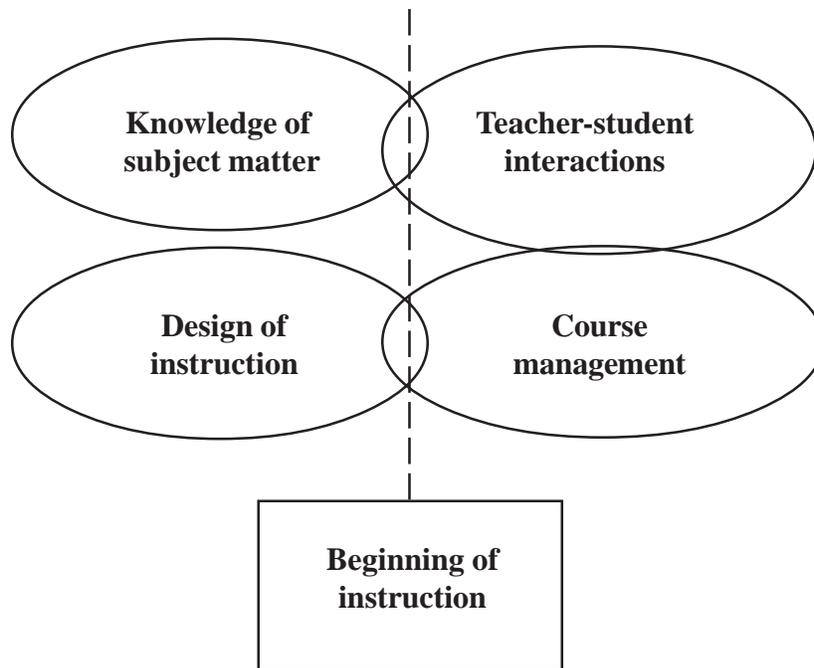
Source: Fink, L.D. 2003, p. 22

course. In addition, I focused on how learning would take place, that is, what percentage of the class would be lectures as opposed to individual self-learning activities and group-learning activities. I also made a conscious decision on the extent of outside-of-class activity that would be involved. When this was completed I moved on to the next component-generating interaction through the use of technology.

INTERACTIONS

Teacher-student interaction refers to the different ways teachers can interact with their students (Fink 2003). The extent of interaction depends on the individual instructor and the size of the class in a traditional classroom setting. Traditionally, this would include lecturing, leading class discussions, meeting with individual students during office hours, communicating by email, etc. (Fink 2003). I included in this component all types of interactions, teacher-student, student-student and group interactions, hence the title "interactions." All of us struggle to some extent in balancing the extent of interaction with students and all the other demands of our profession. For example, we don't want to be bombarded by emails, although we would like to encourage this type of interaction. There is also the issue of responding to similar messages multiple times; what we would really like to do is post some FAQs.

My D2L class has an "Ask the Professor" space, where I commit to respond to a question or a comment from a student within 36 hours of the

posting. In the syllabus, I encourage students to post their queries or curiosities in this spot, so that it is visible to the whole class. This is one of the modes of communication between teacher and student in a class that is taught completely online. By making it an active component of a traditional class, I hope to provide students that would rather not speak up in class an opportunity to communicate with me (and also with the rest of the class). I also encourage students to respond to a question in this section (even though the question is addressed to the Professor) if they know the answer.

In addition to making announcements in class, I encourage students to read my announcements on D2L where I not only reinforce deadlines, but also share with them my thoughts on the topic of the week as well as recent news items related to the subject. The syllabus recommends that a student log on to the D2L class at least once a day. I hope that this type of interaction will generate increased classroom discussion.

I have also supplemented in-class cases and assignments with D2L discussions. Specifically, before a case or assignment is due in class for submission and discussion, I have created a discussion area for the case with specific questions that students have to think about and post their comments on. Not only will they post a comment, but they will also respond to a fellow-classmate's comment (whether they agree or disagree with that person's point of view). I believe that this type of interaction outside of the classroom without having to physically meet (which is the most common complaint we receive from undergraduate students) will help students to get to know each other better and will also enhance classroom discussion as they now feel much more comfortable with each other.

I have always included collaborative learning as a component of my course in all my traditional classes. However, this is the first time I will be using D2L to enhance the collaborative learning process. My course includes several group assignments and a major group project that students work on in teams of four or five.

There are several issues related to effectively managing and motivating groups in a classroom setting. Some of the problems related to group activities as identified by Michaelson, Fink and Knight (1997) are:

- Some individuals prefer not to participate
- Some individuals prefer to dominate discussions
- Members may be concerned about appearing to be disagreeable or overly aggressive
- Members may not be committed to the success of the group

Many of these issues can be overcome through the effective use of D2L to support in-class activity. I have created group spaces in D2L, where access to each group space is limited to members of that group and the instructor. By being involved in and by monitoring group activity on D2L, I hope to promote individual accountability, to motivate groups to engage in a great deal of discussion, to provide group members with immediate and meaningful feedback, and also to provide rewards for high group performance.

COURSE MANAGEMENT

Course management refers to being organized and ready for the different events in the course, such as having assignments ready when they are needed, grading and returning exams promptly, having grade information ready when a student requests it, etc. (Fink 2003). The advantage of digitizing the course on D2L is that all the material, including assignments are available to students right at the beginning of class. All the grades are visible to each individual student as the instructor makes them available in the D2L gradebook, as opposed to handing out grades on notecards or emailing grades. All they have

to do is to log on to the class and look for any material they might be missing or check the calendar for the schedule and due dates, and also check their grades. Grades can be exported from D2L to a spreadsheet at any point in time.

This sort of course management has forced me to put some thought into the class and have everything prepared ahead of time. In addition, I used Dreamweaver to create my syllabus, schedule, and many of the assignments. For one, the appearance of the documents online is enhanced through the use of Dreamweaver and more importantly, it allows the instructor to make changes or modifications right on D2L since the documents are in HTML format.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

By integrating a web-based learning system into a traditional classroom, I hope to facilitate better learning by students. Especially so because our current students are digital learners, they would rather do their research on the Internet than in the library, read their news online than in the newspaper, and would rather communicate via email than in person. The intent of generating a hybrid course of this nature is not to eliminate face-to-face contact, but to enhance interactions in a traditional classroom by providing the opportunity for active and collaborative learning through D2L. After teaching a class of this nature for the first time, I have no doubt that there will be changes based on both my experience and student feedback. In my future pedagogical research endeavors, I hope to follow this up with a paper on best practices in teaching hybrid courses.

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IMPLEMENTING THE SEVEN PRINCIPLES FOR GOOD PRACTICE IN UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION: LEVERAGING THE HUMAN TOUCH TO ENCOURAGE CONTACT BETWEEN STUDENTS AND FACULTY

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Principle 1: Good Practice Encourages Contacts Between Students and Faculty: *Frequent student-faculty contact in and out of classes is the most important factor in student motivation and involvement. Faculty concern helps students get through rough times and keep on working. Knowing a few faculty members well enhances students' intellectual commitment and encourages them to think about their own values and future plans* (Chickering and Gamson 1987).

The items listed below are ones that I have used at Highland Community College during my 18 years of teaching experience and from various industry experiences:

1. Spell out on the first day of class what the expectations are for the class and the students.
2. Make the class fun and enjoyable.
3. Know your students by name within the first two weeks of the class.
4. Talk to students individually during and after class and labs.
5. Treat the class as a job and be on time.
6. Review previous days lecture.
7. Encourage questions at all times.
8. Ask the students about their individual likes and dislikes.
9. Write a weekly synopsis of what you learned in class.
10. Encourage students to take advantage of instructors office hours.
11. Ask the students about the readability of the textbook.
12. Ask the students if they would like to lecture on some aspect of the book.
13. Use non-verbal communication cues wisely.
14. What are five specific concepts that you would like to learn from this class.
15. Make sure you communicate via email or phone in case of an absence.
16. Encourage students to become involved in student activities or volunteer work.
17. Ask how many students are paying for their own education without any financial assistance from their parents or grants.
18. Bring humor to the classroom.
19. Devise activities for social interactions in and out of class.
20. Walk between lasses with students.
21. Serve as a mentor or informal advisor to students.
22. Emphasize various college wide services available to the students.
23. Try to help students resolve conflicts.
24. Have students introduce themselves the first day of class.
25. Ask students to identify some current events that are currently taking place.

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