Marketing Management Association
2009 Educators' Conference Proceedings

Peter Gordon, Co-Editor
Michelle Kunz, Co-Editor
Marie Steinhoff, Proceedings Manager

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Marketing Management Association Educators' Conference
September 23–25, 2009, St. Louis, Missouri

The Marketing Management Association is grateful for the financial support provided to the conference by our sponsors, The Magellan Exchange, Ethics-lxTR, Wiley Publishing Company, and Associate Sponsor Pearson Professional.

I would also like to express my appreciation to Michelle Kunz for her work on the program and Marie Steinhoff for her invaluable administrative assistance. The Harrison College of Business, Southeast Missouri State University continues to provide support to this conference, and I especially appreciate the efforts of John Cherry and Judy Wiles.

Thanks to all of you who have come to St. Louis and for prioritizing your limited professional development funds to attend the conference. I hope you have a great time, share new ideas with colleagues and leave with fond memories.

Don't forget to mark your calendar with two important conference dates – March in Chicago for the Spring MMA Conference, and September in Indianapolis for its Fall MMA conference. Full details and dates can be found at www.mmaglobal.org.

Thank You,
Peter J. Gordon, Conference Co-Chair.

Conference Sponsor/Exhibitors

Ethics-LX™
The Magellan Exchange
John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Associate Sponsor: Pearson Professional

Program Committee

Peter Gordon, Co-Chair
Southeast Missouri State University

Michelle Kunz, Co-Chair
Morehead State University

Marie Steinhoff, Proceedings Manager
Southeast Missouri State University

MARKETING MANAGEMENT ASSOCIATION

2010–2011 OFFICERS

President
John Cherry, Southeast Missouri State University

President Elect/Spring 2010 Conference Program Chair
Rama Yelkur, University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire

Vice President of Marketing
Mandeep Singh, Western Illinois University

Treasurer
Susan Geringer, California State University – Fresno

Executive Secretary
Michelle Kunz, Morehead State University

Past President
Robin Luke, Missouri State University

BOARD OF DIRECTORS & ENDING TERMS

March 2010
- ***Tim Aurand,*** **Northern Illinois University**
- ***Jeri Mullins Beggs,*** **Illinois State University**
- ***Kim Folkers,*** **Wartburg College**
- ***John Fraedrich,*** **Southern Illinois University – Carbondale**

March 2011
- ***John Bennett,*** **University of Missouri**
- ***Karen James,*** **Louisiana State University – Shreveport**
- ***Michael J. Messina,*** **Gannon University**
- ***Don Roy,*** **Middle Tennessee State University**
- ***Judy Wiles,*** **Southeast Missouri State University**

March 2012
- ***Russell Casey,*** **Penn State Worthington Scranton**
- ***Tim Graeff,*** **Middle Tennessee State University**
- ***Mandeep Singh,*** **Western Illinois University**
- ***Carrie Trimble,*** **Illinois Wesleyan University**
- ***Stacey Hills,*** **Utah State University**
- ***John Newbold,*** **Sam Houston State University**
- ***Brian Vander Schee,*** **Aurora University**

Fall 2009 Conference Chairs
- ***Peter Gordon,*** **Southeast Missouri State University**
- ***Michelle Kunz,*** **Morehead State University**

MMA Website: www.mmaglobal.org

Special Speakers – 2009 Fall MMA Conference

Wednesday, 3:30 p.m. **Don Welge, CEO, Gilster-Mary Lee**

The Gilster Milling Company was founded in 1895. When Don joined what is now the Gilster-Mary Lee Corporation in 1957, the company's annual sales were $1,000,000. Through a succession of expansions, acquisitions and mergers, today's Gilster-Mary Lee is one of the largest private label food manufacturers in the country, employing 3,000 people and maintaining its own fleet of trucks which distribute its products throughout the U.S. and Canada. Its products are shipped worldwide.

Don was the co-recipient of the MMA Marketing Excellence Award/Marketing Entrepreneur of the Year at the inaugural MMA Fall Conference, in St Louis in 1996. Long-time fall conference attendees will recall Don's inspiring message 15 years ago.

Thursday, 10:45 a.m. **Laura Patterson, President, Vision Edge Marketing**

Laura founded Vision Edge Marketing after a career spanning nearly 30 years. Before founding VEM, she worked at Motorola for 14 years and was also the marketing manager for an enterprise software company, Evolutionary Technologies. VEM is a data-driven and metrics-focused marketing firm that specializes in improving marketing performance. Since 1999, VEM has worked with over 100 companies in solving business/marketing problems. More information can be found in her book, *Marketing Metrics in Action* or at the VEM website, www.visionedgemarketing.com.

Friday, 9:30 a.m. **Kevin Kliesen, Business Economist, 8th District Federal Reserve Bank**

Kevin writes the bank's monthly "Report on Economic Activity", and is a frequent contributor to the *Review*, the Bank's peer-reviewed economics journal and the *Regional Economist*, a publication for a non-technical audience. He has also written articles for several academic economics journals and authored several book reviews. His main professional interests are business economics and monetary policy and the long term fiscal problems facing the U.S.

Kevin holds a M.A. in Economics from Colorado State University.

Friday, 10:45 a.m. **Tony Naidu, Biz-LX**

Tony's presentation , *Integrating ethics into marketing courses through simulation learning experiences*, will cover sub-topics such as; Ethics across the curriculum, Experiential learning in business education, Games/simulations, Issues in implementing and managing a game and requirements for effective use of games. He will also give a demonstration of Ethics-LX simulation learning experience "Med4Life" designed to bring Ethical issues into Marketing courses.

Tony holds an MBA from the Darden Graduate School at the University of Virginia, and has been instrumental in founding a number of educational oriented companies both internationally and in the U.S.

Friday, 12:00 noon **Colin Taylor, CEO, Taylor Matters**

Headquartered in Dubai, Colin is the founder and Managing Director of this consulting firm. He started Taylor Matters after a long career with Nestle, the largest food company in the world. He has worked in over 30 countries in both Europe and Asia, and brings a wealth of international knowledge to the MMA conference. Immediately prior to his retirement from Nestle, Colin managed the company's $250 million cocoa operations in 23 countries.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

AMA CASE COMPETITION: INSIGHTS FROM FIRST TIME FACULTY ADVISORS

Donnavieve N. Smith, North Central College
Brian P. Hanlon, North Central College

SUMMARY

The annual Case Competition sponsored by the American Marketing Association is an excellent opportunity to engage students in the field of marketing outside the traditional classroom setting. As faculty attempt to incorporate more experiential learning components into marketing programs, the AMA Case Competition is deserving of consideration. This position paper discussion is intended to facilitate a dialog centered on three primary topics: (1) perceived student learning outcomes and benefits related to participating in the Competition (from a faculty perspective); (2) workload and effort required by faculty in coordinating and supervising an AMA Case Competition team; and (3) lessons learned from a team of AMA co-advisors as their team competed in its first AMA Case Competition. The viewpoint of the discussants is based on their experience in supervising a collegiate AMA chapter at a small liberal arts college where a team of nine students submitted an entry in the 2008–2009 Case Competition, and was recognized with a national Semi-Finalist Award.

Participation in the AMA Case Competition is a valuable learning experience that should have a lasting impact on participating students. The case always focuses on real-life strategic marketing challenges that firms are struggling with (e.g., Kodak Gallery, McGraw Hill). Students are tasked with researching and proposing solutions to these challenges, and must put forth their best professional effort in developing a comprehensive marketing and IMC plan supported by primary research.

By default, students who participate in the Case Competition are engaged and active in applying academic lessons to practical industry scenarios. Student engagement is a huge benefit of participating, but is certainly not the only benefit. Participation in the case fosters collaboration between students of different backgrounds, interests and abilities. Faculty-student relationships are enhanced via small group and one-on-one conversations whereby faculty teach, mentor, challenge, and inspire students to bring their best work forward in order to make a meaningful contribution to the overall project deliverable(s) which will be submitted to AMA and the sponsoring company. Students also gain the opportunity to further develop their understanding of specific areas within the field of marketing, such as consumer behavior, marketing research, promotions, etc. Students examine and explore how knowledge from various areas within the field of marketing can be used to develop a comprehensive strategic marketing plan. Students experience professional responsibility by being accountable to an entire team under the supervision of faculty. This sense of responsibility is different than that experienced in the classroom where due dates for assignments and group projects are dictated by instructors. Instead, case competition participants have to manage their time effectively, meet self-imposed deadlines, and are generally held accountable by the entire team. Perhaps the most important benefit students earn by participating in the Case Competition is the resume line. Students report that this is the most discussed item in interviews for internships and full-time positions, and is a great opportunity to distinguish themselves from other job applicants. Being an active student-member of AMA competing in a national competition tends to be especially impressive to corporate AMA members interviewing aspiring marketers.

Faculty must be aware of the time commitment required to supervise an AMA case. While there are many models of faculty involvement in the case across campuses, faculty generally need to be hands-on with the team. After all, students not only submit their case entry in their own names – but also in the name of the College/University. The time commitment per week will be measured in hours, not minutes. It may also be advisable for faculty to divide the workload with a colleague. This allows for more specialized guidance to various subgroups of students, and lessens the workload on faculty. The case competition is completed during the fall, and it is very important to hit the ground running upon the start

of the academic year. Ideally the team will be created the previous spring, but that is not always feasible. In any case, one model that has worked well has been to develop a syllabus outlining meeting dates, responsibilities, and final deliverables. Planning for two group meetings per week at the beginning of the fall term is recommended in order to review the Case Competition materials, review applicable marketing concepts, develop a strategy to complete the assignment, break into sub-groups, etc. Then once the group is organized, a weekly group meeting is sufficient in addition to meetings with sub-groups (e.g., research team, promotions team, etc.). The faculty advisor's role is to push students to really dig deep in their analysis and creative problem solving. This can sometimes be difficult as faculty have to coach and advise students rather than drive the project and participate in final decisions. However, faculty should be involved in collaborating with students in the exchange of ideas, overseeing the professionalism of the final submission materials, and managing the team to some extent.

In order to facilitate the most effective Case Competition experience among students, and for faculty advisors, some ground rules need to be established upfront. Faculty may want to consider how participants are selected (invitation by faculty, minimum GPA requirement, work experience, etc.). It only takes one or two loafers in the group to set the entire team and project in the wrong direction. A sense of responsibility, accountability, ownership, and pride needs to be instilled in every participant. Faculty may want to consider awarding credit for this experience, as students will invest as many hours in the Case Competition as they would in a class. Of course, this presents challenges in grading the effort of participants in group project. Therefore, the use of peer evaluations is strongly advised.

Faculty often struggle with ways to encourage students to become more engaged and active in undergraduate marketing programs. Some of the more traditional avenues that lead to such engagement such as student clubs or internships may be impractical for many reasons, such as inconvenient meeting times, geographically-imposed restrictions on internship opportunities, etc. Another related malady in generating important outside-the-classroom involvement in the field is the fact that students view many activities sponsored by academic departments as being too academic with no direct correlation to eventually obtaining employment in their desired marketing concentration (e.g., sales, advertising, research, etc.). As illustrated above, creating an AMA Case Competition team overcomes some of these issues and is an excellent opportunity to foster faculty-student collaboration and professional growth among students in the field of marketing.

For further information contact:
Brian P. Hanlon
Department of Management & Marketing
North Central College
30 N. Brainard Street
Naperville, IL 60563
E-Mail: bphanlon@noctrl.edu

Donnavieve N. Smith
Department of Management & Marketing
North Central College
30 N. Brainard Street
Naperville, IL 60563
Phone: 630.637.5242
E-Mail: dnsmith@noctrl.edu

EDUCATING THE DIGITAL NATIVE IN A VIRTUAL WORLD: SECOND LIFE

Mandeep Singh, Western Illinois University
Roger L. Runquist, Western Illinois University

SUMMARY

Today's generation often referred to as "digital natives" are more at ease with online, collaborative technologies than ever before. They are growing up in an immersive, interactive, and experiential environment inconceivable of a few years ago. A notebook and pen may have been the arsenal of the previous generations, today's student comes armed with an array of technological devices such as computers, smart phones, iPods, and a multitude of gaming devices.

This pervasive proliferation of technology has had one distinct impact on today's students. Attentions spans are shrinking and the millennial student fully expects an educational experience that is immersive, hands-on, and experiential. The days of a traditional lecture and the coinage "sage on a stage" as a means of knowledge transfer have quickly given way to a more challenging time for educators where he/she is more of a facilitator. Today's challenge lies in helping students cultivate intrinsic motivation, critical thinking skills, autonomous learning skills, and knowledge/skill transfer between learning domains and applications (Woolfolk 2006).

One method that is commonly referred to, as being able to respond to the current challenge being faced by educators is Papert's constructionist method of teaching related to his constructivist learning theory, and Vygotsky's socio-constructivist theory. These developmental learning theories consider knowledge creation and skill acquisition as active and interrelated processes (Woolfolk 2006).

Papert's constructionist educational methods places students as active participants in the learning process with teachers as facilitators, and it emphasizes the utility of a socially demonstrable learning process in which student' learning is enhanced when the outcomes are publicly viewable and are shared/communicate with others (Ackermann 2004). In order to implement this approach, several guidelines are recommended (Driscoll 2000):

1. The learning context must be personally relevant to the lives and future prospects of the individual students,

2. The learning must be explorative,

3. The student should be given a chance to both participate in groups and demonstrate his/her knowledge individually, and

4. The instructor should guide and facilitate learning without spoon-feeding students.

As educators, we need to utilize methods of instruction that engage our students using modalities that are found to be interesting, interactive, important as well as immersive.

Web 2.0 arms the educator with an impressive array of tools that can be utilized to optimize the learning experience. Some of the applications include wikis, blogs, and social networking forums that allow the student to have that immersive experience. One such technology that provides educators with a multitude of options and is the focus of our discussion is an evolving virtual world known as Second Life. This internet application allows participants to communicate via text, audio, and video formats. As a technology that is distinct from other internet-based applications, one appealing definition of virtual worlds is as "online environments that have game-like immersion and social media functionality without game-like goals or rules. At the heart is a sense of presence with others at the same time and in the same place" (Constable 2008). Virtual worlds are inherently interesting for students because they immerse students in an explorative, fun, and interactive learning environment, and facilitate autonomous action via animated characters called avatars.

Second Life has found numerous educational applications from the arts, economics, science, and humanities. While businesses are exploring this media as yet another

method of reaching, educating and transacting with customers, higher-educational institutions are making significant investments in establishing a presence in Second Life for both recruitment and delivery instructional materials.

The 2008 Survey of Educators in Second by the New Media Consortium indicates:

- A dramatic uptick in the use of Second Life for teaching and learning instead of simply for exploration. More respondents report being involved in an educational-related activity in Second Life (increasing from 54% in 2007 to 71% in 2008).
- More than half report that the organization they are affiliated with owns a sim [Second Life real estate].
- This year 29 percent of survey participants report holding virtual office hours in SL; 37 of them (12%) have taught a class entirely in SL (up from 14 or 8% in 2007).
- A majority (84%) of educators use Second Life as a portal to listen to presentations, 80 percent participate in meetings and 64 percent build things in Second Life.

While relatively new, virtual worlds are a natural environment for the digital native who has been nourished on a staple diet of video games and other forms of digital, synchronous interactions. Second Life provides the educator with a multitude in creating learning experiences that best appeals to the millennial student. This session introduces participants with:

1. An overview of Second Life.
2. The educational applications of Second Life.
3. Business applications of Second Life.
4. The pros/cons of utilizing Second Life.
5. Getting started in Second Life.

REFERENCES

Ackermann, E.K. (2004), "Constructing Knowledge and Transforming the World," in *A Learning Zone of One's Own: Sharing Representations and Flow in Collaborative Learning Environments*, M. Tokoro and L. Steels, eds. Washington, DC: IOS Press, 15–37.

Constable, G. (2008), "Virtual Worlds: A Short Introduction to Second Life," (video). Retrieved May 10, 2009 from [http://au.youtube.com/watch?v=5ME2FwjjPf8].

Driscoll, M.P. (2000), *Psychology of Learning for Instruction*, 2nd ed. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

New Media Consortium Survey (2008), [http://www.nmc.org/publications/2008-sl-survey].

Woolfolk, A.E. (2006), *Educational Psychology*, 10th ed. Sydney, NSW, Australia: Pearson.

For further information contact:
Mandeep Singh
Department of Marketing and Finance
430 Stipes Hall
Western Illinois University
1 University Circle
Macomb, IL 61455
Phone: 309.298.1198
Fax: 309.298.2198
E-Mail: M-Singh@wiu.edu

Roger L. Runquist
Center of Innovation of Teaching and Research
637 Malpass Library
Western Illinois University
1 University Circle
Macomb, IL 61455
Phone: 309.298.2434
Fax: 309.298.2435
E-Mail: R-Runquist@wiu.edu

INNOVATIVE WEB TECHNIQUES AT A SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY

Mark E. Harrison, Southeastern University

SUMMARY

Distance education has changed in the past decade. Today, new instructional techniques are used to aid the student learner. Several of these techniques have been incorporated into the Southeastern University online model. Southeastern is a small private university in Lakeland, Florida. The online model includes continuous improvement thru two phases. Information needs to be given to the student in lieu of the lack of Face to Face (F2F) interaction. Southeastern uses Camtasia with Microsoft Office, video lectures, and Elluminate Live. The instructional technologies that are available today are very useful in helping the students learn the material.

Distance education has changed in the past decade. Today, new instructional techniques are used to aid the student learner. Several of these techniques have been incorporated into the Southeastern University online model. Distance education is a different delivery system. Students need access to instructional materials. Information needs to be given to the student in lieu of the lack of F2F (Face 2 Face) interaction. Not all of the delivery methods listed below need to be used, but students should have options. Each learning style needs to be accommodated for each online class. I currently teach in several areas online: finance, accounting, quantitative methods, and management.

Online students need to have a common format for all of their classes. Southeastern utilizes Blackboard. The major areas of each online class are syllabus, course materials, and student services. The syllabus tab includes subheadings that consist of class requirements, rubrics, scales, and course policies. The course materials area includes lecture notes, PowerPoints, quizzes, course websites, other online sources (like a standard normal table), Intended Learning Outcomes (ILO's), and discussion board (links to). The student services heading allows quick links for the technical and academic support, student life, and FAQ's. Southeastern also has minor areas such as Discussion Board and other typical Blackboard tools and headings.

Southeastern uses Camtasia with Microsoft office, video lectures, and Elluminate Live. Camtasia is easy software to learn and it can be used for voiced-over PowerPoints, voiced-over lectures (with or without video), announcements, and introductions. PowerPoints are usually too broad and bland. I have made PowerPoints fun, because humor can be added to enhance the learning environment. Current event examples can also be used. Voiced-over lectures are also helpful because you can go thru math examples step by step and the student can listen as much as needed. Announcements and introduction help to give positive reinforcement especially with harder classes such as Quantitative Methods.

Video lectures are wonderful for a math-based class as you can show the student examples on how to solve the problem. The use of tripod and a nice digital camera allows the instructor to show a step by step process using chalkboards or marker boards. Small video segments are made in order to keep the attention span of the average student which is five to nine minutes. Each video can be downloaded and appropriately inserted into the Blackboard shell.

Elluminate Live is also fairly easy to learn and it allows students to come to class (Online) with different add-on requirements such as audio (microphone) and video (camera). This software allows the instructor to meet at a specific time each week (or more than one time if the instructor determines a need) with the students online. The instructor's voice can be heard, problems can be presented to the class using a whiteboard, and the students can chat. Mini-windows are used to allow for visual necessities. Each session can be taped and reviewed for later use.

Learning styles should be reflected in each online class. The visual-verbal learner would enjoy the voiced-over PowerPoints. The visual-nonverbal learner would enjoy the regular PowerPoints. The kinesthetic learner would enjoy the Elluminate sessions. Finally, the auditory-verbal learner would enjoy the voiced-over lecture notes. These are just some examples. Students who are able to

access course material utilizing their preferred learning style will perform better in the class.

Students are adapting to distance education. The instructional technologies available today are very useful in helping the students learn the material. I have shown a glimpse above how Southeastern University serves this purpose. However, these materials are only as good as the instructor presenting them. Instructors need to check their email at least every 24 hours. They also need to make themselves available for the students.

For further information contact:
Mark E. Harrison
Business and Legal Studies
Southeastern University
1000 Longfellow Blvd.
Lakeland, FL 33801
Phone: 863.667.5273
E-Mail: meharrison@seuniversity.edu

LET'S WORK TOGETHER: USING COLLABORATIVE MULTI-CLASSES TO SOLVE BUSINESS CASES

Janie R. Gregg, The University of West Alabama
Mitzi C. Green, The University of West Alabama

ABSTRACT

Most professors in the typical university business school setting use the case method totally in classes, such as in strategic management/business policy; or they use cases to stress particular points they are trying to get students to learn in discipline-specific instances. Often these cases are multi-faceted, but we only address the elements of the cases which relate to our particular classes in our individual discipline. Beyond this phenomenon, we often use teams to complete these cases within the individual classrooms. However, we don't tend to have two or more classes collaborate on one case at the same time. Some may think this would be impossible, but it is really quite easy if you think about what classes to schedule at the same time before the schedules are printed for the following semester.

In this session the authors will discuss the merits of using multiple classes to participate in a team effort to solve business cases and the methodology used to accomplish it. Some class scheduling ideas and options will be suggested and at least one case will be distributed and discussed showing how it can be used with this method of teaching.

For further information contact:
Janie R. Gregg
College of Business
The University of West Alabama
Station 21
Livingston, AL 35470
Office: 205-652-3716
Fax: 205-652-3776
E-Mail: mdlakzy@aol.com

Mitzi C. Green
College of Business
The University of West Alabama
Station 21
Livingston, AL 35470
Phone: 205.652.3777
Fax: 205.652.3776
E-Mail: mgreen@uwa.edu

WHO ARE THESE PEOPLE? SHOULD I CARE?

Mike Goree, Mississippi State University

SUMMARY

The underlying assumption of this presentation is that we as a profession espouse the uber-concept of "relationship marketing" in almost all of our classes. What we say may take different turns, but I bet we all say something about customer satisfaction being better when there is a relationship between the provider and the customer.

I believe that if we teach relationship marketing as the preferred way for our students to structure how they should conduct their business or management style, then we should attempt to model that precept in how we conduct our classes.

This presentation will look at the following questions and ask us to examine both our theoretical pedagogy and our behavioral pedagogy in response to these issues:

1. So, having used the word "customer" in the opening, do we need to ask, "Are our students our customers?"

   Yes? No? Well, kind of, but not like that. . . .

2. Do we use the relationship marketing principles we espouse in our own classrooms?

   If so, to what end?

3. Do we need to know anything about our students? If so what?

   Then what do we do with it?

4. Should we really seek to build relationships with students in classes? If so, what kind?

   Humanizing the educational process.

5. Are relationships, by definition, two way streets? Does that imply some level of self disclosure? What do students need to know about us? (Have you ever heard of Sidney Jourard? I have and he can be scary.)

   So, what do you say about yourself?

6. Does knowing more about students, and students knowing more about us, facilitate a better classroom environment/experience for our students? For ourselves?

   How can "what you know" about students constructively inform your classroom presentation?

7. How I use "Who Are You" sheets at starts of semesters to begin relationships and inform class content.

For further information contact:
Mike Goree
Department of Marketing, Quantitative Analysis and Business Law
Mississippi State University
P.O. Box 9582
Mississippi State, MS 39762
Phone: 662.325.7003
Fax: 662.325.7012
E-Mail: mgoree@cobilan.msstate.edu

Developing a Culture of Continuous Student Recruiting

Dale L. Varble
Associate Dean, Director of MBA Programs
College of Business
Indiana State University
Terre Haute, IN 47809
E-mail: Dale.Varble@indstate.edu
Phone:812-237-2002

Jon M. Hawes
Professor of Marketing
College of Business
Indiana State University
Terre Haute, IN 47809
E-mail: Jon.Hawes@indstate.edu
Phone: 812-237-2286

The Ever Increasing Competition

- Colleges Public
- Colleges Private [Note: $2,000/U.G student average recruiting cost. See: http://educationalissues.suite101.com/article.cfm/recruiting_college_students]
- Colleges For Profit
- Community Colleges
- Non-College Providers of Education
  - Professional Associations (e.g., AMA's Professional Certified Marketer http://www.marketingpower.com/Careers/Pages/ProfessionalCertifiedMarketer.aspx)
  - Corporations
    - Provide Education/Training to External Clients
    - Provide Education/Training to Internal Clients
- Others

Indiana State University
More. From day one.

Fortunately, Recent Applications for MBA Programs Is Up

77% of full-time MBA programs reported that they received more applications than last year, the largest proportion in the past five years and second largest proportion since the inception of the survey in 2000.

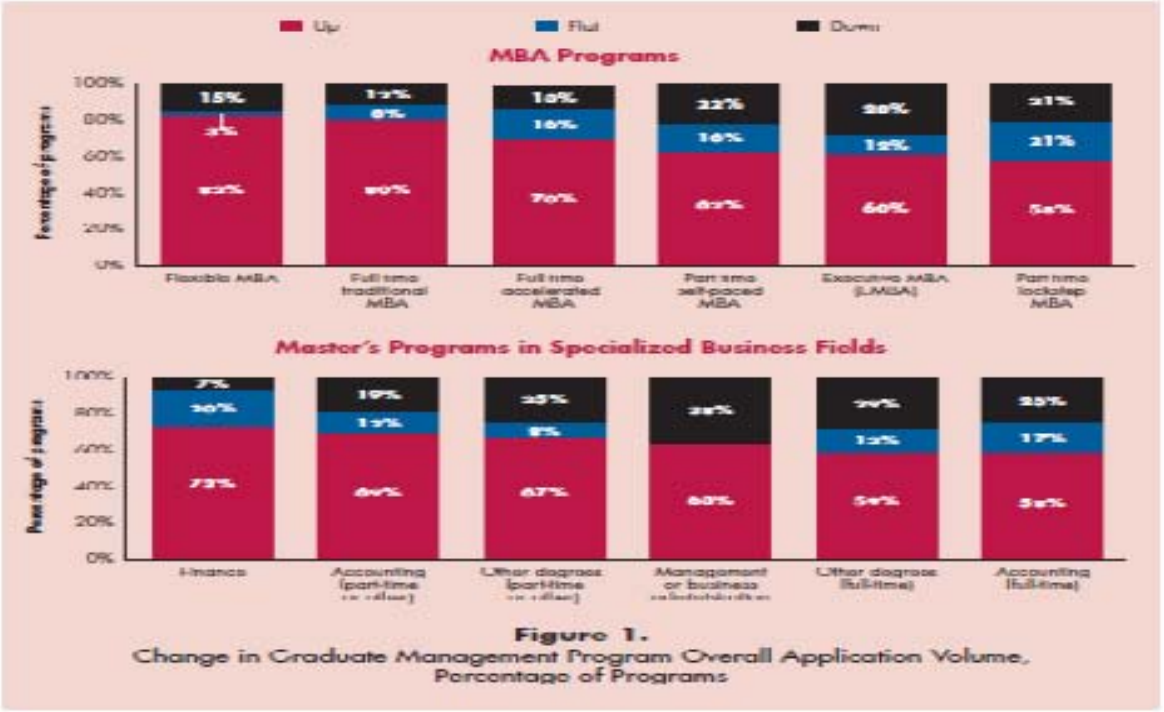


Figure 1.
Change in Graduate Management Program Overall Application Volume, Percentage of Programs

APPLICATION TRENDS SURVEY • 2008

Indiana State University
More. From day one.

			Bachelor's degrees			Master's degrees			Doctor's degrees	
Year	Number	Annual Percent Change	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
1992–93	256,473	0.1	135,368	121,105	89,425	57,504	31,921	1,346	969	377
1993–94	246,265	-4.0	128,946	117,319	93,285	59,223	34,062	1,364	980	384
1994–95	233,895	-5.0	121,663	112,232	93,540	58,931	34,609	1,391	1,011	380
1995–96	226,623	-3.1	116,545	110,078	93,554	58,400	35,154	1,366	972	394
1996–97	225,934	-0.3	116,023	109,911	97,204	59,333	37,871	1,336	947	389
1997–98	232,079	2.7	119,379	112,700	101,652	62,357	39,295	1,290	885	405
1998–99	240,947	3.8	122,250	118,697	107,477	64,700	42,777	1,201	843	358
1999–2000	256,070	6.3	128,521	127,549	111,532	67,078	44,454	1,194	812	382
2000–01	263,515	2.9	132,275	131,240	115,602	68,471	47,131	1,180	783	397
2001–02	278,217	5.6	138,343	139,874	119,725	70,463	49,262	1,156	746	410
2002–03	293,391	5.5	145,075	148,316	127,685	75,239	52,446	1,252	820	432
2003–04	307,149	4.7	152,513	154,636	139,347	80,858	58,489	1,481	960	521
2004–05	311,574	1.4	155,940	155,634	142,617	82,151	60,466	1,498	901	597
2005–06	318,042	2.1	159,683	158,359	146,406	83,550	62,856	1,711	1,049	662
2006–07	327,531	3.0	166,350	161,181	150,211	84,115	66,096	2,029	1,188	841

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Earned Degrees Conferred, 1955-56 through 1963-64; Higher Education General Information Survey (HEGIS), "Degrees and Other Formal Awards Conferred" surveys, 1965-66 through 1985-86; and 1986-87 through 2006-07 Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System, "Completions Survey" (IPEDS-C:87-99), and Fall 2000 through Fall 2007. (This table was prepared September 2008.)

Why Some Fall Short on Recruiting

- Fear or misunderstanding of the word "recruiting"
- Confusion over who is responsible for recruiting
  - To your campus for undergraduate admissions, primarily the responsibility of admissions department with CB in a supporting role
  - To your undergraduate program from UG pool, entirely your responsibility
  - To your graduate program, entirely your responsibility
- False belief that recruiting sacrifices the academic philosophy
- Don't know where to start or how to recruit (no training)
- Minimal accountability from top to bottom
- We think we already are!
- Development of a student recruiting and service culture is an continuous process, not a one time event

Indiana State University
More. From day one.

Changes With a Student Recruiting Culture

Mindset
- Everyone, from the top down

Job descriptions
- Recruiting, recruiting support

HR practices
- Recruiting recruiters
- Retaining effective recruiters

Marketing
- Partnering with sales function

Incentive program
- Recruiting incentives
- Service rewards

Accountability
- Recruiting goals
- Service levels
- Recruiting coaching

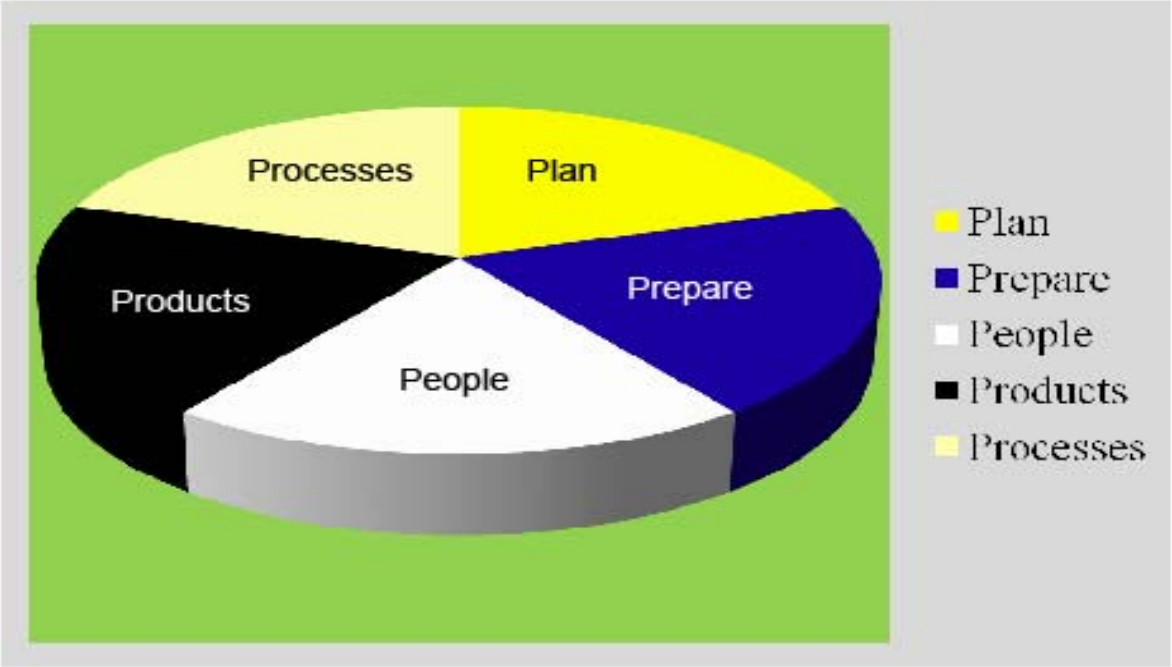
Tracking/measuring
- Recruiting & incentive tracking

Retail layout
- Branch design/layout

Indiana State University
More. From day one.

Overview of Five Components for Recruiting Success

- Plan
- Prepare
- People
- Products
- Processes



Indiana State University
More. From day one.

First Component for Recruiting Success

- Plan
  - Develop a detailed plan for your entire recruiting and service culture. All areas should be included (job descriptions, incentive program development/launching, training, technology, tracking methods, etc.) and timelines established
  - Expect the entire process to take between one and three years to fully integrate (depending on your college size, etc.)

Indiana State University
More. From day one.

Second Component for Recruiting Success

- Prepare
  - Training should be included for ALL employees (Recruiting skills, service skills, product knowledge, coaching, etc.)
  - Job descriptions should be revised and each employee should know what their recruiting expectations are
  - Ensure you have the technology required for tracking the outcomes of your recruiting efforts and CRM capabilities

Indiana State University
More. From day one.

Third Component for Recruiting Success

- People
  - Review organizational chart
  - Identify recruiting and support positions
  - Recruit recruiting employees for recruiter positions!
  - Establish internal service expectations for recruiting support positions
  - Spend as much time developing your recruiting coaches as you do developing your recruiter staff

Indiana State University
More. From day one.

Fourth Component for Recruiting Success

- Products
  - This is a good time to review product offerings and their competitiveness (features, rates, product packaging, etc.)
  - Product training MUST take place. You can't effectively sell a product you don't understand

Indiana State University
More. From day one.

Fifth Component for Recruiting Success

- Processes
  - Establish a defined recruiting and marketing process (product marketing process, front-line recruiting process, telephone recruiting process, recruiting referral process, etc.)
  - Incorporate recruiting ability, expectations, and accountability into the performance evaluation process

Indiana State University
More. From day one.

"Recruiting" Reality

- We work in a B2C environment -- just like other service retailers . You just happen to be a college of business
- "Recruiting" is NOT a bad word!!
- You have always sold at the college of business--you weren't just giving away the product all these years!
- A successful recruiting program is student-centric. How can that be a bad thing?

Indiana State University
More. From day one.

Recruiting Reminders

- Everyone is in recruiting!
  - Front office
  - Back office
  - From the top down
- A true commitment MUST be made
  - Don't simply throw a coat of paint on it
- Integrate it into everything you do
  - Strategic plan, vision/mission, values, merit pay
- Make it fun!
  - Hold a kickoff, hold ongoing recruiting meetings, etc.

Indiana State University
More. From day one.

Darwin Knows Best

- "It is not the strongest of the species that survives, nor the most intelligent, it is the one that is the most adaptable to change." Charles Darwin

Indiana State University
More. From day one.

BEEN THERE, DONE THAT . . . SO WHAT?

Lori L. Lohman, Augsburg College

SUMMARY

"Experience is the best teacher." "Practice makes perfect." "Those who can't do, teach." Adages such as these have been floating around for decades. Are they true? In applied disciplines such as business, they would seem to be. After all, who wants to take a class from a marketing professor who has never spent a day in the business world? Successful businesspeople should also be successful teachers, or so the reasoning goes. Many schools require their business instructors to have a minimum amount of experience in the field. This requirement does not necessarily take into consideration the quality of the work experience, however, nor the particular skills that the individual brings to the teaching experience (nor, for that matter, whether that person was any good at marketing; too often, people are promoted not based on what they know, but on who they know). Theoretically, good businesspeople are good communicators, analyzers, and problem solvers, which would seem to be the same skills required for a successful career in teaching. Other skills, however, may predominate in the teaching profession. According to research conducted by Slate, LaPrairie, Schulte, and Onwuegbuzie (2009), students most often reported that the best college professors were good at communication, being supportive, developing a love of learning, using different teaching techniques, and using humor to build rapport with students. Additional skills may also be needed for a successful teaching career. Empathy, for example, which is seldom rewarded in business, might be necessary for teachers who are dealing with young adults. The desire to guide others is another quality. Colleges promote teamwork, whereas business rewards individuals for generating profit, occasionally without regard as to how the profit is achieved or who is stepped on along the way. Providing clarification is another skill critical to teaching, yet businesses routinely obfuscate facts in order to complete business transactions. Professors who cannot explain a subject clearly, on the other hand, will not survive for long in the teaching profession.

What should be the minimum work experience requirement for marketing professors? I would argue that there should be none, so long as the person has spent some time in the business world. (Research I conducted with MMA members in 2008 showed that respondents averaged 5.8 years of full-time marketing-related work experience; removing one outlier with 30+ years of experience resulted in an average of 4.8 years). For newly minted Ph.D.s, this can be a bit of a problem, but one that can be overcome. Faculty development programs can encourage new professors to work with their students on field projects, which will give them some exposure to the workplace. Another possibility is to encourage faculty to pursue faculty internships in their free time. This would require the institution to recognize internships as a valuable faculty development and/or applied scholarship tool. A third approach would be to have faculty volunteer their time working with non-profit organizations, where they would have a chance to utilize their marketing skills. Finally, any marketing professor should be well read; keeping up to date on current marketing trends can go a long way toward eradicating a paucity of work experience.

Can you teach someone how to do something without ever having done it yourself? With the right set of skills, such as those mentioned previously, I would argue that the answer is yes. Practical experience is preferable, but not necessarily a job requirement for marketing educators.

REFERENCES

Slate, John R., Kimberly LaPrairie, Don P. Schulte, and Anthony J. Onwuegbuzie (2009), "A Mixed Analysis of College Students' Best and Poorest College Professors," *Issues in Educational Research*, 19 (1), 61–78.

For further information contact:
Lori L. Lohman
Business Administration
Augsburg College
2211 Riverside Ave,
Minneapolis, MN 55454
Phone: 612.330.1220
E-Mail: lohman@augsburg.edu

ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING IN CAPSTONE MARKETING COURSE: USE OF A BUSINESS SIMULATION AS AN ASSURANCE OF LEARNING TOOL

Uday S. Tate, Marshall University
Suneel Maheshwari, Marshall University
Ram Chandra Akkihal, Marshall University
Deepak Subedi, Marshall University

ABSTRACT

The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business-International (AACSB) explicitly states that there are two critical pillars underlying its accreditation, namely, accountability and continuous improvement (AACSB 2007, p. 60). Accountability is imperative in assuring such external stakeholders as potential students, trustees, potential employers, public policy makers, university administrators, and supporters. On the other hand, continuous improvement can help a business school evaluate its students' success in achieving learning goals, improve its programs and curricula, and provide feedback to its students. The two pillars of accreditation are the hallmark of Assurance of Learning (AOL) mandated by AACSB. Assurance of Learning requires s business school to assess, evaluate, and improve its students' accomplishments levels in terms of the school's learning goals. AACSB now focuses on evidence, rather than intent of learning by students. This shift of accreditation focus has resulted in a series of standards for outcome assessment as a systematic way to provide evidence for assurance of learning.

The much heralded thrust by AACSB in terms of Assurance of Learning can be viewed as a process of four sequential steps (Cadotte 2008):

Step 1: Define the learning objectives.

Step 2: Design the curricula and resultant courses to achieve the learning objectives.

Step 3: Assess how well the learning objectives are being met.

Step 4: Adjust either the learning objectives or learning methods to better meet the objectives.

One of the key components in the AOL process is the outcome assessment. Palomba and Banta (1999) define the outcomes assessment process as:

> ***The systematic collection, review, and use of information about educational programs undertaken for the purpose of improving student learning and development (Palomba and Banta 1999).***

Any outcome assessment tool must address the following issues (Cadotte 2008):

Issue 1: Can the assessment tool result in the desired learning outcomes?

Issue 2: Can the assessment tool be used to determine how good the curriculum is?

Issue 3: Can the results from the assessment tool be used to adjust the process, thus improving the learning outcomes?

Issue 4: Can the assessment tool provide timely and relevant feedback to students so that they can adjust their efforts to master the subject matter?

The assessment measures can be direct or indirect (Michlitsch and Sidle 2002). Some of the direct methods of assessing student learning include: group projects, tests, term papers, case studies, presentations, computerized simulation, supervised internship programs, standardized assessment tests, etc. Some indirect assessment

tools include (Black and Duhon 2003): admissions standards, alumni surveys, employer surveys, etc.

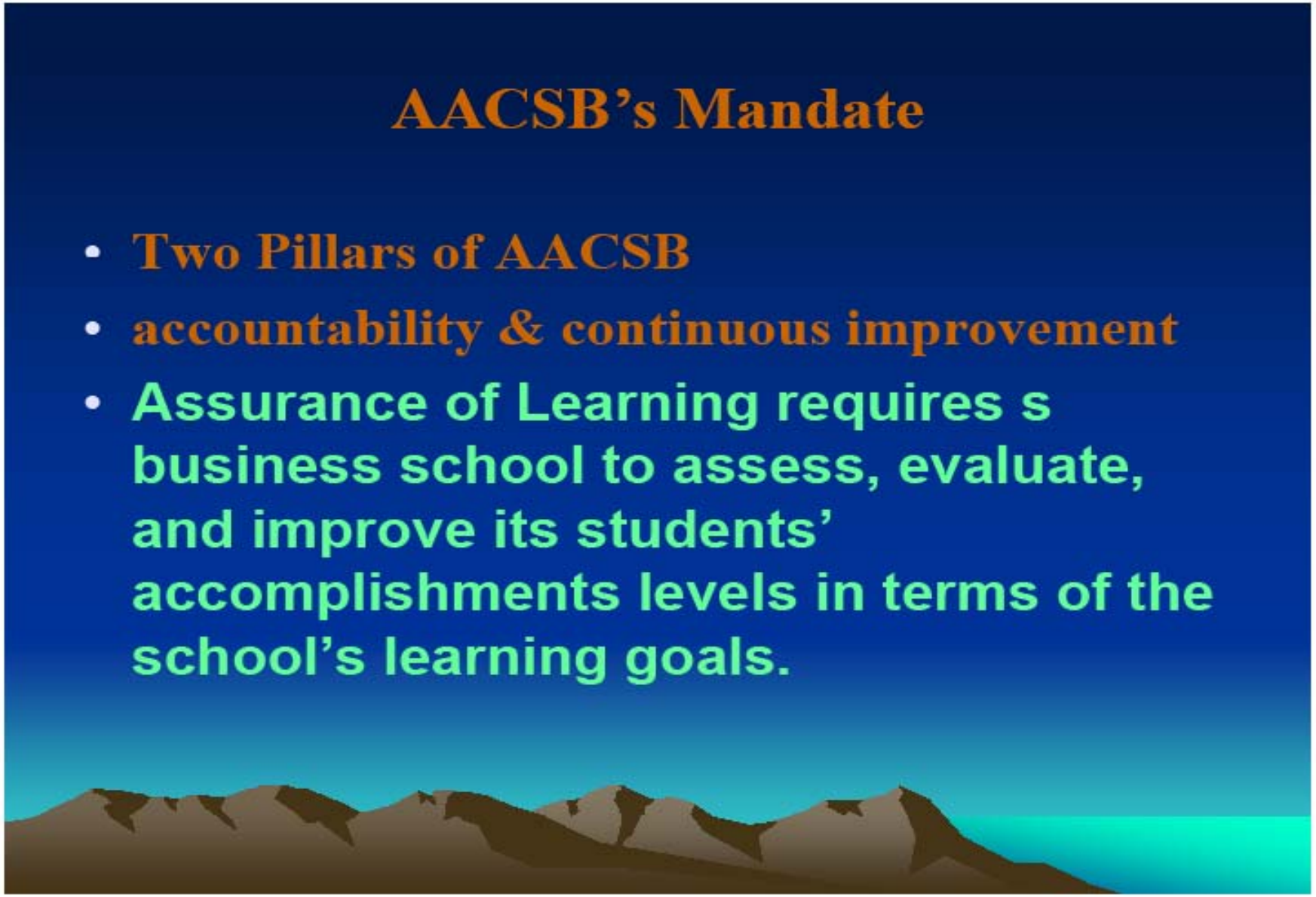
The present study focuses on the use of computerized simulation as an assessment tool for Assurance of Learning in an MBA level Strategic Marketing course. Advantages of using simulations as a pedagogical method in business courses have been discussed extensively in the literature (e.g., Mitchell 2004; Faria 2002; Prensky 2000). The primary objective of the present paper is to determine the usefulness of an advanced level strategic marketing simulation in providing relevant assessment evidence to assure learning by MBA students at a medium-size university in the Midwest. The class size of the MBA marketing course was 28; students made their own team of 3–4 students, resulting in eight teams (companies) in an industry representing personal computers to be sold to business customers only in a global market. The teams were instructed to form a company as a start-up business with an initial capital of $4,000,000. The simulation ran for eight quarters (spanning over a time period of two years). After each quarter, each team was provided with the results of their decisions (financial statement, customer reactions, preferences, market conditions, media preferences, etc.).

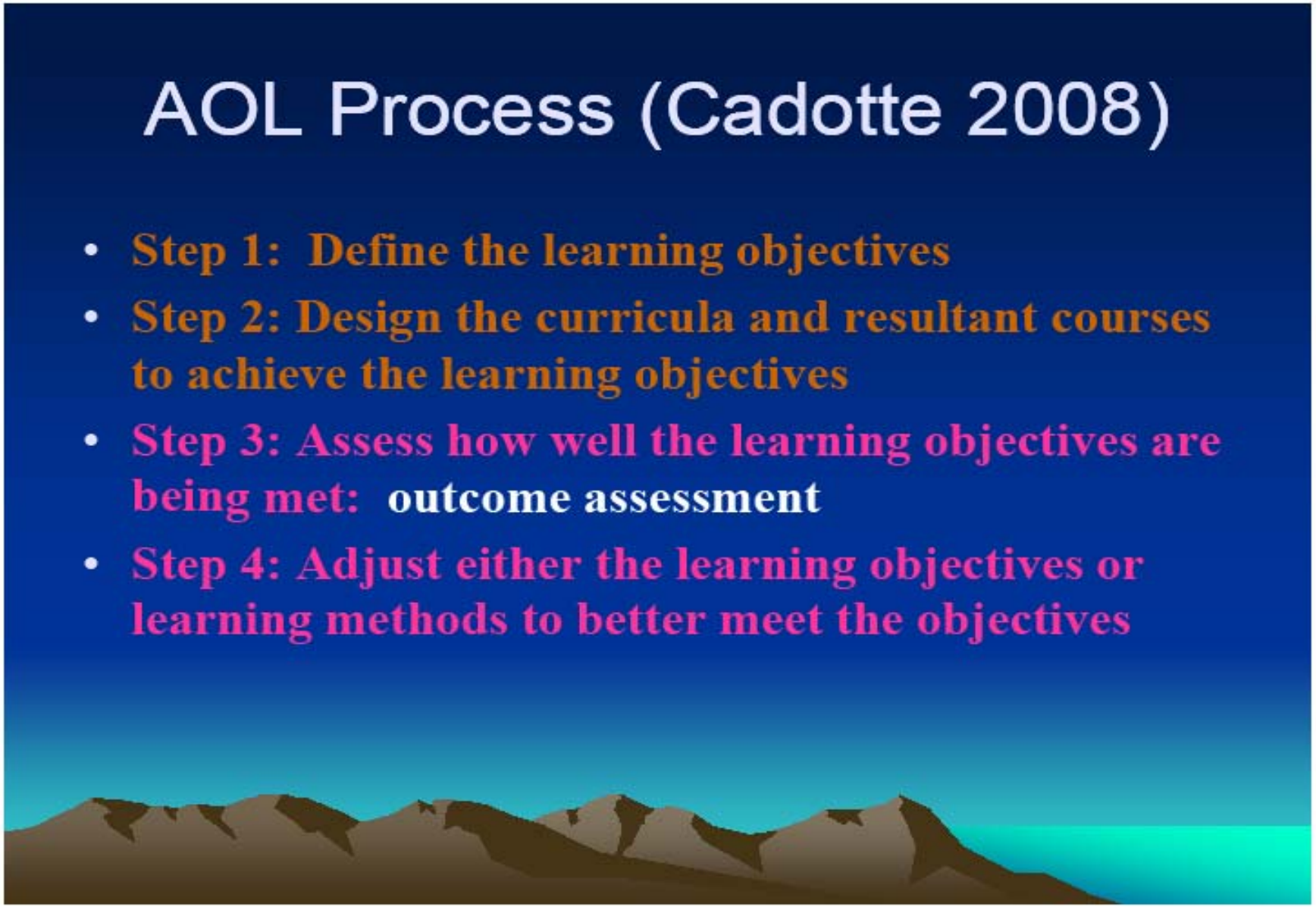
Currently the authors are in the process of analyzing the results of the eight quarters for each team to link the simulation outcomes to the student learning, individually and as a team. Appropriate interpretations and conclusions will be drawn after data analysis.

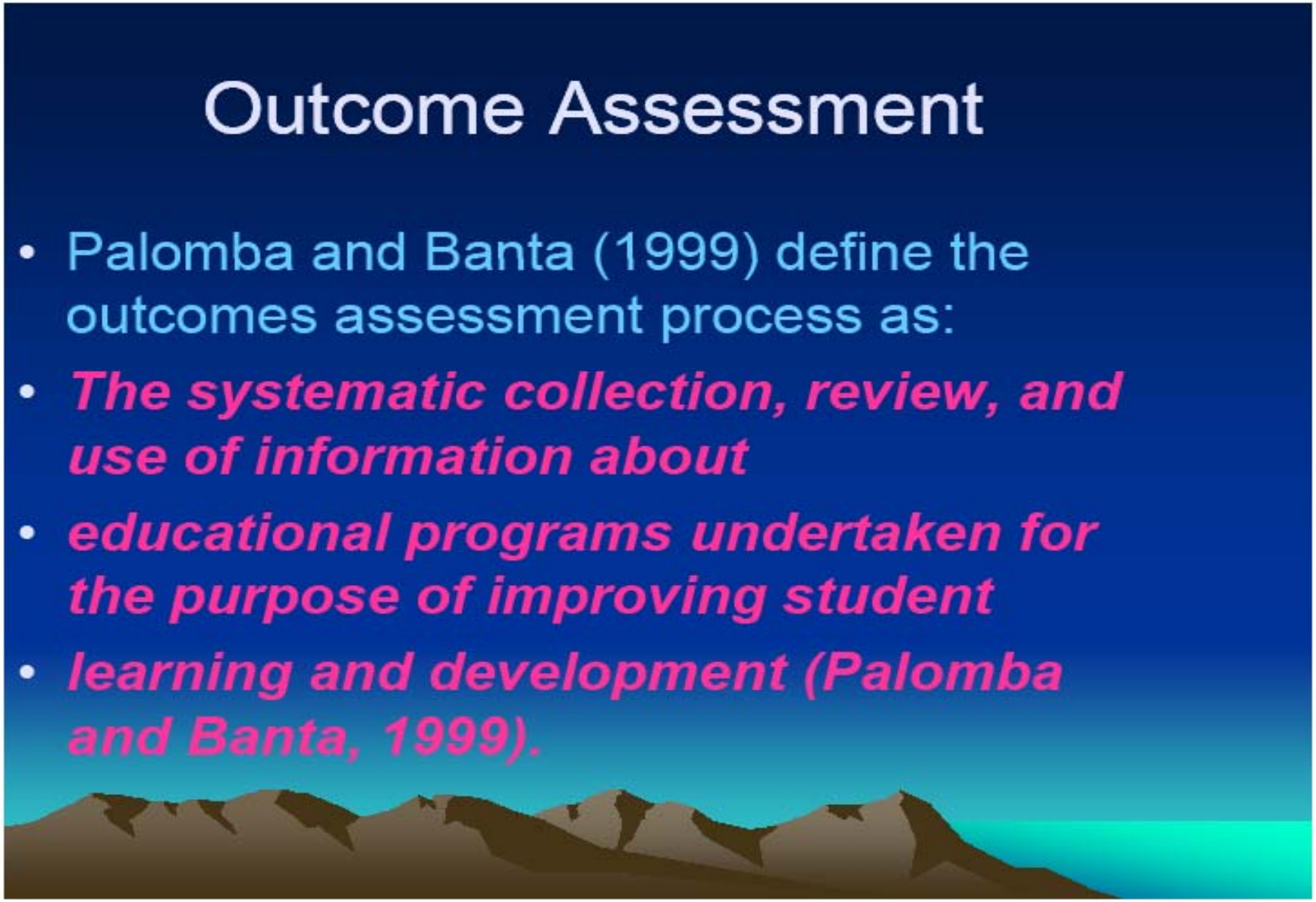
(See the following PowerPoint Slides pages 28–45 for further details).

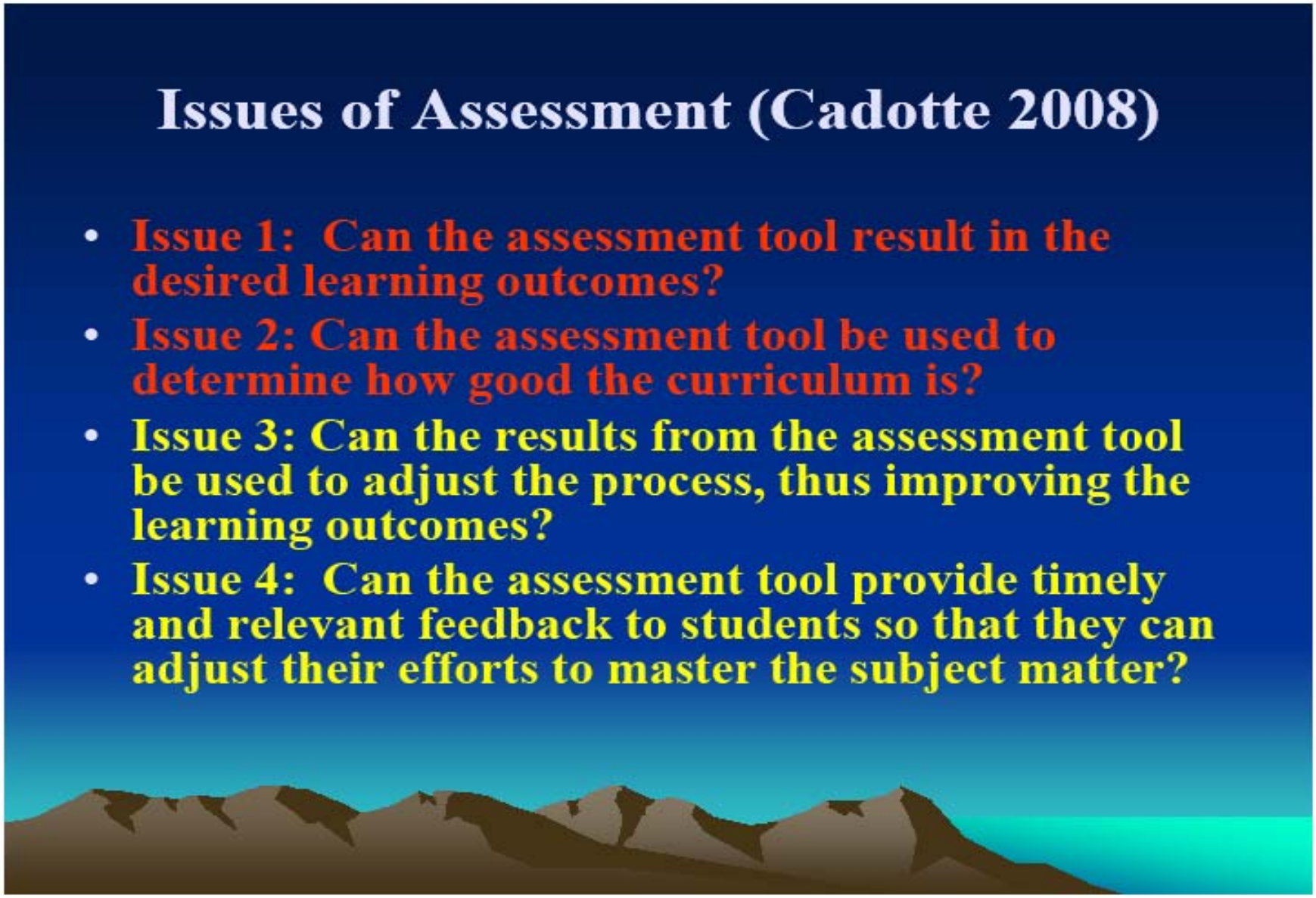
For further information contact:
Uday S. Tate
Division of Management & Marketing
Lewis College of Business
Marshall University
One John Marshall Drive
Huntington, WV 25755
Phone: 304.696.2672
Fax: 304.696.6013
E-Mail: tateu@marshall.edu


Assessment of Learning in Capstone Marketing Course:
Use of a Business Simulation as an Assurance of Learning Tool
By
Uday S. Tate, Marshall University
Suneel Maheshwari, Marshall University
Ram Chandra Akkihal, Marshall University
Deepak Subedi, Marshall University


AACSB's Mandate
• Two Pillars of AACSB
• accountability & continuous improvement
• Assurance of Learning requires s business school to assess, evaluate, and improve its students' accomplishments levels in terms of the school's learning goals.

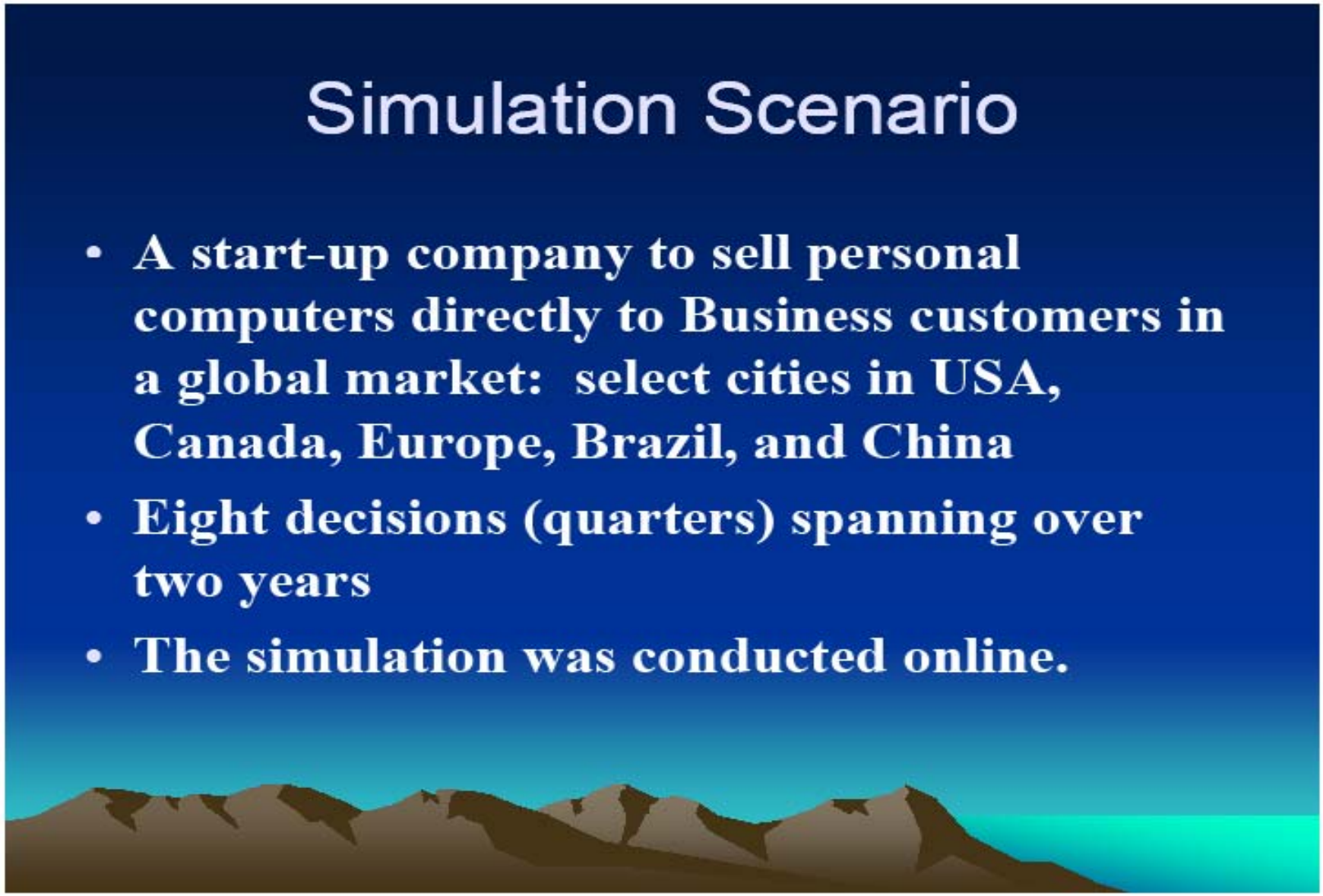

AOL Process (Cadotte 2008)
Step 1: Define the learning objectives
Step 2: Design the curricula and resultant courses to achieve the learning objectives
Step 3: Assess how well the learning objectives are being met: outcome assessment
Step 4: Adjust either the learning objectives or learning methods to better meet the objectives

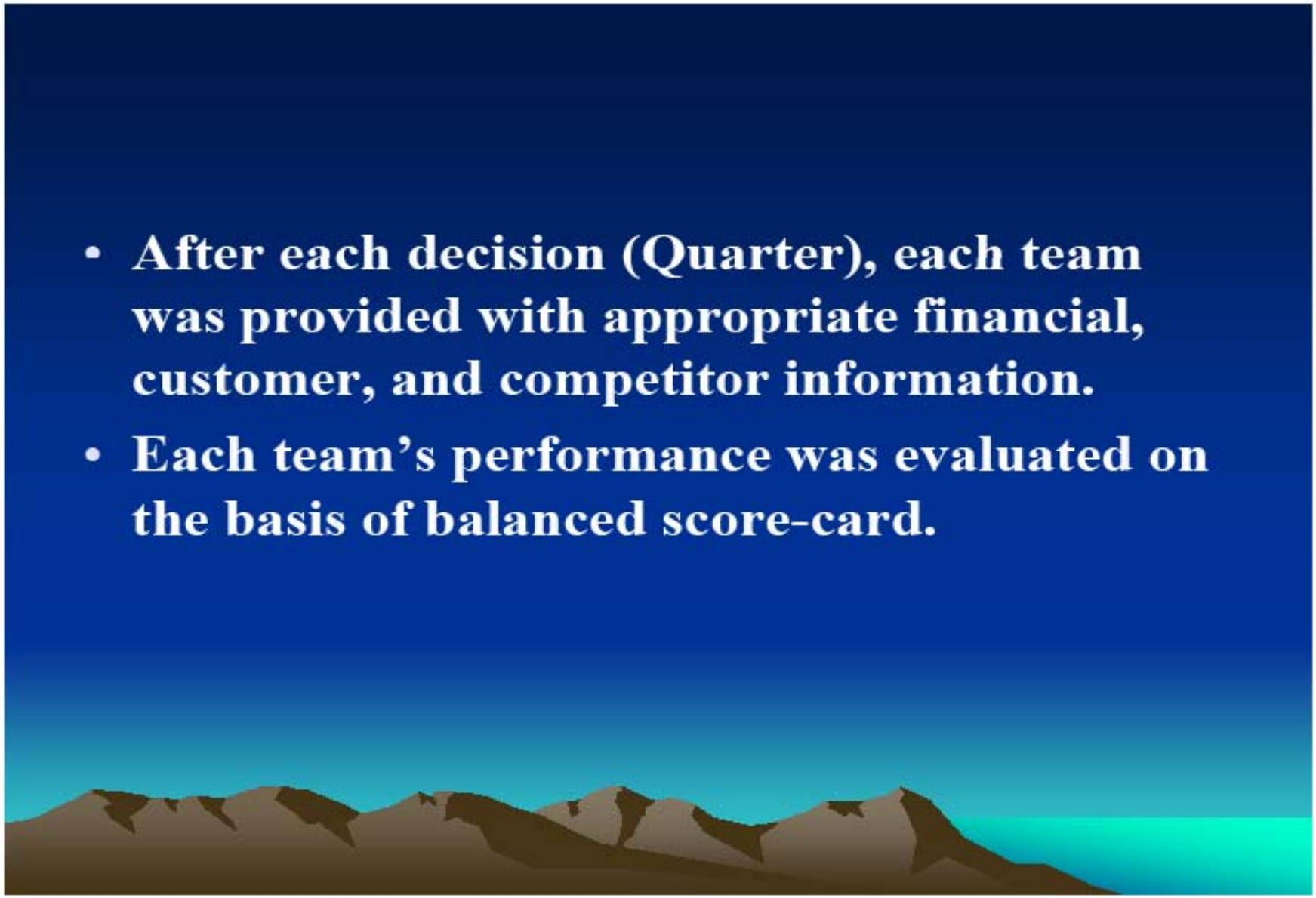

Outcome Assessment
• Palomba and Banta (1999) define the outcomes assessment process as:
• The systematic collection, review, and use of information about
• educational programs undertaken for the purpose of improving student
• learning and development (Palomba and Banta, 1999).


Issues of Assessment (Cadotte 2008)
Issue 1: Can the assessment tool result in the desired learning outcomes?
Issue 2: Can the assessment tool be used to determine how good the curriculum is?
Issue 3: Can the results from the assessment tool be used to adjust the process, thus improving the learning outcomes?
Issue 4: Can the assessment tool provide timely and relevant feedback to students so that they can adjust their efforts to master the subject matter?

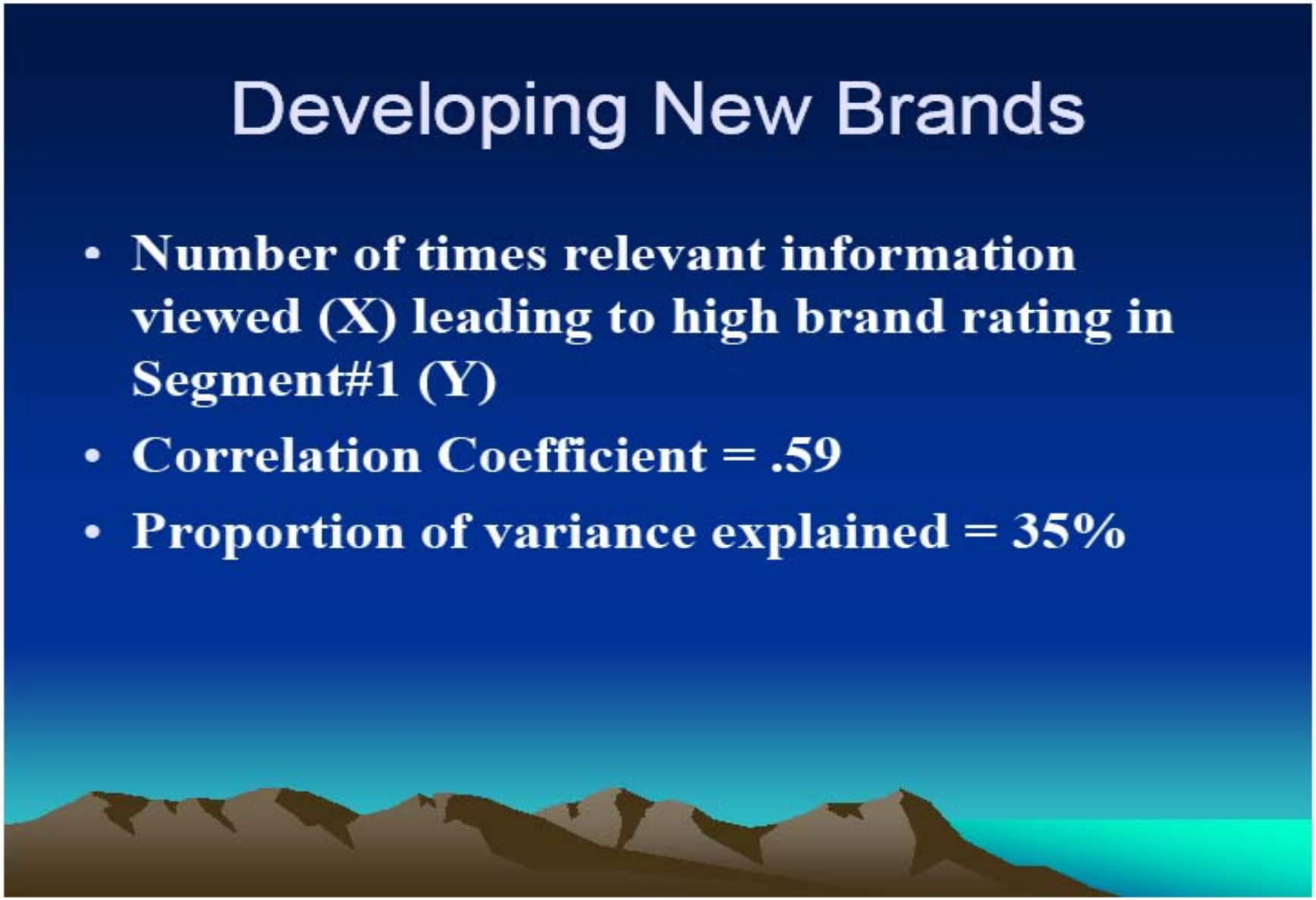

The Present Study
• The present study used a computerized simulation as an assessment tool for Assurance of Learning in an MBA level Strategic Marketing course.
• Simulation: Marketplace
• A Marketing strategy class of 28 MBAs at a mid-size university in the Midwest

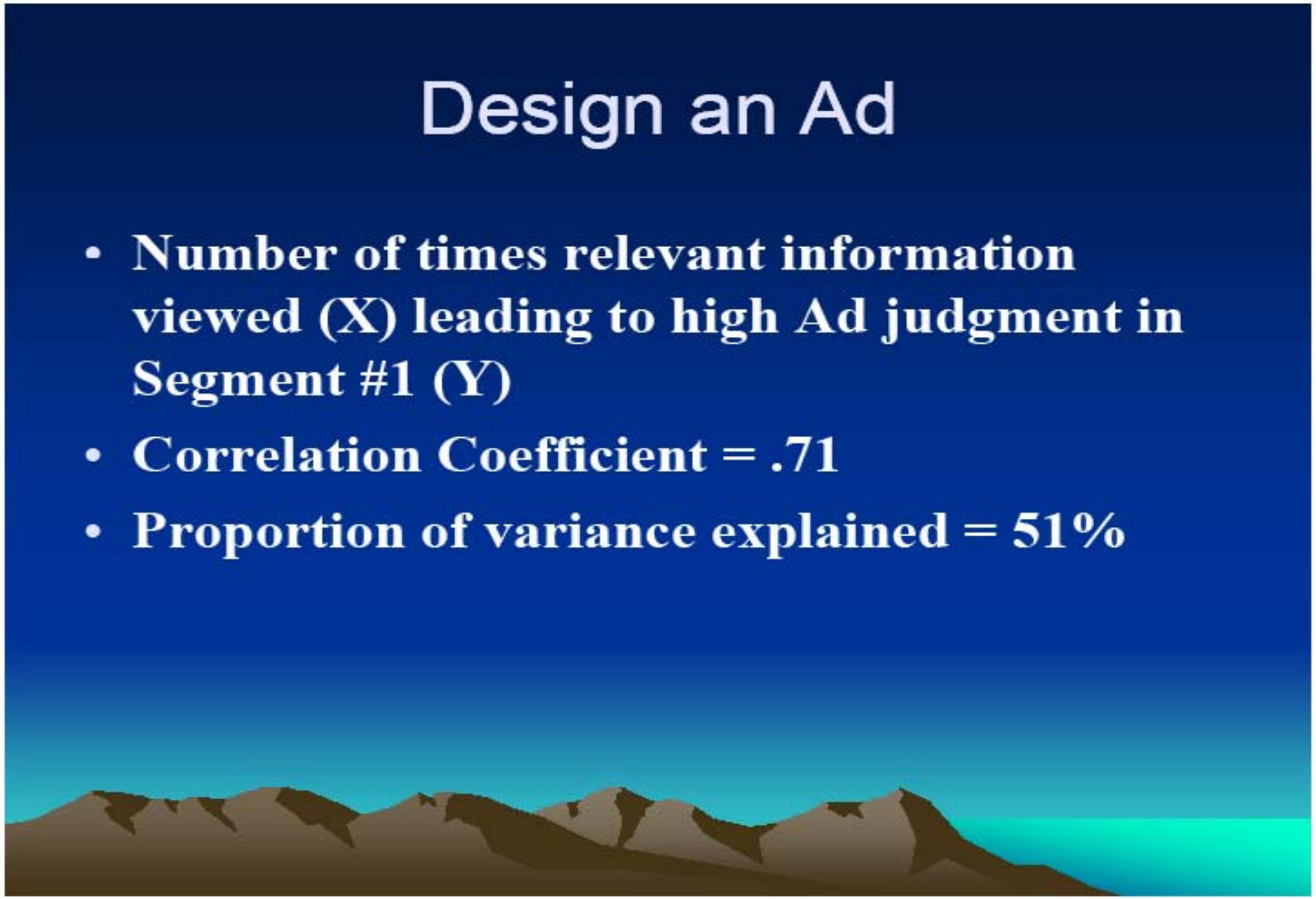

Sample
• A Marketing strategy class of 28 MBAs at a mid-size university in the Midwest.
• Eight teams of 3-4 students: self-selection
• Level of simulation: Advanced Strategic Marketing

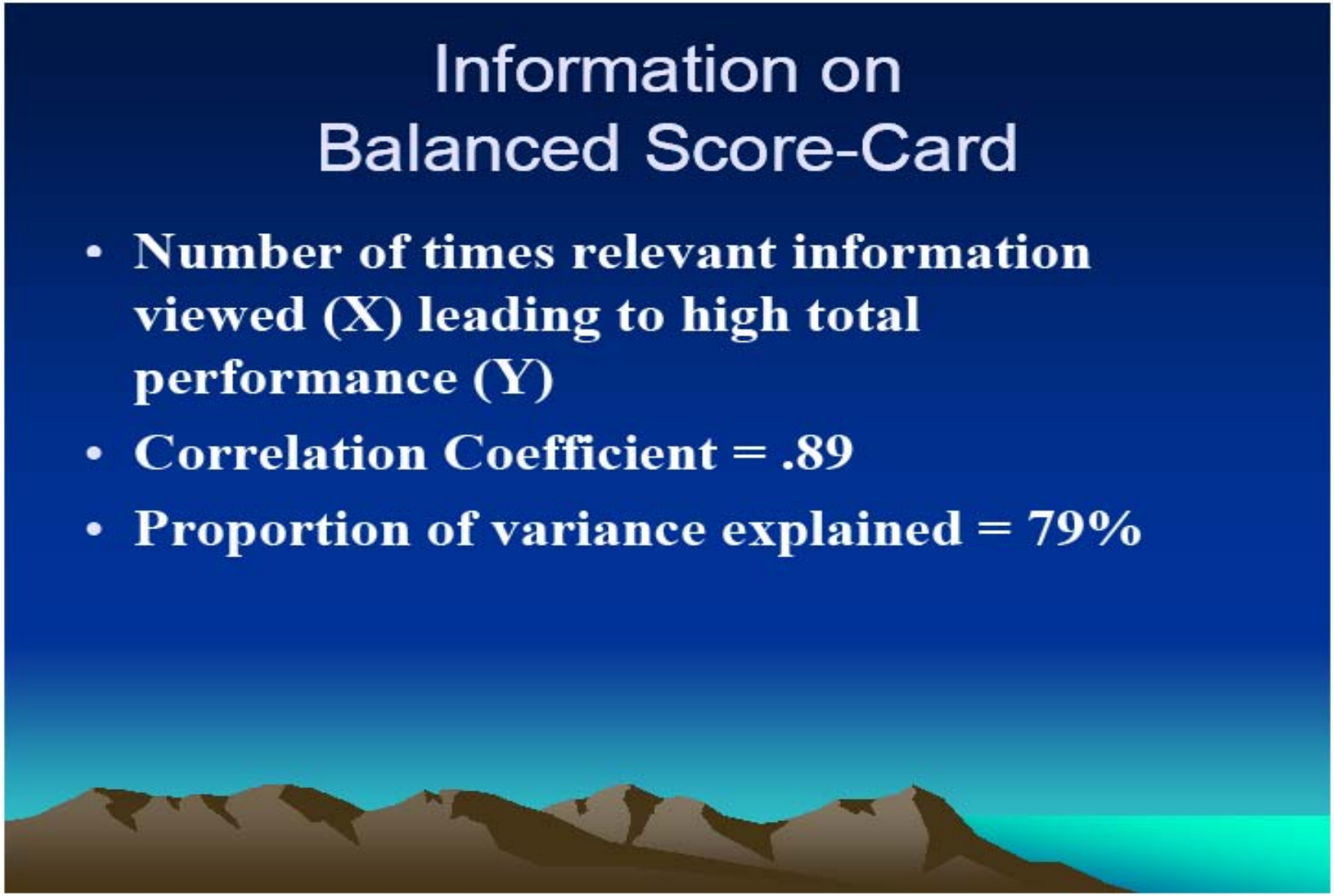

Simulation Scenario
• A start-up company to sell personal computers directly to Business customers in a global market: select cities in USA, Canada, Europe, Brazil, and China
• Eight decisions (quarters) spanning over two years
• The simulation was conducted online.

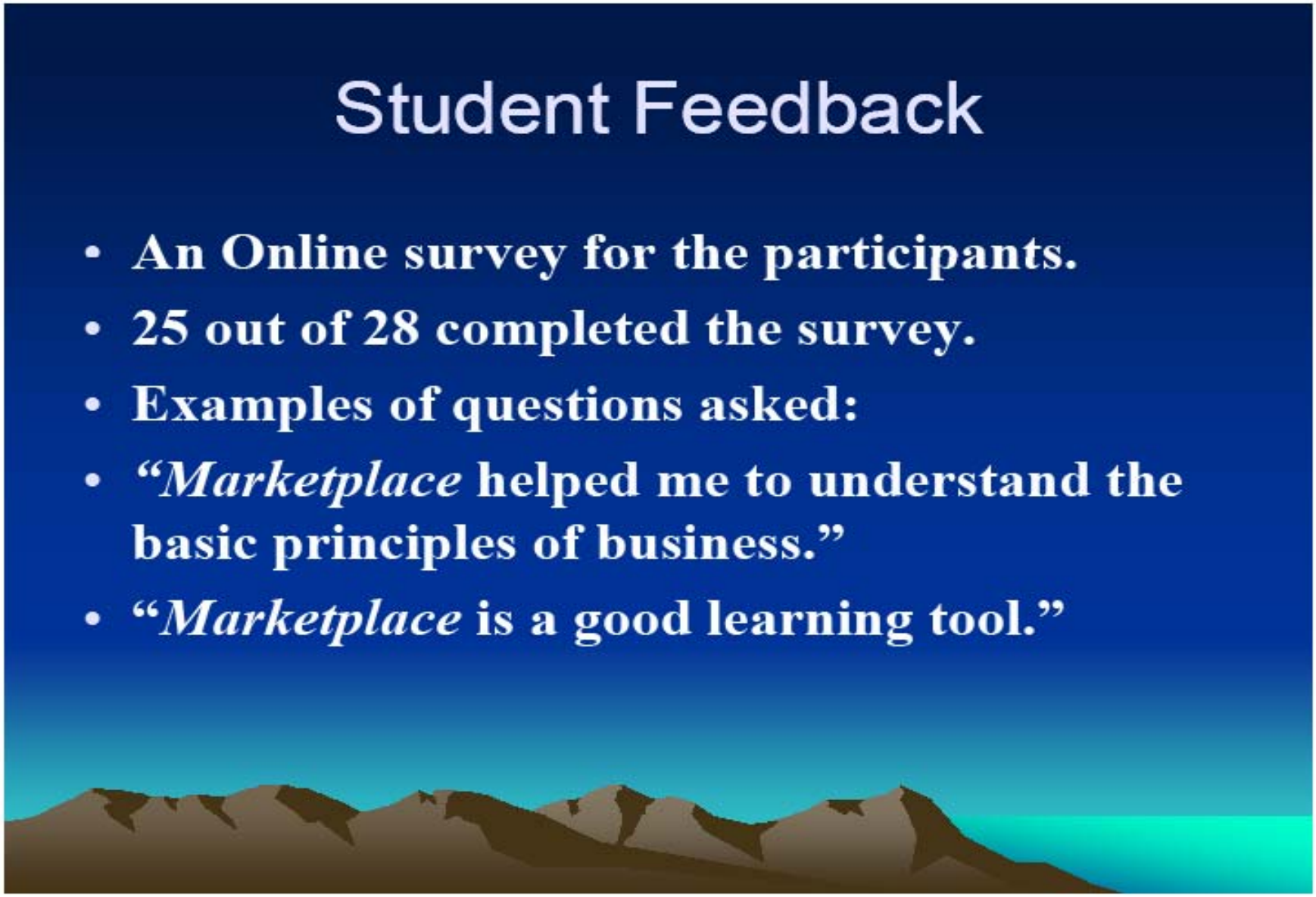

• After each decision (Quarter), each team was provided with appropriate financial, customer, and competitor information.
• Each team's performance was evaluated on the basis of balanced score-card.

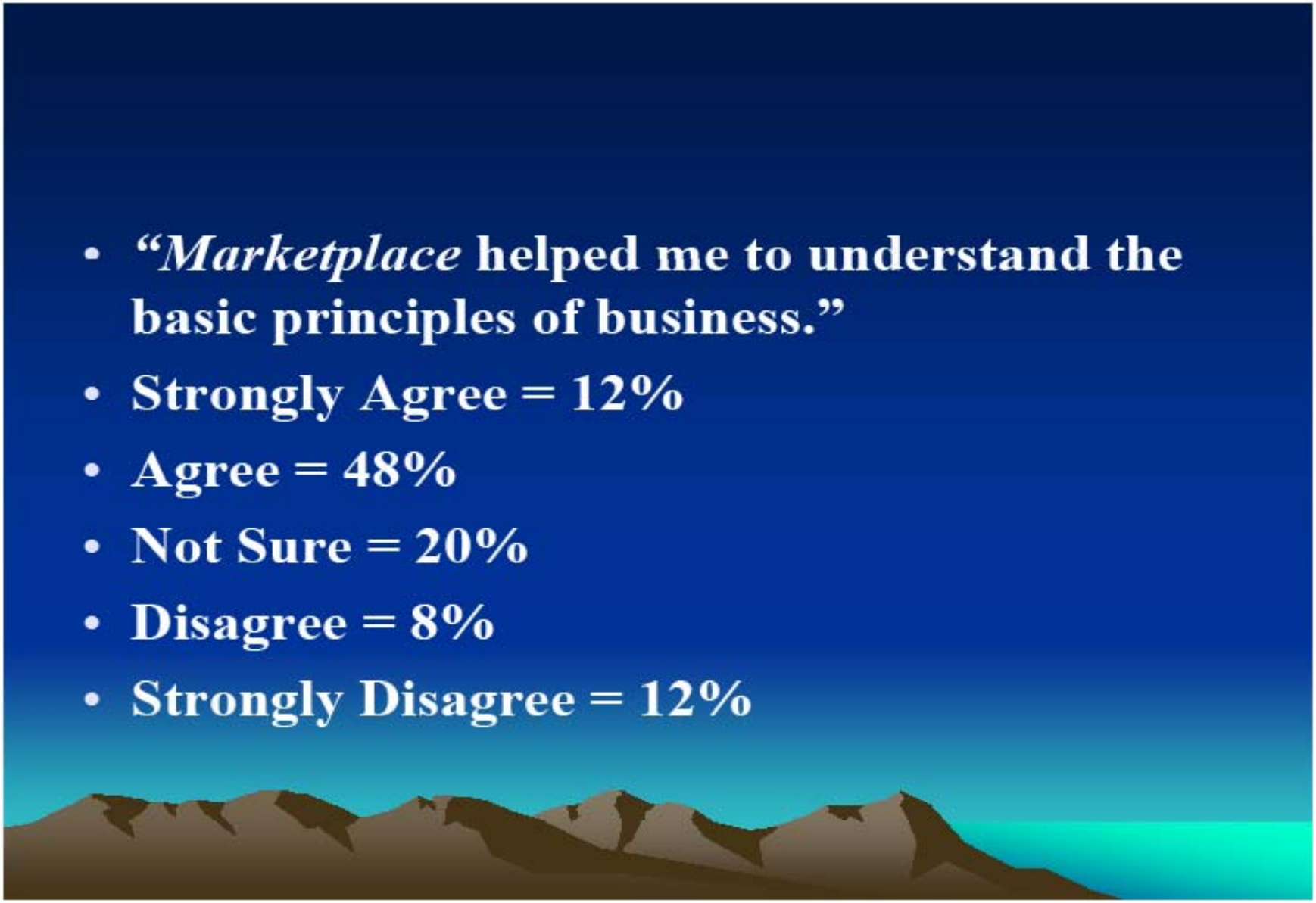

Assessment of Learning
Balanced Score-Card
Market performance
Marketing effectiveness
Financial performance
Future investment
Creation of wealth

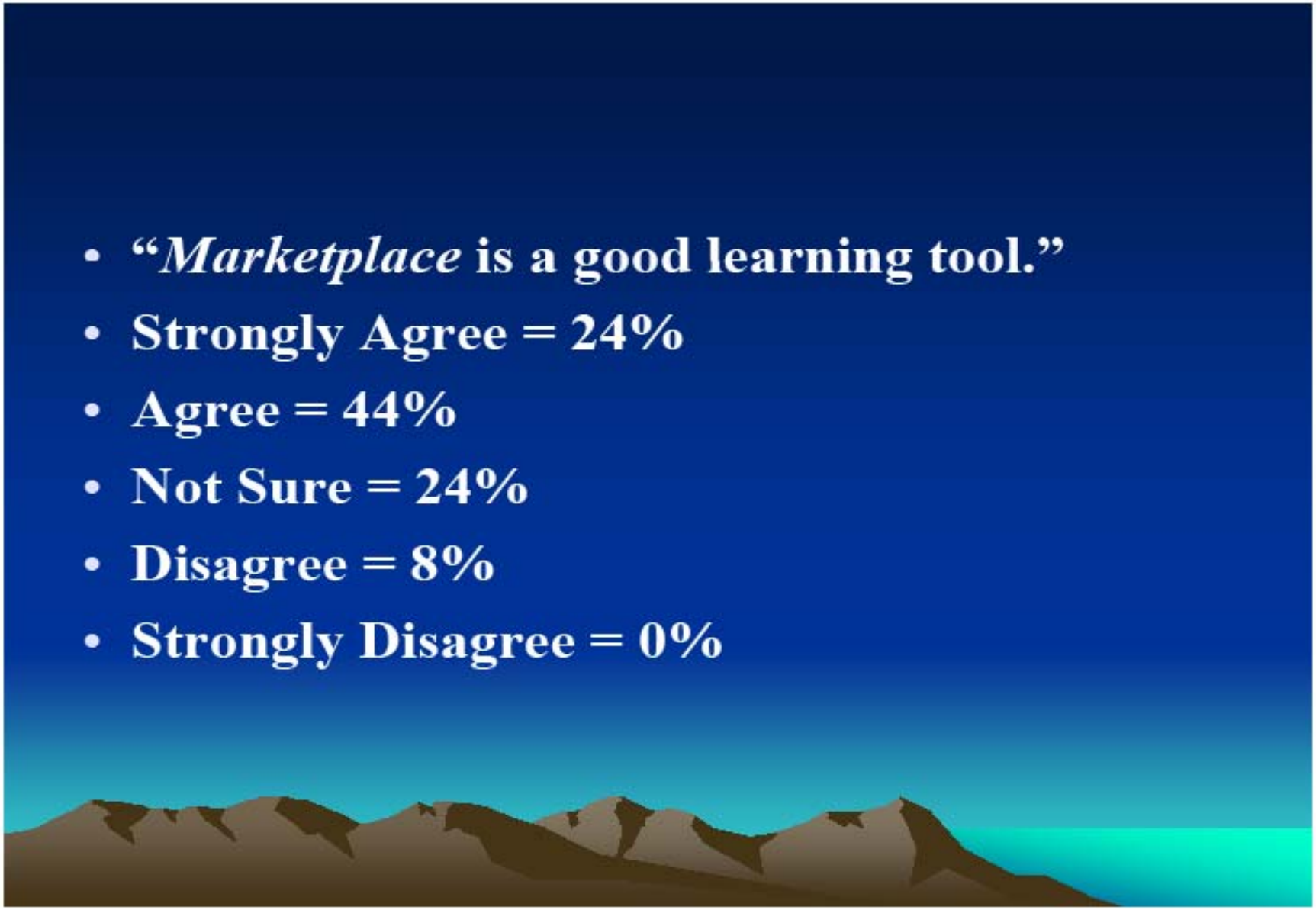

Developing New Brands
• Number of times relevant information viewed (X) leading to high brand rating in Segment#1 (Y)
• Correlation Coefficient = .59
• Proportion of variance explained = 35%

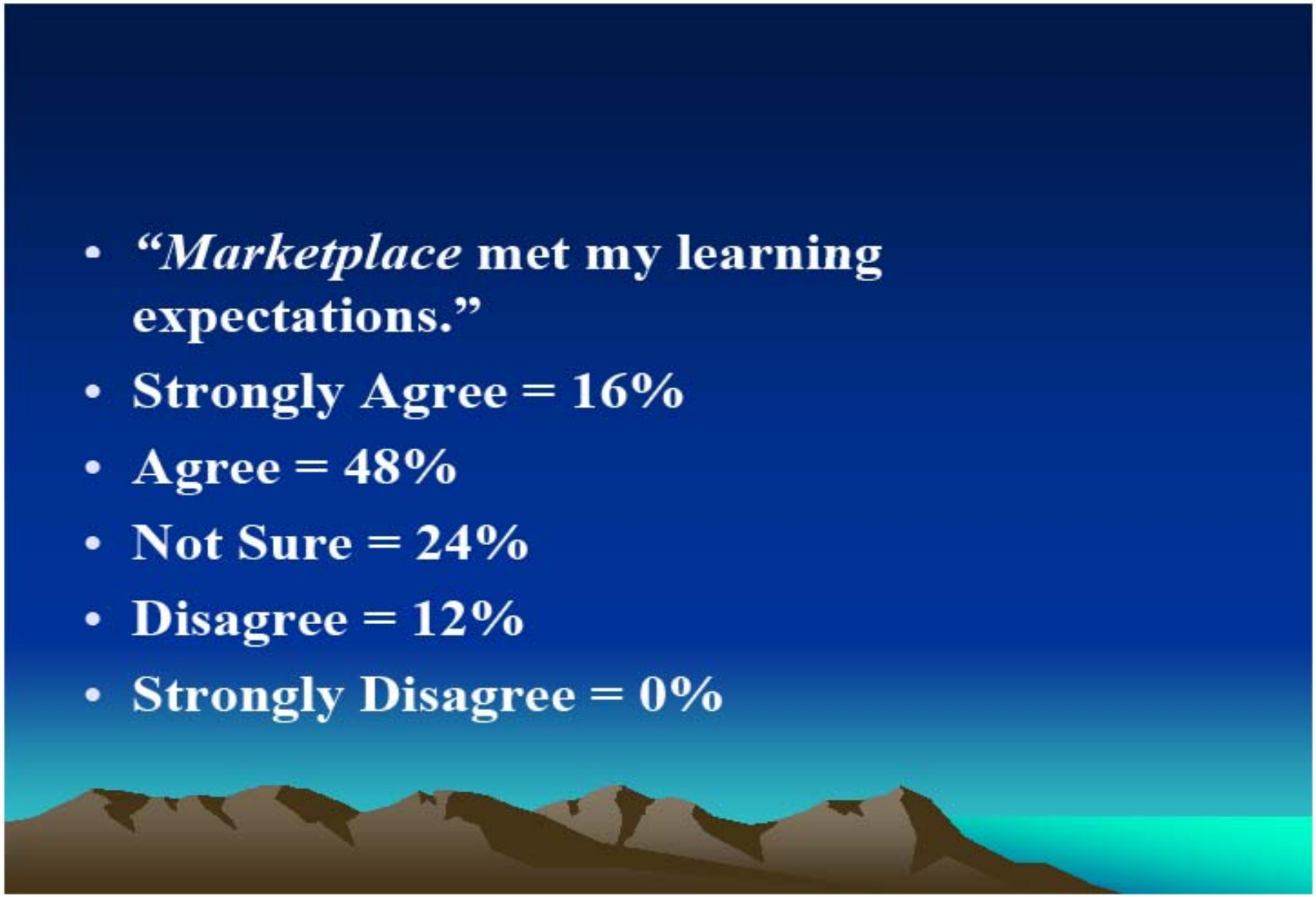

Design an Ad
• Number of times relevant information viewed (X) leading to high Ad judgment in Segment #1 (Y)
• Correlation Coefficient = .71
• Proportion of variance explained = 51%

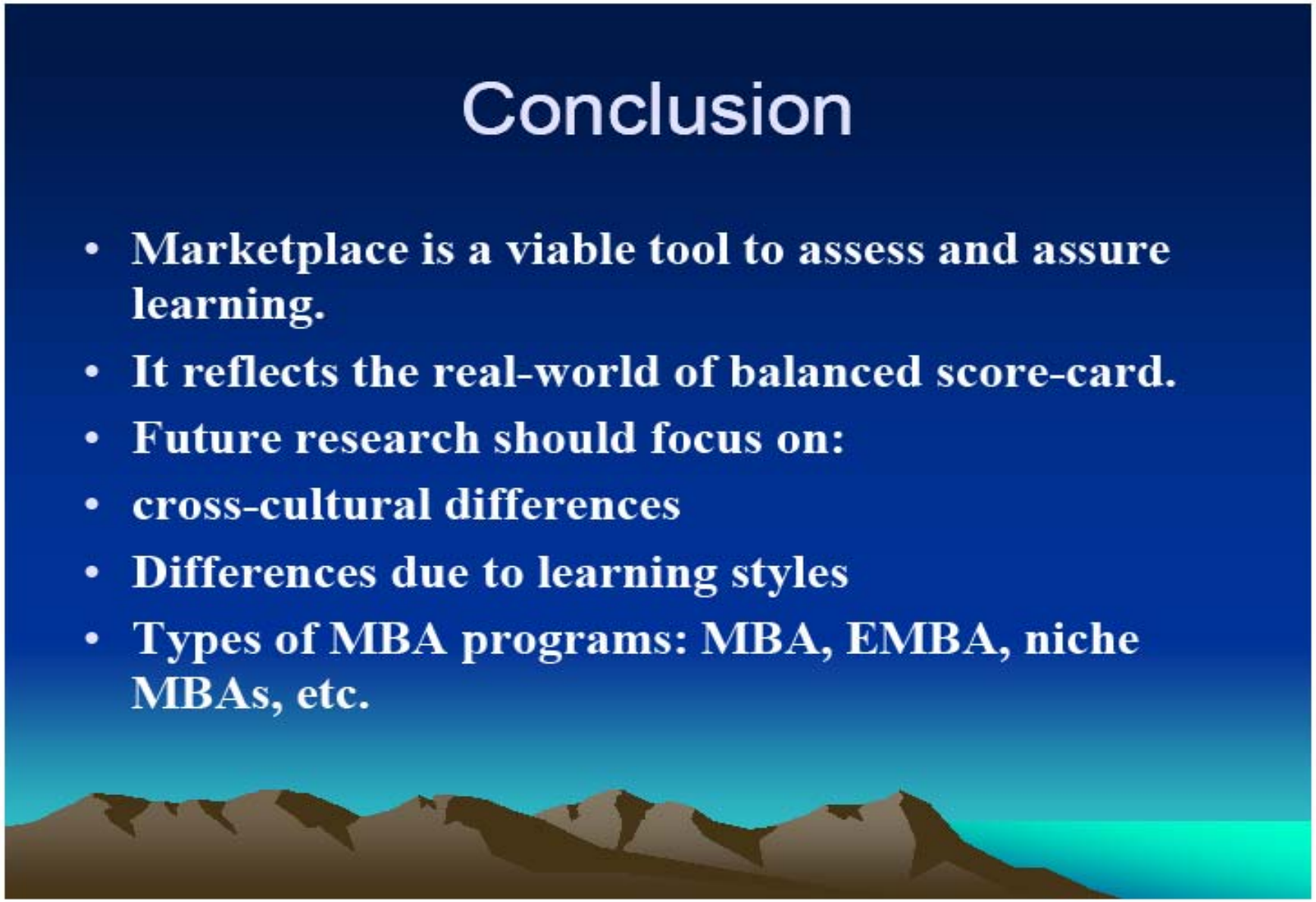

Information on
Balanced Score-Card
• Number of times relevant information viewed (X) leading to high total performance (Y)
• Correlation Coefficient = .89
• Proportion of variance explained = 79%


Student Feedback
• An Online survey for the participants.
• 25 out of 28 completed the survey.
• Examples of questions asked:
• "*Marketplace* helped me to understand the basic principles of business."
• "*Marketplace* is a good learning tool."


• "*Marketplace* helped me to understand the basic principles of business."
• Strongly Agree = 12%
• Agree = 48%
• Not Sure = 20%
• Disagree = 8%
• Strongly Disagree = 12%


• "*Marketplace* is a good learning tool."
• Strongly Agree = 24%
• Agree = 44%
• Not Sure = 24%
• Disagree = 8%
• Strongly Disagree = 0%


• "*Marketplace* met my learning expectations."
• Strongly Agree = 16%
• Agree = 48%
• Not Sure = 24%
• Disagree = 12%
• Strongly Disagree = 0%


Conclusion
• Marketplace is a viable tool to assess and assure learning.
• It reflects the real-world of balanced score-card.
• Future research should focus on:
• cross-cultural differences
• Differences due to learning styles
• Types of MBA programs: MBA, EMBA, niche MBAs, etc.

HYBRID VERSUS TRADITIONAL COURSE: AN EXPERIMENT IN AN UNDERGRADUATE PRINCIPLE OF MARKETING COURSE

Sanjay S. Mehta, Sam Houston State University
John J. Newbold, Sam Houston State University

SUMMARY

With the advancement of newer technology (e.g., classroom management systems like Blackboard), increase in nontraditional students, greater numbers of commuter students, etc., universities have been encouraging and/or recommending, and Professors have been experimenting with alternative instructional and teaching methods. Historically, there have been two disparate teaching methodologies that have been widely used: (1) One is the *traditional correspondence course* (where the student has no real face-to-face time with the instructor, course is completely self-paced, lessons are submitted and graded by an instructor, and exams are taken at testing centers and administered by a proctor); (2) The other is the *traditional lecture format* (where the students have regular face-to-face interactions with the instructor, students listen to lectures and take notes, engage in interactive learning, and take exams during class time). While both these formats have served both the students and the educational institutions well, students today are demanding alternative methodologies. Today's students maintain a complex lifestyle, have poverty of time, multi-task, engage in little reading of textbooks, rely on powerpoints and classroom lectures for information, are very technology savvy, etc.

It is for these and other reasons that we decided to try experimenting with a *hybrid Principles of Marketing Course*. In order to maintain high internal and external validity, several factors were kept constant across the two courses: the instructor, textbook, questions on the exams, number of exams, semester, etc. In the *traditional course*, students had to come to class regularly (i.e., attendance was mandatory), take exams on predetermined dates, participation in class was essential, etc. In the *hybrid course*, students were given specific date and times when chapters would be taught, they were free to come and attend (or not attend) any or all the lectures, attendance was not mandated or requireed (though attendance record was maintained), students had to come on the date and time of each exam. The setting of both these courses was a four week (i.e., four hours twice a week) summer semester. The summer semester was deliberately chosen for this study because of the compressed nature of the course (i.e., if something did not work, why prolong the misery), lack of negative impact on the faculty member (the university does not conduct formal student evaluations), etc. Instead of class participation, students were required to take online quizzes on every chapter using the following parameters (maximum 3 attempts, highest grade will be recorded, questions will be randomly chosen by the software, and 25 questions had to be completed in 1 hour).

On the last day of the hybrid course, students were asked to share their experience and recommend changes. Here is a brief summary of some observations by the instructor and comments received: Approximately 90 percent of the students said they would take a hybrid course if offered again; 100 percent said that they would recommend the course to others; 90 percent of the students bought the book and in fact 80 percent said they read it cover to cover. Next, students were asked to provide some advantages and disadvantages to this pedagogy. Here is a brief list of *Pros* reported: Greater flexibility – ability to choose when to come (i.e., fits our lifestyle) and pace oneself; Better Pedagogy – read the textbook, quizzes better prepared for exams, absences did not count against them; those who came regularly (approximately 15 percent of the students) felt that it produced smaller classes where they got to know the instructor better, provided an opportunity to engage in experiential learning exercises and/or form an AMA chapter, etc. Conversely, some of the *Cons* reported: Does not work as good in a compressed 8 class meeting course but would work well in a regular alternative 4-week summer (every day for two hours) and 15 weeks long semesters; lack of direct interaction with fellow students and instructor (though some online interaction was possible in chat rooms and

discussion boards). Here are some *recommendations* provided by the students: Post some chapter specific videos online; have an introduction assignment so students get to know one another, etc.

While it is obvious from the qualitative research collected that the students were happier and expressed greater desire and satisfaction with the hybrid format, we were concerned with the amount of learning that occurred between the two formats. As pluralistic researchers, we decided to conduct some quantitative research and compare their grade across the two formats and found the following results:

Course Format	# of students	Means	Standard Deviation	F-test Sig.	t-test Sig.
Traditional	24	78.81	8.14	**0.547**	**0.948**
Hybrid	31	78.96	9.03		

Based upon the above stated results, it is obvious that we observed no significant difference in either the standard deviation or the mean grades of the students. Using these results we can conclude that the amount of learning that occurred using either method was approximately the same. This further validates the use of hybrid as a legitimate pedagogy for learning Marketing. While this outcome was obtained as a result of one instructor using one course, additional information will be provided at the conference from other instructors that experimented in their course to determine the degree of portability afforded by the hybrid format across the Marketing discipline. In addition to grades, some additional scaled and demographic questions (suing past studies) were asked of each student. These results will also be provided at the conference.

For further information contact:
Sanjay S. Mehta
College of Business
Sam Houston State University
Box 2056
Huntsville, TX 77340
Phone: 936.294.1312
E-Mail: mehta@shsu.edu or mkt_ssm@shsu.edu

John J. Newbold
College of Business
Sam Houston State University
Box 2056
Huntsville, TX 77340
Phone: 936.294.1274
E-Mail: jnewbold@shsu.edu

EXAMINING COMMUTER STUDENTS' LACK OF INVOLVEMENT AND IDENTIFICATION WITH AN INSTITUTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

John J. Newbold, Sam Houston State University
Sanjay S. Mehta, Sam Houston State University
Patricia Forbus, Sam Houston State University

ABSTRACT

Many universities throughout the country are evolving from residential to commuter institutions of higher education. Therefore, it is important to understand the needs and wants of commuter students in order to help them function and succeed in the university setting. This study builds upon a preceding study by examining differences between commuter students and non-commuter students when it comes to attitudes about the *distinctiveness* and *prestige* of the institution. Further, the study examines key differences between commuters and non-commuters when it comes to *involvement* in various types of university-sponsored activities. Finally, the study corroborates previous research in profiling commuter students as being more likely to be non-traditional students who are working longer hours.

In a recent study, Newbold, Mehta, and Ruchti (Review of Business Research 2009), concluded that commuter students (in contrast to non-commuters) spend less time on campus, spend more years in college, have less interest in personal development, have a stronger desire to get out of college as soon as possible, are more likely to work while enrolled in college, are less likely to engage in social activities, possess less desire to attend campus events, and are less interested in having a good time while in college. Although the study would lead one to believe that a commuter student would have a lower grade point average, be more stressed, and display less satisfaction with the university, this was not the finding. Thus, the tentative conclusion was that commuter students operate with a different set of (lower) expectations, thus resulting in satisfaction levels commensurate to those students who do not commute to campus.

In the current study, the attitudes of graduating seniors are assessed as relate to institution distinctiveness and institution prestige, as these variables lead to both involvement and identification with the institution. As hypothesized, commuter students were observed to be less likely than non-commuters to perceive the institution as distinct and prestigious. Further, commuters were less likely to become involved in university-sponsored activities, and less likely to identify with the institution. This, in turn, makes commuter students less likely to join the alumni association or donate money to the school after graduation.

Finally, the implications for institutional marketing and business development are discussed, as well as directions for further research. References are available upon request.

For further information contact:
John J. Newbold
College of Business
Sam Houston State University
Box 2056
Huntsville, TX 77340
Phone: 936.294.1274
E-Mail: jnewbold@shsu.edu

Sanjay S. Mehta
College of Business
Sam Houston State University
Box 2056
Huntsville, TX 77340
Phone: 936.294.1312
E-Mail: mehta@shsu.edu or mkt_ssm@shsu.edu

Patricia Forbus
College of Business
Sam Houston State University
Box 2056
Huntsville, TX 77340
Phone: 936.293.0340
E-Mail: prf002@shsu.edu

AN INTERNET BASED WHOLE-TO-PART FIELD-EXPERIENCE MARKETING MODEL

Kevin McDonald, University of Wisconsin – Stout

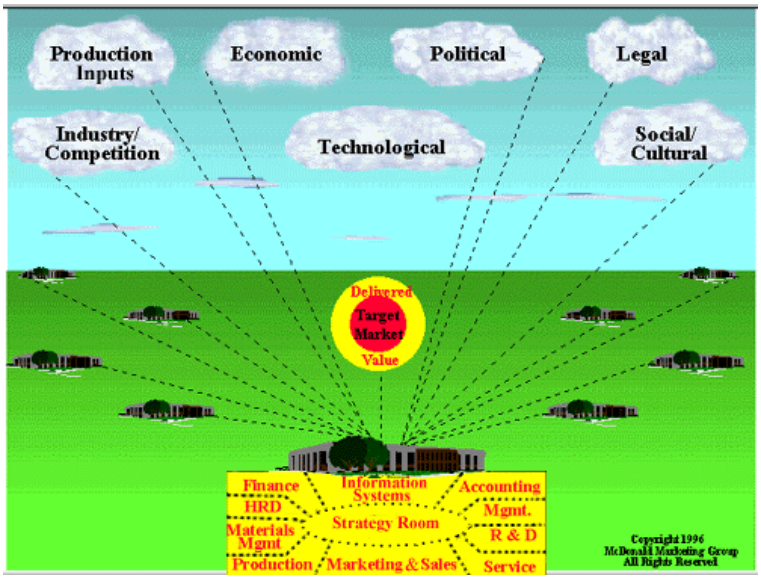
SUMMARY

Brandon Smith (1985) believed that the traditional method of teaching only "pieces," pieces set aside and unseen from the "whole," denies students the ability to develop their relational reasoning, or causal elements of thinking. Smith believed that providing students with the "whole" first, and then teaching the individual "parts" that make-up the "whole," would develop a student's causal relationship skills; Smith refers to this as "whole-to-part" learning. I have respectfully expanded on Smith's work by encouraging educators to develop whole-to-part marketing models with a student's field of experience in mind; or what I refer to as "Field Experience Modeling." According to Berkowitz (1997), "for a message to be communicated effectively, the sender and receiver must have a mutually shared field of experience," i.e., a similar understanding and knowledge.

In most strategic marketing textbooks, the authors will present the marketing framework, a whole-to-part model, in terms of boxes and lines. I have taken the boxes and lines version of the marketing framework and communicated it in a manner that relates to a student's experience; the ground and sky. The ground is the micro-marketing environment made up of the company, the competitors, and the customers. The sky is the macro-marketing environment which is made up of the following more uncontrollable factors: production inputs, economic, political, legal, technological, and social/cultural.

Dotted lines on the model connected to each factor connote the idea that the organization must monitor each factor. My marketing students are shown my whole-to-part field experience model at the beginning of the semester; the individual parts of the model are then explored as I progress through the semester.

In an effort to address the concept of life-long-learning, I have incorporated my marketing framework field experience model into an interactive model on the web. Students can access the model in an effort to conduct research and gain valuable marketing information. In this regard, my students are always connected to my class; they can stay current by conducting research in their homes or at work.



For further information contact:
Kevin McDonald
Department of Business
University of Wisconsin – Stout
Menomonie, WI 54751
Phone: 715.232.1152
FAX: 715.232.5004
E-Mail: mcdonaldk@uwstout.edu

SPECIAL APPLICATIONS AND SITUATION FOR TEACHING

Jerry Field, Illinois Institute of Technology
Lt. Col. Collins, Army ROTC Training Command, Chicago

SUMMARY

Having been enlisted to teach on the Army ROTC program there was a quick review of the military system of educational delivery. The system is simple and has proven over the years to be successful. Consider the high technical equipment the military uses today and each member of the team must know how to operate and repair their machines on the spot with great rapidity.

The formula is simple:

10% of what will be offered as instruction and class learning goals
40% theory
20% application
20% practically
10% review, with pre-set standards

Developing the lesson plans require some preparation with the military outline include a pre test – an outline as list above and a post test for each lesson and the same for a quarterly, midterm and final exams. The course outline contains the learning objectives, as most course outlines require this statement, the military differs in it requires minimum results as for passing in great detail.

For further information contact:
Jerry Field
Illinois Institute of Technology
3424 South State Street
Chicago, IL 60616
Phone: 312.327.5434
E-Mail: Field@iit.edu

Lt. Col. Collins
Army ROTC Training Command
Chicago, IL 60616

STUDENT LEARNING AND INVOLVEMENT IN RESEARCH: ISSUES IN EDUCATION

Nabarun Ghose, The University of Findlay
Padmavathi Dasharatha Yata, The University of Findlay

ABSTRACT

Education is a major channel for attaining knowledge, as it helps students to acquire skills which are necessary to accumulate, assemble, understand and analyze this information. Education today is essential and it helps in molding the personality of an individual thus shaping their careers in life. Students learn how to be good citizens and develop the ability for critical and independent thinking and create new knowledge for the generations to come. Applying this knowledge into practice and inventing new techniques through research is a major challenge. This paper deals with analyzing the issues associated with student involvement in research.

Introduction

Research allows students to discover and identify an area of their interest. Many factors contribute to quality student learning. These include motivation and academic preparation. In current years, it has been evident that students who are involved in research projects beyond classroom projects have improved prospects of getting into the next level of schooling and increasing their employment opportunities. Student involvement is the amount of physical and psychological energy that a student devotes to the academic experience (Astin 1999). Different forms of student involvement in research include honors programs, academic involvement and student-faculty interaction (Moore, Lovell, McGann, and Wyrick 1998). Steps in the student research process are:

a. Literature Search.
b. Data Collection.
c. Data Organization.
d. Data Analysis.
e. Interpretation of Data.
f. Understanding of Theory.
g. Presentation and Feedback.
h. Modification and further Research.

Key Issues Associated with Student Involvement in Research

1. **Racial Diversity:** Often students use stereotypes in the interpretation of data from diverse sources. Such stereotypes act as a hindrance to understanding.

2. **Gender Issues:** Traditional conservatism restricts research opportunities for women and minorities. Ethnocentrism creates barriers to access to research for many minorities and ignores their input.

3. **Availability of Resources:** While there are some exceptions (Regeth 2009), generally, it is a common phenomenon to find that students are unable to move forward in their research because there are limited resources or they are not able or allowed to use the necessary resources. Lack of resources will result in the inefficient performance of the team.

4. **Funds and Financial Support:** When a research project comes up, there is always a possibility of the faculty or university for providing funds and financial support to the research students. This not only helps the students monetarily but also gives them encouragement and motivation for delivering a productive output (Regeth 2009).

5. **Proper Professional Guidance:** We often come across students complaining that they do not have the right faculty available for guidance in their projects. The faculty is either too busy to spare their time and provide individual attention to the students or do not have the necessary expertise to guide the students through their research.

6. **Availability of Time:** Students are usually involved in more than one activity apart from their academic schedules, thus leaving them no time for getting involved in quality research. They are unable to

devote maximum time for research which finally results in not meeting the deadlines for completion of research projects.

7. **Problem with Students Traveling from Long Distances:** Students generally live scattered in the city and travel from long distances to attend their classes at the universities. Most of their time is lost or wasted in transportation; hence though they have the passion and interest for research they will not be able to be optimally involved.

8. **Motivation from Mentor/Faculty:** Faculty is supposed to provide quality and timely guidance while mentoring the students who are involved in research under them. But, sometimes there may be chances of the faculty showing favoritism or discrimination among the students which leads to the lack of proper motivation in the students.

9. **Capabilities and Aptitude of the Student:** Not all students have the essential aptitude and capabilities needed to conduct research. It makes it difficult for the faculty to mentor students with low motivation and IQ levels which in turn affects the quality of research (Moore, Lovell, McGann, and Wyrick 1998).

10. **Too Many Students Involved on the Same Topic:** Some universities allow more than one student to be registered under one single faculty and researching on the same topic. This diminishes the scope of understanding and involvement of the students as they do not have an opportunity to perform individually (Regeth 2009).

11. **Problem in Understanding the Scope of Research:** Projects are allotted to various professors and faculty based on their expertise in the area. Sometimes, we find the faculty do not have the proper vision of the project and are unable to understand the goals of the research project. This in turn results in the faculty guiding their students on the wrong path (Regeth 2009).

12. **Failure to Achieve the Goals of Research:** Students as well as the faculty are equally responsible for achieving the goals of research and meeting the deadlines. Lack of enthusiasm in either of the groups will result in the failure of the research (Regeth 2009).

Conclusion

The quality and quantity of students involved in research and the amount of physical and psychological energy that these students invest in the college research experience is an area that needs to be examined. The major reward that students involved in research receive is in-depth knowledge of the field (Fletcher 2004) and results in a competitive edge. In return, the greater the student's involvement in research in college, the greater will be the amount of student learning and their personal development (Berger and Milem 1999).

REFERENCES

Astin, Alexander W. (1999), "Student Involvement: A Developmental Theory for Higher Education," *Journal of College Student Development*, 40 (5), 518–29.

Berger, Joseph B. and Jeffrey F. Milem (1999), "The Role of Student Involvement and Perceptions of Integration in a Causal Model of Student Persistence," *Research in Higher Education*, 40 (6), 641–64.

Fletcher, Adam (2004), *Meaningful Student Involvement: Research Guide*. Olympia, WA: SoundOut! [http://www.soundout.org/MSIResearch.pdf].

Moore, Jody, Cheryl D. Lovell, Tammy McGann, and Jason Wyrick (1998), "Why Involvement Matters: A Review of Research on Student Involvement in the Collegiate Setting," *College Student Affairs Journal*, 17 (2), 4–17, [http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=EJ573167].

Regeth, Rebecca A. (2009), "Student Involvement in Research: Benefits for Students and Faculty," presented at Southwestern Conference on Teaching Psychology, [http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICDocs/data/ericdocs2sql/content_storage_01/0000019b/80/1b/3f/6a.pdf].

For further information contact:
Nabarun Ghose
Marketing & Business
College of Business
The University of Findlay
1000 N. Main St.
Findlay, OH 45840
Phone: 800.472.9502, Ext. 4455
Fax: 419.434.6781
E-Mail: ghose@findlay.edu

Padmavathi Dasharatha Yata
College of Business
The University of Findlay
1000 N. Main St.
Findlay, OH 45840
Phone: 419.206.6232
Fax: 419.434.6781
E-Mail: yatap@findlay.edu

PART II – BUSINESS STUDENT TRAVEL ABROAD: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF MINORITY VS. NON-MINORITY STUDENTS

Bruce T. Orvis, Slippery Rock University
Theresa A. Wajda, Slippery Rock University
Russell Casey, Penn State University Worthington Scranton

SUMMARY

Providing the opportunity for business students to participate in an international travel experience has become increasing popular over the last several years. Factors accounting for this trend include greater emphasis on the global marketplace in the undergraduate business curriculum as well as the desire of academic institutions to make a university education more meaningful by engaging students in activities that transcend a traditional classroom setting. However, as previously argued by Orvis and Wajda (2008), although multiple constituencies perceive there to be value in this initiative, what appears to be lacking is sufficient quantitative and qualitative evidence demonstrating the extent to which students benefit from an international experience.

Furthermore, there has been even less evidence gathered and documented that speaks to the unique perceptions of minority students who have participated in an international student-abroad program. Today, many universities across the country have been immersed in a movement to increase the emphasis that they place on diversity. This has been observed in recruitment practices, curricular changes, the creation of new student support services as well as the formation of university-endorsed clubs, organizations, and commissions. For example, at one of the author's own institutions, three separate Presidential Commissions have been established to foster diversity across campus. These include the President's Commission for the Status of Women, the President's Commission for Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender issues and the President's Commission for Racial and Ethnic Diversity. According to the mission statement put forth by members of the President's Commission for Racial and Ethnic Diversity, it is the "goal of this Commission to increase the number of people of color who choose to work/study at the University. Furthermore, the Commission is to encourage their participation in *all* facets of university life by striving to nurture a campus climate that is free of discrimination, intolerance and bigotry with the focal goal of working toward an understanding and appreciation of cultural differences in our diverse faculty, students, and staff."

Thus, in light of these two significant trends occurring on college campuses across the country, it is the intent of this research to obtain a more intimate look at how minority versus non-minority students view their travel abroad experiences. The value in making this determination is two-fold. First, drawing on earlier research, the merit in providing solid documentation that speaks to the specific benefits that are realized when students travel abroad deserves immediate attention as a greater number of external constituencies (i.e., institutional governing broads, accrediting agencies, legislatures, the general public, etc.) are mandating that universities become more accountable for showing how they utilize their resources and how they establish and measure the learning goals associated with any student-centric activity (Black and Duhon 2002). Secondly, and equally as important, is the realization that ethnic and racial background may shape the lens through which a student's academic, professional, and personal goals are formed and the expectations and skill set that one has for meeting these goals. As has been documented by a number of education specialists (e.g., Hayes 1996; McLellan 2007) it behooves an institution to look at all facets of the educational experience to insure that ***all*** students' needs are being addressed. In this era of diversity, it is incumbent upon an institution to recognize where, perhaps, certain elements of the educational experience are not sufficiently meeting the needs of certain student populations.

Consequently, this Part II extension of our earlier research initiative, (see Orvis and Wajda 2008), seeks to

make several contributions in clarifying measures of value and assessment with respect to student travel abroad. First, by expanding our respondent base, we are able to capture a greater number of data points as we seek to draw conclusions about how students perceive their travel abroad experience. Second, the authors were also given the opportunity to collect data from a group of minority students who traveled abroad as a group. Based on anecdotal evidence from faculty who traveled with these students as well as data that was collected via questionnaire, differences were observed in how minority students, versus their non-minority counterparts, perceived the experience based on the initial expectations they had formed. This has important implications for how international travel abroad experiences are designed and implemented in that it takes into account the differing needs of a more diverse student population.

Identical to the steps that were undertaken taken in our initial inquiry, this research will focus on those international travel programs that are traditionally taken over a spring or winter semester break, last anywhere from 7–14 days, and tend to be connected with a specific course in the student's liberal studies program or major. Additionally, this research will also highlight areas of student growth and development by capturing student data both before and after the international travel experience. Finally, an additional contribution of this research is both the quantitative and qualitative nature of the study's design. In addition to acquiring quantitative measures of value assessment, this study will also solicit qualitative information via in-depth interviews, focus group sessions and digital image analysis.

Thus, by adapting a questionnaire designed by the Council on International Exchange, (as described by Koester 1987), we pose a number of significant questions that are designed to provoke inquiry at individual institutions of higher education with the expectation that the answers to these questions will guide strategic planning in building and maintaining strong undergraduate international travel abroad experiences. Select areas of inquiry include: expectation of students on personal, professional, and academic fronts, skill-set enhancements, student concerns, major personal goals, and self-assessment of the impact of an international experience.

REFERENCES

Black, H. Tyrone and David L. Duhon (2006), "Assessing the Impact of Business Study Abroad Programs on Cultural Awareness and Personal Development," *Journal of Education for Business*, (January/February), 140–44.

Kelly, K. and J. Meyers (1995), *Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory Self-Assessment*. Chicago: NCS Pearson.

Lopatto, David (2005), "The Benefits of Undergraduate Research," *Academic Leader*, 21 (2), 1–3.

Orvis, Bruce T. and Theresa Wajda (2008), "Business Student Travel Abroad: Clarifying Definitions and Measures of Value and Assessment," Proceedings of the *13th Annual Marketing and Management Association's (MMA) Fall Educator's Conference*, Louisville, KY.

For further information contact:
Bruce T. Orvis
Marketing
Slippery Rock University
1 Morrow Way
Slippery Rock, PA 16057
Phone: 724.738.4955
Fax: 724.738.4782
E-Mail: bruce.orvis@sru.edu

Theresa A. Wajda
Marketing
Slippery Rock University
1 Morrow Way
Slippery Rock, PA 16057
Phone: 216.224.4584
Fax: 330.225.3413
E-Mail: theresa.wajda@sru.edu

Russell Casey
Marketing
Penn State University Worthington Scranton
Phone: 570.963.2510
E-Mail: Rac30@psu.edu

CLIENT-BASED PROJECTS

Kim Folkers, Wartburg College

SUMMARY

Background

Students in my Marketing Research and Advertising courses are required to participate in a client-based group project that is a significant portion of their total grade. Over the twenty years of incorporating these projects into courses, I have become convinced that these projects improve the learning outcomes for students in dramatic ways. I have also learned quite a bit about the logistics of planning and implementing these types of projects. This presentation will cover the benefits for all involved, as well as, the nuts and bolts involved in designing a project focus and process that allows students and clients to have a successful and satisfying experience together.

My experience with client-based projects originated in the Marketing Research course many years ago. From the first time I taught it, it seemed only natural to include some type of a semester-long market research project. In particular, working for an off-campus client seemed like a way to not only apply the content of the course, but also to significantly raise the level of expectations and professionalism involved. Students report that they feel like they're doing a project with a "real" purpose. Also, the comprehensive nature of a start-to-finish survey research project requires that they understand and can implement every stage of the research process.

In the Advertising course, the students had always designed a comprehensive campaign to apply what they were learning. However, in the early years, they were planning and designing campaigns for fictitious products or organizations. As the success of the Marketing Research projects grew, it became clear to me that the Advertising course could also benefit from working with real clients. The model was initially to have all student groups work for the same client, but based on feedback, it has evolved to the point where typically groups of four students each work on behalf of one of several clients that I recruit prior to the start of the term. The quality of the campaigns and the satisfaction of the students have grown significantly as a result.

Project Benefits

As a required and significant element of a course, the most important consideration when incorporating a client-based project is the benefit for the students. However, it is also imperative to determine the benefits that are possible for the clients and the instructor. Because these kinds of projects require such a significant commitment of time and effort on the part of all three parties, it is essential that the outcomes are satisfactory for all three.

Students benefits include (1) application, reinforcement and expansion of course concepts, (2) real world exposure, (3) experience working in small groups, (4) experience in managing a client project, (5) improved research, writing and presentation skills, (6) tangible portfolio material, and ultimately, (7) a deeper understanding of key marketing functions.

Client benefits include (1) the opportunity to undertake a project not otherwise possible with existing resources – i.e., no time, expertise, budget, personnel, (2) exposure to a fresh perspective on their business, (3) access and exposure to the latest marketing trends and ideas, and (4) the satisfaction of feeling that they're contributing to students' learning.

Instructor benefits include (1) engagement in networking within the local business community, (2) an opportunity to step out of the traditional instructor role and to function as a coach for the project groups, (3) the challenge of expanding your understanding and application of course concepts to a variety of client situations, (4) a ready source of vivid examples for classroom discussion throughout the semester, and (5) the potential for satisfied clients to become internship sites for future students.

Project Framework

Over time I have developed a framework for each project that enables the students to be successful. Framework topics to be covered include recruiting and screening of clients; project logistics – project timeline, requirements, communication, evaluation; and a look at the accompanying issues and challenges that you may encounter with client-based projects.

For further information contact:
Kim Folkers
Business Administration & Economics
Wartburg College
100 Wartburg Blvd.
Waverly, IA 50677
Phone: 319.352.8424
Fax: 319.352.8581
E-Mail: Kimberly.folkers@wartburg.edu

SPECIAL ACTIVITIES AND ASSIGNMENTS TO ENHANCE LEARNING

Rama Yelkur, University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire

SUMMARY

In this era of technology and tech savvy students, many professors are making their lectures available on podcasts, providing live streaming video of classes, and maintaining discussion boards so students can post questions. Glenn Platt, professor of interactive media studies at Miami University in Oxford, Ohio, puts together mini-podcasts to explain confusing concepts and encourages students to ask questions on their Twitter page to get instant answers from their peers (Scott 2009).

I do use discussion boards and incorporate tools such as Audacity (http://audacity.sourceforge.net/) and Wink (http://www.debugmode.com/wink/) to take the class beyond static content. Research has clearly indicated that passive learning techniques, such as a 100 percent lecture, are ineffective for the generation of students that we teach today (Hamer 2000). However, I also believe there are activities and assignments that can be used that do not necessarily involve technology. Perhaps professors use too much technology in the classroom. In addition to needing instant gratification, our students are easily bored if every one of their professors integrates the latest and greatest technologies to keep their attention, namely, UTube, Twitter, and podcasts.

Special activities and assignments work best if they involve: (1) critical thinking, (2) problem solving, and (3) team-based learning. These activities are different from a semester-long project and provide instant gratification to students. I will share two examples of exercises that I use in my Marketing classes.

Barter Game

In an introductory marketing class, divide the class into teams, give them a list of items, and have them barter the items with other teams to end up with a specified number of each item. The team to complete the barter and accomplish the task first wins.

Market Ranking Exercise

I use this in my international marketing course. Have teams of students develop product-specific indicators, industry size indicators, and market growth indicators; convert data into comparable indicators; weight each indicator; and analyze results. This exercise gives students hands-on experience in market selection and ranking (Foley 2004, p. 52)

REFERENCES

Foley, James F. (2004), *The Global Entrepreneur: Taking Your Business International*. Second Edition Jamric Press International (jamricpress@earthlink.net).

Hamer, Lawrence O. (2000), "The Additive Effects of Semistructured Classroom Activities on Student Learning: An Application of Classroom-Based Experiential Learning Techniques," *Journal of Marketing Education,* 22 (1), 25–34.

Scott, Megan K. (2009), "Classrooms Go High-Tech to Engage Students," (accessed July 23, 2009), [available at http://www.usnews.com/articles/science/2009/07/16/classrooms-go-high-tech-to-engage-students.html].

For further information contact:
Rama Yelkur
Management and Marketing Department
University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire
105 Garfield Ave.
Eau Claire WI 54702–4004
Phone: 715.836-4674
Fax: 715.836-2944
E-Mail: yelkurr@uwec.edu

INCREASING MOTIVATION IN CAPSTONE: STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT: AN ALTERNATIVE GRADING APPROACH

Brian A. Vander Schee, Aurora University

SUMMARY

Student concerns regarding course grading is ubiquitous in higher education. Faculty concerns regarding student motivation and students' willingness to exert the effort needed to achieve the grades they expect is also common. The disconnect is cause for frustration on both sides with students holding some power via student evaluations of teaching with the balance of power resting with faculty as they assign grades. Some might argue that faculty should have all the power. However, others would suggest that if the ultimate goal is to motivate students and foster learning that the incongruence between student and faculty expectations could be addressed by having students more involved in the grading process. This may be particularly true at the senior undergraduate level where students likely have a more accurate sense of their ability as well as faculty expectations. This research intends to add to the body of knowledge by examining the influence of student selection of weights distribution on student motivation and academic achievement.

A case-study approach was utilized in this research. A grading agreement was administered on the first day of class in two sections of the undergraduate *Capstone: Strategic Management* course. The agreement asked students to select the percentage weights distribution to be used in calculating their final grade in the course. Students were then asked to provide a written rationale for their selections. Each student would be graded using the weights distribution they selected. On the last day of class in the same semester a survey was administered to solicit student feedback on the self selection of weights distribution process.

The results indicate that students tried to maximize their strengths in making selections although there was no significant difference in academic achievement. Student written comments regarding self-selection weights distribution reflected their overall satisfaction with the process. In general higher achieving students rated the experience more positively than lower achieving students. Students perceived that they had more control over their final grade and thus had reason to believe that they could rather accurately predict their final grades based on their effort.

Students often are overconfident about the grades they expect to earn. Thus giving them the perception of more control over grading at the outset by allowing students to self-select the weights distribution may increase their motivation, learning and accuracy regarding their expected final grades. This can be done without compromising the actual final grades earned in the course as there was no significant difference in final grades earned by the self-selection group compared to the students in the previous year where the traditional weights distribution designed by the instructor was enforced.

This presentation describes the full research design, findings and implications for business educators in greater detail.

For further information contact:
Brian A. Vander Schee
Dunham School of Business
Aurora University
347 S. Gladstone Avenue
Aurora, IL 60506
Phone: 630.844.6554
Fax: 630.844.7830
E-Mail: bvanders@aurora.edu

THE ASSESSMENT JOURNEY: A CHAIR'S MISSION OR A DEPARTMENTAL EXCURSION?

Donnavieve N. Smith, North Central College
Brian P. Hanlon, North Central College

SUMMARY

While NCC prides itself on being student-focused, faculty may perceive administrative tasks, like assessment, as being somewhat burdensome. In order to positively influence faculty perceptions of assessment, the NCC Assessment Committee has approached the process in a very methodical fashion. This position paper is intended to discuss the evolution of assessment at NCC by reviewing (1) the challenges and issues facing the Assessment Committee; (2) the use of an assessment database; and (3) the risks associated with chair-driven assessment processes. The discussants' viewpoint is based on combined experience garnered through membership on the campus-wide Assessment Committee and experience acquired through the assessment practices used within a specific department. In particular, this position paper will explore who should be responsible for assessment and if shared responsibility could positively influence the process. A detailed examination of assessment procedures within the Department of Marketing will be used to support the need for a departmental approach to all assessment activities.

The perspective of assessment at NCC has evolved tremendously over the last decade. As NCC moved into the new millennium, the Assessment Committee was charged with developing procedures to manage the reports and plans that were created by departments across the campus. In order to ensure that there was consistency across all submitted plans and reports, an assessment database was developed. This database contains reports (yearly), plans (yearly), outcomes (by major and type of degree), and mission statements for all programs. Currently, all North Central Faculty can view plans, reports, and mission statements for various departments. However, the departmental chair is the only individual that can enter yearly plans and reports. The decision to provide departmental chairs with sole responsibility for data entry was based on the desire to bolster accountability. Yet, it has produced a silo effect, with the chair of each department shouldering the primary bulk of the responsibilities.

To date, faculty members have named a number of factors that have challenged them during their respective assessment activities. Most of the problems have been related to the development of appropriate measurement tools (rubrics), the inability to find an appropriate sample population (minors, certificate programs, etc.) and confusion regarding the type of information that should be included in plans and reports. In addition, there has been a knowledge gap between outgoing and incoming chairs. In response to some of these issues, workshops have been offered by the Assessment Committee and faculty members from across campus have been invited to participate. Generally, these workshops were attended by department chairs. In some instances, other faculty members accompanied the chair but, in the majority of cases, the departmental chair was the sole representative for their respective departments. As the Assessment Committee strives to provide information to faculty across campus, most of this information has been garnered and is retained by departmental chairs. The lack of dissemination further reinforces the silo effect that has impaired campus-wide assessment.

It has now become evident that assessment must be handled by multiple members of each department/program in order to cultivate a true "culture of assessment." In order to truly engage faculty members throughout each department, assessment tasks should be delegated to multiple individuals within each department, with the department chair overseeing all assessment procedures. Assessment updates should be incorporated into departmental and division meetings in an attempt to increase accountability. Lastly, individual faculty members should be provided with examples of ideal plans, reports, rubrics, etc. Assessment should be a transparent process within each department and its respective division. If multiple individuals are responsible for completing vari-

ous tasks related to assessment, the workload can be equally distributed across individual departments and knowledge of assessment procedures will exist beyond the departmental chair; thereby, alleviating the knowledge gap that has existed between outgoing and incoming chairs. The assessment process within NCC's Department of Marketing will be used to explore the benefits associated with a departmental vs. a chair-driven approach to assessment.

The Department of Marketing had identified six learning outcomes that would be examined over a five to six-year period. During the 2007–2008 academic year, two members of the four person department were responsible for developing a rubric and collecting data through multiple sections of NCC's Introduction to Marketing course, BUS 268. A single question was used to explore the level of student knowledge regarding effective marketing plans (outcome # 6) and the question was incorporated into the final exam across the selected sections. Copies of student responses were made and distributed to all members of the marketing department, along with a rubric that each member used to evaluate student responses. All identifying information was removed in order to ensure student anonymity. All members of the department evaluated each student response (50 in total) and averages were obtained across each item. A third member of the marketing department was responsible for taking the lead with the data collection for the 2008-2009 academic year. All faculty members decided to explore the third outcome, which addresses students' ability to understand and execute marketing research techniques. Data was collected through multiple sections of BUS 393, Marketing Research, and all members of the department were responsible for evaluating student responses.

This example illustrates the importance of a departmental approach to assessment procedures. While the Department of Marketing is an extremely small department, its approach to assessment could be replicated by larger departments. The distribution of assessment tasks and responsibilities increases engagement and facilitates the sharing of knowledge that is necessary to improve compliance. As individual department members take on the various tasks associated with assessment, they will be compelled to explore the database, sample rubrics and examples of ideal plans and reports. In short, joint responsibility for assessment activities could elevate the quality of plans and reports through the deliberate sharing of best practices. The shift from chair-driven assessment to a departmental approach will change the way that assessment is viewed across college campuses. Instead of assessment being viewed as an arduous task, assessment could be used as a tool to unify departments through the focus on a common goal.

For further information contact:
Donnavieve N. Smith
Department of Management & Marketing
North Central College
30 N. Brainard Street
Naperville, IL 60563
Phone: 630.637.5242
E-Mail: dnsmith@noctrl.edu

Brian P. Hanlon
Department of Management & Marketing
North Central College
30 N. Brainard Street
Naperville, IL 60563
Phone: 630.637.5242
E-Mail: bphanlon@noctrl.edu

A MAINSTREAM PEDAGOGY: THE HISTORY AND CURRENT USAGE OF SIMULATION GAMES IN MARKETING COURSES

A.F. Faria, University of Windsor
David Hutchinson, University of Windsor
William J. Wellington, University of Windsor

ABSTRACT

Business simulation games have been in use in university classes since 1957. Currently simulation games are in use in nearly every university in the U.S. Global use is high as well. By business discipline area, marketing simulation games are high in number and high in usage. This paper presents a short overview of the history and current usage levels of simulation games in marketing courses and concludes that marketing simulation game usage has to be considered to be a mainstream form of instructional pedagogy.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF SIMULATION GAMES

While Wolfe (1993) and Hodgetts (1970) contend that the origin of business simulation games can be traced back nearly 5,000 years to the development of board games and war games, the direct predecessors of the modern business simulation game can be dated back to 1932 in Europe and 1955 in North America. In 1929, Mary Birshstein was a high-ranking manager in the Russian Bureau for the Scientific Organization of Work when it was merged into the Leningrad Institute of Engineering and Economics. While teaching at the Leningrad Institute, Mary Birshstein got the idea to adapt the concept of war games to the business environment.

In 1932, Mary developed a teaching exercise that simulated the assembly process at the Ligovo typewriter factory and used this exercise to train managers on how to handle production problems (Gagnon 1987). From 1932 to 1940, Mary and her team at the Leningrad Institute developed more than 40 similar training exercises, simulating the production and distribution processes at a number of different businesses. The work of this group was then interrupted for a number of years by World War II.

In North America, the modern simulation game dates back to 1955. In that year, RAND Corporation developed a training exercise that simulated the U.S. Air Force logistics system. This simulation exercise, called *Monopologs,* required its participants to perform as inventory managers in a simulation of the Air Force supply system in the same fashion that current marketing simulations place participants into the roles of marketing managers (Jackson 1959).

The first widely known simulation game, *Top Management Decision Simulation,* was developed by the American Management Association for management training in 1956 (Hodgetts 1970). The *Business Management Game* was developed by the consulting firm McKinsey & Company in 1957 (Andlinger 1958) and the first known use of a simulation game in a university course occurred in 1957 in a business policy course at the University of Washington (Watson 1981).

From this point, the number of business simulation games grew rapidly. An article that appeared in the *Journal of Marketing* in 1962 (McGraith and Goeldner) listed 22 marketing simulation games then in use. The *Business Games Handbook,* published in 1969 (Graham and Gray), described 190 business simulation games of all varieties and *The Guide to Simulation/Games for Education and Training* (Horn and Cleaves 1980) described 228 business simulation games in detail.

TYPES OF SIMULATION GAMES

Early business simulation games were quite simple with respect to the number of decision variables included in the simulation, the number of participants that could be accommodated, the number of products produced and markets served, and the amount of feedback provided to the simulation participants. This was necessary as the

models supporting the early simulation games were simple and the early simulation games were hand scored (Fritzsche and Burns 2001). As business schools acquired access to mainframe computers, business games migrated to this platform, and the complexity of the games increased enormously. Presently, business games are run on personal computers, allowing for quick and easy input, easily changeable business environments, and graphical display of results. While a few early marketing games, such as *Marketing in Action* (Day 1962) and *Marksim* (Greenlaw and Kniffin 1964) migrated from hand scored versions to mainframe computer to PC versions over a number of editions, most of the early hand scored and mainframe simulation games have disappeared (Fritzsche and Burns 2001).

The movement of simulation games, including marketing games, from hand scored to personal computers can be divided into five phases as shown in Table 1. Ralph Day is considered by many to be the "father" of marketing simulation games and we can use one of his marketing simulations, *Marketing in Action*, to illustrate the movement of marketing games through the phases shown in Table 1.

Marketing in Action (Day) was first published by the Richard D. Irwin Co. in 1962. The first edition of *Marketing in Action* was hand scored and quite simple. Participant teams (a maximum of three) operated a company producing one product for one market, made few decisions and could only purchase two market research reports. The second edition of *Marketing in Action* appeared in 1968 and was now in mainframe format. The new format allowed for an increase in the number of competing companies (to five), products produced to two and markets served to three. With two products and three markets, the number of decision inputs increased enormously (advertising and sales forces now had to support two products in three markets as one example), the amount and variety of performance results returned to the teams grew enormously, and the number and variety of marketing research reports available increased. The opportunity for administrator error was reduced significantly and the amount of administrator time to get results back to the participant teams was reduced as the simulation went from hand scored to computer scored. A PC version of *Marketing in Action* was published in 1990 which further greatly enhanced the complexity of the simulation and ease of use. The change in the nature of marketing simulation games as we moved from the hand-scored phase to the PC era are shown in Table 2.

Business simulation games can be further divided into top management games, functional games, and concept simulations (Wolfe 1993). In top management simulations, participants take on the role of the top executives of a company and are responsible for the operation of the entire organization and all of its functional areas including production, marketing and finance. A functional simulation concentrates on one major area of the business, such as marketing. A concept game might concentrate on one specific field within a functional area of the business enterprise. A traffic management, advertising, sales force, inventory, or personnel simulation would be an example of a concept game.

TABLE 1
Phases in the Development of Marketing Games

Phase	Period	Developments
I	1955 to 1963	Creation and growth of hand-scored games.
II	1962 to 1968	Creation of mainframe computer games and growth of commercially published games.
III	1966 to 1985	Period of fastest growth of mainframe games and significant growth in game complexity.
IV	1984 to 2000	Growth of PC-based games and development of decision making aides to accompany games.
V	1998 to present	The growth of business game availability on the Internet and run through central servers.

TABLE 2
Shifts in Marketing Games Over Time

Feature	Early Marketing Simulations	Current Marketing Games
Mathematical model	Simple equations	Complex algorithms
Competing firms	Few and fixed	Many and variable
Products	One and simple	Many and complicated
Market segments	One	Few to many
Marketing decisions	Few and simple	Many and complex
Decision periods	Few	Unlimited
Input	Paper and pencil	Computer decision file
Output	Sales data	Varied reports and graphs
Platform	Hand-scoring	Personal computer

GAMING ORGANIZATIONS

As marketing games have grown in number, organizations supporting the development and usage of simulation games have come into existence. ABSEL, the Association for Business Simulation and Experiential Learning, was formed in 1974. The first ABSEL meeting was held in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma and attracted 101 attendees. ABSEL makes available the Bernie Keys Library, named after the founder of ABSEL, which contains all papers presented at all ABSEL conferences from 1974 through 2009 as well as the *Guide to Business Gaming and Experiential Learning* (Gentry 1990) and all issues of the *Journal of Experiential Learning*. The Bernie Keys Library now contains in excess of 2,200 papers and is available on CD by contacting ABSEL or online at [www.absel.org].

The North American Simulation and Gaming Association (NASAGA) was originally founded as the East Coast War Games Council and dates back to 1962. The name of the organization was changed to the National Gaming Council in 1968 as the emphasis of the organization changed from war games to business and economic gaming. The name was changed once again (in 1975) to the North American Simulation and Gaming Association.

ISAGA, the International Simulation and Gaming Association, was founded in Birmingham, England in 1969. ISAGA is a global organization but is primarily European based. ISAGA, like NASAGA, covers a range of disciplines in which simulation games are used including business and marketing. Other organizations that devote part of their programs to business and marketing simulations include SAGSET (Society for the Advancement of Games and Simulations in Education and Training) founded in 1969; JASAG (Japanese Association for Simulation and Gaming) founded in 1989; SAGANET (Swiss, Austrian, and German Simulation and Gaming Association); OzSAGA (Australian Simulation and Gaming Association); SSAGSg (Society of Simulation and Gaming of Singapore); ECGBL (European Conference of Games Based Learning); INDSAGA (Indian Simulation and Gaming Association); and ThaiSim (Thai Association for Simulation and Gaming).

Each of the organizations identified here have yearly conferences that are attended by hundreds of academics and many representatives from business organizations.

GROWTH IN GAME USAGE

The Top Management Decision Game is credited with being the first business simulation game used in a university class (Watson 1981) in North America. This simulation game was used in a business policy course at the University of Washington in 1957. From this point, business and marketing simulation game usage grew quickly.

Growth in Simulation Game Usage in North America

The first survey of business simulation game usage was reported in 1962 (Dale and Klasson 1962). This survey of a sample of 107 AACSB member schools reported that business simulation games were being used, in at least one course, in 71.1 percent of the surveyed universities. Table 3 shows overall results from later surveys of business simulation game usage in North America.

TABLE 3
Survey Results of Business Simulation Usage

Study	Sample Size	Percentage of Simulation Users
Dale and Klasson (1962)	107	71.1%
Graham and Gray (1969)	107	90.7%
Roberts and Strauss (1975)	107	94.5%
Faria (1987)	315	95.1%
Faria (1998)	381	97.5%

Graham and Gray (1969) and Roberts and Strauss (1975) repeated the survey of the same 107 AACSB member schools in 1969 and 1975. As can be seen in Table 3, business simulation game usage grew to 90.7 percent of surveyed schools in 1969 and 94.5 percent of surveyed schools in 1975. Faria (1987 and 1998) using a larger sample of AACSB member schools found that business simulation games were being used at 95.1 percent of the surveyed schools in 1987 and 97.5 percent of the surveyed schools in 1998. As such, business game usage continued to increase at U.S. universities from the period of first simulation game usage in 1957 through 1998, a period of over 40 years.

While simulation game usage wasn't reported by discipline in the earliest studies, the two Faria (1987 and 1998) surveys did report simulation game usage by discipline. Table 4 shows simulation game usage by course area from the Faria surveys.

Strategic management or business policy, essentially the course area of first business simulation game usage in 1957, has remained the biggest course area for business game usage. Marketing courses represent a very close second course area for business simulation game usage. As can be seen in Table 4, business simulation game usage by discipline area, increased in each discipline from 1987 to 1998.

While past studies, as reported in Tables 3 and 4, have clearly shown that business and marketing simulation game usage has grown through the years, these studies have looked at usage within an entire business curriculum at a particular university. More recently, Faria and Wellington (2004) measured simulation game usage by individual course instructor. Data for the Faria and Wellington (2004) study was gathered by sending questionnaires via e-mail to a sample of 14,497 business faculty members. The e-mail addresses for the survey audience were obtained from the Web sites of all AACSB member schools. In total, 1,085 responses were received for a response rate of 8.4% of the effective e-mailings. This is a very normal, even high, response rate for an e-mail survey. Some basic findings from this survey are reported in Tables 5 and 6.

The Faria and Wellington (2004) survey reported that 30.6 percent of the 1,085 survey respondents were current users of business simulation games, 17.1 percent were former users, and 52.3 percent were never users (see

TABLE 4
Simulation Usage by Course Area

Course Area	Faria (1987) Survey	Faria (1998) Survey
Strategic management/Policy	52.9%	65.7%
Marketing	51.0%	62.7%
Finance	24.8%	39.0%
Management	17.8%	44.5%
Accounting	8.9%	15.7%
Other	16.8%	18.6%

TABLE 5
Current, Former, and Never Simulation Users

	Number	Percent
Current Users	332	30.6%
Former Users	186	17.1%
Never Users	567	52.3%
Total	1,085	100.0%

TABLE 6
Simulation Usage Rate by Discipline

Discipline	User	Former User	Never User	Total
Strategy/Policy	50.0%	20.2%	29.8%	100%
Management	41.1%	18.7%	40.2%	100%
Marketing	40.9%	23.2%	35.9%	100%
Finance	22.6%	17.9%	59.5%	100%
Management Science	19.9%	14.7%	65.4%	100%
Accounting	10.6%	9.9%	79.5%	100%
Other	14.9%	10.6%	74.5%	100%

Table 5). A current user was a survey respondent using a simulation game during the semester in which the survey instrument was being completed. A former user was a survey respondent who had previously used a simulation game (and likely would again in the future) but was not using a simulation game during the semester in which the survey instrument was completed. A never user was, of course, a survey respondent who had never used a business simulation game.

Table 6 shows, once again, that simulation game usage is highest among instructors teaching strategy or business policy courses, followed by general management and then marketing courses. This is consistent with earlier studies. The Faria and Wellington (2004) study of simulation game users provides detailed information on current simulation users, former users and never users (across 32 tables) for the interested reader who would like to view the detailed study findings.

SIMULATION GAME USAGE OUTSIDE OF NORTH AMERICA

A number of studies have addressed business and marketing simulation game usage outside of North America. Those studies known to exist will be briefly summarized here. While not a survey of simulation usage, an article by Isak Assa (1982) cites three universities in Bulgaria; three universities in the Czech Republic; six universities in Germany; two universities in Hungary; and four universities in Poland that were using management simulation games in 1981. Table 7 presents survey findings of business simulation game usage in the United Kingdom (Burgess 1991), Australia (McKenna 1991), Hong Kong (Chang 2003), and Thailand (Krabuanrat 2009).

The simulation usage findings presented in Table 7 for the United Kingdom (Burgess 1991) and Australia (McKenna 1991) represent findings with regard to business simulation usage at universities in those countries. The findings presented for Hong Kong (Chang 2003) and Thailand (Krabuanrat 2009) represent usage levels among individual university instructors within those countries.

The percentage of universities in which business simulation games were being used in the United Kingdom and Australia is lower than the percentages of usage in the United States for the time period represented (see Tables 7 and 3). The percentage of individual university instructor usage in Hong Kong was slightly lower than that

TABLE 7
Simulation Usage Outside of North America

Country	Sample Size	Percent Simulation Users
United Kingdom (Burgess 1991)	162	56.2%
Australia (McKenna 1991)	58	55.2%
Hong Kong (Chang 2003)	142	24.6%
Thailand (Krabuanrat 2009)	127	31.5%

reported for the U.S. while the percentage usage in Thailand was similar to that reported in the U.S. (see Tables 7 and 5).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The review of the historical trends in simulation usage would suggest that simulation game usage among business academia is quite high and well dispersed across business disciplines, across universities and across countries. There are also well established support groups for business academics who wish to use simulations in the form of ten academically based international associations that are devoted specifically to simulation games. In addition, discipline based academic associations such as the Marketing Management Association provide outlets for research on the learning applications of simulation games via conference tracks dedicated to marketing simulation and gaming papers. Finally, journals have been favorable to disseminating publications on simulation research (Axelrod 1997).

An underlying theme that emerges from the review is that one driving reason for the adoption of simulation games for use in marketing courses is the belief that the experience produces positive learning outcomes. Specifically, some of the key learning outcomes instructors mention include: decision making experience, theory application, and integration of functional business areas (Faria and Wellington 2004). As well, marketing simulation users rate this method of instruction as more effective than traditional teaching methods (lecture and case).

Another driver of marketing simulation adoption is technological change in the form of cheaper, more widely distributed and enhanced computing power which has coincidentally allowed marketing simulation games to become both more sophisticated while at the same time, making them easier to use. Game designers have been able to use technology advances to improve the ease of use of the games, which has changed games from hand scoring to personal computers to remote central servers. These developments have made it easier for participants to physically play the games and to do so asynchronously while also making it easier for instructors to set up and physically administer these simulation exercises. These two occurrences have no doubt, greatly assisted in expanding and maintaining the interest in using simulation games in marketing courses.

A third driver of simulation adoption by marketing instructors involves the adaptability of marketing simulation games. Simulation game designers have been able to adapt the parameters of games for use in various other disciplines, in graduate and undergraduate programs, worldwide cultures, as well as for use in training programs for business organizations. The ability of game designers to adapt games suggests that as specialized 'concept' games in marketing are created that it is likely that increased usage will follow among marketing instructors teaching specialized topics.

A final driver in the adoption of marketing simulation games is the interest by researchers in understanding how games work, and their benefits for student learning. The number of research studies and publications presented over the years, as evidenced by the long history of organizations such as ABSEL (founded in 1974) and *Simulation & Gaming* (first published in 1969) suggests that the design and usage of simulation games remains a critical area of interest. The ongoing interest in understanding how business markets work through computerized simulations of these markets combined with the desire to understand how learning can be enhanced through the application and creation of these simulations will continue to drive the adoption process.

In conclusion, in the more than fifty years since business simulation games were first put to use in North American business schools, they have become a significant instruc-

tional tool in all aspects of the academic curriculum. The use of marketing discipline-based business simulation games has a history of nearly fifty years in which time they have worked their way from being an innovative "extra" exercise to becoming a regular instructional tool. Based on this history, it is concluded that marketing simulation game usage has to be considered a mainstream form of pedagogy for marketing academics to teach the marketing discipline.

REFERENCES

Andlinger, G.R. (1958), "Business Games – Play One!" *Harvard Business Review,* 36 (1), 115–25.

Assa, Isak (1982), "Management Simulation Games for Education and Research: A Comparative Study of Gaming in the Socialist Countries," *Simulation & Gaming,* 13 (3), 379–81.

Axelrod, R. (1997), "Advancing the Art of Simulation in the Social Sciences," in *Simulating Social Phenomena,* R. Conte, R. Hegselmann, and P. Terna, eds. New York: Springer Publishing, 21–40.

Burgess, T.F. (1991), "The Use of Computerized Management and Business Simulation in the United Kingdom," *Simulation & Gaming,* 22 (1), 174–95.

Chang, J. (2003), "Use of Business Games in Hong Kong," *Simulation & Gaming,* 34 (3), 358–66.

Dale, A.G. and C.R. Klasson (1962), *Business Gaming: A Survey of American Collegiate Schools of Business,* Austin, TX: University of Texas, Bureau of Business Research.

Day, Ralph (1962), *Marketing in Action.* Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin, Inc.

Diehl, B.J. (1979), "Current Simulation Gaming in Australia," *Simulation & Gaming,* 10 (2), 265–74.

Faria, A.J. (1987), "A Survey of the Use of Business Games in Academia and Business," *Simulation & Gaming,* 18 (2), 207–24.

_____ (1998), "Business Simulation Games: Current Usage Levels-An Update," *Simulation & Gaming,* 29 (2), 295–308.

_____ and W.J. Wellington (2004), "A Survey of Simulation Game Users, Former Users, and Never Users," *Simulation & Gaming,* 35 (2), 178–207.

Fritzsche, D.J. and A.C. Burns (2001), "The Role of ABSEL in the Development of Marketing Simulations in Collegiate Education," *Simulation & Gaming,* 32, 85–96.

Gagnon, J.H. (1987), "Mary M. Birshtein: The Mother of Soviet Simulation Gaming," *Simulation & Gaming,* 18 (1), 3–12.

Gentry, J.W. (1990), *Guide to Business Gaming and Experiential Learning,* London: Nichols/GP Publishing.

Graham, R.G. and C.F. Gray (1969), *Guide to Business Gaming and Experiential Learning,* New York: American Management Association.

Greenlaw, P.S. and F.W. Kniffin (1964), *Marksim.* New York: International Textbook Company.

Hodgetts, R. (1970), "Management Gaming for Didactic Purposes: A New Look," *Simulation & Gaming,* 1 (1), 55–66.

Horn, R.E. and A. Cleaves (1980), *The Guide to Simulation/Games for Education and Training.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publishing.

Jackson, J.R. (1959), "Learning from Experience in Business Decision Games," *California Management Review,* 11 (2), 23–29.

Krabuanrat, T. (2009), "The Use of Business Simulation Games in Classroom Teaching in a Developing Country: A Perspective from Thailand," Department of Operations Management, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand, unpublished paper.

McKenna, R.J. (1991), "Business Computerized Simulation: The Australian Experience," *Simulation & Gaming,* 22 (1), 36–62.

McRaith, J.F. and C.R. Goeldner (1962), "A Survey of Marketing Games," *Journal of Marketing,* 26, (3), 69–73.

Roberts, R.M. and L. Strauss (1975), "Management Games in Higher Education 1962 to 1974 – An Increasing Acceptance," in *Proceedings of the North American Simulation and Gaming Association,* Ralph Day, ed. Pittsburgh, PA: North American Simulation and Gaming Association, 381–85.

Watson, H.J. (1981), *Computer Simulation in Business.* New York: John Wiley.

Wolfe, J. (1993), "A History of Business Teaching Games in English-Speaking and Post-Socialist Countries: The Origination and Diffusion of a Management Education and Development Technology," *Simulation & Gaming,* 24 (3), 446–63.

For further information contact:
A.F. Faria
Marketing
Odette School of Business
University of Windsor
Windsor, Ontario
Canada N9B 3P4
Phone: 519.253.3000, Ext. 3101
Fax: 519.973.7073
E-Mail: ad9@uwindsor

David Hutchinson
Marketing Area
Odette School of Business
University of Windsor
Windsor, Ontario
Canada N9B 3P4
Phone: 519.253.3000, Ext. 3112
E-Mail: dhutch@uwindsor.ca

William J. Wellington
Odette School of Business
University of Windsor
1101 Sunset Ave.
Windsor, Ontario
Canada N9B 3P4
Phone: 519.253.3000, Ext. 3151
E-Mail: r87@uwindsor.ca

RECIPE FOR SUCCESS: HOW CROSS-FUNCTIONAL PROJECTS MOTIVATE MBA STUDENTS, BRING UNIVERSITY AND THE LOCAL COMMUNITY CLOSER, AND KEEP AACSB HAPPY

Tanja Steigner, Emporia State University
Kevin R. Coulson, Emporia State University
Bhanu Balasubramnian, Emporia State University

ABSTRACT

MBA students at Emporia State University regularly participate in cross-functional consulting projects. The consulting project requires students to integrate their knowledge from the different business disciplines, provide business solutions based on the client's needs, work effectively with teammates to accomplish set goals, and build trust-based business relationships with the local business community. This paper provides background information and logistics for the cross-functional project at Emporia State University, which other institutions can adapt. We explain how our instructional methods align with AACSB requirements, and benefit students, institutions, and business community. We include student responses about their experiences with the cross-functional project.

INTRODUCTION

Business programs have come under severe criticism during the recent financial fiasco, questioning the effectiveness and competency of graduating students (Jacobs 2009). As a consequence, the pressure is on the universities to produce knowledgeable, innovative, motivated, and accountable business leaders for the global economy of the 21st century. To be successful, graduates must detach themselves from discipline-specific silo thinking and embrace a holistic business approach, strengthen leadership expertise, and perfect interpersonal skills. Graduate students at Emporia State University have the opportunity to provide hands-on consulting to local business. This experience shapes exactly those skill sets that have become more in demand by today's employers. The consulting projects at Emporia State University are uniquely structured to allow the synthesis of knowledge from various functional disciplines. They further provide a platform for the University and the local business community to interact for mutual benefit. Lastly, the projects offer ample opportunity for learning assessments, which is strongly encouraged by The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB 2007). This paper will explain the specifics of the cross-functional consulting project, its multifaceted benefits, and conclude with student feedback.

THE PROGRAM

The Emporia State University School of Business uses cross-functional consulting projects to prepare MBA students to become an integral part of local, national, and international business development while perfecting their leadership skills and entrepreneurial expertise. Students enrolled in two core courses concurrently, e.g., Finance and Marketing, are paired to form consulting teams. These teams apply state of the art skill sets they acquire in class to a real-life business in need of professional advice. As Bovinet (2000) points out, students might initially not possess the ability to connect theoretical knowledge to real-world situations. For this reason, faculty at Emporia State University periodically assesses the progress made by student teams and guide in the consulting process to achieve professional standards. To replicate the business environment, teams compete to provide the best value-added solutions and strategies for the client.

The owners/managers of the business share their general business concerns, needs, and prospects with the combined classes in a joint session at the beginning of the semester. Teams must then visit the business site and meet with management and establish a working relationship with the client. Teams also meet with local bankers, representatives of the Small Business Development Center, current and potential customers and suppliers, and regional development officials all the while maintaining discrete control of confidential information.

After researching the business and industry, teams conduct in-depth analysis using the techniques learned in class. They apply critical thinking to formulate alternative strategies and develop arguments within teams to produce the most desirable solution. Teams receive confidential feedback from the faculty in an on-going basis during this phase. Each team delivers a written business plan to client and faculty. Each team presents individually their confidential recommendations to the client, faculty, and a jury panel consisting of other, outside, business professionals. Each team's presentation is video-recorded and reviewed in a joint session with both classes in attendance. In this session, each team receives diagnostic feedback from anyone who has comments. The ensuing discussion allows students to expand their strengths and overcome any weaknesses. It does so by allowing the individuals to "protest their innocence" or explain their thought processes in a less defensive manner. Faculty and often student observers can then clarify why a particular strategy was (or was not) suited to the situation. Learning takes place! The written business plan becomes a vital artifact in the student's portfolio and, together with the real-life professional business experience, and relatively pain free feedback, significantly improves the student's marketability.

UNIQUENESS

The cross-functional project at Emporia State University goes beyond core courses of MBA programs and cross disciplinary capstone courses that include traditional case studies and analyses for companies where information is publicly available (Evans 2008; Weinstein and Barrett 2007). Although case studies on publicly traded companies provide important evaluation opportunities for students, the direct personal contact with a real company's leadership and the students' felt responsibility toward the client are missing. Finney and Pyke (2008) show that student interest in case studies increases if students are familiar with the business. To nurture the students' interest, the cross-functional project at Emporia State University accommodates a client-consultant relationship between MBA students and the leadership of a local business.

The cross-functional project at Emporia State University stands out for its unique ability to combine high quality business education, hands-on entrepreneurial experience, leadership and networking opportunities, as well as service to the community into the umbrella of the MBA curriculum. Students have the unique opportunity for experiential learning and to integrate textbook knowledge across disciplines in real-world application with lasting benefits to the community. Using this approach, students far surpass the commonly tested lower level cognitive domains of Bloom's taxonomy such as comprehension and analysis and become equipped to succeed at the synthesis and evaluation level (Bloom 1956). Students now have the ability to transcend functional silos, a skill highly demanded by today's employers. This value creation is "the raison d'être for business" (Weinstein and Barrett 2007) and business schools.

MBA students at Emporia State University learn to be self-driven and motivated to obtain information even if it has not yet been taught in a classroom setting. Rather than waiting until the end of their graduate education before starting to work hands-on with businesses (Marshall, Bolton, and Solomon 2000), our MBA students start this process early on. At Emporia State University, MBA students experience the cross-functional project as part of their regular course work without signing up for additional six required credit hours of application classes (Marshall, Bolton, and Solomon 2000). We are able to offer an integrated course in a one-year general management MBA program. The one semester approach also provides more flexibility. In the event that a student is not able to participate, they can continue with the program at another semester and restart in a new project with minimal difficulties.

Additional differences between a programmed approach at large and resource intense AACSB programs (Marshall, Bolton, and Solomon 2000) and a more flexible approach at smaller and more resource pinched AACSB programs exist. Our approach allows a real-world competitive approach wherein each team goes head-to-head with the other teams. We further differ from the Marshall et al. (2000) with respect to required student counseling by faculty. Our faculty members are available to the students on an as-needed-basis. It is up to the individual teams to seek faculty advice (both within the college and across campus). We examine teams' periodic reports and intervene only if necessary. Since we require each team member to self-rate and to rate his/her individual team

members' abilities/contributions, the slackers are ferreted out and receive a lower grade.

It is also worth noting that the cross-functional project offers multiple opportunities to evaluate student learning, which is highly valued by AACSB. Most learning goals of any business program can be evaluated with the cross-functional project. At Emporia State University, MBA students should expect to:

- Have a comprehensive understanding of the functional areas of business and the relationship among these areas.
- Apply critical thinking skills in making strategic business decisions.
- Develop a process to analyze the implications of making socially responsible.
- Work effectively in a team environment to achieve strategic management goals.
- Recognize and consider variables having a global impact.

Written exams, team work projects, written business reports, recommendations for a local business and the impact on its community, and oral presentations are prime opportunities to evaluate all stated program goals with one cross-functional course setup.

SAMPLE INSTRUCTIONS

The final product of the cross-functional project is a written business plan for the client business, with specific questions focusing on the client's need and the expertise of the supervising faculty discipline. The following presents sample instructions that highlight marketing and finance aspects:

Marketing:

- Situation Analysis – visit the business, examine operations for current factors which contribute to and/or reduce success.
- SWOT Analysis – pay attention to the differences between factors which are firm specific vs. those which affect the industry.
- Suggested alterations in Marketing/Promotional mix – what will the new potential owner need to do to make this a going concern?
- Sales Forecast – provide sales estimates for the firm with and without suggested marketing changes (3 years, by month).
- Bibliography – cite all sources, including conversations.

Finance:

- Profit & Loss Statement (Income Statement) – establish monthly projections for first 36 months of operations.
- Cash Flow Statement – develop monthly projections for first 36 months of operations.
- Balance Sheet – annually; begin at the starting date of the business and update on an annual basis.
- Three sets of financial projections: pessimistic, expected, and optimistic. Sales forecasts have to be substantiated.
- Business valuation – what is the appropriate purchase price for the business?

The focus of the students' attention can be adjusted for any functional area and business need. A business plan however is the core deliverable.

TEAMS

Oftentimes students choose their teammates themselves (Marshall, Bolton, and Solomon 2000). This process of team formation is convenient for the students, but it is far removed from real-world business settings where employees cannot simply pick and chose their colleagues they want to work with. To maximize the benefits from the team experience, faculty at Emporia State University exercises great care in the formation of student consulting teams. Teams are balanced for International/American citizenship and for gender. It is extremely worthwhile to match American women with men from international cultures which have strong viewpoints on gender issues. Of greater difficulty is dealing with team membership for women from cultures which have less aggressive lifestyles. To the extent possible, no team should have more than two members from any particular culture.

RECOMMENDED DOCUMENTS

Binding documents convey professionalism to the MBA students and the client, and also protect the University from potential harm. Specifically, it is recommended that all participating students sign a confidentiality agreement, which can be copied and handed to the client. The confidentiality agreement helps the client to overcome any hesitation of sharing sensitive information with a group of students. At the same time, students feel more responsibility and respect toward the business and their hands-on project.

A waiver of claims, indemnification and release of liability protects the University from potential lawsuits. Similar to indemnity agreements between clients and professional consultants, waivers should be signed by the client business to fully release and forever waive any and all claims against the University.

If desired, participating faculty can also require students to sign statements of ethical conduct. This statement reminds the students to act in an ethical manner in class and in connection with the class. Students should have a complete understanding of the consequences of unethical conduct (e.g., withdrawal from class).

BENEFITS

The cross-functional project has wide ranging benefits to students, the institution, and the community.

To the Students

Students are demonstrably more enthusiastically involved in this project format and exhibit greater initiative for self-directed learning. This is because they consult for a real-world business and face real consequences and rewards. Among these consequences are the potential for bad grades (pay-for-performance) and, because the individuals are ranked, the loss of stature afforded to the poorer players. Invariably, the teams work hard and successfully achieve rewards instead of consequences.

The mastering of fast-changing group dynamics and the satisfaction of gaining new insight into the business world are some of the key benefits that enhance the students' learning experience and outcome. The more deeply involved students are more confident in presenting their findings and in answering questions from the panel. Their less-well-prepared peers take note of this and often alter their approach in future classes.

The interaction between text-based knowledge and the clients' personally held beliefs and practices (true or not), forces a more rapid, more complete and more beneficial change in student learning. This improved interpersonal behavior is validated in the transition to business upon graduation. Students also learn to develop a trust-based business relationship with the client in part by appropriately handling their confidential information and in part by learning to address sensitive issues with the client in a non-aggressive, sensitive manner.

In reality, an MBA program is often the first instance where students really have to deal with people who are as bright (or brighter) than they are. Some find that they were not as prepared as they believed. The cross-functional project provides students with ample opportunities to polish their leadership skills, entrepreneurial skills, team negotiation tactics, and cross-gender/cross-cultural tolerance levels. Students aspire to produce the best consulting results. Therefore, teams develop successful working relationships. In the process, students establish pecking orders and learn to work with national and international teammates by rising above the cultural, gender and language barriers. To actively promote awareness and acceptance of team members with different backgrounds, faculty construct each team with both genders, as well as a balance of ethnic and cultural backgrounds and to the degree possible, include diverse work experience. Because of project complexity, individual team members take leadership of various focal points in the project.

Students obtain access to and work closely with the School's Small Business Development Center, local banks, and other professional institutions depending on the specifics of the project. These interactions, along with the client business and with the jury panel, provide priceless networking opportunities for students. The cross-functional project allows students to impress potential future employers, to prepare items for their portfolio and to secure invaluable career advice and job recommendations.

To the Institution

The depth and breadth of the cross-functional project allows the School of Business to incorporate previously identified assessment goals into the syllabi of the participating courses. The written report, oral presentation, and team experience offer multiple avenues to assess these program goals such as expanding comprehensive understanding of business, applying critical thinking skills and social responsibility, excelling in a team environment, using technology, and, depending upon the business, acting on global issues.

The regular interaction between institution and client keeps faculty up to date on the most current business developments and local needs. This also serves, through client word-of-mouth, to generate continuing desire within the community for this service from our institution. This ongoing community service improves an already favorable public opinion and increases positive relations with the community. In those instances where the confidentiality of the client would not be violated, there is opportunity for increased publicity for the MBA program and its benefits to the state. Because the institution's graduates exit well-prepared for the business world and receive

attractive placement offers, this reflects positively on the institution's reputation.

To the Community

The cross-functional project offers, in a small town, professional consulting service free of charge to small businesses as well as to nationally and internationally oriented local and regional companies. This service, which is often too expensive for smaller businesses to afford, can increase the success of users thus increasing local tax revenues and providing new jobs. Further, the client can pick and choose among components of several alternative business plans from the competing teams rather than having the often canned opinion of just one consulting firm. Since businesses interact with a group of students for an entire semester, they can pick from the cream of the crop and thereby obtain early access to graduating students before the students officially enter the job market.

TRANSFERABILITY TO OTHER INSTITUTIONS

The cross-functional project can be easily transferred across institutional boundaries. Schools which desire successful implementation must be willing to consistently offer paired classes so that students become aware of the added value to the program and their career potential. Faculty who enjoy the interaction with local businesses and who are open to adjust their course content to address the current demands of business in today's economy provide the most successful models for students in the program. In this professional environment, students eagerly distinguish themselves by stepping outside the traditional classroom experience into the real world and make a lasting impact on their local community. General guidelines for presentation evaluation are included in the appendices.

STUDENT FEEDBACK

Students who have previously participated in the cross-functional project at Emporia State University have provided positive feedback to the School. Sample comments include:

> "I was very motivated to provide a quality report for our real life investors. A text book case would have not provided me with the same motivation."
>
> "The greatest thing was the reality of the situation; the investors are going to rely on our report to make a decision."
>
> "I really liked the fact that the project was dealing with an actual business and clients."
>
> "Since we were presenting to our actual clients, I think it made people work harder."
>
> "The videotaping was helpful because students don't often get to go back and see themselves presenting. We all noticed bad habits we may have during presenting (i.e., posture, twitches, and fillers) and learned what we each do well. I would try not to use as many fillers in my next speech."
>
> "Real World Applications make the class!"
>
> "I really learned a lot from the project."
>
> "Groups were difficult due to culture and language differences. Feel like knowing English (sic) put me at a disadvantage as far as workload. Possibly my fault for allowing this to happen." (From one of the U.S. students who struggled.)

CONCLUSION

Several MBA programs offer cross-functional projects. However, the cross-functional project at Emporia State University is unique in several ways. Local businesses that need professional consultations to improve, or sometimes to survive, benefits the most, which preserves and improves the local economy and employment opportunities. Emporia State University creates a competitive environment for the consulting teams because multiple teams consult for the same client confidentially. This, in turn, motivates the teams to develop the most beneficial solutions for the client business' enhancement. Faculty involves potential financiers, such as local banks and Small Business Development Center, in the process, and thereby assists the client in obtaining additional financing fast. In addition to offering new business strategies, student teams help the client to identify new sources of suppliers and potential new customers. Students not only transcend the functional silos to offer business solutions to an existing business, but they also improve their entrepreneurial skills and leadership skills because they offer holistic solutions to the client. The team composition enables students to overcome cultural and gender biases. The subsequent screening of the video recording of the confidential presentation by individual teams to the whole class and the following discussions provides an excellent opportunity to learn from peers and competitors. Students learn firsthand about ethical behavior, trust-based business relationships, and how to handle the client's confidential information. We believe that the

cross-functional project goes beyond the requirements of AACSB standards to create a win-win situation for everyone involved and the community at large.

REFERENCES

Accreditation Coordinating Committee AACSB International Accreditation Quality Committee (2007), "AACSB Assurance of Learning Standards: An Interpretation, AACSB International."

Bloom B.S. (1956), *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: The Cognitive Domain.* New York: David McKay Co Inc.

Bovinet, James W. (2000), "Interdisciplinary Teaching Combined with Computer-Based Simulation: A Descriptive Model," *Marketing Education Review*, 10 (3), 53–62.

Evans, Jocelyn D. (2008), "A Cross Disciplinary Approach to Undergraduate Corporate Valuation Instruction," *Journal of Financial Education,* 34, 111–27.

Finney, Sherry and Joanne Pyke (2008), "Content Relevance in Case-Study Teaching: The Alumni Connection and Its Effect on Student Motivation," *Journal of Education for Business,* 83 (5), 251–58.

Jacobs, Michael (2009), "How Business Schools Have Failed Business: Why not more Education on the Responsibility of Boards?" *The Wall Street Journal,* (April 24), [http://online.wsj.com/article/SB124052874488350333.html].

Marshall, Greg W., Steven E. Bolten, and Paul J. Solomon (2000), "The Capstone 'Integrated Business Applications' Course: Addressing the Need for Cross-Functional MBA Education," *Marketing Education Review*, 10 (3), 63–75.

Weinstein, Art and Hilton Barrett (2007), "Value Creation in the Business Curriculum: A Tale of Two Courses," *Journal of Education for Business,* 82 (6), 329–36.

APPENDIX
General Guidelines for Presentation Evaluation

	Rating Categories	4	7	8	10	Comments
1	Appearance of the presenters: Business Dress?					
2	Quality of the oral presentation. Were points made clearly, concisely and in a timely fashion?					
3	Quality of the visual aids used. Were they clear and easy to understand? (0 aids, 0 pts)					
4	How interesting was the Presentation?					
5	Marketing Strategies & Tactics: Were they viable given firm capabilities?					
6	Marketing Implementation: Likelihood the client can enact these tactical changes?					
7	Quality of the financial analysis. Were financial strengths and weaknesses pointed out and appropriate recommendations offered to improve weaknesses?					
8	Quality of the "bottom line" presentation. Is the project feasible, and why is that so?					
9	Quality of the support for the recommendations to the Client?					
10	Overall value to the firm's future? How thoroughly do you think this project was researched and prepared?					
	4 = Poor 10 = Excellent					

For further information contact:
Tanja Steigner
School of Business
Campus Box 4058
Emporia State University
1200 Commercial Street
Emporia, KS 66801
Phone: 620.341.6932
E-Mail: tsteigne@emporia.edu

Kevin R. Coulson
School of Business
Campus Box 4058
Emporia State University
1200 Commercial Street
Emporia, KS 66801
Phone: 620.341.5420
E-Mail: kcoulson@emporia.edu

Bhanu Balasubramnian
School of Business
Campus Box 4058
Emporia State University
1200 Commercial Street
Emporia, KS 66801
Phone: 620.341.6376
E-Mail: bbalasub@emporia.edu

THE TRAIT OF COMPETITIVENESS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO MARKETING SIMULATION GAME PERFORMANCE IN AN INTRODUCTORY MARKETING CLASS

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

ABSTRACT

A pretest-posttest experimental design was used to measure for possible changes in the trait of competitiveness in students who took part in a simulation exercise conducted in a Principles of Marketing class. The study involving 348 students found there was no change in competitiveness for the whole class but there were changes within performance groups. There was a significant difference in ending rank order simulation performance for highly competitive students versus low competitive students for both the pretest and posttest measures of competitiveness.

Keywords: Marketing Simulation Game, Decision Making, Competitiveness

INTRODUCTION

The use of marketing simulation games as part of introductory marketing course instruction is intended to provide students with business decision making experience and help them develop the traits associated with successful business people. The issue of whether the experience of playing simulation games makes students better business decision makers or helps them develop the traits of good business people has not been conclusively demonstrated. If simulation games are a meaningful educational experience, one would hope that business decision making skills and the traits of good business people are developed as a result of the simulation experience. Decision making skills are very hard to measure in an objective fashion. Most often, the evidence of good decision making is ascribed to superior performance results from the simulation play. However, this evidence most often turns out to be prima facia and tautological. Superior performance must result from superior decisions and superior decisions should arise from superior decision making.

Successful business decision makers undertake decision making in competitive environments. Intuitively, one would assume that good decision makers develop and[1] demonstrate the trait of competitiveness to cope with competitive business environments. The majority of publications reporting on competitiveness as being an important trait for marketing success have involved studies on the traits of successful salespeople (Arnott 1995; Balaji, Netemeyer, and Boles 2002; Brewer 1994; Brown, Cron, and Slocum, Jr. 1998; Jones 1996; Plotkin 1987; Wang and Netemeyer 2002). Given that personal selling experience is one of the key career paths for marketing students, this would seem to be an important trait for them to possess. If one is not competitive then the ability to succeed in the business environment is likely reduced. If the experience of business simulation decision making enables marketing students to become more competitive, it would have value beyond the development of good decision making skills.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Past research has examined the relationship between student performance in simulation competitions and a wide range of variables. Among the variables examined have been numerous personality characteristics, locus of team control, achievement motivation, previous academic performance, time pressure, ethnic origin of team members, gender, team size, previous business experience, team organizational structure, method of team

formation, and grade weighting (Anderson and Lawton 1992; Brenenstuhl and Badgett 1977; Butler and Parasuraman 1977; Chisholm, Krishnakuman, and Clay 1980; Edge and Remus 1984; Faria 2001; Gentry 1980; Glomnes 2004; Gosenpud 1989; Gosenpud and Miesing 1992; Hergert and Hergert 1990; Hornaday 2001; Hsu 1984; Moorhead, Brenenstuhl, and Catalanello 1980; Newgren, Stair, and Kuehn 1980; Patz 1990; Roderick 1984; Walker 1979; Washbush 1992; Wheatley, Anthony, and Maddox 1988; Wolfe, Bowen, and Roberts 1989). Summarizing much of the past research have been major review articles by Greenlaw and Wyman (1973), Keys (1976), Wolfe (1985), Miles, Biggs, and Shubert (1986), Wolfe and Keys (1990), Randel, Morris, Wetzel, and Whitehall (1992), and Faria (2001).

Several factors may explain good performance in a simulation competition. For example, it is possible that good students will consistently outperform poor students. To test this, a number of studies have examined the relationship between grade point average (GPA) and simulation performance. While some studies have reported a positive relationship to exist (Hsu 1989; Wolfe and Chanin 1993; Wolfe and Keys 1990) many others have found no such relationship (Faria 1986; Glomnes 2004; Gosenpud 1987; Gosenpud and Washbush 1991; Norris and Niebuhr 1980; Wellington and Faria 1994).

Learning is another obvious factor that might lead to good simulation performance and several studies have examined this relationship. Learning is generally measured by performance on end of course examinations. While two studies have reported a relationship between simulation performance and performance on mathematical problems (Faria and Whiteley 1989; Whiteley and Faria 1990), many other studies report no relationship between superior simulation game performance and performance on course final examinations (Anderson and Lawton 1992; Washbush and Gosenpud 1993; Wellington and Faria 1991; Whiteley 1993).

A number of studies have examined the personality traits of successful simulation game players and successful business executives (Babb, Leslie, and VanSlyke 1966; Gray 1972; McKinney and Dill 1966; Vance and Gray 1967; VanSlyke 1964). These studies have generally shown that the characteristics of successful game players conform to those of successful business executives. Additional studies have examined the decision-making styles of successful simulation participants and successful business executives (Babb and Eisgruber 1966; Wolfe 1976). These studies reported that the decision-making styles of successful executives and game players were similar.

Several longitudinal studies have been undertaken in which a student's business game performance is compared to some measure of subsequent business career success (e.g., number of promotions, job title, salary level, number of salary increases, management level in the company hierarchy, etc.). Good simulation performance might suggest something about an individual's managerial skills and, hence, serve as a predictor of later career success. One early longitudinal study (Norris and Snyder 1982) did not find a correlation between business game performance and later career success but two more comprehensive studies have reported such a correlation (Wolfe and Roberts 1986; Wolfe and Roberts 1993).

Four studies have reported that successful business simulation game participants practice strategic management (Gosenpud, Miesing, and Milton 1984; Gosenpud and Wolfe 1988; Miesing 1982; Wolfe and Chanin 1993). In these studies, strategic management was considered to exist when the team developed clear goals, analyzed the external environment in which they were operating, understood their strengths and weaknesses, developed clear strategies as part of a formal plan, monitored their performance, and took corrective action when needed.

The research studies cited above suggest that good simulation performance might be related to student grade point average, student learning in the simulation competition, the personality characteristics of the simulation participants, the decision-making style of the participants, or the degree of formal planning of the superior performing teams. As well, several longitudinal studies have suggested that good simulation performers will be more successful in later business careers.

Past research on the relationship between student performance in simulation games and their level of competitiveness has been very limited. The majority of articles which address competitiveness as a trait usually do so by presenting the concept as one of either an axiom or an anecdote, describing competitiveness as a given for successful performance. For example, Badgett (1980) indicates that when teams are being formed that instructors should consider "competitiveness" when creating teams. A description is provided stating that "competitiveness, concerns the degree to which each team is able to compete effectively during the simulation exercise," (Badgett 1980, p. 107). Badgett (1980) does not provide a specific means by which one is able to operationalize competitiveness beyond this description.

Wooten and White (1980) present a model of management skill development. In the model, a number of key

behavioral factors that managers need to develop are defined as follows: "Behavioral factors or attributes are those which are specific or unique to the individual alone and deal with the individual's personality operations and processes. Such factors include ego states, self-concept, motivation, frustration, avoidance, sociability, prejudice, tolerance, confidence, independence, sensitivity, conformity, passivity, **competitiveness**, conventionality, trust, acceptance, dominance, extraversion, rigidity, apathy, defensiveness, and conservatism" (Wooten and White 1980, p. 94). Once again, competitiveness is identified as a desirable trait but it is not operationalized.

Similarly, Meyers (1982) presents a list of 89 skills, abilities, attitudes, and personal characteristics which business students should possess and could be developed as a result of business simulation game play. The list was developed by the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) as a basis upon which business programs could base their output measures of student performance. The list of 89 items was not prioritized but competitiveness was identified on the attitude list although, once again, an operational measure was not provided.

Similarly, in describing the factors that lead to good performance in a simulation game employed as part of a weekend MBA program, Lee (2002, p. 219) states: "Competitiveness is a strong factor in achieving success, but so is a strong background in business and the ability to quickly analyze financial data."

Cassidy, Brozik, and Brozik (2009) reported on their experiences using five different simulation games in both India and the United States. They commented that "The Indian students were much more competitive than their counterparts in the U.S. This was manifested in each of the experiential exercises and the entire academic process in both classes. In virtually all cases, outcome performance seemed to take precedence over process performance" (Cassidy, Brozik, and Brozik 2008, p. 32). These authors go on to further comment that the Indian students were so competitive that they broke game rules to win.

In essence, all of these articles report on the concept of competitiveness and its relevance to simulation play and performance as an axiom and as such they do not present any objective measures of the trait or its state of change.

Only a single published empirical study in the simulation literature which investigated competitiveness and simulation performance could be found (Neal 1997). Neal (1997) studied both competitiveness and group cohesiveness among undergraduate students who played the *Markstrat2* simulation game as part of their strategic marketing management class. Neal (1997) measured competitiveness with a thirty-item scale (Cronbach's alpha of .885) which was drawn from the Sales Performance Index (Dakin and Arrowood 1981). Neal's (1997) study used "teams" as the unit of analysis and although he had a sample of 126 undergraduate students they played the *Markstrat2* simulation in five industries of five teams giving him 25 units of analysis. The teams were formed in accordance with their scoring on the competitiveness scale such that he had one team in each of the five industries with highly competitive individuals, three teams with moderately competitive individuals and a single team of less competitive individuals. This provided for a balanced representation but with so few units of analysis available it would be difficult to detect anything but the largest of effect sizes. In light of this limitation, Neal's (1997) finding that competitive disposition was not a significant influence on performance was not surprising.

Mowen (2000) presents a model of motivation and personality for consumer behavior. Although Mowen (2000) was concerned with consumer decision making more than managerial decision making, he developed a simple but highly reliable four item scale to measure the trait of competitiveness. The authors felt that this scale would be appropriate to adapt to the research in this paper and was used as the measure of competitiveness.

The present study seeks to overcome the limitation of a single empirical study on simulation game performance and competitiveness and provide some empirical evidence to support the notion that the trait of competitiveness affects performance over the course of a marketing simulation game experience. This study differs considerably from that of Neal (1997) by employing individuals as the unit of analysis instead of teams, attaining a usable sample size of 348 students and using a four-item scale to measure the trait of competitiveness.

PURPOSE AND HYPOTHESES

The purpose of the present study is to determine how the experience of a marketing simulation game will enable students to develop the trait of competitiveness which is often ascribed to good decision makers. Based on past research findings, and the intuition of the authors, the following four hypotheses will be tested:

H1: As a result of simulation play, students will become more competitive at the conclusion of the competition than they were at the beginning.

H2: As a result of game play, students will become more positive toward the simulation at the conclusion of the competition than they were at the beginning.

H3: Well performing students will be more competitive at the conclusion of the simulation than less well performing students.

H4: Well performing students will have a more positive attitude toward simulation play than less well performing students.

METHODOLOGY

The subjects for the research to be reported here were 632 students who completed a Principles of Marketing course from the same instructor in three different semesters in which *Merlin: A Marketing Simulation* (Anderson, Beveridge, Lawton, and Scott 2004) was used. The *Merlin* simulation is well suited for use in an introductory marketing course as it covers primarily the 4 Ps decision areas. Each decision period represents three-months of business activity. The participants played as single member companies divided into industries of seven companies and participated in an eight period competition.

The students were asked to complete a self-report questionnaire at the beginning and end of the simulation exercise which contained measures of their competitiveness and attitudes toward the *Merlin* simulation. The competitiveness measure was a 4-item scale with a reported alpha reliability of .92 which was developed by Mowen (2000). These scale items were measured using a seven-point Strongly Agree-Strongly Disagree scale with lower numbers meaning more competitiveness. The attitudes toward *Merlin* measures were developed by the authors also using a seven-point Strongly Agree-Strongly Disagree scale with lower numbers indicating a more positive feeling toward the simulation. Only students who completed both the first and last questionnaires were included in the analysis. This resulted in a sample of 459 students who completed both questionnaires. An analysis of responses indicated that a number of students undertook the completion exercise as a "mindless" endeavor producing 21 respondents who had extremely unreliable questionnaire responses. They were removed from the analysis reducing the sample to 438. There were students who had consistent responses but had missing data for some questions. These respondents were removed from the analysis reducing the sample size further to 383. Finally, an analysis of the kinds of responses to the survey questions indicated that the "last" place performers provided "reliable" responses but the level of their responses was highly inconsistent with the rest of the sample. In essence, they seemed highly blasé about the results of the simulation since they knew they expected to finish last. As such, their responses were removed from the analysis as well resulting in a final sample of 348 students producing a 55.1 percent response rate.

The questionnaire items were factor analyzed using a principal axis factoring technique and a varimax rotated solution to establish discriminant validity among the constructs. In undertaking the factor analysis it was found that the competitiveness measures and attitude to *Merlin* measures loaded very heavily on separate factors. As such, the constructs were considered to possess acceptable discriminant validity. The resultant scale reliabilities for both pretest and posttest questionnaire results are reported in Table 1. The average values of the scale items for each respective scale were used in the hypothesis testing analysis.

In the *Merlin* competition performance was measured using a ranking based on the *Merlin* performance index composed of sales, earnings, return on sales and forecast accuracy which was weighted 5 percent, 85 percent, 5 percent and 5 percent respectively resulting in the participants ranking from first to last place within their industries (e.g., from first to seventh).

TABLE 1
Pre-Test and Post-Test Measurement Scale Reliabilities

Scales	N	Number of Items	Alpha Reliability
Pre-test Competitiveness	348	4	.766
Post-test Competitiveness	348	4	.764
Pre-test Attitude to Merlin	348	4	.761
Post-test Attitude to Merlin	348	4	.795

H1 and H2 were tested using a paired t-test procedure to compare the competitiveness and *Merlin* attitude scale ratings for the whole group at the beginning of the simulation and the end of the simulation to determine if there was a difference for the whole class. In addition, a paired t-test procedure within performance groups was undertaken to see how competitiveness and Merlin attitude scale ratings changed in relation to performance results.

H3 and H4 were tested using ANOVA. It must be acknowledged that the performance data were ordinal and involved Hi and Lo dependent variables for competitiveness and attitude to *Merlin* versus the independent variables of game rank order performance, expected rank order performance, course grades, and time spent playing *Merlin*. As such, it can be argued that it would be most appropriate to use a non-parametric procedure such as the Kruskal-Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance by Ranks test since it fits the data best. However, when samples are large as in this case (348 students and at least 35 individuals in each ranking group), "parametric tests are robust to deviations from Gaussian distributions. . . . Unless the population distribution is really weird, you are probably safe choosing a parametric test when there are at least two dozen data points in each group" (Motulsky 1995). Consequently, the parametric ANOVA procedure was also used to compare competitiveness and attitude to *Merlin* versus *Merlin* rank order performance as a factor variable. The decision to use ANOVA was based on the fact that its output is more illustrative than that from the Kruskal-Wallis tests and, presumably, it would produce the same test results.

FINDINGS

The overall findings with respect to H1 and H2 which were tested with a Paired t-test are reported on in Table 2 and Table 3. The findings support the rejection of H1 and the cautious acceptance of H2.

To test H1, the average competitiveness scale rating of the student responses on the competitiveness scale on the pretest questionnaire were compared to the average of the responses on the posttest questionnaire using a paired t-test to determine if there was any change. As shown in Table 2, although the average level of competitiveness increased between the beginning and end of the simulation as hypothesized, this change was not statistically significant for the whole group. However, Table 3 indicates that for top performers (ranks 1 and 2) and poor performers (ranks 5 and 6) the level of competitiveness did shift with top performers becoming more competitive and poor performers becoming less competitive although the significance level for the sixth place performers in only marginal. The middle of the road performers (ranks 3 and 4) did not change. As such, H1 is rejected.

H2 examines whether students became more positive to the *Merlin* simulation or not by virtue of their experience. The findings reported in Table 2 indicate that the average attitude toward *Merlin* underwent a modest positive change from start to finish with a marginal level of significance at the .10 level. The data in Table 3 is very clear. The top performers (ranks 1 and 2) became more positive and the differences were highly significant, the middle of the road performers (ranks 3 and 4) did not change in attitude and the poor performers (ranks 5 and 6) became more negative and the differences were highly significant. It was hypothesized that the attitude of the group as a whole would become more positive. Clearly, top performers became more positive and poor performers less positive. Given that the "overall" group attitude was generally more positive but only marginally significant, H2 is cautiously accepted.

TABLE 2
Pretest-Posttest Paired Comparison t-test Results for H1 and H2

Comparison of Changes t-test	Pre-Test N	Post-Test Mean	Mean	t	Sig.
H1: Pre-test vs. Post-test Competitiveness	348	2.903	2.842	.994	.321
H2: Pre-test vs Post-test Merlin Attitude	348	3.761	3.612	1.937	.054**

** marginally significant at .1 level

Note: Measurement scales were 1–7 points, with lower numbers meaning more competitive and more positive attitude toward the simulation.

TABLE 3
Pretest-Posttest Paired Comparison Results for H1 and H2 by End Performance Ranks

Comparison of Changes t-test	End Rank	N	Mean	Pre-test Mean	Post-test t	Sig.
H1: Pre-test vs. Post-test Competitiveness	1	68	2.841	2.482	2.14	.036*
	2	67	2.697	2.361	2.81	.006*
	3	62	2.866	2.741	.84	.404
	4	51	3.049	3.014	.21	.834
	5	53	2.919	3.415	-3.51	.001*
	6	47	3.154	3.345	-1.70	.095**
H2: Pre-test vs. Post-test Merlin Attitude	1	68	3.603	2.658	5.85	.000*
	2	67	3.679	3.018	4.09	.000*
	3	62	3.737	3.491	1.85	.069
	4	51	3.823	4.024	- .91	.364
	5	53	3.797	4.325	-2.84	.006*
	6	47	4.026	4.744	-4.11	.000*

* significant at the .05 level

** marginally significant at .1 level

Note: Measurement scales were 1-7 point, with lower numbers meaning more competitive and more positive attitude toward the simulation.

The overall findings from the ANOVA analysis for H3 and H4 are reported on in Tables 4 and 5. The findings support the acceptance of H3 and H4. In addition, the results reported in Table 3 indicate that there were significant changes in the levels of competitiveness and attitudes toward *Merlin* among top performers and bottom performers with top performers becoming more competitive and more positive toward the *Merlin* simulation and bottom performers becoming less competitive and more negative in their attitudes toward the Merlin simulation. These findings support the acceptance of H3 and H4.

A partial least squares structural equation modeling analysis, using PLS Graph 3.0 (Chin 2001), was used to further investigate whether the game influenced the perception of competitiveness and the player's attitude toward the game (H3 and H4). According to the standardized coefficients (**ß)** in Figure 1, the initial (R1) expected rank by the student was influenced by their competitiveness and their attitude toward the game (*Merlin* attitude). According to the small R^2 of the ending (R2) expected rank construct, the expected rank (R1) appears to be only one factor that influenced the game performance. Other factors may have included individual capabilities, the ability of competitors, or decision entry errors, which were not measured. One other factor considered was time spent on the weekly decisions. However, this did not appear to be a significant factor. The final (R2) expected rank did correlate well with the ending game performance rank, as anticipated. In addition, R2 expected rank appeared to influence R2 competitiveness and R2 *Merlin* attitude, which supports H3 and H4.

The results of the PLS analysis also indicated that an individual's perception of their competitiveness at the start of the game was a reasonable predictor of their competitiveness at the end of the game. The path analysis suggests that the performance during the game acted as a modifier of the competitiveness of the individual. In other words, good game results positively reinforced the competitiveness attitude of the player. The PLS analysis also suggested that an individual's initial attitude toward the *Merlin* game was a reasonable predictor of their attitude throughout the game. However, the game results

TABLE 4
Pre-Test ANOVA Analysis of High and Low Competitiveness, and Attitude Toward *Merlin* Measures vs. Performance Rank, Expected Rank, Decision Time, and Course Grade

	ANOVA Results					
	Pre-test: Competitiveness			Pre-test: Merlin Attitude		
	N=183 Hi	N=165 Lo	Sig.	N=174 +ve	N=174 -ve	Sig.
Performance Rank (1-7)	3.08	3.48	.027*	3.15	3.4	.175
Pre-test Expected Rank	1.95	2.61	.000*	1.9	2.63	.000*
Pre-test Decision Time	89.37	75.11	.066**	90.5	74.6	.040*
Course Grade (%)	73.1	70.68	.023*	71.7	72.1	.688
Pretest *Merlin* Attitude	3.4	4.16	.000*	–	–	–
Pretest Competitiveness	–	–	–	2.49	3.31	.000*

TABLE 5
Pre-Test ANOVA Analysis of High and Low Competitiveness, and Attitude Toward *Merlin* Measures vs. Performance Rank, Expected Rank, Decision Time, and Course Grade

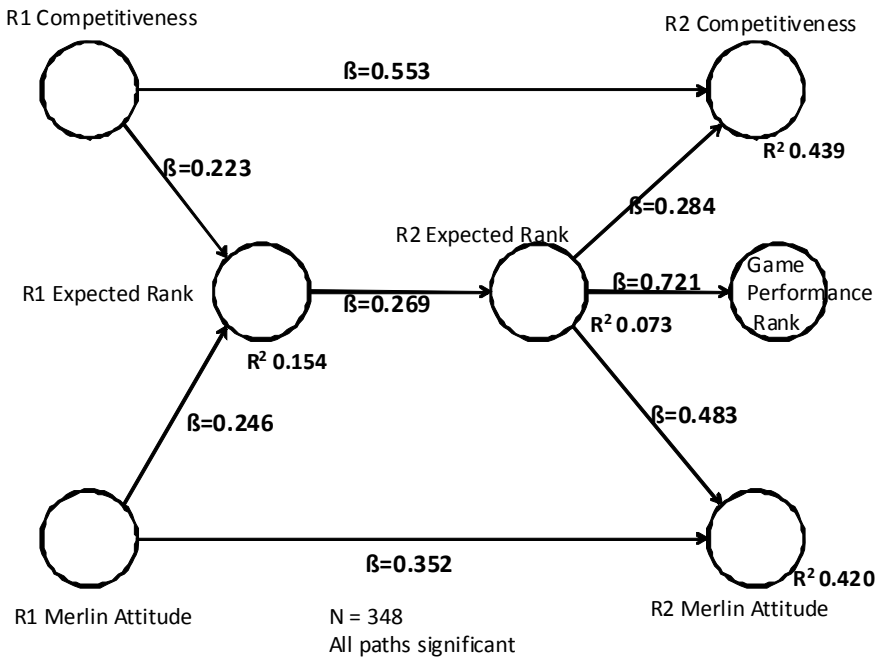
	Grade					
	Post-test (H3) Competitiveness			Pre-test: (H4) Merlin Attitude		
	N=193 Hi	N=155 Lo	Sig.	N=186 +ve	N=162 -ve	Sig.
Performance Rank	2.92	3.71	.000*	2.55	4.1	.000*
Post-test Expected Rank	2.39	3.21	.000*	2.07	3.54	.000*
Post-test Decision Time	55.08	49.97	.105	52.23	51.56	.878*
Course Grade (%)	73.36	70.24	.004*	72.87	70.93	.073**
Post-Test *Merlin* Attitude	3.16	4.16	.000*	–	–	–
Post-Test Competitiveness	–	–	–	2.36	3.39	.000*

modified the individual's attitude toward the game. In summary, an individual that was more competitive and had a better attitude toward the game initially had a slightly greater chance of performing well in the game.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The research reported here sought to examine whether students underwent a change in their competitiveness and their attitude toward a simulation game as a result of playing a marketing simulation. The findings indicate that there is evidence to indicate that some students underwent these changes as a result of their experience. Students who performed well became both more competitive and developed a more positive attitude toward the simulation. Students who performed less well became both less competitive and more negative toward the simulation. Students who performed in the middle of the road did not change in terms of their competitiveness or their attitudes toward the simulation. As such, for good

FIGURE 1
Expectations Influence Competitiveness & Attitude toward Merlin



performers and poor performers the simulation seemed to provide some transformation in competitiveness while for middle of the road performers the impact was far less apparent.

The fact that better performing students were more competitive at the beginning of the simulation and at the conclusion of the simulation provides evidence to validate the use of performance outcomes as measures of decision making quality. Based on the literature on sales performance and competitiveness and the anecdotal reports in the simulation and gaming literature, one would expect more highly competitive individuals to perform well and the study results support this. One might expect that attitude toward the *Merlin* simulation at the outset might affect performance as well but the positive or negative feelings are going to be related to motivation and not necessarily decision making ability. Clearly, the attitude toward *Merlin* definitely shifted in response to the performance results of the students in the direction expected.

ENDNOTE

1 *Acknowledgments*: The authors wish to express their sincere gratitude to Dr. John C. Mowen of Oklahoma State University for his permission to use the "competitiveness scale" he developed in the research conducted in this paper.

REFERENCES

Anderson, P.H. and L. Lawton (1992), "The Relationship Between Financial Performance and Other Measures of Learning on a Simulation Exercise," *Simulation & Gaming*, 23, 326–40.

_____, D.A. Beveridge, L. Lawton, and T.W. Scott (2004), *Merlin: A Marketing Simulation*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Arnott, N. (1995), "It's a Woman's World," *Sales and Marketing Management*, 147, 54–60.

Babb, E.M. and L.M. Eisgruber (1966), *Purdue Farm Supply Business Management Game*. Chicago: Educational Methods.

_____, M.A. Leslie, and M.J. VanSlyke (1966), "The Potential of Business Gaming Methods in Research," *Journal of Business*, 39, 465–72.

Bacanli, F. (2006), "Personality Characteristics as Predictors of Personal Indecisvieness," *Journal of Career Development*, 32 (4), 320–32.

Badgett, T. (1980), "Forming Participant Teams in Simulation Canes (sic)," *Developments in Business Simu-*

lation & Experiential Exercises, 7, 107.

Balaji, C.K., R.G. Netemeyer, and J.S. Boles (2002), "Self-Efficacy, Competitiveness, and Effort As Antecedents of Salesperson Performance," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management,* 22, 285–95.

Brenenstuhl, D.C. and T.F. Badgett (1977), "Prediction of Academic Achievement in a Simulation Mode via Personality Constructs," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises,* 4, 223–29.

Brewer, G. (1994), "Mind Reading: What Drives Top Salespeople to Greatness?" *Sales & Marketing Management,* 146, 82–92.

Brown, S.P., W.L. Cron, and J.W. Slocum, Jr. (1998), "Effects of Trait Competitivesness and Perceived Intraorganizational Competition on Salesperson Goal Setting and Performance," *Journal of Marketing,* 62, 88–98.

Butler, R.J. and A. Parasuraman (1977), "Degree of Uniformity in Achievement Motivation Levels of Team Members: Its Effects on Team Performance in a Simulation Game," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises,* 4, 118–23.

Cassidy, C.M., D. Brozik, and D. Brozik (2008), "Class Size and Game Design," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises,* 35, 28–33.

Chin, W. (2001), *PLS-Graph User's Guide Version 3.0.* Houston, TX: University of Houston.

Chisholm, T.A., P. Krishnakuman, and J.P. Clay (1980), "Are Computer Simulations Sexist?" *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises,* 7, 160–64.

Dakin, S. and A.J. Arrowood (1981), "The Social Comparison of Ability," *Human Relations,* 34, 89–109.

Edge, A.G. and W.E. Remus (1984), "The Impact of Hierarchical and Explitarian Organization Structure on Group Decision Making and Attitudes," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises,* 11, 35–40.

Faria, A.J. (1986), "A Test of Student Performance and Attitudes Under Varying Game Conditions," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises,* 13, 70–75.

_____ and T.R. Whiteley (1990), "An Empirical Evaluation of the Pedagogical Value of Playing a Simulation Game in a Principles of Marketing Course," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Learning,* 17, 53–57.

_____, R.O. Nulsen, and D. Roussos (1994), *COMPETE: A Dynamic Marketing Simulation,* Burr Ridge, IL: Richard D. Irwin, Inc.

_____ and J.R. Dickinson (1995), *The Marketing Management Simulation.* LaSalle, ON: The Simulation Source.

_____ (2001), "The Changing Nature of Business Simulation/Gaming Research: A Brief History," *Simulation & Gaming,* 32 (1), 97–110.

Gentry, J.W. (1980), "The Effects of Group Size on Attitudes Toward the Simulation," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises,* 7, 165–68.

Glomnes, S.J. (2004), "Antecedents of Game Performance," *Developments in Business Simulation and Experiential Learning,* 31, 229–33.

Gosenpud, J.J., P. Miesing, and C.J. Milton (1984), "A Research Study on the Strategic Decisions in a Business Simulation," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises,* 11, 111–16.

_____ (1987), "Research on Predicting Performance in the Simulation," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises,* 14, 75–79.

_____ and J. Wolfe (1988), "Strategy Design, Process, and Implementation in a Stable/Complex Environment: An Exploratory Study," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises,* 15, 147–53.

_____ (1989), "Prediction of Simulation Performance as it is Affected by Time," *Simulation & Games,* 20, 319–50.

_____ and J.B. Washbush (1991), "Predicting Simulation Performance: Differences Between Groups and Individuals," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises,* 18, 44–48.

_____ and P. Miesing (1992), "The Relative Influence of Several Factors on Simulation Performance," *Simulation & Gaming,* 23, 311–25.

Gray, C.F. (1972), "Performance as a Criterion Variable in Measuring Business Gaming Success," *Proceedings of the Southeastern Conference of the Decision Sciences Institute,* 14, 193–98.

Greenlaw, P.S. and F.P. Wyman (1973), "The Teaching Effectiveness of Games in Collegiate Business Courses," *Simulation & Games,* 4, 259–94.

Heppner, M. and F. Hendricks (1995), "A Process and Outcome Study Examining Career Indecision and Indecisiveness," *Journal of Counseling & Development,* 73, 426–37.

Hergert, M. and R. Hergert (1990), "Factors Affecting Student Perceptions of Learning in a Business Policy Game," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises,* 17, 92–96.

Hornaday, Robert (2001), "Sex Composition, Cohesion, Consensus, Potency, and Performance of Simulation Teams," *Developments in Business Simulation and Experiential Learning,* 28, 102–5.

Hsu, Ti (1984), "A Further Test of Group Formation and Its Impacts in a Simulated Business Environment," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises,* 11, 6–10.

_____ (1989), "Role-Event Gaming-Simulation in Management Education: A Conceptual Framework and Review," *Simulation & Gaming*, 20, 409–38.

Jones, R. (1996), "Do Athletes Make Good Reps?" *Sales and Marketing Management*, 148, 92–97.

Keys, B. (1976), "A Review of Learning Research in Business Gaming," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 3, 25–32.

Lee, T. (2002), "The Game of Business – A Weekend MBA Course," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 29, 218–19.

McKenney, J.L. and W.R. Dill (1966), "Influences on Learning Simulation Games," *American Behavioral Scientist*, 10, 28–32.

Meyers, B.G. (1982), "Developing Creative Thinking Through Experiential Learning," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 9, 88–92.

Miesing, P. (1982), "Qualitative Determinants of Group Performance in a Simulation Game," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 9, 228–32.

Miles, W.G., W.D. Biggs, and J.N. Schubert (1986), "Student Perceptions of Skill Acquisition Through Cases and a General Management Simulation," *Simulation & Games*, 10, 75–86.

Moorhead, G., D.C. Brenenstuhl, and R. Catalanello (1980), "Differential Predictors of Academic Performance for White and Non-White Samples," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 7, 154–56.

Motulsky, H. (1995), *Intuitive Biostatistics*. London: Oxford University Press.

Mowen, John C. (2000), *The 3M Model of Motivation and Personality: Theory and Empirical Applications to Consumer Behavior*. Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Neal, D.J. (1997), "Group Competitiveness and Cohesion in a Business Simulation," *Simulation & Games*, 28, 460–76.

Newgren, K.E., R.M. Stair, and R.R. Kuehn (1980), "The Relationship Between Group Size and the Learning Curve Effect in a Gaming Environment," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 7, 203–5.

Norris, D.R. and R.E. Niebuhr (1980), "Group Variables and Gaming Success," S*imulation & Games*, 11, 301–12.

Norris, D.R. and A. Snyder (1982), "External Validation: An Experimental Approach to Determining the Worth of Simulation Games," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 9, 247–50.

Patz, A.L. (1990), "Group Personality Composition and Total Enterprise Simulation Performance," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 17, 132–37.

Plotkin, H.M. (1987), "What Makes a Successful Salesperson," *Training and Development Journal*, 41, 54–56.

Randel, Josephine, B.A. Morris, C.D. Wetzel, and B.V. Whitehall (1992), "The Effectiveness of Games for Educational Purposes: A Review of Recent Research," *Simulation & Gaming*, 23, 261–76.

Roderick, R.D. (1984), "Student Background as a Factor in Simulation Outcomes," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 11, 76–79.

Salomone, P.R. (1982), "Difficult Cases in Career Counseling: II-The Indecisive Client," *The Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 60, 496–500.

Vance, S.C. and C.F. Gray (1967), "Use of a Performance Evaluation Model for Research in Business Gaming," *Academy of Management Journal*, 10, 27–37.

VanSlyke, M.D. (1964), *Psychological Correlates of Business Game Performance and Managerial Success*. Lafayette, IN: Purdue University Press.

Walker, C.H. (1979), "Correlations Between Academic Achievement, Aptitude, and Business Game Performance," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 6, 153–56.

Wang, G. and N. Netemeyer (2002), "The Effects of Job Autonomy, Customer Demandingness, and Trait Competitiveness on Salesperson Learning, Self-Efficacy, and Performance," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 30, 217–28.

Washbush, J.B. (1992), "Personality Characteristics and Group Performance in Total Enterprise Simulations," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 19, 176–79.

_____ and J.J. Gosenpud (1993), "The Relationship Between Total Enterprise Simulation Game Performance and Learning," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 20, 141.

Weissman, M.S. (1976), "Decisiveness and Psychological Adjustment," *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 40 (4), 403–12.

Wellington, W.J. and A.J. Faria (1991), "An Investigation of the Relationship Between Simulation Play, Performance Level and Recency of Play on Exam Scores," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 18, 111–17.

_____ and _____ (1994), "A Repeated Measures Examination of the Effect of Team Cohesion, Player Attitude, and Performance Expectations on Simulation Performance Results," *Simulation & Gaming*, 25, 245–63.

_____ and _____ (1995), "Are Good

Simulation Performers Consistently Good?" *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 22, 5–12.

_____, _____ and T.R. Whiteley (1997), "Consistency in Simulation Performance Over Time and Across Simulation Games," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Learning*, 24, 146–51.

Wheatley, W.J., W.P. Anthony, and E.N. Maddox (1988), "The Relationship of Locus of Control and Vividness of Imagination Measures to Simulation Performance," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 15, 134–37.

Whiteley, T.R. and A.J. Faria (1990), "A Study of the Relationship Between Student Final Exam Performance and Simulation Game Participation," *Simulation & Gaming*, 20, 44–64.

_____ (1993), "An Empirical Investigation of Cognitive and Performance Consistency in a Marketing Simulation Game Environment," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 20, 144.

Wolfe, J. (1976), "Correlates and Measures of the External Validity of Computer-Based Business Policy Decision-Making Environments," *Simulation & Gaming*, 7, 411–33.

_____ (1985), "The Teaching Effectiveness of Games in Collegiate Business Courses: A 1973–1983 Update," *Simulation & Games*, 16, 251–88.

_____, D.D. Bowen, and C.R. Roberts (1989), "Team Building Effects on Company Performance," *Simulation & Games*, 20, 388–408.

Wolfe, J. and C.R. Roberts (1986), "The External Validity of a Business Management Game," *Simulation & Gaming*, 17, 45–59.

_____ and J.B. Keys (1990), "The Role of Management Games and Simulations in Education and Research," *Yearly Review of Management*, 16, 307–36.

_____ and C.R. Roberts (1993), "A Further Study of the External Validity of Business Games: Five-Year Peer Group Indicators," *Simulation & Gaming*, 24, 21–34.

_____ and M. Chanin (1993), "The Integration of Functional and Strategic Management Skills in a Business Game Learning Environment," *Simulation & Gaming*, 24, 34–46.

Wooten, K.C. and L.P. White (1980), "CBID: Cognitive, Behavioral, and Interpersonal Development a Skill Development/Social Learning Approach to Management Development," *Developments in Business Simulation & Experiential Exercises*, 7, 93–97.

For further information contact:
William J. Wellington
Odette School of Business
University of Windsor
1101 Sunset Ave.
Windsor, Ontario
Canada N9B 3P4
Phone: 519.253.3000, Ext. 3151
E-Mail: r87@uwindsor.ca

A.F. Faria
Marketing
Odette School of Business
University of Windsor
Windsor, Ontario
Canada N9B 3P4
Phone: 519.253.3000, Ext. 3101
Fax: 519.973.7073
E-Mail: ad9@uwindsor

David Hutchinson
Marketing Area
Odette School of Business
University of Windsor
Windsor, Ontario
Canada N9B 3P4
Phone: 519.253.3000, Ext. 3112
E-Mail: dhutch@uwindsor.ca

INTERACTIVE INTERNATIONAL EXERCISE FOR BASIC MARKETING: MAKE IT FUN, MAKE IT HAPPEN

Paul M. Lane, Grand Valley State University

ABSTRACT

This exercise can be used in any basic marketing class where international understanding is important. It has evolved over the years, and this formula seems to work all kinds of students. This paper describes several steps to take to ensure the exercise is successful. Make your international section exciting and interesting; plan an international dinner and surprise yourself with how much your students and you will learn. You can make this very interactive and very applicable to future work and travels for all involved. Students are learning differently today and you need to engage students accordingly (Lane, Hunt, Farris).

THE SIMPLE CONCEPT

The class prepares and shares an international feast based on the countries students have chosen. Students conduct a presentation about their country's information that could be useful to anyone in the class. Friends and family are included to make the evening more dynamic and to bring in more countries. The goal is to get beyond passively reading and get involved in some small way with a culture and its people, foods, customs, dress, and more. The hope is that students will use some of the many websites available to help with international information.

INTRODUCE INTERNATIONAL CONCEPTS EARLY

One of the tricks to making the international night work is to explicitly introduce the international night several weeks in advance of the planned event. The book you are using probably has a chapter on International or Global topics, and reviewing this content would be helpful. This means you may have to take the chapter out of order to get the project started soon enough. Also, pick some diverse countries and spend some time showing students what they can learn on sites like the CIA World Fact Book Site. Usually the author will explore three or so countries on three different information sites including Wikipedia in and the CIA World Fact Book site. The goal is to get students looking at multiple sites and looking for confirming or challenging information.

Usually the countries chosen include one or more from the Bottom of the Economic Pyramid and one or more with very different food cultures. The obvious reason for showing countries at the bottom of the pyramid is to interest students in the plight of these people. In the U.S. today, there is still a general ignorance of many of the world's countries. People who know Grameen Banks know very little about Bangladesh. A less obvious reason is that most of the food in these countries is low in cost. When students get into the assignment and realize that they will be asked to prepare food samples they usually grasp the idea that some countries have lower cost.

Be sure to check with your students about any radical food allergies early on, as well as other eating-related lifestyles they may have (vegetarian, vegan, etc.). This also provides an opportunity to discuss how these factors might impact their working in such a culture. For example, what does a vegetarian do in a country of carnivores? Conversely, what does a carnivore do in a country that is largely vegetarian?

REQUIRE A DIVERSITY OF COUNTRIES THAT ARE SELF-SELECTED

The assignment is to choose a country, and prepare a meal along with a presentation to go with it. The students get to sign up for a country of their choice with the caveat of first come first serve. The class should try to cover the entire globe so they should be prepared to look in Latin America, Africa, Asia, and the Middle East as well as in Europe and North America. Mexico and Canada may be actively discouraged, being our neighbors. Show them where on the class website they should sign up or have a weekly review until all are signed up. Retain the right to reject selections so that you can get a diverse range of countries. This is a key to making this exercise work.

With weekly reminders, students usually distribute themselves well and with good reason. In a recent class one student chose Ireland as it was the sight of her proposed honeymoon, a young man chose Djibouti as he had served in the U.S. Armed forces in Somalia, another student chose India as it had long been her passion, and so forth. Students usually respond well when challenged. As a general rule, international students have been allowed to choose their home country and the same for students who have immigrated or whose families immigrated within recent time. This allows for taking pride in their historical culture. The passion they show adds greatly to the evening.

The professor keeps an eye on the sign-ups and notes that Europe is most likely full, or that there is enough from Latin America, and gently guide the procrastinators to fill in the blanks. A little push in the introduction of the project and a goal of a variety of countries will make all the difference in having a successful night.

MAKE THE EVENT FUN FOR FRIENDS AND FAMILY

Students spend a lot of time in school and they seem to enjoy showing their family, friends, and significant people what they are doing. Be sure to advertise that this is a family friendly project ahead of time. The author's school is a large, regional public state university, which makes it easier for family to come. However, many people bring roommates, their current significant person, or friends interested in things international. Nontraditional students often have spouses and children. The last event had about ten children from a baby in arms to a 17-year-old and, while there were a few minor problems, overall it made the evening more meaningful.

What does family friendly mean? First, you have to be prepared with a room adequately large not only for the guests, but also the buffet of international food, and the presentations. Second, you have to plan to be on time. Kids who are excited about an evening lose patience quickly if nothing is happening. Once you start it is important to keep it moving. Stress to the class ahead of time the importance of content and presentations on time.

In a marketing class it is perfect as you can emphasize that the presentation be good marketing. What do they think their customers will want to know? How will they get their attention? How will they maintain their interest?

FOOD FIRST AND THEN PRESENTATIONS

What about the food? First of all be sure to encourage the students to make the food and not just buy it unless all else fails. In making the food, students will learn about the culture and the resources of the country. For many it will be the first time they have gone to a specialty store in their community, such as one specializing in Asian or Latin American Foods. Some of them will be creative enough to get on line for a missing ingredient, but in all this they are learning. Students should be asked to bring a dish that truly represents the country that they have chosen, and a placard that clearly labels what is in the dish, the country name, and the country's flag, which they can get off the internet. The country information is for education and the content is for health reasons.

As students, friends and family arrive, the buffet table should be set up and will quickly looks like fun. Often students have made more than one dish or they have made a dish for children. This just adds to the fun of it all. It is surprising how much sharing goes on. Everyone will be talking about the problems and solutions they found in making their dish. If you will let it happen someone will give the table some order sometimes by what is logical in the United States, sometimes by country, etc. this to will promote discussion as they ask each other what the dish is and little taste are taken. Because food is either warm or cold and often there is no facilities in a class room the professor can run down all the choices being careful to note the countries, being represented and stress moving around the world as you go from India, to Chile, to Norway, back to Indonesia and so forth.

Let the fun begin as everyone experiments with small amounts of all the strange foods. They will quickly find out which ones they like and, with a little encouragement, the food on the table will disappear onto plates and into waiting mouths. Meanwhile, if you wander the room you will hear discussions about how they tried multiple recipes last weekend, or asked a friend at work to teach them about their culture of cooking, or asked their grandparent who is from the country to help and tell them about the country. Some will be talking about the stores they visited to get the ingredients, and others will share how a complete stranger proudly told them how to get the item together. All this is valuable learning that will probably rest with the students for quite a while.

KEEP IT SIMPLE AND APPLICABLE

As the eating winds down, it will be time to start up the presentations. Originally, the author called for lengthy presentations, but that became a competition for length and boredom; not so good for a family night and not particularly good for student learning. Now, the assignment focuses on why the student chose the country, three things one would want to know if someone from that country was coming to his or her place of business, three

things one would need to know if one were getting off a plane in that country, and finally does the student's current university have a program of international study in this country. The middle two actually require some analysis and thought.

People have many reasons for choosing countries and that is usually fascinating. Some students will show you their family trees and share the fact that their great grandparents immigrated from the Philippines, others will talk about how they dream of going on international study in Ghana, still others will talk about where they have been or hope to go on some sort of Mission trip in Bolivia. The great thing is that in most cases there seems to be a reason why they have chosen the country, and why they were interested in searching for information about it.

Students have been asked to do presentations in different ways over the years, and now they are told to use the tools and technology that work best for them. So the man doing Djibouti stood up in a traditional wrap around his waist with a scull gap and proceeded to enthrall all there with information on the culture. The woman doing India used the power of technology and the computer to take a quick mental trip of exposure to this great nation. A woman reporting on Laos brought in a painting she had bought in that tiny country. Students will amaze you.

The guts of the presentation are three things you should know if someone from this country is coming to your organization tomorrow and three things to know if you are getting off the plane. Students seem to be able to pick out some culturally important things to be aware of for these items. Respecting Islamic needs for prayer time, location and direction, is a good example of these. Understanding how to greet people is another. Apparently, in Laos and Thailand you do not pat children on their heads. The greeting of a kiss on the cheek is another. In between presenters, a thing like flying the flag of your guests outside the building is often discussed. Another one is looking at the map to see where the country is located and where in the country the international guest is from.

The section on things to know when you get off the plane is always interesting. Students talk about the relative value of currencies, things you'd want to see like NieuwSchwanstein in Bavaria, the language, and the culture. They often are intrigued with the number of local languages and the use of a unifying language of Spanish, Portuguesa, English, etc. In presenting a country in the Middle East, they frequently have suggestions for women and men about culturally appropriate clothing choices. Sometimes they talk about the acceptance or rejection of tattoos and body piercings so common in the U.S. today. The good point of the exercise is that they have to make some critical judgments about what is important for their classmates to know if they were to go to the selected country.

Finally, in an effort to promote the international programs at their university, they have to look on that website and try to determine what kinds of programs are run to their chosen country. Despite all the hard work of the International office, many students have not visited the office or been on the website and do not realize how much is there for them. When they are put in the position of basically having to market the program to Guatemala it means they have to do some research. In fact, sometimes they go so far as to contact the trip leaders. This is usually a great part of the presentations and sometimes a surprise for all that the university can get you to India for a semester, air fare and all cheaper than staying at home and attending school. Suddenly students are not only learning, but dreaming.

HAVE A SIMPLE GRADING SHEET

The food goes quickly and so do the presentations. This means if you want to be objective and honest in your grading you will need a really good grading rubric ready to go. These are easily built off the grading criteria shown in the sample assignment sheet to follow. Again, if you have guests the night has to move quickly, so the grading rubric is a key. Here are some things you may want to stress:

1. Food
    a. Does it really represent the country chosen?
    b. Has the student really tried to do something that was interesting and did it demonstrate something about the culture? Note: If it comes in looking like a trip to the nearest take out restaurant you should take off points, the student is really missing a learning opportunity.
    c. Is there a placard and does it meet the criteria?
    d. Is the food there on time and presentable?
2. Presentation
    a. Why was the country chosen? Here you hope to find some passion.
    b. What are three things to know if someone is coming to your organization? This is one of the

practical points for students as in the increasingly global economy people come from all over.

c. What are three things to know when stepping off the plane?

d. Does your school have a study-abroad program to this country or an affiliation that would allow a student to go there? Some students get that this is a Marketing class and really make the case and even provide contact information on the web or for a faculty member. They list benefits and try to get their peers interested. This is what is hoped for.

ASSESS

Assessment is important in today's world, and there are several different ways to assess this assignment. One is participation levels which was not only one hundred percent of the class but at high levels. Students really invested a lot of time and effort to show off their country. At the end of the class, students were asked to make recommendations on what they would eliminate or change about the class, and the International Assignment was not one. In the future a separate assessment will be handed out.

WHAT'S NEXT?

The engagement in an assignment that is fun and delivers some practical knowledge of where to search for information, what to do or say when people are visiting your organization and that ignites the dream of foreign study has something to say for other assignments. It almost seems like a class should be reviewed to think about whether the assignments are engaging to students as we enter the second decade of the twenty first century. Sadly, many of the exercises used with students in class or at home may be those that have been handed down in your own virtual or real file drawer, or that of the author of your textbook. How many of us take the time to look at the syllabus for the term and rank the projects, assignments, homework, in class activities, and other work in terms of levels of engagement for today's students.

Below is a simplified ranking sheet to use as you prepare syllabi. Change the criteria as you see fit but be sure some of them are about the students and not about you. We tend to assign team projects (easy to grade) and objective tests (easy to score). If the goal is learning then engagement is a necessary step. Rank your own assignments and see what happens to your class as you make changes.

SAMPLE ASSIGNMENT SHEET: INTERNATIONAL NIGHT

Hopefully an Evening Full of Fun and Learning

First, choose a country and sign up for it on Blackboard in a thread on the same forum where you find this assignment. If you work for a company, it might be interesting to learn something about a country they sell too! In chapter 5, 16th edition, pages 128–29 of the text is a list of countries with their populations and potential growths. You may want to start there.

Second, see if you can make, persuade a friend to make, invite a friend to bring, or buy a dish that represents that country. If you need help, talk with Dr. Lane. If your children are going without food talk to Dr. Lane this is supposed to be a fun way of learning international stuff on the last night before spring break.

Criteria for ranking 1–5 (high)/ Class Assignments 1–9.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Engagement of students.									
Assignment provides understandable applications.									
Assignment could be used to advance students business or that of employer.									
Students perceive that they learn from this exercise.									

Third, prepare a placard showing your country's flag, the name of your dish and its primary ingredients, and who in the country is most likely to eat it. For example, a common dish found in the restaurants of Santiago, Chile, would be very different from what is eaten by people living in the rural Patagonia region and so forth.

In case you are wondering, we will discuss the foods, dive in, and then listen to your presentations.

Fourth, present about the country you've chosen.

The goals here are education and marketing. You are trying to interest your fellow students in the country you have chosen. Here are some of the topics you should cover:

a. Why did you choose this country? Is there a connection you have to it?

b. Why might this country be of interest to the class?

c. What is the language and culture like? Note: The web has some great tools if you want pictures or sound bites from remote locations.

d. Where is this country in terms of the world's economic pyramid?

e. What products might your classmates encounter from this country in stores or online?

f. What are three (minimum) things you would want to see if you went to this country?

g. What are three things you should know if someone from this country visits your organization next week?

h. What are three things you should know before you get on the plane to go to this country?

i. Does GVSU have an international connection through the Padnos International Center that would allow your classmates to go to this country on a program, and if so what does it cost?

GRADING CRITERIA

1. Was the choice one that broadened the ideas of fellow students? In other words, not everyone in Europe! Hopefully, as Marketers you will look at some of the interesting growing markets of the world and use the web as a resource for your dish.
2. Did the student make a reasonable attempt to come up with a native dish of the country chosen? Remember this presentation is the assignment of the week so there should be plenty of time. Experience has taught Dr. Lane to experiment once.
3. Placard appropriate and a stand for it.
4. Timeliness.
5. Professional presentation.
6. Good use and citation of sources.
7. 7–10 are about the coverage of the topic.

REFERENCES

CIA World Fact Book, [https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/].

Jackson, Mary Jo and Marilyn M. Helms (2008), "Student Perception of Hybrid Courses: Measuring and Interpreting Quality." *Journal of Education for Business*, 84 (1), (September/October), 7–12, 6p, 1 chart [http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/delivery].

Lane, Paul, Jodee Hunt, and John Farris (2009), "Innovative Teaching to Engage and Challenge Twenty-First Century Entrepreneurship Students: An Interdisciplinary Approach," Forthcoming *Journal of Entrepreneurship Education.*

Yunus, Muhammed and Alan Jolis (1999), *Banker to the Poor: Micro Lending and the Battle Against World Poverty.* 1–258.

Wikipedia, [http://www.wikipedia.org/].

For further information contact:
Paul M. Lane
Marketing
Grand Valley State University
401 Crest Drive
Holland, MI 49424
Phone: 203.558.3140
E-Mail: lanepa@gvsu.edu

AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF ADVERTISING AND JOURNALISM STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN ACADEMIC HONESTY DISCOURSE AND CODE OF ETHICS

Dorothy S. Pisarski, Drake University

ABSTRACT

Drake University's School of Journalism and Mass Communication began emphasizing an ethical code of conduct in 2007 following a public admission of student plagiarism. A study published in 2008 provides a benchmark to assess whether Drake's honor code has an impact on students.

Capstone projects apparently are a more significant influence on ethical concerns than the honor pledges. Even non-journalistic advertising majors had higher levels of ethical concerns.

Projects simulating real-life work show student proficiency in advertising, journalism, and other mass communication. They also apparently have an inherent quality of teaching students to value ethical behavior.

INTRODUCTION

This paper will present findings of a survey about student and professional dishonesty. Specifically, the findings relate to attitudes toward journalism professionals as noted by students studying journalism and mass communication within a Midwestern private university. It also includes insights into their attitudes about academic honesty issues. Finally, it compares results of those students by cohort of the types of subjects studied. Not all students in a School of Journalism and Mass Communication are preparing for careers in journalism; in particular, advertising students' results are separated out for specific review.

BACKGROUND

I began this research with the hypothesis that an honor code and pledge read and signed by students in the School of Journalism and Mass Communication at Drake University ought to increase the value students place on honorable behavior. Situations related to academic honesty among journalism students were intermittently occurring at Drake University for a number of years. A tipping point occurred during the Spring 2006 semester when editors of the Drake University student newspaper, the Times-Delphic, discovered they had printed two articles that were taken from another newspaper. The student who had submitted the articles claimed to feel pressured by class assignment deadlines and had made poor choices by trying to submit the work as original manuscript. Following a public apology published in the student newspaper, as well as private meetings with newspaper editors and the faculty advisor, the student voluntarily left the university at the end of the semester.

The student newspaper, while not under the jurisdiction of the SJMC, certainly is influenced by the learning environment. A plan was enacted to gather thoughts from students and faculty about curbing plagiarism. A task force was created within the School of Journalism and Mass Communication to assess its position on the handling of academic dishonesty and related cases. Students and faculty came together to candidly discuss outcomes for various levels of student misbehaviors. The committee recommended that all students in the School of Journalism and Mass Communication learn about and are reminded of honesty issues.

Since the Fall of 2007, all students in the Drake SJMC have had the opportunity to read and sign an honor pledge. All students cover academic and professional ethics during a portion of an entry-level course. The course curriculum includes watching and discussing a student-produced video on plagiarism and cheating. All course syllabi include a boilerplate statement of the School's plagiarism and cheating position. Additionally, students who have completed at least half their coursework are required to enroll in a Communications Law and

Ethics class where issues of academic and professional ethics are studied in more depth. Students enrolled in the research course sign an additional pledge of honesty after learning about the implications of decision-making based on falsified data.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The situation at Drake University is apparently not unique. According to Daniel E. Lee, PhD, three-quarters of high school and college students admit to cheating (Lee 2009). Another report looking at data from as far back as the 1960s to current times suggests that percentage is between 66 percent and 75 percent (Whitehouse and Nicholls 2004). As educators, can we dare hope for improvements in an era where Turnitin.com vies with CheatHouse.com?

Cheating begets cheaters, based on a study reported in Peer Effects in Academic Cheating (Carrell, Malmstrom, and West 2008). In other words, if a student knows others are cheating, there is a higher propensity for him/her to cheat. Reference groups are a common place for behavioral experiences to be shared (Solomon 2009). In particular, Solomon points out that reference groups can be persuasive influencers because of their social power – young people want to fit in. Whether discussing fashions or attitudes toward preparing assignments, college students can be influenced by those peers who successfully persuade others.

According to *Academic Dishonesty: Honor Codes and Other Contextual Influences,* universities with an honor code have a better record regarding academic honesty than those that don't. Another predictor is the degree to which a student believes he/she will suffer a penalty, and to what extent the severity will be applied (McCabe and Trevino 1993). Tying the results of student attitudes with those of professional journalists is also a key to their professional preparation. Norman P. Lewis presents findings indicating that since the Jason Blair incident in 2003 "editors associate 'plagiarism' with dismissal and avoid using the word when the journalist retains employment" (Lewis 2008). Therefore, some presentation of the penalty and/or dismissal, albeit appropriate to confidentiality rules, might impact both the student and the professional.

Specific to first-year students, in Kroll's study "How College Freshmen View Plagiarism" the results indicate that the single most important reason why a student shouldn't plagiarize is due to fairness (Kroll 1988). Further, his study also revealed that his female students "are less sympathetic to plagiarism" than their male counterparts.

METHODOLOGY

Drake's School of Journalism and Mass Communication is comprised of these majors: Advertising, Public Relations, Magazines, News/Internet, and Electronic Media. The first two represent the Persuasive Communications and the latter three are considered more rooted in the traditional Journalism Communications as indicated by Conway and Groshek (2008, p. 133). Indeed, those authors go on to show that their advertising students have the lowest scores for ethical concerns.

A report published in the Summer '08 edition of the Journalism & Mass Communication Educator shares the results of a research survey distributed among journalism students at a public university (Conway and Groshek 2008, p. 127). I used this same study for students at Drake's School of Journalism and Mass Communication. Additional questions were added at the end to identify particular characteristics of the Drake students, and these questions had no bearing on the study itself. A total of 91 traditional Journalism Communications and 22 Persuasive Communications completed and useable student surveys were tabulated. The baseline study refers to these areas as Journalistic (newspaper, online, photojournalism, magazine, and broadcast majors) and Non-journalistic (advertising, public relations, and graphic design) Areas of Interest. Drake's SJMC does not include a graphic design major and results were unavailable from the public relations major, so Drake advertising students' results are for comparative discussion only. Drake's Journalistic majors' results versus the benchmark study are compared to the appropriate cohort. Differences in overall results can therefore be attributed to the Drake SJMC honor code. Drake SJMC students sign the honor pledge during their first semester enrolled in an SJMC major or minor and is reinforced throughout their coursework.

The baseline study looked at students entering college and those in the capstone courses. Students entering Drake's SJMC do so during both the first and second years. Identifying those students at the point in time they declare journalism and mass communication majors is a complicated matter.

These differences exist between the Drake and benchmark populations:

1. Drake is a private university; the benchmark university was a public institution.

2. Drake's is a point-in-time study while the benchmark university looked at data across a time continuum.

3. Drake has an honor code and pledge, unlike the benchmark university.

4. Drake's capstone is a hands-on project similar to work a professional would perform in that field; the benchmark university's capstone is a seminar.

FINDINGS

The baseline study did not present findings by gender. Since a majority (approximately 75%) of students completing Drake's survey are female, I cross-tabulated by gender and cohort to detect possible trends. The first question inquired about numbers of students they knew of engaging in academic dishonesty. Due to a small sample size, the results are only indicative of the need for additional research. It does appear that further work should be done to elicit information from those responding with the "D/K or no answer" option.

> Exact wording: "In your experience in college so far, how many students engage in academic dishonesty (cheat on tests and exams, plagiarize from documents and the Internet, buy papers online, make up information and quotes, etc.)?"

The second question cross-tabulated against gender concerned school pressures as justification for dishonesty. There appears to be a difference, with males showing a tendency toward more lenient justification for engaging in academic dishonesty. Again, the small sample size provides only the desire for additional research.

> Exact wording: "SJMC majors sometimes report that the pressure of deadlines in their skills courses on top of the pressures in other courses, in extracurricular activities and jobs, and in their private lives, causes them occasionally to engage in these practices. Under these circumstances, how justified do you think these practices are?" (refers to preceding questions regarding inventing sources, making up quotes, and using information without attribution).

As previously stated, the baseline research distinguished results by Journalistic and Nonjournalistic majors, and Drake's majors align in the Journalistic cohort but not in the Nonjournalistic cohort. Additionally, the baseline research also makes a distinction between those starting their studies and students in a capstone course. They note that their capstones are seminar courses, unlike Drake's

CHART 1
Results by Gender, Identifying Numbers of Students Engaged in Dishonest Behavior

	Journalistic		Advertising (Non-Journalistic)	
	Females	**Males**	**Females**	**Males**
D/K or no answer	17.6%	18.2%	11.8%	20.0%
None	13.2	13.6	11.8	20.0
Some	64.7	50.0	76.5	60.0
Many	2.9	9.1	0	0
Most	1.5	9.1	0	0

CHART 2
Results by Gender, Justifying Dishonest Behavior of Students Feeling Pressured

	Journalistic		Advertising (Non-Journalistic)	
	Females	**Males**	**Females**	**Males**
D/K or no answer	5.9%	4.5%	0	0
Not at all	66.2	63.6	63.6%	13.6%
Somewhat	22.1	18.2	11.8	40.0
Quite	0	9.1	0	0
Very	5.9	4.5	0	0

which are project-based. I did separate those students in a Journalistic capstone from other students completing Communications Law and Ethics class (and not in a capstone) for purposes of detecting effectivesness of the course material; to eliminate double-counting, students enrolled in both classes are only counted in capstone data.

The survey begins with questions regarding familiarity with student cheating. The maximum response for the first two questions is a 4, indicating either most students cheat in some way (question 1) or very much concerned about existing academic dishonesty (question 2). Questions 3–5 have a yes/no/don't know set of responses, with a value of 2 as the maximum. Results indicate that all students know of cheating to the same extent but seniors completing their capstone are more concerned with the cheating behavior and are self-reporting more cheating and copying by other students.

Questions of student concerns over unethical student behaviors were not analyzed in the baseline study so I am comparing the Drake cohorts against each other. Findings indicate a diversion between the groups. Those who are completing a journalistic capstone have a greater sense of concern for unethical behaviors, although their opinions about the penalties for those behaviors is more consistent with the non-capstone and the advertising student groups.

The baseline study's analysis presented outcomes reflecting student opinions of professional journalists. Findings were grouped by student concern for the three

CHART 3
Opinions about Student Behavior

Question	Journalistic Students: Drake Comm Law/Ethics		Journalistic Students: Journal Capstone Seniors		Non-Journalistic: Ad Capstone Seniors	
	mean	**std. error**	**mean**	**std. error**	**mean**	**std. error**
Qty of students engaging (1–4)	1.98	0.10	1.97	0.10	1.84	0.09
Concern/students engaging (1–4)	1.84	0.10	2.34	0.17	2.25	0.23
Reporting cheating (1–2)	1.14	0.05	1.33	0.09	1.50	0.26
Reporting copying (1–2)	1.33	0.08	1.67	0.09	1.88	0.09
Try to stop their copying (1–2)	1.90	0.05	1.90	0.05	2.00	0.00

CHART 4
Opinions about Student Behavior and Levels of Penalty Connected with Those Behaviors

Question	Journalistic Students: Drake Comm Law/Ethics		Journalistic Students: Journal Capstone Seniors		Non-Journalistic: Ad Capstone Seniors	
Concerns:	**mean**	**std. error**	**mean**	**std. error**	**mean**	**std. error**
inventing sources	2.43	0.15	2.91	0.16	2.47	0.02
Making up quotes	2.43	0.14	3.02	0.14	2.50	0.22
No attribution	2.39	0.12	2.98	0.15	2.67	0.21
Penalties*:						
Penalty: inventing sources	2.73	0.09	2.84	0.10	2.77	0.11
Making up quotes	2.47	0.09	2.63	0.11	2.68	0.12
No attribution	2.51	0.11	2.65	0.11	2.55	0.11

* Penalties range from the most extreme, "expel the student" to "incident goes on record and student must retake class," "reprimand in other way," and "do nothing."

questions of journalistic ethics ("Factor One") and related suggested penalties for unethical journalistic behavior ("Factor Two"). Penalties range from "fire the journalist" to "move person to another beat/position" then "reprimand in some other way" and "do nothing."

Results from the Drake seniors compared to the baseline study indicate a significantly greater concern about the ethics of professional journalists. Both the journalistic cohort and the advertising majors at Drake have higher mean scores relating to concerns for unethical behaviors. Note that the Drake advertising majors not only had higher mean scores than the baseline university's advertising majors, they were near the mean score of the senior journalistic cohort of the baseline university. The Drake seniors all participate in a hands-on project producing materials that a professional in their career field would be working on – magazine majors produce a magazine, advertising majors produce an ad campaign, and so on. While the benchmark study indicated a strong sense of concern for professionals' unethical behavior, the Drake seniors' concern appears even more significant. Apparently there is some intrinsic ethical valuing that takes place from producing one's own material. Perhaps the effort and dedication needed to produce a magazine or news broadcast sensitizes the students more than readings or discussions about ethics. It might also be that after working so diligently on the production of their capstone material, they hold others to a higher level of accountability to the profession.

FUTURE CONSIDERATIONS

The Conway and Groshek instrument is valuable for assessing School of Journalism students' opinions about academic dishonesty and professional ethics. Since I am comparing a university with an honor code and a hands-on capstone against a university with no honor code and a capstone seminar class, I was expecting differences to be based on the honor code. This does not seem to be the case. The distinguishing characteristic appears to be the hands-on capstone students' additional insight into concerns about journalism students' and professionals' unethical behaviors. There is further research needed to uncover more values of the hands-on project as a capstone experience.

It is important to note that Drake's students had more serious concerns about the unethical behaviors but not the level of punishment/penalty. It is possible that students are unaware of outcomes for unethical behavior since student records are confidential, or it may be that greater concern does not translate to a demand for more significant punishment/penalty. Further research will be required.

It would also be interesting to use the Conway and Groshek instrument as they did, comparing first-year and fourth-year students to determine whether parallel outcomes would appear.

CHART 5
Opinions about the Behavior and Penalties for Professional Journalists

Question	Journalistic Students: Drake Comm Law/Ethics		Journalistic Students: Journal Capstone Seniors		Non-Journalistic: Ad Capstone Seniors	
FACTOR ONE:	**mean**	**std. error**	**mean**	**std. error**	**mean**	**std. error**
Concern: plagiarism	3.11	0.10	3.62	0.08	3.27	0.18
Fabricate material	3.23	0.12	3.67	0.07	3.27	0.15
Fabricate source	3.19	0.11	3.62	0.08	3.33	0.16
BENCHMARK Factor One	**3.27**[+]		**3.48**[+]		**3.06**[++]	
FACTOR TWO:						
Plagiarist punishment	3.63	0.11	3.76	0.09	3.64	0.15
Fabricate material punishment	3.46	0.12	3.57	0.12	3.45	0.19
Fabricate source punishment	3.25	0.14	3.50	0.13	3.33	0.16
BENCHMARK Factor Two	**3.26**[+]		**3.53**[+]		**3.20**[++]	

[+] baseline study cohort of journalistic students

[++] baseline study of advertising majors only

ENDNOTE

With grateful acknowledgement of the support of Kathleen Richardson, J.D., Director of Drake University's School of Journalism and Mass Communication.

REFERENCES

Carrell, Scott E., Frederick V. Malmstrom, and James E. West (2008), "Peer Effects in Academic Cheating," *Journal of Human Resources,* 43 (1), 173–207.

Carty, Jr., James W. (1978), "Should J-Schools Teach Ethics?" *Journalism Educator,* 33 (1), (April), 8–8. *Communication & Mass Media Complete.* EBSCO. Drake University Cowles Library, Des Moines, IA. 28 May 2009 [http://wf2dnvr12.webfeat.org:80/ifZ9M1303/url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=uhf&AN=14507927&site=ehost-live].

Conway, Mike and Jacob Groshek (2008), "Ethics Gaps and Ethics Gains: Differences and Similarities in Mass Communication Students' Perceptions of Plagiarism and Fabrication," *Journalism & Mass Communication Educator,* 63 (2), (Summer), 127–45.

Kroll, Barry M. (1988), "How College Freshmen View Plagiarism," *Written Communication,* 5 (2), (April), 203–21. ERIC. Drake University Cowles Library, Des Moines, IA. 28 May 2009 [http://wf2dnvr12.webfeat.org:80/ifZ9M1328/url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ371711&site=ehost-live].

Lee, Daniel E. (2009), "Cheating in the Classroom: Beyond Policing," *Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas,* 82 (4), (March), 171–76. ERIC. Drake University Cowles Library, Des Moines, IA. 28 May 2009 [http://wf2dnvr12.webfeat.org:80/ifZ9M1328/url=http://search.ebscohost.com/ login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ371711&site=ehost-live].

Lewis, Norman P. (2008), "Plagiarism Antecedents and Situational Influences." *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly,* 85 (2), 353–70. *America: History & Life.* EBSCO. Drake University Cowles Library, Des Moines, IA. 28 May 2009 [http://wf2dnvr12.webfeat.org:80/ifZ9M1409/url=http://search.ebscohost.com/ login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ829157&site=ehost-live].

McCabe, Donald L. and Linda Klebe Trevino (1993), "Academic Dishonesty: Honor Codes and Other Contextual Influences," *Journal of Higher Education,* 64 (5), 522–38. *America: History & Life.* EBSCO. Drake University Cowles Library, Des Moines, IA. 28 May 2009 [http://wf2dnvr12.webfeat.org:80/ifZ9M1338/url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=ahl&AN= A000378185.01&site=ehost-live].

Reinardy, Scott and Jensen Moore (2007), "When Do Journalists Learn about Ethics? An Examination of Introductory and Graduating Students' Ethical Perceptions," *Journalism & Mass Communication Educator,* 62 (2), (Summer), 161–75. *Communication & Mass Media Complete.* EBSCO. Drake University Cowles Library, Des Moines, IA. 28 May 2009 [http://wf2dnvr12.webfeat.org:80/ifZ9M1295/url=http://search.ebscohost.com/ login.aspx?direct=true&db=uhf&AN=26555267&site=ehost-live].

Solomon, Michael R. (2009), *Consumer Behavior: Buying, Having, and Being,* 8th Ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Whitehouse, Virginia and Julia Nicholls (2004), "Inside These Hallowed Halls," *Quill,* 92 (6), (August), 14–16. *Communication & Mass Media Complete.* EBSCO. Drake University Cowles Library, Des Moines, IA. 28 May 2009 [http://wf2dnvr12.webfeat.org:80/ifZ9M1375/url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=uhf&AN=14412814&site=ehost-live].

APPENDIX A

Please circle the response that is closest to your opinion/answer to the question.

1. In your experience in college so far, how many students engage in academic dishonesty (cheat on tests and exams, plagiarize from documents and the Internet, buy papers online, make up information and quotes, etc.)?
   Most Many Some None Don't Know

2. If you know or believe that a number of students engage in academic dishonesty, how concerned are you about their behavior?
   Very Quite Somewhat Not At All Don't Know

APPENDIX A (CONTINUED)

Please circle the response that is closest to your opinion/answer to the question.

3. If you saw a fellow student cheating on a test or exam, would you report the student to the instructor?
   Yes No Don't Know

4. If you saw a fellow student copying from your test or exam, would you report the student to the instructor?
   Yes No Don't Know

5. Would you try to stop the student from copying from your test or exam?
   Yes No Don't Know

6. Have you ever reported a fellow student for cheating?
   Yes No

7. How concerned are you about your fellow students' engaging in the following practices in SJMC courses?

   a. Inventing sources (either in journalism stories or academic papers)
      Very Quite Somewhat Not At All Don't Know

   b. Making up quotes
      Very Quite Somewhat Not At All Don't Know

   c. Using information from the Internet without attribution
      Very Quite Somewhat Not At All Don't Know

8. How do you think a university should handle a situation when a college student has been found to have engaged in the following practices in SJMC courses? (circle one answer per situation)

   a. Inventing sources (either in journalism stories or academic papers)
      Expel the student Incident goes on record & student must retake class
      Reprimand in other way Do nothing

   b. Making up quotes
      Expel the student Incident goes on record & student must retake class
      Reprimand in other way Do nothing

   c. Using information from the Internet without attribution
      Expel the student Incident goes on record & student must retake class
      Reprimand in other way Do nothing

9. SJMC majors sometimes report that the pressure of deadlines in their skills courses on top of the pressures in other courses, in extracurricular activities and jobs, and in their private lives, causes them occasionally to engage in these practices. Under these circumstances, how justified do you think these practices are?
   Very Quite Somewhat Not At All Don't Know

(the next few questions change the focus from students to professionals)

From time to time, journalists are found to have plagiarized a story or fabricated (made up) information in a story.

10. How concerned are you when you hear that a journalist has plagiarized in a story?
    Very Quite Somewhat Not At All Don't Know

APPENDIX A (CONTINUED)

Please circle the response that is closest to your opinion/answer to the question.

11. How concerned are you when you hear that a journalist has fabricated material for a story?
    Very Quite Somewhat Not At All Don't Know

12. How concerned are you when you hear that a journalist made up a source for a story?
    Very Quite Somewhat Not At All Don't Know

13. How do you think a news organization should handle a situation when a journalist has been found to have plagiarized?
    Fire the journalist Move person to another beat/position
    Reprimand in some other way Do nothing

14. How do you think a news organization should handle a situation when a journalist has been found to have fabricated material for a story?
    Fire the journalist Move person to another beat/position
    Reprimand in some other way Do nothing

15. How do you think a news organization should handle a situation when a journalist has been found to have made up a source for a story?
    Fire the journalist Move person to another beat/position
    Reprimand in some other way Do nothing

(This questionnaire is anonymous, but we would like to know some demographic information.)

16. Gender (circle one) Male Female

17. Year (circle one) First Sophomore Junior Senior 5th year

18. Age _____

19. Major/minor (circle one or two)
    advertising account management advertising creative magazine public relations
    electronic media news-internet other/undecided

20. If you've worked in student media at Drake, please circle all that apply: DBS
    T-D94.3 The Dog Drake Magazine

21. If you've had an internship, circle the term that best describes the company/organization.
    advertising account management advertising creative magazine public relations
    electronic media news-internet other/undecided

Thank you for participating in this survey.

For further information contact:\
Dorothy S. Pisarski
School of Journalism and Mass Communication
Drake University
2805 University Avenue, Meredith 110
Des Moines IA 50311–4505
Phone: 515.271.1857
E-Mail: dorothy.pisarski@drake.edu

THE EFFECTS OF CULTURAL VALUES ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Philip M. Hurdle, Elmira College

ABSTRACT

An exploratory study of undergraduate marketing students' cultural values and their relationships to academic achievement. Results show that for all students valuing hard work over leisure and postponed gratification over immediate gratification is associated with greater class performance. For women the factors of describing themselves as being more religious than secular affected their academic achievement while results for men showed no such association.

INTRODUCTION

Waiting for the last students to trickle into a classroom on the first day of class often provides a moment of idle speculation. Who among them will be the high achievers, and who will barely succeed? It's easy to speculate on the ones who sit in the front row; they'll probably earn higher grades than the ones who search for the seats in the back where they can rest their heads. Can classroom seating selection predict academic achievement, or are there other factors that affect students' behavior?

Significant research has been conducted on the effects of a wide range of factors on academic achievement. General intelligence and work drive (an enduring motivation to spend time and effort to be productive and achieve success) were found to be positively associated with both course grade and self-reported grade point average, and the personality trait of emotional stability was found to be related to course grade in an introductory psychology course (Ridgell and Lounsbury 2004). Students' active involvement with learning as measured by data collected from the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) and their relationships with faculty have been found to be positive influences on academic achievement (Ullah and Wilson 2007). Final course grades have also been found to be significantly influenced by class attendance (Gump 2005). George, Dixon, Stansal, Gelb, and Pheri (2008) found that "the greatest predictors of GPA (grade point average) were time-management skills, intelligence, time spent studying, computer ownership, less time spent in passive leisure, and a healthy diet" (p. 706). In an introductory psychology course it was found that the knowledge students brought with them to the first day of class was a positive and significant predictor of their academic achievement (Thompson and Zamboanga 2003).

In a study of students taking 100-level mathematics courses, it was found that older, male students who had missed fewer classes, took classes in a once-a-week schedule, and had a more positive attitude toward mathematics received higher grades (Gupta, Harris, Carrier, and Caron 2006). In another study of university mathematics students, it was found that the predictor variables of domain-specific prior knowledge and previous study success accounted for 55 percent of the variance in student achievement measured by course grade (Hailikari, Nevgi, and Komulainen 2008). Prior ability (high school grade point average and verbal SAT scores), self-regulation (time and study environment management), and motivation (self-efficacy, or how capable a student believes he or she is at accomplishing a particular task, and task value) have been found to be positively related to college grade point average (Kitsantas, Winsler, and Huie 2008). In a study of college sophomores it was found that commitment to an academic major and satisfaction with faculty interactions were found to be significant predictors of grade point average (Graunke and Woosley 2005). In a meta-analysis of 109 studies it was found that the best predictors of college grade point average were academic self-efficacy (beliefs and expectations about one's abilities and chances for academic success) and achievement motivation (desire to achieve success and excellence) (Robbins, Lauver, Le, Davis, Langley, and Carlstrom 2004).

Lounsbury, Fisher, Levy, and Welsh (2009) used the Values in Action (VIA) inventory (Peterson, Park, and Seligman 2004) to measure character strengths in a study of university undergraduate students enrolled in two undergraduate psychological courses. They found five significant VIA predictors of self-reported grade point averages: persistence, love of learning, humor, fairness, and kindness. They also found that five character strengths

of persistence, (judgment, self-regulation, love of learning, and prudence) were correlated with grade point average at a magnitude of .25 of higher.

RESEARCH GOALS

The purpose of this paper is to explore the relationship between students' cultural values (independent variables) and classroom achievement measured by grades earned in particular courses and overall grade point average (dependent variables). Cultural values are "widely held beliefs that affirm what is desirable" that "influence an individual's thought processes and behaviors" (Hawkins and Motherbaugh 2010, p. 42). According to the authors cultural values can be divided into three categories: self-oriented, environment-oriented, and other-oriented.

Self-oriented values "reflect the objectives and approaches to life that the individual members of society find desirable." Environment-oriented values, "prescribe a society's relationship to its economic and technical as well as its physical environment." Other-oriented values "reflect a society's view of the appropriate relationship between individuals and groups within that society" (ibid, p. 45).

Self-oriented values in the context of studying consumer behavior or, in this case, students consuming knowledge to varying degrees, are one's beliefs about themselves and what is valued. These values can be described across the six dimensions listed below (ibid). The dimensions can be illustrated as opposites, or semantic differentials, with individuals usually describing themselves are being somewhere along a continuum between the two extremes rather than at one end or the other on the scale.

Religious/Secular

To what extent are one's behaviors and beliefs about what is important influenced by his or her religion? How important is religion to one's daily life?

Sensual Gratification/Abstinence

How acceptable is it to enjoy sensual activities such as eating, drinking, etc.?

Postponed Gratification/Immediate Gratification

The tendency to "have it now" or "save and have it later." During class discussions about credit card use, some students confess to maintaining a monthly balance while others state they have only a debit card.

Hard Work/Leisure

To what extent does one value the outcome of working harder than necessary and the joys of leisure? After assigning a minimum 2-page paper, some students submit a 4-page paper while others turn in a 2-pager with extra wide margins.

Material/Nonmaterial

How much of a motivator is the owning of an object? When class discussion turns to the latest in personal electronic devices, there are always some students who proudly show the class their newly acquired gadgets while others who share similar economic circumstances become bored with the discussion.

Active/Passive

Is physical activity preferred over a non-strenuous activity? Many students participate in organized sports and work part-time, while others do neither.

METHODOLOGY

On the first day of each undergraduate marketing course during a full academic year at a liberal arts 4-year college, students, who were all majoring in business administration, were asked filled out a half-page survey. The students were asked on the survey to answer typical "getting to know you" questions such as preferred name, major, hometown, and a favorite hobbies and interests. The survey additionally asked students to indicate how they described themselves by placing an X on a line between extremes of six dimensions of self-oriented cultural values. Each class was a given the same instructions by the same instructor on how to fill out the surveys, including descriptions and examples of the six dimensions.

Religious ..... Secular

Sensual gratification ..... Abstinence

Postponed gratification ..... Immediate gratification

Hard work ..... Leisure

Material ..... Nonmaterial

Active ..... Passive

Survey forms were collected and checked for completeness and integrity; three surveys were discarded when

students marked one extreme or the other along each dimension, and two incomplete surveys were eliminated.

Coding of the surveys was accomplished using a physical scale positioned beneath the equal-length lines spanning the opposite words or phrases of each dimension. The scale was marked in 20 equal increments between -10 and +10 with 0 indicating a midpoint between the words or phrases. Data for each survey was recorded as row-data in a matrix.

Corresponding class performance data in the form of a percentile of the highest numeric grade in the particular class at the end of the term was added to row data. A total of 95 usable surveys was obtained, many of which were from students who had taken more than one course during the academic year. Survey data and class performance from students who had taken more than course was averaged, and the average value was used in the final data set. Students' overall grade point average at the end of the academic year (average across the 77 students: 2.96 out of 4.00) was added to corresponding row data to arrive at a final data set comprising 77 students, of which 42 were males and 35 were females. The vast majority of the participants in the study were white, non-Hispanics.

RESULTS

Analyzing the results reveals a number of insights into the relationships among the variables, including the effects of cultural values on classroom performance (course grades) and grade point average.

A two-tail *t*-test comparing numerical codes of cultural values with 0 (no significant tendency to describe one's self as either one or the other opposite of the pairs of extremes) shows that all students describe themselves toward one extreme or the other on all dimensions except one: on average students thought of themselves as midway between religious and secular. Analyzing data from all students, they described themselves statistically significantly as being more interested in sensual gratification than abstinence; somewhat more inclined toward immediate gratification than postponed gratification; valuing hard work over leisure; somewhat more material than nonmaterial; and much more active than passive. The data set was skewed from the school's ratio of males to females. While approximately 60 percent of the students on campus are female, only 45 percent of study's respondents were female. This difference was deemed acceptable because few statistically significant differences were found between males' and females' class performance, grade point average, and scoring on the six dimensions of self-oriented cultural values. Examining the data divided by gender, male students' results showed no statistical difference between postponed gratification and immediate gratification. Female students on average indicated no statistical difference between being material and nonmaterial. See Table 1.

Studying the relationships among students' perceptions about themselves reveals several significant associations. Correlation analysis of the responses for all students shows a significant (Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.810) positive relationship between class performance and grade point average, giving credence to the adage "students with good grades will do well in your class." As students valued hard work over leisure, their class performances went significantly higher (Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.367). As grade point averages increased students indicated that they significantly (p value < 0.05) valued postponed gratification over immediate gratification and hard work over leisure. As students more readily described themselves as active rather than passive, they significantly indicated that they were more religious than secular, believed in sensual gratification over abstinence, and valued hard work over leisure. See Table 2.

Looking at the differences between males and females reveals several relationships. Correlation analysis of the responses for female students shows a stronger, significant positive relationship (Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.901) between class performance and grade point than males (Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.627). While both genders exhibited a positive, significant association between class performance and describing themselves as valuing hard work over leisure, females showed a positive relationship (Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.408) between class performance and leaning toward being religious rather than secular. Along the same lines, females showed a positive relationship (Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.338) between grade point average and feelings along the continuum between religious and secular: the more they described themselves as religious, the higher the grade point average. The more females described themselves as religious rather than secular, the more they described themselves as active rather than passive (Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.353). No significant associations were found for males as they described themselves between religious and secular and describing themselves along the other dimensions of self-oriented values. Males described themselves as significantly being more material than nonmaterial as they described themselves as being more active than passive (Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.379). See Table 2.

TABLE 1
All Students' Indication of Cultural Values

Value Extreme	Mean	Std. Dev.	*t*-Value	*p*-Value	Value Extreme
Religious (-10)	-0.107	5.182	-0.18	0.857	Secular (+10)
Sensual gratification (-10)	-3.068	3.467	-7.77	0.000	Abstinence (+10)
Postponed gratification (-10)	1.048	3.219	2.86	0.006	Immediate gratification (+10)
Hard work (-10)	-3.453	3.864	-7.84	0.000	Leisure (+10)
Material (-10)	-1.271	4.051	-2.75	0.007	Nonmaterial (+10)
Active (-10)	-4.701	3.921	-10.52	0.000	Passive (+10)

Notes: Sample size (n) = 77. Std. Dev. is the standard deviation of the coded responses. *t*-Value is the tabulated *t*-value for a two-tail test for comparing the sample mean to the hypothesized population mean of 0 (neither one value extreme of the other). At a significance level of 0.05 and given 76 degrees of freedom, the critical value of *t* is 1.985. *p*-Value is the tabulated *p*-value, or the probability of wrongly rejecting the hypothesis (students describing themselves as neither toward one extreme value or the other).

TABLE 2
Pearson's Product Moment Correlation for All Students/Males/Females

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Percentile							
	.810***						
2 Grade point average	.627***						
	.901***						
	.120	.078					
3 Religious – Secular	-.244	-.176					
.	.408*	.338*					
	.123	.160	.120				
4 Sensual gratification –	-.023	.161	.124				
Abstinence	.231	.173	.109				
	-.158	-.262*	-.082	-.188			
5 Postponed – Immediate	-.150	-.353*	-.091	-.209			
gratification	-.177	-.216	-.057	-.160			
	-.367***	-.305**	.119	.071	-.057		
6 Hard Work – Leisure	-.346*	-.211	.194	-.081	-.156		
	-.430**	-.438**	.034	.286	.053		
	.054	.158	.084	-.082	-.140	.085	
7 Material – Nonmaterial	.030	-.026	.137	-.178	-.044	.173	
	.072	.301	.018	.026	-.245	.021	
	.023	.049	.225*	.253*	-.184	.466***	.222
8 Active – Passive	-.130	-.013	.158	.193	-.180	.509***	.379*
	.186	.156	.353*	.372*	-.189	.430**	-.026

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001 (two-tailed test).
Notes: n = 77; Percentile = class performance measured as a percentile of the highest grade in a particular course.

Regression analysis on the data was used to examine the extent to which class performance could be explained by gender, grade point average, and self-oriented cultural values. As expected, grade point average was the most significant factor and, in the case of all students, the only factor in explaining class performance. Dividing the data by gender and performing regression analysis shows a better fit for females (R^2 = 87.3% versus R^2 = 47.2% for males) and that females' class performance can be predicted to increase as they described themselves as being more material than nonmaterial. See Table 3.

Regression analysis on the data was also used to examine the extent to which grade point average could be explained by gender and self-oriented cultural values. Data for all students shows a slight but statistically significant role of self-oriented cultural values on grade point average: as students indicated a preference for postponed gratification and hard work, grade point average increased. The influence on males' grade point average was slight but statistically significant: as they indicated a preference for postponed gratification, their grade point averages increased. The influence on females' grade point average was slight but statistically significant: as they indicated a preference for postponed gratification and being nonmaterial, their grade point average increased. The regression analysis on grade point average as the dependent variable and cultural values as independent variables produced more a convincing explanation for changes in females' grade point average (All students: R^2 = 26.6%; males: R^2 = 23.3%; females: R^2 = 51.5%). See Table 4.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The study shows that undergraduate marketing students' classroom performance can be predicted in large part by previous academic achievement. Correlation analysis shows that regardless of gender, students' classroom performance for the courses they took during the study increased as they described themselves as valuing hard work over leisure and decreased as they valued leisure over hard work. Females' classroom performance was found to be associated with their thoughts about religion – the more they described themselves as being secular rather than religious, the higher the classroom grades. Interestingly, this finding runs contrary to a study by George, Dixon, Stanal, Gelb, and Pheri (2008) who found that more time spent in devotion and greater reported spirituality were significantly and slightly positively correlated with grade point average.

Examining correlations among the data for both genders, it was no surprise that grade point average was found to increase as students described themselves as valuing hard work over leisure and postponed gratification over immediate gratification. For males, grade point average was associated only with beliefs about indulgence – grade point average increased as they described themselves as believing in postponed gratification rather than immediate gratification. Data from females showed that grade point average was associated with religion and effort – grade point average went up as they described themselves as more secular than religious and as valuing hard work over leisure.

TABLE 3
Regression Analysis – Classroom Performance as the Dependent Variable

	All Students		Males		Females	
Predictor	**Coefficient**	***p*-Value**	**Coefficient**	***p*-Value**	**Coefficient**	***p*-Value**
Constant	54.977	0.000	66.077	0.000	47.930	0.000
Male – Female	-0.580	0.622				
Grade Point Average	11.656	0.000	7.447	0.000	13.779	0.000
Religious – Secular	0.1123	0.322	-0.1015	0.475	0.2382	0.173
Sensual gratification – Abstinence	-0.0350	0.841	-0.1830	0.437	0.2963	0.229
Postponed – Immediate gratification	0.1207	0.521	-0.0188	0.942	-0.0354	0.884
Hard work – Leisure	-0.3267	0.078	-0.3301	0.152	-0.2632	0.371
Material – Nonmaterial	-0.1469	0.321	0.1145	0.590	-0.4937	0.015
Active – Passive	0.1366	0.446	0.0002	0.999	0.0276	0.932
Coefficient of determination R^2	68.8%		47.2%		87.3%	

TABLE 4
Regression Analysis – Grade Point Average as the Dependent Variable

	All Students		Males		Females	
Predictor	**Coefficient**	***p*-Value**	**Coefficient**	***p*-Value**	**Coefficient**	***p*-Value**
Constant	2.6548	0.000	2.8990	0.000	3.1904	0.000
Male – Female	0.2134	0.073				
Religious/Secular	0.0076	0.511	-0.0149	0.249	0.0327	0.105
Sensual gratification/Abstinence	0.0191	0.283	0.0094	0.663	0.0415	0.147
Postponed/Immediate gratification	-0.0393	0.038	-0.0541	0.018	-0.0037	0.899
Hard work/Leisure	-0.0631	0.000	-0.0293	0.155	-0.1119	0.000
Material/Nonmaterial	0.0185	0.218	0.0021	0.915	0.0440	0.049
Active/Passive	0.0214	0.241	0.0058	0.765	0.0575	0.132
Coefficient of determination R^2	26.6%		23.3%		51.5%	

Regression analysis on both class performance and grade point average produced intuitively expected results. Classroom performance can be predicted largely on grade point average and, for females, the cultural value of being more material than nonmaterial. In attempting to explain changes in grade point average, regression shows that the greater the value of postponed gratification and hard work the higher the grade point average. Regression does point out one seemingly contradictory result. Females' classroom performance increased as they indicated a preference toward being more material than nonmaterial, but more nonmaterial as their grade point average increased.

In total the results of this exploratory study generally support previous research on the factors influencing student achievement: students who have performed well in previous classes will probably do well in the next class, and students who value hard work and postponed gratification will achieve higher academic levels of achievement than those whose values are otherwise. Implications for marketing educators using the results of this study include the need to stress to students who want to perform well in class that they need to forsake leisure for hard work and not put off their academic responsibilities for immediate gratification.

The study is limited in that it used as subjects only marketing students at a 4-year, private liberal arts college; the results may or may not be applicable to all subject areas or at other educational institutions. Of the 77 students included in the study, all but nine had declared themselves as business majors with a concentration in marketing and, therefore, presumably more interested in the subject matter than students taking the introductory marketing course as a requirement for the business major.

Further research into the exploration of the effects of other categories of cultural values on academic achievement is warranted; given that cultural values shape personal behavior and that doing well in a class or having a higher or lower grade point average is ultimately the result of personal decisions, there may be other values affecting student behavior. Interesting also would be further research into the differences between males and females. In this study it appears that females are affected more by self-oriented values than males. And finally, further study is needed to research why all students in this study so greatly valued being active over passive, yet the factor was not found to be associated with course performance or grade point average, nor was it a predictor of either form of academic achievement.

REFERENCES

George, Darren, Sinikka Dixon, Emory Stansal, Shannon Lund Gelb, and Tabitha Pheri (2008), "Time Diary and Questionnaire Assessment of Factors Associated With Academic and Personal Success Among University Undergraduates," *Journal of American College Health*, 56 (6), 706–15.

Graunke, Steven S. and Sherry A. Woosley (2005), "An Exploration of the Factors that Affect Academic

Success of College Sophomores," *College Student Journal*, 39 (June).

Gump, Steven E. (2005), "The Cost of Cutting Class: Attendance as a Predictor of Student Success," *College Teaching*, 53 (1), 21–26.

Gupta, Sat, David E. Harris, Nellie M. Carrier, and Paul Caron (2006), "Predictors of Student Success in Entry-Level Undergraduate Mathematics Courses," *College Student Journal*, 40 (1), 97–108.

Hailikari, Telle, Anne Nevgi, and Erkki Komulainen (2008), "Academic Self-Beliefs and Prior Knowledge as Predictors of Student Achievement in Mathematics: A Structural Model," *Educational Psychology*, 28 (January), 59–71.

Hawkins, Del I. and David L. Motherbaugh (2010), *Consumer Behavior, Building Marketing Strategy*, 11th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Kitsantas, Anastasia, Adam Winsler, and Faye Huie (2008), "Self-Regulation and Ability Predictors of Academic success During College: A Predictive Validity Study," *Journal of Advanced Academic*, 20 (Fall), 42–68.

Lounsbury, John W., Leslee A. Fisher, Jacob J. Levy, and Deborah P. Welsh (2009), "An Investigation of Character Strengths in Relation to Academic Success of College Students," *Individual Difference Research*, 7 (1), 52–69.

Peterson, C., N. Park, and M.E.P. Seligman (2004), "Assessment of Character Strengths," in *Psychologists' Desk Reference*, 2nd ed. G.P. Koocher, J.C. Norcross, and S.S. Hill, III, eds. New York: Oxford University Press, 93–98.

Ridgell, Susan D. and John W. Lounsbury (2004), "Predicting Academic Success: General Intelligence, 'Big Five' Personality Traits, and Work," *College Student Journal*, 38 (4).

Robbins, Steven B., Kristy Lauver, Huy Le, Daniel Davis, Ronelle Langley, and Aaron Carlstrom (2004), "Do Psychological and Study Skill Factors Predict College Outcomes? A Meta-Analysis," *Psychological Bulletin*, 130 (2), 261–88.

Thompson, Ross A. and Bryon L. Zamboanga (2003), "Prior Knowledge and Its Relevance to Student Achievement in Introduction to Psychology," *Teaching of Psychology*, 30 (2), 96–101.

Ullah, Hafeez and Mardell A. Wilson (2007), "Students' Academic Success and Its Association to Student Involvement with Learning and Relationships with Faculty and Peers," *College Student Journal*, 41 (4).

For further information contact:
Philip M. Hurdle
Business and Economics
Elmira College
One Park Place
Elmira, NY 14901
Phone: 607.735.1881
Fax: 607.735.1758
E-Mail: phurdle@elmira.edu

MALE AND FEMALE BUSINESS PROFESSORS: ARE THEIR TEACHING STYLES CONSISTENT WITH THEIR LEARNING STYLES?

Mary T. Galvan, North Central College

ABSTRACT

The Index of Learning Styles (ILS) was sent via Survey Monkey to 500 business professors in spring 2009 who attended selected marketing conferences during the academic year. Of the 500 surveys 185 were returned (107 males and 78 females) for a 37 percent response rate. The purpose of this research is to examine if any differences exist between male and female professors' learning styles and their corresponding teaching styles. Frequency distributions, paired samples t-test and correlation coefficients are used to analyze the data.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

It is likely that many college professors realize that students in their business classes receive and process information in various ways. Learning styles can provide a means to focus on how students learn or fail to learn. As Dunn (2003) has put it, there is no special category of students with learning difficulties, only professors who have not learned that their teaching style is appropriate for one-fourth of their students and seriously inadequate for the remainder. In the pedagogical triangle of professor, students, and subject, learning styles can provide a language with which professors can discuss their own learning preferences as well as that of their students. Once professors examine and understand their own teaching and learning styles it becomes easier to understand and teach students who are of different styles.

Numerous studies discuss the relationship between gender and college teaching with respect to student evaluations, but a very limited amount of research has been conducted on gender differences in learning and teaching styles of college professors. An awareness of teaching and learning styles by professors is critical to assisting faculty in their efforts to improve their teaching. This research is an attempt to compare the learning styles with the teaching styles of male business professors; the learning styles with the teaching styles of female business professors; and finally the comparison between the genders to determine if a statistically significant difference exists.

Due to the vast number of studies regarding learning styles, the following literature review discussed below is abridged for the purpose of this paper. To give the reader a flavor for the type of literature that exists, the two sections that follow represent selected studies that deal with learning styles in general and teaching styles specifically related to gender.

SELECTED LITERATURE REVIEW – LEARNING STYLES

Exploring the highly complex nature of teaching and learning, researchers have often concentrated on the controversy of the "matching hypothesis" that is the preferred learning styles of students should be matched with the teaching style of their professors. There are an overwhelming number of studies on this subject.

Felder (1993) talks about the negative learning outcomes of students who are mismatched with professors that are unaware of their own learning style. In this situation professors may teach only in one style thus favoring some students and disadvantaging others. Grasha (1994) argues that students need to be stretched to learn and stretching may mean purposely creating a mismatch between the teaching methods of professors and students' preferred learning styles. Reynolds (1997) states that matching is unrealistic given the potential demand on professors to change their teaching style to accommodate over 30 different learning styles in each class. The results of a study by Spoon and Scheel (1998) fails to support research on learning and teaching styles in which increased academic achievement is noted when learning and teaching styles are congruent. Merrill (2000) argues that most students and professors are unaware of their learning styles. Further, more fundamental teaching strategies should take precedence over learning styles, which should then be used to fine-tune professors' plans.

After conducting several rigorous empirical studies of matching and mismatching Ford and Chen (2001) conclude that matching was linked with improved student performance. Research by Apters (2001) suggests that matching or mismatching may cause frustration or dissatisfaction that is likely to cause a student to switch between motivational styles and disengage from learning. Gregorc (2002) claims that mismatched learning styles can harm the student not only in a current class but in future learning endeavors as well. Smith and Sekar (2002) concludes that for each research study supporting the theory of matching students' preferred learning style to professors' instructional style there is a study rejecting the matching hypothesis. Coffield and Frank (2004) explain that many professors may respond well to the invitation to examine their own teaching and learning styles–and the hope of theorists is that by doing so they will become more sensitive to those whose learning style is different. Prince and Felder (2006) avoid the matching hypothesis controversy by investigating several instructional models that involve learning cycles in which different classroom activities are designed to appeal to various student learning style preferences. All students are taught partly in a learning style they prefer and partly in a learning style less preferred when professors teach "around the cycle."

SELECTED LITERATURE REVIEW – TEACHING STYLES AND GENDER

A study by Lacey, Saleh, and Gorman (1998) found that male and female professors differed with respect to student involvement in the classroom. In particular, male instructors tended to be more lecture-oriented while female styles were more informal and open toward student participation. A similar study by Crawford and MacLeod (1990) found that male professors were not as open to student participation in the classroom as female professors. Starbuck (2003) looked at various academic disciplines in her examination of gender differences in teaching styles. Of the 22 different teaching activities measured, Starbuck found that only three activities were significantly different between male and female professors.

Various authors have focused on teaching styles and gender with respect to student course evaluations. For example, Nuhfer (2002), Centra and Gaubataz (1998), and Feldman (1992) found that a professor's gender had no impact on students' course evaluations. However, Whitworth, Price, and Randall (2002), Bachen, McLaughlin, and Garcia (1999), and Kimmel (2000) all found that female and male professors were perceived differently by students and were given higher or lower ratings based on that perception.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The Felder-Soloman Index of Learning Styles (ILS) was sent to 500 business professors in spring 2009 who attended selected marketing conferences during the academic year. Of the 500 surveys, 185 were returned for a 37 percent response rate. Although many learning style models exist, the ILS was chosen for this study for various reasons: the questionnaire is available on-line, free, simple to use and interpret, easily applicable and the instrument has good validation results (Felder and Spurlin 2005; Litzinger et al. 2005; Zywno 2003; Livesay et al. 2002).

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

Professors were sent an online version of the ILS questionnaire using Survey Monkey that consisted of 44 incomplete sentences to which an "a" or "b" response could be selected to finish the statement. Eight additional questions were added at the end of the survey instrument. Four questions asked about the professor's teaching style and four were demographic questions. The returned responses of professors were submitted on-line and a profile for each professor was returned with scores on all four dimensions. Each learning style dimension was scored on a scale from –11 to +11 and showed an emerging preference for the given modality. For statistical analyses it was convenient to calculate only the "a" responses so that a score on a dimension would be an integer ranging from 0 to 11 (Felder and Spurlin 2005). Using the active-reflective dimension as an example, 0 or 1 "a" responses represented a strong preference for active learning, 2 or 3 a moderate preference for active learning, 4 or 5 a mild preference for active, 6 or 7 a mild preference for reflective, 8 or 9 a moderate preference for reflective and 10 or 11 a strong preference for reflective learning.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

Of the 185 surveys returned by business professors, 107 were from males and 87 from females. The following represents demographic information on male professors. Twenty-nine percent of males were between 40–49 years old, 29.9 percent between 50–59 years old, and 30.8 percent between 60–69 years old. Only 6.5 percent and 3.7 percent were between 30–39 years old and over 69 years old respectively. A demographic question asked professors how many years they taught full-time at the college level. The top three categories of most frequent responses were between 5–14 years with 31.8 percent, 15–24 years with 21.5 percent, and 25–34 years with 29 percent. Another demographic question asked of professors was how many full-time undergraduate students currently attended their institution. The majority of male professors – 68.2 percent-taught at institutions that had between 1000–14,999 students. Institutions that had an undergraduate enrollment between 15,000 and 25,000 and over were reported by 31.8 of male professors.

Of the female professors, 2.6 percent were under 30 years old, 10.3 percent between 30–39 years old, 33.3 percent between 40–49 years old, 33.3 percent between 50–59 years old, and 20.5 percent between 60–69 years old. Of the number of years female professors who taught full-time at the college level 15.4 percent taught less than five years, 28.2 percent between 5–14 years, 35.9 percent between 15–24 years, and 20.5 percent between 25–34 years. The majority of female professors taught at institutions with a full-time undergraduate student population between 1000–14,999 with 71.8 percent, and 29.2 percent of female faculty taught at institutions with between 15,000 and 25,000 and over.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Data presented in Table 1 shows the frequency distributions for male professors' preferred learning styles for each of the four dichotomous dimensions: active-reflective, sensing-intuitive, visual-verbal, and sequential-global. Of the 107 respondents three professors represented strong active, 15 professors moderate active and 28 professors mild active. Mild reflective and moderate reflective responses combined represented 55 professors, and six professors fell into the strong reflective category. Active learners tend to understand and retain information best by engaging in hands-on activities. Unlike reflective learners who like to study and solve problems alone, active learners like group work where they discuss material with others.

In the sensing-intuitive dimension four professors recorded a strong sensing preference, 13 professors moderate sensing and 27 professors mild sensing. On the intuitive side 26 professors were mild intuitive, 24 professors moderate intuitive and 13 professors strong intuitive. Sensing learners understand information better with real-world applications. They like learning facts, brainstorming solutions with group members and solving problems in a methodical way. The intuitive learners are comfortable with abstract ideas, mathematical formulas and reflecting on creative methods of problem solving.

Of the 107 male responses 29 were strong visual, 37 represent moderate visual and 18 mild visual. Mild verbal, moderate verbal, and strong verbal represented 12 professors, 10 professors, and one professor respectively. Visual learners learn and remember information best when they see diagrams, pictures, videos, and demonstrations unlike their verbal counterparts that learn best by reading written material from textbooks or handouts and listening to class lecture and discussion.

In the sequential-global dimension four professors were strong sequential, 16 professors were moderate sequential and 32 professors were mild sequential. The number of professors in the mild global category was 33, with 22 representing moderate global and zero professors in strong global. Sequential learners first understand logical sequential steps that comprise the whole picture rather then global learners who need to grasp the whole picture first before understanding the individual steps.

Data presented in Table 2 shows the frequency distributions for male professors' preferred teaching styles for each of the four dichotomous dimensions: active-reflective, sensing-intuitive, visual-verbal, and sequential-global. Without explaining Table 2 in the same detail as Table 1, the following were the highest numbers for each category. Of the 107 male professors, 45 were moderate active, 32 were mild sensing, 33 were mild verbal and 34 were moderate sequential. The remaining statistics are listed in Table 2 at the end of the paper.

Table 3 shows the frequency distributions for female professors' preferred learning styles. The highest numbers for each category are listed below, but all the statistics may be viewed in Table 3 at the end of this document. Of the 78 female professors, 32 were mild active, 18 were both moderate sensing and mild intuitive, 28 represented moderate visual and 28 were mild sequential.

Data presented in Table 4 shows the frequency distributions for female professors' preferred teaching styles for each of the four dichotomous dimensions: active-reflec-

TABLE 1
Preferred *Male Learning* Styles: Frequency Distributions for All Learning Dimensions

Preference	Number/ Professors	Preference	Number/ Professors	Preference	Number/ Professors	Preference	Number/ Professors
Strong Active	3	Strong Sensing	4	Strong Visual	29	Strong Sequential	4
Moderate Active	15	Moderate Sensing	13	Moderate Visual	37	Moderate Sequential	16
Mild Active	28	Mild Sensing	27	Mild Visual	18	Mild Sequential	32
Mild Reflective	32	Mild Intuitive	26	Mild Verbal	12	Mild Global	33
Moderate Reflective	23	Moderate Intuitive	24	Moderate Verbal	10	Moderate Global	22
Strong Reflective	6	Strong Intuitive	13	Strong Verbal	1	Strong Global	0
Total	107	Total	107	Total	107	Total	107

TABLE 2
Preferred *Male Teaching* Styles: Frequency Distributions for All Learning Dimensions

Preference	Number/ Professors	Preference	Number/ Professors	Preference	Number/ Professors	Preference	Number/ Professors
Strong Active	19	Strong Sensing	2	Strong Visual	4	Strong Sequential	10
Moderate Active	45	Moderate Sensing	31	Moderate Visual	22	Moderate Sequential	34
Mild Active	18	Mild Sensing	32	Mild Visual	21	Mild Sequential	22
Mild Reflective	14	Mild Intuitive	18	Mild Verbal	33	Mild Global	23
Moderate Reflective	9	Moderate Intuitive	20	Moderate Verbal	21	Moderate Global	14
Strong Reflective	2	Strong Intuitive	4	Strong Verbal	6	Strong Global	4
Total	107	Total	107	Total	107	Total	107

tive, sensing-intuitive, visual-verbal, and sequential-global. The highest numbers for each category follow. Of the 78 female professors, 32 were moderate active, 30 were mild sensing, 24 were moderate visual and 24 were moderate sequential. All the remaining statistics are shown in Table 4.

Table 5 compares the means and standard deviations for male professors' preferred learning styles and their preferred teaching styles for the four learning-style dimensions. The means range from a value of "0" (strong active, sensing, visual or sequential) to a value of "11" (strong reflective, intuitive, verbal, and global).

TABLE 3
Preferred *Female Learning* Styles: Frequency Distributions for All Learning Dimensions

Preference	Number/ Professors	Preference	Number/ Professors	Preference	Number/ Professors	Preference	Number/ Professors
Strong Active	0	Strong Sensing	8	Strong Visual	10	Strong Sequential	4
Moderate Active	8	Moderate Sensing	18	Moderate Visual	28	Moderate Sequential	10
Mild Active	32	Mild Sensing	12	Mild Visual	22	Mild Sequential	28
Mild Reflective	20	Mild Intuitive	18	Mild Verbal	6	Mild Global	14
Moderate Reflective	18	Moderate Intuitive	8	Moderate Verbal	12	Moderate Global	18
Strong Reflective	0	Strong Intuitive	14	Strong Verbal	0	Strong Global	4
Total	78	Total	78	Total	78	Total	78

TABLE 4
Preferred *Female Teaching* Styles: Frequency Distributions for All Learning Dimensions

Preference	Number/ Professors	Preference	Number/ Professors	Preference	Number/ Professors	Preference	Number/ Professors
Strong Active	14	Strong Sensing	2	Strong Visual	0	Strong Sequential	6
Moderate Active	32	Moderate Sensing	16	Moderate Visual	24	Moderate Sequential	24
Mild Active	24	Mild Sensing	30	Mild Visual	14	Mild Sequential	16
Mild Reflective	4	Mild Intuitive	20	Mild Verbal	16	Mild Global	18
Moderate Reflective	2	Moderate Intuitive	10	Moderate Verbal	20	Moderate Global	10
Strong Reflective	2	Strong Intuitive	0	Strong Verbal	4	Strong Global	4
Total	78	Total	78	Total	78	Total	78

In the active-reflective category, the mean for the preferred learning style was 5.98 whereas the mean for the preferred teaching style was 3.80. Professors tend to personally prefer a more reflective learning style, but use a more active teaching style in the classroom. The sensing-intuitive category showed a mean of 6.12 for the preferred learning style and 5.24 for the preferred teaching style. Professors tended to be more intuitive learners, but their preferred teaching style followed the sensing learning style dimension. For the visual-verbal category,

professors preferred more visual learning with a mean of 3.42, but preferred to teach using techniques of the verbal dimension with a mean of 5.60. In the sequential-global learning style dimension, professors' preferred learning style showed a mean of 5.62 and their preferred teaching style revealed a mean of 4.67. They preferred to learn more from a global perspective, but teach in a sequential fashion.

Table 6 compares the means and standard deviations for female professors' preferred learning styles and their preferred teaching styles for the four learning-style dimensions. In the active-reflective category, the mean for the preferred learning style was 5.69 whereas the mean for the preferred teaching style was 3.23. Like their male counterparts, female professors tend to personally prefer a more reflective learning style, but use a more active teaching style in the classroom. The sensing-intuitive category showed a mean of 5.79 for the preferred learning style and 5.18 for the preferred teaching style. Female professors tended to be more intuitive learners, but their preferred teaching style followed the sensing learning style dimension. For the visual-verbal category, professors preferred more visual learning with a mean of 4.10, but preferred to teach using techniques of the verbal dimension with a mean of 5.72. In the sequential-global learning style dimension, professors' preferred learning style showed a mean of 5.67 and their preferred teaching style revealed a mean of 4.90. Again like their male counterparts, female professors preferred to learn more from a global perspective, but teach in a sequential fashion.

TABLE 5
Male **Professors: Mean and Standard Deviation**

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Active-Reflective Learner	5.98	2.346
Active-Reflective Professor	3.80	2.528
Sensing-Intuitive Learner	6.12	2.679
Sensing-Intuitive Professor	5.24	2.373
Visual-Verbal Learner	3.42	2.533
Visual-Verbal Professor	5.60	2.475
Sequential-Global Learner	5.62	2.131
Sequential-Global Professor	4.67	2.607

Scale ranges from 0–11 with "0" representing strong active, sensing, visual, and sequential and "11" representing strong reflective, intuitive, verbal, and global.

TABLE 6
Female **Professors: Mean and Standard Deviation**

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Active-Reflective Learner	5.69	2.054
Active-Reflective Professor	3.23	2.032
Sensing-Intuitive Learner	5.79	3.326
Sensing-Intuitive Professor	5.18	2.011
Visual-Verbal Learner	4.10	2.500
Visual-Verbal Professor	5.72	2.595
Sequential-Global Learner	5.67	2.464
Sequential-Global Professor	4.90	2.654

Scale ranges from 0–11 with "0" representing strong active, sensing, visual, and sequential and "11" representing strong reflective, intuitive, verbal, and global.

PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST AND CORRELATION RESULTS

Tables 7 and 8 illustrate the results of the paired samples t-test as well as Pearson's correlation coefficients for male professors and female professors respectively. For the paired samples t-test the professors' preferred learning style was compared to the professors' preferred teaching style. For male professors each of the t-statistics generated were statistically significant at the .01 level. For female professors only the active-reflective and visual-verbal dimensions were statistically significant at the .01 level. Neither sensing-intuitive nor sequential-global were statistically significant.

Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) is used to investigate the degree of association between professors' preferred learning styles and their preferred teaching styles. Tables 7 and 8 show the correlation coefficients for male professors and female professors respectively. Table 7 shows a positive correlation of .122 between active/reflective learning preferences and the active/reflective teaching style of male professors. Between the sensing/intuitive learning preference and teaching style the correlation coefficient was .182. A .415 correlation coefficient existed between the visual/verbal preferred learning style of professors and the teaching style in that category. Finally, the correlation between the sequential/global preferred learning style and the sequential/global teaching style was .327. All the correlation coefficients were positive and represent moderate to low correlation between the corresponding variables. Both the visual-verbal and sequential-global dimensions were statistically significant at the .01 level. The sensing-intuitive dimension is statistically significant at the .10 level, and the active-reflective preference was not statistically significant.

Table 8 shows a positive correlation of .307 between active/reflective learning preferences and the active/reflective teaching style of female professors. Between the sensing/intuitive learning preference and teaching style the correlation coefficient was .163. For female professors a .451 correlation coefficient existed between the visual/verbal preferred learning style of professors and the teaching style in that category. Finally, the correlation between the sequential/global preferred learning style and the sequential/global teaching style was .341. All the correlation coefficients were positive and represent moderate correlation between the corresponding variables. The visual-verbal dimension was statistically significant

TABLE 7
Male **Professors Paired Samples t-Test and Pearson Correlation Coefficients**

	t	Sig. (2-tail)	Correlations	Sig. (2-tail)
Active-Reflective Learner Active-Reflective Professor	6.956	.000**	.122	.211
Sensing-Intuitive Learner Sensing-Intuitive Professor	2.899	.005**	.182	.061
Visual-Verbal Learner Visual-Verbal Professor	-8.316	.000**	.415	.000**
Sequential-Global Learner Sequential-Global Professor	3.479	.001**	.327	.000**

* Significant at the 0.05 level **Significant at the 0.01 level

TABLE 8
Female **Professors Paired Samples t-Test and Pearson Correlation Coefficients**

	t	Sig. (2-tail)	Correlations	Sig. (2-tail)
Active-Reflective Learner Active-Reflective Professor	6.393	.000**	.307	.057
Sensing-Intuitive Learner Sensing-Intuitive Professor	1.069	.292	.163	.321
Visual-Verbal Learner Visual-Verbal Professor	-3.776	.001**	.451	.004**
Sequential-Global Learner Sequential-Global Professor	1.633	.111	.341	.034*

* Significant at the 0.05 level **Significant at the 0.01 level

at the .01 level, the sequential-global dimension was statistically significant at the .05 level, and the active-reflective dimension was statistically significant at the .10 level. The sensing-intuitive dimension was not statistically significant.

Comparing the male professors and female professors directly for the active-reflective, sensing-intuitive, visual-verbal, and sequential-global dimensions showed no statistically significant results. Therefore, the preferred learning styles and the preferred teaching styles of male professors were not statistically different from the preferred learning styles and preferred teaching styles of female professors.

CONCLUSION AND LIMITATIONS

The purpose of this research was to examine the learning style preferences of business professors and compare those preferences to their overall teaching style. In particular, the question to be answered regarding male and female business professors was: are their teaching styles consistent with their learning styles? Frequency distributions, paired samples t-test, and correlation analysis have been used as tools to shed some initial light on this investigation. Last spring 185 business professors completed the ILS which provided information on four categories of preferred learning styles as well as teaching styles: active-reflective, sensing-intuitive, visual-verbal, and sequential-global.

For male professors both frequency distributions and paired t-tests suggested that they prefer to learn differently than the way they prefer to teach. In particular, male professors preferred more reflective learning but more active teaching. In the sensing-intuitive category, male professors were more intuitive learners and more sensing professors. For the visual-verbal learning dimension, males preferred more visual learning and more verbal teaching. The results showed that male professors tended to be global learners but sequential in their teaching styles. The paired t-test, results showed there was a statistically significant difference between the teaching styles and the learning styles of male professors on all learning dimensions. Therefore, based on the results male professors were not consistent between their preferred learning styles and their teaching styles.

Female faculty preferred reflective learning but active

teaching. In the sensing-intuitive category females were more intuitive learners and more sensing professors. For the visual-verbal dimension, female professors were more visual learners and preferred more visual teaching methods in the classroom. Female preferred to be more global learners but more sequential professors. Using the paired t-test, the results showed that there were statistically significant differences between learning styles and teaching styles in the active-reflective and visual verbal categories. However, there were no statistically significant differences in the sensing-intuitive and sequential-global dimensions. Female professors were consistent between their preferred learning styles and their teaching styles in the latter two dimensions.

Various studies in the literature discussed the relationship between gender and college teaching with respect to student evaluations, but few studies looked at gender differences as they related to learning and teaching styles. An understanding of teaching and learning styles by business professors can be an invaluable tool in their pursuit to continually improve in the classroom and make better connections with their students.

One major limitation to the study is the relatively small sample size. Data on this subject continues to be collected. Another limitation to this paper is that the results of the cross-tabulations are not discussed. These cross-tabulations show the relationship between the learning style preferences, teaching styles used and the demographic variables of age, number of full-time undergraduate students attending the institution and the number of years the professor has taught at the college level. These do provide some additional interesting insights. Space and time did not permit these to be included.

Further research is needed in this area since understanding professors' learning and teaching styles and eventually comparing them with learning style preferences of students can be an important asset to the success of both the student and professor in the college classroom. In addition, expanding the scope of this paper to include responses from professors who have received their degrees and teach outside the United States would make for an interesting comparison between preferred learning styles and preferred teaching styles.

REFERENCES

Apters, M. (2001), *Motivational Styles in Everyday Life: A Guide to Reversal Theory.* Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Bachen, C., M. McLoughlin, and S. Garcia (1999), "Assessing the Role of Gender in College Students' Evaluation of Faculty," *Communication Education,* 48, 193–210.

Centra, J.A. and N.B. Gaubatz (1998), "Is There Gender Bias in Student Ratings of Instruction?" *Journal of Higher Education,* 70, 17–33.

Coffield, Frank, David Moseley, Elaine Hall, and Kathryn Eccleston (2004), "Should We Be Using Learning Styles?" Witshire: Cronwell Press Ltd.

Crawford, M. and M. MacLeod (1990), "Gender in the Classroom: An Assessment of the 'Chilly Climate' for Women," *Sex Roles,* 23, 101–22.

Dunn, R. and S. Griggs (2003), *Synthesis of the Dunn and Dunn Learning Styles Model Research.* New York: St. John's University.

Felder, Richard (1993), "Reaching the Second Tier: Learning and Teaching Styles in College Science Education," *Journal of College Science Teaching,* 23 (5), 286–90.

_____ and Joni Spurlin (2005), "Applications, Reliability, and Validity of the Index of Learning Styles," *International Journal Engineering Education,* 21 (1), 103–12.

_____ and Barbara Soloman (2006), Index of Learning Styles, [http://www.ncsu.edu/felder-public/ILSpage.html], accessed June 1, 2007.

Feldman, K.A. (1992), "College Students' View of Male and Female College Teachers: Part I-Evidence from the Social Laboratory and Experiments," *Research in Higher Education,* 33, 317–75.

Ford, N. and S. Chen (2001), "Matching/Mismatching: An Empirical Study of Learning and Teaching Styles," *British Journal of Educational Technology,* 32 (1), 5–22.

Grasha, A. (1994), "Learning Styles: The Journey from Greenwich Observatory to the College Classroom," *Improving College and University Teaching,* 32 (1) 46–53.

Gregorc, A. (2002), *Style Delineator: A Self-Assessment Instrument for Adults.* Columbia: Gregorc Associates, Inc.

Kimmel, M. (2000), *The Gendered Society.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Lacey, C.H., A. Saleh, and R. Gorman (1998), "Teaching Nine to Five: A Study of the Teaching Styles of Male and Female Professors," Paper presented at the Annual Women in Educational Leadership Conference, Lincoln, Nebraska, October 11–12.

Litzinger, Thomas, S. Lee, John Wise, and Richard Felder (2005), "A Study of the Reliability and Validity of the Felder-Soloman Index of Learning Styles," 2005 ASEE Annual Conference, American Society for Engineering Education.

Livesay, G., K. Dee, Bruce Nauman, and L. Hites (2002), "Engineering Student Learning Styles: A Statistical

Analysis Using Felder's Index of Learning Styles," Presented at the 2002 ASEE Conference and Exposition, Montreal, Quebec.

Merrill, M. (2000), "Instructional Strategies and Learning Styles," in *Trends and Issues in Instructional Technology*, R. Reiser and J. Dempsey, eds, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Nufer, A. (2002), "Of What Value are Student Evaluations?" Idaho State University Center for Teaching and Learning.

Prince, Michael and Richard Felder (2006), "Inductive Teaching and Learning Methods: Definitions, Comparisons, and Research Bases," *Journal of Engineering Education*, 95 (2), 123–38.

Reynolds, M. (1997), "Learning Styles: A Critique," *Management Learning*, 28 (2), 115–33.

Smith, A., R. Sekar, and G. Townsend (2002), "The Impact of Surface and Reflective Teaching and Learning on Student Academic Success," in *Learning Styles: Reliability and Validity*, M. Valcke and D. Gombeir, eds. Ghent: University of Ghent Press.

Spoon, J. and J. Schell (1998), "Aligning Student Learning Styles with Instructor Teaching Styles," *Journal of Industrial Teacher Education*, 35 (2), 41–56.

Starbuck, G. H. (2003), "College Teaching Styles by Gender," Paper presented at the Western Social Science Association Annual Meeting, Las Vegas, NV, April 9–12.

Whitworth, J.B. Price and C. Randall (2002), "Factors that Affect College of Business Student Opinion of Teaching and Learning," *Journal of Education for Business*, (May), 282–89.

Zywno, Matgorzata (2003), "A Contribution to Validation of Score Meaning for Felder-Soloman's Index of Learning Styles," Proceedings 2003 ASEE Annual Conference, American Society for Engineering Education.

For further information contact:
Mary T. Galvan
Department of Management & Marketing
North Central College
30 N. Brainard Street
Naperville, IL 60540
Phone: 630.637.5473
Fax: 630.637.5121
E-Mail: mtgalvan@noctrl.edu

EXAMINING STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF CLASS PRESENTATIONS: DO STUDENTS BENEFIT FROM PRESENTATIONS?

Tulay Girard, Pennsylvania State University – Altoona
Musa Pinar, Valparaiso University

ABSTRACT

This study examines the students' perceptions of how class presentations and peer-assessment contribute to their learning and skill-building and whether their perceptions significantly differ by gender. The data were collected from marketing students at two universities in the U.S. Findings indicate that students overall perceive that class presentations contribute to their learning and skill-building. Although significant differences were found based on gender, no consistent pattern of differences in perceptions of presentations and peer-assessment was found between males and females at both universities.

Key words: Gender differences, Student Presentations, Peer-Assessment.

INTRODUCTION

Student presentations are a common part of most courses at universities and one of the ways to improve learning of the course materials. The potential benefits of student presentations are the increased class interaction and participation, interest in learning, bringing different perspectives not covered during the lectures, and improving communication and presentation skills. Students can gain knowledge not only from the research they and other students perform, but also by observing the other presenters' strengths and weaknesses to develop better communication and presentation skills. Despite the positive aspects of using student presentations in a classroom, some of the students may still show resistance to do extra work, fear in public speaking, and display boredom for sitting through others' presentations if they are not engaged with the experience. Therefore, they may have negative attitudes and perceptions toward giving presentations overall. However, little research has been done in this area to understand the extent of benefits students perceive of giving presentations and getting involved with peer-assessments to offer teachers strategies to better the outcome of class presentations. A thorough search in the literature did not reveal a study that has examined the potential benefits of student class presentations. In marketing education, the knowledge base on the student perceptions of presentation benefits have not adequately been developed and remains a huge gap in the marketing and management pedagogy literature. This study is a first attempt at filling this gap. In attempts to prepare marketing and management students to become self-sufficient and well-spoken professionals in the work place, it is important that marketing educators know from the student's perspective whether or not student presentations actually benefit the student, and whether diversity in the student body based on gender makes any difference in their perception of presentation benefits.

The main goal of this paper is to investigate the potential contribution of student class presentations to learning of the course material. The specific objectives are to: (1) investigate whether or not students perceive that student presentations contribute to various aspects of learning of the course material and improving their communications skills; (2) compare if male and female students perceive the presentation benefits differently, if so, in what ways they differ, and (3) compare if students at two different universities (mid-western vs. eastern) perceive the presentation benefits differently, if so, in what ways they differ.

A rubric was utilized to involve the students in presentation evaluations and a survey was used to measure their perceptions of presentation contributions to their knowledge and skill-building, and engagement with presentations by involving them in peer-assessment. The rubric that served as peer-assessment tool was used to force students to pay attention to the presentations; thus, to improve learning. The results from testing the study objectives will provide teachers with strategies to improve student perceptions of the value of giving presen-

tations, and offer guidance of whether gender differences should be a concern in their efforts.

BACKGROUND

Karns (2005, p. 165) states, "Students' willingness to engage fully in learning through a particular pedagogy is an important element in a pedagogical approach's ability to foster learning." Because of its centrality to academic success, social status, and workplace effectiveness, oral and listening skills development has been increasingly emphasized in business education and classrooms. In that effort, student involvement in peer assessment has been increasingly practiced by educators worldwide, and empirical studies confirm that peer assessment promotes active learning by engaging students (Boud 1988; Falchikov and Goldfinch 2000).

Gender differences have also been researched in various studies examining individual listening skills, group production, and self-efficacy (Hunter et al. 2005), classroom interactions (Canada and Pringle 2006), peer evaluations of student presentations (Girard and Pinar 2009), class performance (Nouri and Clinton 2006), student evaluations of teaching (Centra and Gaubatz 2000), and learning style preferences (Wehrwein et al. 2007). The findings of these studies are mixed. For example, Hunter et al. (2005) reported that a 1998 Canadian assessment of students' speech communication skills revealed that all male groups lagged significantly behind that of all female groups. Wehrwein et al. (2007) found significant gender differences in learning style preferences among undergraduate physiology students. Around 54 percent females and 12.5 percent males preferred a single mode of information presentation. Among the female students, around 4 percent preferred visual, none preferred auditory, 17 percent preferred printed words, and 33 percent preferred using all of their five senses (learning from smell, touch, hearing, taste and sight). Among the male students, around 4 percent, evenly distributed in preference, preferred learning from auditory, reading and writing, and using their five senses, but none preferred visual. Overall a majority of female students preferred single mode instruction with emphasis on using all five senses, and a majority of male students preferred multi-modal instruction namely visual, auditory, reading and writing, and using five senses.

Girard and Pinar (2009) found no consistent gender bias in peer assessments of student presentations and suggested that peer assessment could be utilized in grading by teachers without any concerns. However, Pinar and Hardin (2006) find that presenter's and/or evaluator's gender affects the evaluation of presentations. Prior research focuses on understanding the gender effect in student evaluations of teachers (Centra and Gaubatz 2000) but not specifically in the context of gender effect/bias in student perceptions of presentation contributions. Centra and Gaubatz (2000) found gender similarity bias in student evaluations of teaching. Other research examines gender bias in the context of recruitment and/or job interviews (Arvey and Faley 1988; Gallois et al. 1992; Graves and Powell 1995; Hardin et al. 2002, Powell 1987), and customer bias toward a salesperson's gender (Dwyer et al. 1998; Jones et al. 1998; Lucas 1996). Although gender differences can be measured easily, to the authors' best knowledge, no research exists that tests the gender differences/bias in student perceptions of presentation contributions to their learning and skill-building and their involvement with peer-assessment of presentations in an attempt to increase student engagement.

METHOD

Undergraduate and graduate marketing and management students at two major universities participated in the study over several semesters. The data were collected in two stages using separate instruments: (1) a rubric to evaluate presentations of students and (2) a survey instrument to measure the perceptions of presentation contributions to learning and skill-building, and the gender of the student who took the survey. During the first stage, each student prepared and gave a 7 to 10 minute presentation of an analysis of a current business news article from a major newspaper (e.g., Wall Street Journal) or business magazine (e.g., Business Week) as a part of the class assignment.

The purpose of the rubric was to engage students in other students' presentations by having them evaluate each presenter's performance by assigning scores to four aspects of the presentations. While peer-assessing, students were also asked to write down three things that they learned new from each presentation. A maximum of 20 points could be assigned by an evaluator to each presentation based on the four presentation attributes adopted from Pinar and Hardin (2006). The attributes used are: (1) quality of the article content (max.6 pts.); (2) relevance to the course material (max. 5 pts.); (3) content of the presentation (max. 5 pts.), and (4) quality of presentation (max. 4 pts.). Using the rubric for peer-assessment not only allowed the students to be able to answer the last three questions in the survey instrument that measured the students' perceptions of the value of their involvement in the presentations, but also served as reinforce-

ment to students to better prepare for their presentations. After pilot testing several times, the above attributes were determined by the authors that they would serve as a way to evaluate the presentation quality. Students were provided the evaluation criteria before their presentations. The gender of each student was captured from the students' names on the evaluation forms. In order to avoid introducing external bias by the authors (teachers), the students were not informed of the purpose of the study until all presentations were completed and all data were collected.

During the second data collection stage, a survey instrument that was adapted and improved from Pinar et al. (2005) was used to measure the perceptions of presentation contributions to learning and skill-building, and the gender of the student who took the survey. Specifically, the survey instrument was designed to evaluate students' agreement or disagreement on (1) Presentations contribute to learning of class materials; (2) Presentations improve public speaking skills; (3) Presentations develop listening skills for key points; and (4) Presentations bring different perspectives for class learning; (5) Evaluating presentations by students is not good idea (Reversed), and (6) Listing what I learn from the presentation is a good way to learn, and (7) I become more involved when I evaluate the presentations. The first four questions measured the overall student perceptions toward the contribution of presentations to their learning and skill-building. The second set of three questions measured how much they appreciate their involvement with peer-assessment of the other students' presentations by having to listen and pay attention actively, in other words, their engagement. Because of its relevancy to the study and the anonymous nature of the data collection, gender was the only demographic question that was asked. A 5-point Likert scale was used, 1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree. The survey questions are presented in Appendix A

Because the authors teach at two different universities, students from these universities were included in the study. This allowed comparisons of the student perceptions of class presentation benefits from two universities. The survey is administered in various marketing classes where students are required to give presentations throughout the semester. Because of this, the survey was conducted upon the completion of all of the presentations, which was close to the end of the semester. Also, the authors selected the upper and lower level classes for the study and made sure that the students were taking only one of these courses to eliminate any chance of taking the survey more than once. A total of 220 students completed the survey, of which 51.2 percent were males and 48.8 percent were females. Out of the 220 students, 58 percent were from the mid-western university and 42 percent were from the eastern university.

RESULTS

Discriminant and Convergent Validity

In order to assess the discriminant validity of the seven items, the Principle Component Analysis with Varimax rotation was performed. The results revealed two clear dimensions with high loadings ranged from .63 to .77 (Table 1). The first set of four questions loaded on the underlying dimension, presentation benefits, and the second set of three questions loaded on the engagement (in peer-assessment) dimension as expected. The total variance explained was 94 percent, of which 35 percent for the first dimension and 59 percent for the second dimension. In order to assess the convergent validity (internal consistency) of the items under each dimension,

TABLE 1
Results for the Discriminant and Convergent Validity

	Presentation Benefits	Engagement
Presentations contribute to learning of class materials.	.77	
Presentations develop listening skills for key points.	.74	
Presentations bring different perspectives for class learning.	.73	
Presentations improve public speaking skills.	.73	
I become more involved when I evaluate the presentations.		.76
Evaluating presentations by students is not good idea(R).		.75
Listing what I learn from the presentation is a good way to learn.		.63

reliabilities were tested by examining the Cronbach's alpha coefficients. Because the standardized reliability coefficient of .70 for the first dimension and .62 for the second dimension, which exceeded the recommended level of 0.50 for an exploratory study (Hair et al. 1995), the scale items show a high level of convergent validity in each factor.

Student Perceptions of Presentation Benefits

The first objective of this study is to examine how student presentations and involvement with peer-assessments as part of course requirement contributes to the various aspects of student learning and improve their communications skills. Descriptive statistics of the responses are provided in Table 2, which presents the mean, standard deviation (SD) and frequencies of the answers to each statement. The results indicate that 79.8 percent of the students agreed and strongly agreed (combined) that presentations contributed to their learning of class materials, develop listening skills for key points (62.5%), brought different perspectives for class learning (84.6%), and improved public speaking skills (89.9%). These findings show that the most important benefits students perceive to get from the class presentation are "improving public speaking skills (mean of 4.32)" and "bringing different perspectives for class leaning (mean of 3.98)."

These results show that the students overall have a positive attitude toward the contributions of the class presentations. The mean scores of student perceptions of their engagement through involvement with peer-assessment were not as high as the scores for their perceptions of presentation benefits. However, the averages were above the mid point on a 5-point scale. A majority (54.3%) agreed and strongly agreed (combined) that they became more involved when they evaluated the presentations. On a reversed scale, 50 percent strongly disagreed and disagreed that evaluating presentations by students was not a good idea. Finally, 48.4 percent agreed and strongly agreed that listing what they learned from the presentations was a good way to learn.

Gender Differences in Student Perceptions of Presentation Contributions

The second objective is to investigate whether student perceptions of presentation contributions and engagement with presentations through peer-assessment significantly differ between males and females. As pre-

TABLE 2
Descriptive Statistics of the Student Perceptions of Presentation Benefits

Measurement Items	N Mean	SD	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
Presentations contribute to learning of class materials.	N = 218 3.81	.82	1.8%	7.8%	10.6%	**67.0%**	12.8%
Presentations develop listening skills for key points.	N = 219 3.52	.96	2.7%	15.1%	19.6%	**52.5%**	10%
Presentations bring different perspectives for class learning.	N = 216 3.98	.73	0%	6%	9.3%	**65.3%**	19.4%
Presentations improve public speaking skills.	N = 219 4.32	.80	1.4%	2.3%	6.4%	**42.9%**	47%
I become more involved when I evaluate the presentations.	N = 219 3.30	1.1	6.8%	19.6%	19.2%	**45.2%**	9.1%
Evaluating presentations by students is not a good idea(R).	N = 216 3.30	1.1	8.3%	**41.7%**	23.6%	20.4%	6%
Listing what I learn from the presentation is a good way to learn.	N = 219 3.21	1.0	4.6%	24.7%	22.4%	**41.6%**	6.8%

sented in Table 3, an independent sample t-test revealed no differences between females and males in their perceptions of presentation contributions except for one statement. Males agreed more than females that listing what they learned from the presentations was a good way to learn (t = 3.2, p = 002). Males valued writing down what they learned from the presentations more than females did.

Differences in Student Perceptions of Presentation Benefits Between Two Universities

Furthermore, the study investigated whether or not differences exist in the perceptions of presentation contributions between the students at the two universities. The independent sample t-test results indicated that significant differences exist between the students at the two universities. The students in the mid-western university agreed significantly more than the students in the eastern university that presentations contributed to learning of class materials, and improved public speaking skills (Table 4). No significant differences between two universities were found in the student perceptions of other benefits. Therefore, interaction effect of gender and school was further investigated.

Interaction Effect of School and Gender on Student Perceptions of Presentation Contributions

In addition, the study investigated whether there was an interaction effect of school and gender on the student perceptions of presentation contributions. A one-way ANOVA was performed (Table 4) after recoding the data to create four groups (males at the mid-western = 1, females at the mid-western = 2, males at the eastern = 3, females at the eastern = 4), which allowed for more specific comparisons. Table 5 presents the significant F-test and LSD Post Hoc test results. Male students at the mid-western university agreed significantly more than male and female students at the eastern university that presentations contribute to learning class materials and improve public speaking skills at $p < .05$ and $p < .01$ level, respectively. Male students at the mid-western university agreed significantly more than male students at the eastern university that class presentations brought different perspectives for class learning ($p < .05$). Male students at the mid-western and eastern universities agreed significantly more than female students at the mid-western university that listing what they learn from the presentation was a good way to learn ($p < .01$). These results suggest no consistent effect of gender and university

TABLE 3
T-Test Results for Gender Differences in Perceptions of Presentation Benefits

	Gender	N	Mean	SD	T-test
Presentations contribute to learning of class materials.	Male	109	3.85	.83	1.0
	Female	104	3.74	.81	
Presentations improve public speaking skills.	Male	109	4.38	.74	1.2
	Female	105	4.25	.87	
Presentations develop listening skills for key points.	Male	109	3.56	.95	.77
	Female	105	3.46	.98	
Presentations bring different perspectives for class learning.	Male	106	3.96	.70	-.28
	Female	105	3.99	.75	
Evaluating presentations by students is not good idea(R).	Male	107	3.34	.99	1.2
	Female	104	3.15	1.14	
Listing what I learn from the presentation is a good way. to learn	Male	109	3.42	.99	**3.2**[a]
	Female	105	2.98	1.02	
I become more involved when I evaluate the presentations.	Male	109	3.26	1.10	.71
	Female	105	3.33	1.08	

[a] $p < 0.01$

variables on students' perceptions of presentation benefits and engagement through peer-assessment. These results were also confirmed by testing the interaction effects of gender and school using general linear modeling in SPSS.

CONCLUSION

The first objective of this study was to examine how student presentations and involvement with peer-assessments as part of course requirement contributes to the various aspects of student learning and improves their communications skills. The results show that the students overall have a positive attitude toward the contributions of the class presentations. There was also enough evidence to conclude that students overall perceive their involvement with peer-assessment of student presentations positively. These results confirm the findings of prior studies (Boud 1988; Falchikov and Goldfinch 2000) that peer assessment promotes active learning by engaging students.

This research also investigated the potential gender effect on student presentations. Specifically, the study examined whether differences exist between male and female students' perceptions of presentation benefits and their involvement with peer-assessment of presentations. Only difference found was that males agreed significantly more with the statement that listing what they learn from the presentations was a good way to learn at $p < .01$ level. This may be explained by the differences in the learning styles of male and female students found by Wehrwein et al. (2007). In their study, male students preferred auditory, reading and writing, and using their five senses whereas females preferred visual, printed words, and using all of their five senses.

Differences in student perceptions of presentations and their involvement with peer-assessment were also tested between the students at two universities in order to see if there is any effect by the school. The students at the mid-western university agreed significantly more than those at the eastern university that presentations contribute to learning of class materials and improve public speaking skills at $p < 0.05$ level. Because no significant differences between two universities were found in the student perceptions of other benefits, the interaction effect of gender and school was further investigated. However, no consistent interaction of gender and school was found on student perceptions of presentation benefits and involvement with peer-assessment. These findings are supported by those of Girard and Pinar (2009) in that there is no consistent pattern of gender differences. Specifically, this study finds that male students do not consistently

TABLE 5
ANOVA Results for Gender Differences in the Perceptions of Presentation Benefits at Two Universities

	Gender-University	Gender-University	N	Mean	SD	Sig.
Presentations contribute to learning of class materials. F = 2.47; p = .063	**Male-Mid-western**		**70**	**3.99**	**.75**	
	Male-Eastern		**30**	**3.62**	**.93**	**.024[b]**
		Female-Eastern	**44**	**3.64**	**.83**	**.027[b]**
Presentations improve public speaking skills. F = 3.38; p = .019[b]	**Male-Mid-western**		**70**	**4.53**	**.58**	
		Male-Eastern	**39**	**4.10**	**.91**	**.008[a]**
		Female-Eastern	**45**	**4.13**	**.69**	**.01[a]**
Presentations bring different perspectives for class learning. F = 1.88; p = .13	**Male-Mid-western**		**69**	**4.07**	**.60**	
		Male-Eastern	**37**	**3.76**	**.83**	**.033[b]**
Listing what I learn from the presentation is a good way to learn. F = 4.19; p = .007[a]	**Male-Mid-western**		**70**	**3.41**	**.95**	
		Female-Mid-western	**60**	**2.85**	**1.0**	**.002[a]**
	Female-Mid-western		**60**	**2.85**	**1.0**	
		Male-Eastern	**39**	**3.44**	**1.0**	**.005[a]**

[a]p < 0.01; [b]p < 0.05

perceive the benefits of class presentations significantly different than female students or vice versa.

The implications of these findings are that (1) teachers can rely on improving students' learning of class materials using class presentations as part of their course assignments; (2) peer-evaluations of student presentations enhance students' engagement with the presentations and active learning; (3) students perceive that presentations contribute to the improvement of public speaking skills, and (4) teachers do not need to be concerned about gender differences in student perceptions of presentation benefits. Nevertheless, differences in learning styles between female and male students should be considered. These results provide useful insights. Given the overall positive student perceptions of the benefits of class presentations and peer evaluations of the presentations, this study shows that peer-assessment of other student presentations could be incorporated in as part of the presentation requirement.

It is important to note that this study did not aim at directly measuring and testing the learning styles of students based on gender. Future research should further test whether student perceptions of presentation benefits differ by specific learning styles of each gender. In addition, because this study was conducted with students only from two universities, a caution should be exercised in generalizing the results. Future studies may include students from a larger number of universities and also in other majors than marketing and management.

REFERENCES

Arvey, R.D. and R.H. Faley (1988), *Fairness in Selecting Employees*, 2nd ed. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Boud, D., ed. (1988), *Developing Student Autonomy in Learning*, 2nd ed. London: Kogan Page.

Canada, K. and R. Pringle (1995), "The Role of Gender in College Classroom Interactions: A Social Context Approach," *Sociology of Education*, 68 (3), 161–86.

Centra, John A. and Noreen B. Gaubatz (2000), "Is There Gender Bias in Student Evaluations of Teaching?" *The Journal of Higher Education*, 71 (1), 17–33.

Dwyer, S., R. Orlando, and C.D. Shepherd (1998), "An Exploratory Study of Gender and Age Matching in the Salesperson-Prospective Customer Dyad: Testing Similarity-Performance Predictions," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 4 (Fall), 55–69.

Falchikov, N. and J. Goldfinch (2000), "Student Peer Assessment in Higher Education: A Meta-Analysis Comparing Peer and Teacher Marks." *Review of Educational Research*, 70 (3), 287–322.

Gallois, C., V.J. Callan, and J.M. Palmer (1992), "The Influence of Applicant Communication Style and Interviewer Characteristics on Hiring Decisions," *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 22, 1041–60.

Girard, Tulay and Musa Pinar (2009), "An Exploratory Study of Gender Effect on Student Presentation Evaluations: Does Gender Similarity Make a Difference?" *International Journal of Education Management*, 23 (3), 237–51.

Graves, L.M. and G.N. Powell (1995), "The Effect of Sex Similarity on Recruiters' Evaluations of Actual Applicants: A Test of the Similarity Attraction Paradigm," *Personnel Psychology*, 48 (Spring), 85–98.

Hair, J., R. Anderson, and T. Black (1995), *Multivariate Data Analysis with Readings*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Hardin, R.J., K.F. Reding, and M.H. Stocks (2002), "The Effect of Gender on the Recruitment of Entry-Level Accountants," *Journal of Managerial Issues*, XIV (2), (Summer).

Hunter, D., T. Gambell, and B. Randhawa (2005), "Gender Gaps in Group Listening and Speaking: Issues in Social Constructivist Approaches to Teaching and Learning," *Educational Review*, 57 (3), 329.

Jones, E., J. Moore, A. Stanaland, and R. Wyatt (1998), "Salesperson Race and Gender and the Access and Legitimacy Paradigm: Does Difference Make a Difference," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 18 (4), 71–88.

Karns, G. (2005), "An Update of Marketing Student Perceptions of Learning Activities: Structure, Preferences, and Effectiveness," *Journal of Marketing Education*, 27 (2), 163–71.

Lucas, A. (1996), "Race Matters," *Sales & Marketing Management*, 148 (September), 50–62.

Nouri, H. and B.D. Clinton (2006), "Gender, Media Presentation, and Concern with the Correct Use of Words – Testing a Three Way Interaction," *Accounting Education: An International Journal*, 15 (1), 61–72.

Pinar, Musa, J. Russell Hardin, Zeliha Eser, and Jerry D. Rogers (2005), "Student Perceptions of the Gender Effect When Recruiting for a Sales Position," *Proceedings of the 2005 Conference on Emerging Issues in Business and Technology Proceedings*, (November).

_____ and _____ (2006), "Evaluation of Student Presentations by Students: Does Student Gender Affect Grades?" *American Society of Business and Behavioral Sciences, 13th Annual Meeting Proceedings*, (February).

Powell, G.N. (1987), "The Effects of Sex and Gender on

Recruitment," *Academy of Management Review,* 12, 731–43.

Wehrwein, E., H. Lujan, and S.E. DiCarlo (2007), "Gender Differences in Learning Style Preferences among Undergraduate Physiology Students," *Advanced Physiology Education,* 31, 153–57.

APPENDIX A
Survey Questions for Student Perceptions of Presentation Evaluation

Student presentations are a common part of most courses at universities. We are interested in your perceptions and perspectives about the student presentations. All the information given will be kept confidential. Please indicate your opinion of student presentations regarding the followings:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
a. Presentations contribute to learning of class materials.	1	2	3	4	5
b. Presentations improve public speaking skills.	1	2	3	4	5
c. Presentations develop listening skills for key points.	1	2	3	4	5
d. Presentations bring different perspectives for class learning.	1	2	3	4	5
e. Evaluating presentations by students is not a good idea(R).	1	2	3	4	5
f. Listing what I learn from the presentation is a good way to learn.	1	2	3	4	5
g. I become more involved when I evaluate the presentations.	1	2	3	4	5

You are: a. Male _____ b. Female _____

For further information contact:
Tulay Girard
Division of Business & Engineering
Pennsylvania State University – Altoona
3000 Ivyside Park
Altoona, PA 16601
Phone: 814.949.5259
E-Mail: tug1@psu.edu

Musa Pinar
College of Business Administration
Valparaiso University
Valparaiso, IN 46383
Phone: 219.464.5401
E-Mail: musa.pinar@valpo.edu

THE IMPACT OF CONSUMER FANATICISM UPON PUBLIC ATTENTION TO CELEBRITY DEATH

Scott Thorne, Southeast Missouri State University

ABSTRACT

Two icons of 1980s' entertainment recently passed away on the same day and while Farrah Fawcett's death received comparatively little attention, the death of Michael Jackson consumed media and public attention for two weeks. This article examines the impact consumer fanaticism had upon the public perception of the two deaths and the importance of the source materials surrounding each in contributing to public attention or lack thereof. The article closes with implications for marketing managers and suggestions for future research.

INTRODUCTION

Both icons of the late 70s and 80s, Farrah Fawcett and Michael Jackson achieved fame in their respective fields, she as an actress and pin-up, he as a singer and dancer. Both died on the same day, June 25, 2009, but while Jackson's death dominated the media for two weeks after his death, Fawcett's passing attracted public interest for one to two days, then dropped from view. Why? What causes the passing of one celebrity to seize the public interest for weeks while the death of another garners only the proverbial fifteen minutes of attention?

LITERATURE REVIEW

During the 1980's, Michael Jackson was arguably the most popular and highest paid entertainer of the period, with sales of over 750 million records, including the best-selling album of all time, *Thriller*. His follow-up album, *Bad*, scored huge numbers as well, though not quite to the level of *Thriller* and Jackson embarked on a successful career throughout the 80s and early 90s as the self styled "King of Pop." Gradually, public focus shifted from his career as an entertainer to his increasingly bizarre lifestyle, culminating in charges of child molestation, and the decline in his album sales reflected this. During the decade prior to his death, Jackson garnered more headlines and attention from his appearance and behavior than his music. However, just prior to his death, public attitudes had shifted and Jackson was preparing a sold out tour that had generated over $85 million in ticket sales (Rolling Stone 2008).

During the same period, Farrah Fawcett was the top selling pin up model. Her iconic swimsuit poster, published in 1976, sold between 8 to 12 million copies, making it the best-selling wall art of all time (Hoffman 2005). Best known for portraying Jill Monroe on the television series Charlie's Angels, Fawcett appeared on the series sporadically during its run, while attempting to launch a movie career. After a series of moderately received films, Fawcett returned to television, appearing in a number of critically acclaimed television movies but never again achieving the popular acclaim of her early career. Similar to Jackson, she saw resurgence in public interest just prior to her death as she produced and appeared in a well-received documentary about her life with cancer (Corliss 2009)

Both Jackson and Fawcett achieved their level of celebrity due to the impact of the fanaticism (defined as the degree to which one is a fan of a topic, subject, or person). The term usually has a negative connotation in the vernacular and is associated with ugly patterns developed from mass movements (Hoffer 1989, p. 5), but is used neutrally here) that developed around each. In general, it is difficult to predict what people or topics will seize the public interest and cause fanaticism to develop around the topic. Likewise, it is difficult to predict when an area of fanaticism will extinguish, though hindsight and examination of the area of interest will provide indications of the factors leading to the extinguishing (Thorne and Bruner 2006).

Several authors, notably Campbelll et al. (2004) and Hunt et al. (1999), have proposed models of fan behavior in which fans move from no interest in a topic to increasingly deep levels of fanaticism. The entry level of fanaticism, called the casual or dilettante, is typified by the person who watches Star Trek when it comes on or catches the afternoon baseball game on TV but is not unduly disturbed if it is missed. They have a casual interest in the topic but are not yet sufficiently motivated

to expand on that interest. The dilettante fan will catch an episode of *24*, visit *ESPN.com* to keep up on favorite teams, or occasionally pick up a copy of *Soap Opera Digest* at the supermarket checkout but makes no special effort to do so (Chamberlain and Rustin 2007). The next level is termed the dedicated level. At the dedicated level of involvement, the fan actively adjusts their lifestyle to watch a program, collects items related to the area of interest, or seeks out others with the same interest for conversation and interaction. The fan actively seeks out information about a person or area of interest, subscribes to magazines focusing on the area of interest, subscribes to podcasts, or uses TiVo to record numerous episodes of a program for consumption during a single sitting at a later time. In many cases, the newly dedicated fan is surprised to find an already developed fan-based community that serves to eliminate or mitigate the feeling of isolation or strangeness the developing fan may feel (Campbell et al. 2004; Jermyn 2007). Finally, there is the devoted level of fanaticism. As this level of involvement is reached, fans make major changes to their lifestyles in order to actively pursue the area of interest. More of the fan's free time is devoted to expanding involvement in the area of interest to the delectation of what others would view as a more rounded social life. The fan may devote sections of the home to showcasing the area of involvement ("shrines"), attend or organize conventions focusing on the subject, and endeavor to become recognized as an expert on the area of involvement. Fans may take leadership positions in reviving or rescuing the source material from obscurity or cancellation (Cagney and Lacey, Star Trek, Babylon 5) or in expanding fan-created materials beyond the source material though pastiches or fan fiction (Harry Potter, Lord of the Rings) (Beatrice 2007, p. 110; Sturgis 2005, 2006). Although both Campbell and Hunt's models were originally developed as theoretical constructs, empirical research has lent credence to the proposed models of multiple levels of fanaticism (Thorne 2004).

Participation by fans and movement through the various levels of fanaticism is reinforced by their exposure to different forms of source materials: primary, secondary and tertiary. Primary materials are those produced directly by or for the subject of interest, i.e., Jackson's *Billie Jean* or Fawcett's famed poster. Secondary materials are those produced by others with the approval of the subject, i.e., interviews or magazine articles. Tertiary materials are those produced by fans or others beyond the control of the celebrity or subject, i.e., the media coverage of Jackson's trial for pedophilia. (Thorne 2001, p. 4). The more material that is produced, the more fans have to discuss about their chosen topic of interest and the less likely they are to migrate out of their area of fanaticism (Hunt et al. 1999). Recent research by Fast et al. (2009) supports this belief as it indicates that well known celebrities, i.e., those with large amounts of source material, will generate more interest among fans than celebrities with smaller amounts of source material. This occurs even when celebrities with smaller bodies of source materials are considered by experts to be superior performers in their chosen field, such as acting or music, than celebrities with larger bodies of source material.

DISCUSSION

The available research supports the concept of three levels of fanaticism as proposed by Hunt. Fans process into the deeper levels of fanaticism through access to primary, secondary and tertiary materials. While it is exposure to the primary materials that drives the original fanaticism, it is the continued creation of secondary and tertiary material that maintains the deeper levels of fanaticism.

This helps explain the outpouring of public emotion that accompanied the death of Michael Jackson and the relative lack of interest paid to the death of Farrah Fawcett on the same day, as well as the concurrent deaths of Ed McMahon and Walter Cronkite. Fawcett, after her departure from Charlie's Angels, produced a steady stream of primary material, but failed to develop a steady body of secondary and tertiary material to maintain her status as an object of fanaticism. Relatively few interviews were conducted with her during this period, little notoriety attached itself to her name and comparatively few magazine or newspaper articles appeared about her during the last two decades of her life, except to focus upon her courage in dealing with her cancer. Due to the lack of secondary materials produced during this period, little in the way of tertiary material appeared either. With little material appearing to maintain her fans level of interest, and none appearing related to the primary material that originally established her as an object of fanaticism, she was unable to sustain the level of fandom needed to create a massive outpouring of interest at her death. Similarly, once Cronkite left his position as anchor of the CBS Evening News, he did little, aside from authoring a scattering of articles and providing commentary for assorted ratio and television programs, to keep himself in the public eye for the next three decades and he received little attention from the media or public regarding his activities or career. Once McMahon stepped down from his sidekick position on the Tonight Show to become a pitchman for Publisher's Clearing House and Cash4Gold.com, little secondary or tertiary material ap-

peared to drive fan interest in his career, aside from the odd story about his health appearing in the National Inquirer.

Jackson also saw a waning of his popularity from the heights he hit in the 80s, as his music and shows failed to generate the sales they had in the past. However, even as interest in his primary materials waned, his public lifestyle drove fan interest in the secondary and tertiary materials that developed around him. Jackson became a tabloid staple as articles focused on his lifestyle at Neverland Ranch, his marriages, plastic surgeries, cumulating in his trial for pedophilia in 2005. Monthly stories appeared in the entertainment media and headlines about "Wacko Jacko" appeared with regularity in supermarket tabloids for the last 20 years of his life. Even though he no longer produced primary materials of the quality of his work during the1980s, the amount of secondary and tertiary material emerging during this period was sufficient to maintain the fan base that had developed.

The focus on Jackson, however, was on his upcoming tour. Aside from sensationalistic headlines, there was no indication he was in poor health. The immediate shift in focus of secondary materials from the tour to his death took his fan community by shock, causing massive amounts of tertiary materials to be generated the fan base. The vast number of fan created materials was noted and reacted to by the new media, resulting in the secondary materials that dominated the mass media for the next two weeks.

From a practitioner's point of view, the media attention surrounding Jackson's death and the relative lack of it surrounding Fawcett, McMahon, and Cronkite's deaths confirms the public relations adage that "All publicity is good publicity." During the 20 years between the end of his reign as the "King of Pop" and his death, Jackson attained much more attention and notoriety as a result of his public behavior, his personal life and his trial for pedophilia then he did for his music. As a result, huge numbers of secondary materials, in the form of news stories and interviews, and tertiary materials, in the form of fan interest and writings were generated. A search on Google alone in August 2009 generated approximately 92 million hits. A similar search for Farrah Fawcett generated 1.8 million hits, while Walter Cronkite generated 1.3 million and Ed McMahon, a relatively few 340,000 hits. Jackson's death attracted much more media attention that did the other three and there was a much greater public outpouring of emotion at his funeral service than theirs, none of which had a funeral to which much public notice was paid or gained the broadcast time that was devoted to his memorial service, which was presented without commercial interruption, which only happens when the television news media view the event as having national importance, such as a presidential speech or news conference. The last death to garner such attention was the death of former President Ronald Regan in 2004. Ergo, at least from the viewpoint of the broadcast news media, the death of Michael Jackson was of equivalent importance to the death of a President of the United States, a clear indication of the importance the passing of Michael Jackson had assumed in the public mindset.

The public appeared, en masse, to forgive what it saw, during his lifetime, as aberrant behavior. Neverland Ranch, Bubbles the chimp, his behavior with young boys, and the changes in his appearance over the decades were all subsumed to a recollection of him as the quintessential entertainer of the 1980s and an overwhelming outpouring of emotion, not only among dedicated and devoted fans by among the dilettante fans as well. Even non-fans of Jackson were temporarily co-opted into his fan base by the incredible amount of secondary and tertiary materials produced during a relatively short amount of time. As Fast et al. (2009) noted, better known celebrities are more likely to generate secondary and tertiary materials targeted toward and developed by their fanbase and this output helps maintain a constant stream of dedicated and devoted level fans.

Ergo, it is imperative for any marketer wishing to generate and maintain a fanbase and fan interest in their product to maintain a steady flow of source materials. It is important to note that fresh primary materials are not necessary. As long as a steady supply of secondary materials are provided, and they are such that they attract the attention of fans, generally either new or scandalous information about the area of interest, fanaticism in the subject will maintain and tertiary materials generated.

Three potential future research streams steaming from this area are how much of a body of source materials must be developed in order to create a level of consumer fanaticism as was shown in Jackson's situation. Celebrities of more recent vintage, such as Tiger Woods, have developed an enviable set of primary materials but do not appear to have the same amount of secondary and tertiary materials surrounding them that Jackson did. How large a body of secondary and tertiary materials is needed to generate an emotional outpouring of the level that surrounded Jackson?

A second stream of research focuses on the triggering event. It took Jackson's death to trigger the fan reaction that swamped the news media for a fortnight. Is death the only event that will trigger this level of fan response or are

other events sufficiently epochal to set off an outpouring of consumer fanaticism such as was seen in Jackson's death or that of Princess Diana of Great Brittan several years ago? How could a marketer identify or develop less traumatic events to create such levels of consumer fanaticism and then exploit them?

A third potential stream was also proposed by Hunt et al. (1999) in that little is known about the extinguishing of fan behavior. Factors have been identified that move the casual fan into deeper levels of fanaticism (Thorne and Bruner 2006) but little to no work has been done examining what moves devoted fans to the casual level or out of the fan sub-culture altogether.

CONCLUSION

Despite having similar levels of fame for a time, Michael Jackson's death far overwhelmed Farrah Fawcett's, as well as others in the same time frame, in terms of media coverage and public interest, despite (or because of) the levels of public notoriety he had achieved. Over the preceding three decades, Jackson created a much larger and diverse body of source materials to support the fanaticism surrounding him than did Fawcett, Cronkite, or McMahon. The result of this was the much larger outpouring of public interest in his death and career than that of Fawcett and demonstrating the importance of the creation of a large and varied body of source materials to drive consumer fanaticism and maintain it even if lower quality or no primary materials are produced for an extended period of time.

REFERENCES

Beatrice, Allyson (2007), *Will the Vampire People Please Leave the Lobby?* Napierville, IL: Sourcebooks, Inc.

Campbell, Richard M., Damon Aiken, and Aubery Kent (2004), "Beyond BIRGing and DORFing: Continuing the Exploration of Fan Behavior," *Sport Marketing Quarterly,* (13), 151–57.

Chamberlain, Daniel and Scott Rustin (2007), "24 and Twenty-First Century Quality Television," in *Reading 24: TV Against the Clock,* Stephen Peacock, ed. New York: I.B. Tauris.

Corliss, Richard (2009), "The Golden Girl Who Didn't Fade)," *Time,* [http://www.time.com/time/arts/article/0,8599,1907180,00.html].

Fast, Nathanael J., Chip Heath, and George Wu (2009), "Common Ground and Cultural Prominence: How Conversation Reinforces Culture," *Psychological Science,* (7), 904–11.

Hoffer, Eric (1989), *The True Believer*. New York: Harper and Row.

Hoffman, Kevin (2005), "Touched by an Angel," *Cleveland Scene,* August 5, 2005, [http://www.clevescene.com/cleveland/touched-by-an-angel/Content?oid=1491587].

Hunt, Kenneth A., Terry Bristol, and R. Edward Bashaw (1999), "A Conceptual Approach to Classifying Sports Fans," *Journal of Services Marketing,* 13 (6), 439–52.

Jermyn, Deborah (2007), "Reasons to Split Up: Interactivity, Realism and the Multiple Screen Image in 24," in *Reading 24: TV Against the Clock,* Stephen Peacock, ed. New York: I.B. Tauris.

Rolling Stone (2008), "Michael Jackson – Biography," *Rolling Stone,* [http://www.rollingstone.com/artists/michaeljackson/biography].

Sturgis, Amy (2005), "Make Mine Movieverse: How the Fan-Fiction Community Learned to Stop Worrying and Love Peter Jackson," in *Tolkien on Film*, Janet Brenan Croft, ed. Altadena, CA: Mythopoeic Press.

Sturgis, Amy (2006), "Reimagining Rosie," *Mythlore*, 25 (Spring), 165–87.

Thorne, Scott (2001), *The Antecedents and Consequences of Consumer Fanaticism*. Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University at Carbondale.

Thorne, Scott and Gordon C. Bruner (2006), "An Exploratory Investigation of the Characteristics of Consumer Fanaticism," *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal,* 9 (1), 51–72.

For further information contact:
Scott Thorne
Department of Management and Marketing
Southeast Missouri State University
One University Plaza, MS5875
Cape Girardeau, MO 63701
Phone: 573.651.2921
Fax: 573.651.2909
E-Mail: sthorne@semo.edu

INTERNATIONALIZING THE BUSINESS PROGRAM: ONE COLLEGE'S APPROACH

Peter J. Gordon, Southeast Missouri State University
Kenneth A. Heischmidt, Southeast Missouri State University
*Jack L. Sterrett, Emporia State University**
Heather S. McMillan, Southeast Missouri State University

ABSTRACT

An international study experience is viewed by many in education as the best approach for business students to learn about the international business environment and world cultures. A comprehensive portfolio of study abroad opportunities will maximize the appeal of study abroad to the maximum number of students. Various locations, program lengths and timing of the offering are part of a comprehensive portfolio approach. However, the "build it and they will come" approach may not be sufficient. In order to maximize participation, a two level approach may be necessary. A combination of program offerings and a mandate to participate may be necessary to ensure that students avail themselves of study abroad experiences.

INTRODUCTION

The impact of both the marketplace and AACSB accreditation has resulted in a substantial interest in "internationalizing" the business curriculum and encouraging student experiences in schools of business across North America and throughout the world (Heischmidt 1997; Gordon, Heischmidt, and Greenwood 2000). An overseas study experience is viewed by many in education as the best approach for business students to learn about the international dimensions of commerce (Blasco 2009).

The first step in the internationalizing process is to offer a variety of programs that will meet the needs of various student circumstances. Many universities have developed opportunities for students to study for a semester or school year at another school outside of their home country (Gordon and Heischmidt 1998). These opportunities are usually by way of unilateral agreements or consortium arrangements, which allow the students to participate while paying only home university tuition fees. As the tuition cost is the same, the financial barrier is reduced. Complementing such exchange programs with a variety of scholarships may further entice participation. An alternate opportunity is that of a shorter term program for students traveling internationally for one to four weeks to visit businesses and commercial establishments (Gordon et al. 2000). These programs, in particular, appeal to non-traditional students or those students who are working their way through school. With such programs, the time required is reduced for those heavily obligated with work and family obligations.

However, there is often a disconnect between availability and participation. Once these programs are in place and on offer, how can a university maximize participation? After many years of various promotional efforts to encourage participation at the home university of the authors, more aggressive techniques described here have developed to move to a quasi-mandate for participation.

DISCUSSION

The "Carrot"

Students should be encouraged to participate in an international experience. The benefits should be communicated and every possible excuse that students might use in order not to participate should be addressed.

Elimination of Perceived Barriers

What stops a student from participating in a study abroad program? Numerous barriers, both real and perceived, prevent participation. Among these barriers are:

- No perceived benefit.
- Location/destination barriers.
- Language barriers.
- Time barriers.
- Financial barriers.

Communicating the benefits of a study abroad program is imperative in order to increase participation. Students should be assured that participation will not delay their graduation, and might, in the case of short programs over university breaks, actually allow them to graduate earlier. Other benefits that may be emphasized include:

- The value of such an experience being included on the student's resume should increase job prospects.
- The program will increase the students' cultural awareness.
- It will make the student a more informed, global citizen.
- It may ignite a passion for lifelong travel.
- Students will learn more than in a class-room setting.
- The program is an investment in the student's future.
- The program will be a life-changing experience.

The list of potential benefits should be both short-term and long-term and also include those of a non-academic nature. This is one area where select past participants may be able to best communicate the fun aspects of such a program. A careful balance between recreation and learning must be presented.

In order to appeal to more students, universities should develop a variety of programs to eliminate destination barriers. Semester or year-long programs need to be offered at a variety of locations to best meet the needs of a diverse student body. Some students want certain location to spur their interest – offering various locations makes for a much easier "sell" than trying to talk a student into a location in which they have little interest. Further, locations in which classes are taught in English reduce the language barrier. This does not mean that programs are geographically restricted to English-speaking countries. All of the programs in which the authors' university participates offer full semesters of business classes taught in English. Consequently, it is possible for a student to spend a semester in, say, France, without any advance knowledge of French.

Experience has shown that semester long programs are more appropriate for certain students, especially those on track for graduation, those who have the financial resources and the freedom/flexibility to be away from their regular home situation (Gordon and Heischmidt 1997). Bi-lateral exchange agreements or membership of an exchange consortium are the lowest cost ways of creating these options for your students.

However, the semester long program is not best suited for all students (Ladika 2009). Many students find it difficult to be away from their home for such a long period of time. This may be due to limited financial resources on the part of students (or parents), the need by students to work to obtain the financial resources for their education, responsibilities for others in the family such as caring for children or parents, or just a case of being uneasy with venturing out far from home because of limited life experiences. Many students, first college generation students as well as nontraditional students, fall within the situations mentioned above (Shallenberger 2009). These students still need to be exposed to international business experiences, but may need to have different options from the traditional semester long exchange program (Gordon and Heischmidt 2000).

To eliminate the time barrier, alternative approaches to international education need to be considered. In contrast to semester long programs of international study, a study program that consists of a shorter period of time may be appropriate for many university students. An appropriately designed short term program may allow many students, including a growing number of nontraditional students, a chance to experience international business in person while balancing the needs of family and jobs at home. A short term experience of one to a few weeks may allow students to take advantage of overseas experiences which requires only a limited absence from family and work responsibilities.

Financial barriers also need to be reduced. There may be a variety of approaches. One is to provide travel scholarships to select students. In the case of the authors' college, scholarship funds were made available to each professional student organization (for example, Alpha Kappa Psi, Finance Club, Society for Human Resource Management, etc.) This served the dual purpose of eliminating a financial barrier, but also rewarded participation

in student organizations. Alternately, scholarships might be awarded on a need basis, or by competition or some other means.

Promote

If the adage of "location, location, location" is true of retailing, then "promote, promote, promote" is the mantra of international education. Posters and flyers need to be prominently and frequently posted all over campus. Informational sessions need to be frequently held. As much as possible, in-class announcements need to be made. Students need frequent reminders of the options that are available to them. Using past participating students to address campus groups, such as fraternities and sororities may also increase the level of awareness. Perhaps even develop contests where such groups compete to see which can have the most members study abroad.

Direct e-mail campaigns can also be utilized. The more targeted the message the better. Obtain mailing lists of various majors and send a specifically targeted e-mail to each group.

However, one of the most effective components of a successful recruiting program is enthusiastic support of faculty members. Those with international experience should be encouraged to share their background with students.

And Now the Stick . . .

Regrettable, all the above actions will only motivate a small number of students to participate in an international experience. Participation rates of 10–15 percent of graduating seniors is considered above average. So the question becomes – how do we reach the other 80 percent – 85 percent of students?

Here the department created a dual approach. Faculty members need to be willing to promote the international study in classes (Heischmidt, Gordon, and Dobson 2000). Faculty members have to get students excited about international travel. The faculty member will help close the loop for the student. If the faculty member is excited about the program, so will be the students. Recruitment of students is a reflection of the support of the institution and advocacy by interested faculty members. It is a year long process.

While enthusiastic faculty can often be the best salespeople, a survey of the personal travel profiles of any given business faculty is likely to reveal a relatively large number of professors with minimal personal overseas experience and perhaps no professional international experience. So the first step becomes the internationalization of the faculty.

Unfortunately, like students, many faculty members do not have much interest in overseas travels, let alone professional activities. To encourage greater interest, consider including international activities in the College/Department Tenure and Promotion guidelines. In the authors' department guidelines, in all three areas of faculty member evaluation, explicit mention was made of international activities. Teaching a class, guest lecturing overseas or traveling with students overseas were included in the teaching component. Presenting a paper at an overseas conference or other professional growth activities overseas were specified in that section of the promotion/tenure guidelines. Even service was "internationalized" – advising an international student club, mentoring an overseas competition team, etc., were all specifically rewarded service activities with international aspects.

Next comes the focus on the student "stick." A new degree requirement was passed with would require all students to have either an internship or an international academic experience as a pre-condition to graduation. Few students would qualify for an exception to this policy. The expectation was that around 75 percent – 80 percent of students would opt for the international experience, while 20 percent – 25 percent would complete an internship. Some may do both. The value of requiring a "real world" experience of all students was viewed as essential for them to effectively compete in the job market upon graduation.

Here the creation of overseas opportunities for faculty and students comes together. The added number of students seeking an international experience has been, in part, accommodated by offering intensive classes of two to three weeks offered by our faculty at an overseas institution during the summer. Classes may even be team taught with host university faculty members. This would provide the opportunity for both students and faculty members to have an overseas academic experience. Creation of such short classes usually fits within the university's summer calendar while providing the faculty member with a summer overload class. Cost can be kept to a minimum by using partner university facilities. It might also be possible to arrange a reciprocal experience for the overseas university, where they bring a class of their students to your campus in the summer. This in turn might provide further internationalization as these students are integrated into U.S. campus life.

Such short classes overseas were quite inexpensive, costing students as little as $1500 more than a domestic on-campus class. With two or more years to plan for such an activity, few students could claim financial hardship – putting aside around $60 a month during their junior and senior year is hardly overly onerous.

It is expected that within two years almost 100 percent of graduates of the department will be able to show a real-world experience on their resume while faculty members are provided with multiple opportunities to enhance their international experiences as well.

CONCLUSION

The experiences of the authors providing international study opportunities for students during the last two decades have provided innovative approaches as to how to increase student (and faculty member) participation in the internationalization of the business school educational experience. If a faculty member wants to really impact a student's life, encouraging an international study opportunity may be the most beneficial and rewarding experience they will ever facilitate.

This paper attempted to look at the barriers that prevent student participation, and suggested ways to increase involvement. Various "carrots" were suggested as ways of increasing "voluntary" participation, as well as "sticks" to force students to think about ways to increase their job marketability by international program participation. At the same time, processes were suggested which may also enhance faculty member internationalization.

ENDNOTE

*Dr. Sterrett was formerly chairperson and faculty member at Southeast Missouri State University.

REFERENCES

Blasco, M. (2009), "Cultural Pragmatists? Student Perspectives on Learning Culture at a Business School," *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, Briarcliff Manor, 8, (June), (2), 174.

Carver, P.P. and J.T. Byrd (2008), "Marketing a European Experience to the Less Traveled," *Journal of American Academy of Business,* Cambridge, Hollywood, 14 (1), (September), 131.

Gordon, Peter J. and Kenneth A. Heischmidt (1997), "Designing Programs to Increase International Learning Opportunities for Students," *Proceedings of the Allied Academics, Inc.*, Las Vegas: (Spring).

_____ and _____ (1998), "Forming Alliances to Provide Lower Cost International Program Opportunities for Students," *Proceedings of the Southwestern Marketing Association,* 70–71.

_____, _____, and Regina Greenwood (2000), "How to Internationalize the Business Curriculum: Some Ideas That Work Based on Experience," *Proceedings of the Western Decision Science Institute,* (Fall), 308–10.

_____ and _____ (2000), "Segmenting the Market to Maximize Curriculum Globalization," *Allied Academics, Inc. Proceedings of the Academy of Marketing Studies,* 5 (2), (October), 11–12.

_____, L. Gresham, Kenneth A. Heischmidt, Bert Kellerman, and D. Sherrell (2000), "Short-Term International Study Programs," *Southwest Marketing Association Proceedings,* (Spring), 60–63.

Heischmidt, Kenneth A. (1997), "Internationalizing the Business Curriculum," *Marketing Management Association 1997 Educators' Conference Proceedings,* 4–5.

_____, Peter Gordon, and Joe Dobson (2000), "How to Increase Student Participation in International Programs: A Discussion of a Program That Works," *North American Management Association Proceedings,* (Spring), 14–16.

Ladika, S. (2009), "Beyond Stereotypes in Education Abroad," *International Educator,* Washington: 18 (2), 28.

Shallenberger, D. (2009), "Education Abroad for Adult Students," *International Educator,* Washington: 18 (1), 50.

For further information contact:
Peter J. Gordon
Department of Management and Marketing
Southeast Missouri State University
One University Plaza, MS5875
Cape Girardeau, MO 63701
Phone: 573.651.2914
E-Mail: pgordon@semo.edu

Kenneth A. Heischmidt
Department of Management and Marketing
Southeast Missouri State University
One University Plaza, MS5875
Cape Girardeau, MO 63701
Phone: 573.651.2912
E-Mail: kheischmidt@semo.edu

Jack L. Sterrett
Business Administration
Emporia State University
1200 Commercial St.
Emporia, KS 66801
E-Mail: jsterret@emporia.edu

Heather S. McMillan
Department of Management and Marketing
Southeast Missouri State University
One University Plaza, MS5875
Cape Girardeau, MO 63701
Phone: 573.651.2317
E-Mail: hmcmillan@semo.edu

AUTHORS INDEX

mma

Marketing Management Association

http://www.mmaglobal.org

MMA PUBLICATIONS

Journal for Advancement of Marketing Education
Suzanne Nasco, co-editor
Susan Petroshius, co-editor

Marketing Insights
Raj Devasagayam, co-editor
Carrie Trimble, co-editor

Marketing Management Journal
Mike d'Amico, co-editor
Charlie Pettijohn, co-editor

MMA on the Web
www. mmaglobal.org

MMA Publications Council
Bob McDonald, Chair
Raj Devasagayam
Tim Graeff
Rob Moore
Suzanne Altobello Nasco
Susan Petroshius
Mandeep Singh