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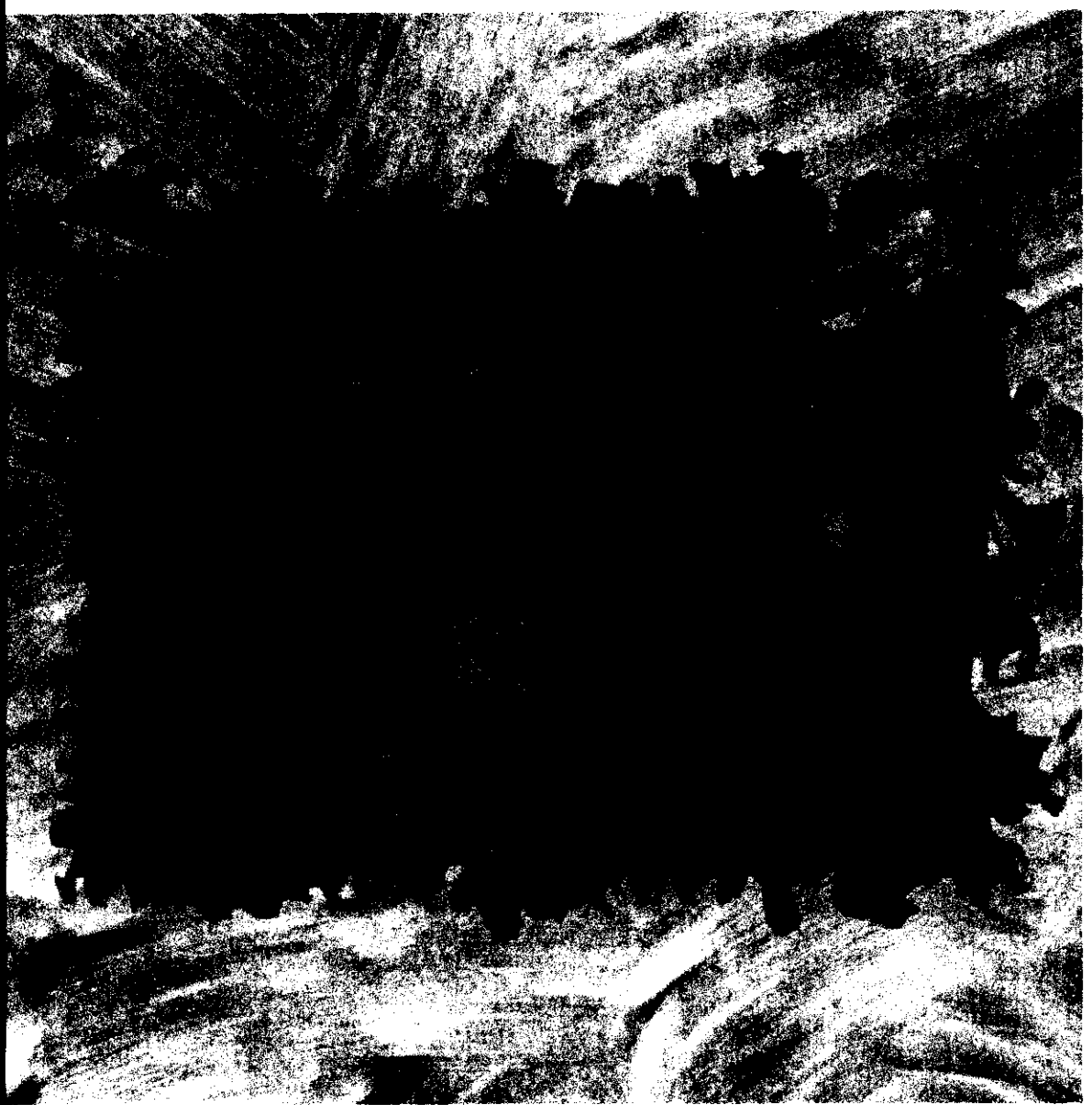
Building Knowledge and Skills in the 21st Century: Fulfilling the Mission of Marketing Education



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2007 Conference Proceedings

Barbara L. Gross and Brian K. Jorgensen, Editors

San Antonio, Texas USA

Building Knowledge and Skills in the 21st Century: Fulfilling the Mission of Marketing Education

Edited by

Barbara L. Gross, California State University, Northridge
and
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Marketing Educators' Association (MEA), est. 1978

PREFACE

This volume contains the proceedings of the 31st Annual Conference of the Marketing Educators' Association (MEA) held in San Antonio, Texas, April 26-28, 2007.

The conference theme, ***Building Knowledge and Skills in the 21st Century: Fulfilling the Mission of Marketing Education***, reflects the association's desire to present a conference in which theoretical and practical aspects of the teaching of marketing are brought together. These conference proceedings include competitive papers/abstracts and special session abstracts. Additionally, abstracts describing invited *Journal of Marketing Education* author presentations are included. Each competitive paper was double-blind reviewed. Authors of competitive papers were given the option of publishing the entire paper or an abstract. An editorial board evaluated special sessions. Chairs of special sessions and invited sessions were asked to include an abstract of up to two pages.

The papers and abstracts are presented here in the same order as they were presented in the conference program. Session titles on the program included:

- Program Design to Attract and Retain Students
- Ensuring Standards in Marketing Education
- Ethics and Social Responsibility
- Student Risk Perceptions and the Successful Delivery of Marketing Education as a Service with Credence Qualities
- Student Perception and Choice
- Comparative Teaching Methods
- What I Wish I Had Known About the Accreditation Process
- Applying CRM in Colleges and Universities
- Perspectives on Experiential Learning
- Improving Student Learning
- Teaching the MBA Marketing Research Class Online
- Integrating Periodical Databases into the Marketing Curriculum
- Interactivity in Marketing Foundation Classes
- Experiential Learning Experience
- Learning and Learning Styles
- Student and Faculty Perceptions of Technology in Marketing and Education
- Interactive Marketing Coverage in the Curriculum: An Examination of AACSB Schools
- Strategies for Reducing Textbook Costs to Students
- Closing Educational Gaps
- International Marketing Education
- Attracting Students and Faculty
- Motivating and Assessing Learning
- Preparing Students to Meet Employer Needs
- Consumer Perceptions
- Beyond Exams: Accountability that Makes a Difference

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The MEA conference and these proceedings would not be possible without the unselfish efforts of many individuals. We would like to thank the authors who submitted manuscripts for review and the many reviewers who lent their expertise by providing thoughtful feedback to authors and special session presenters. Additionally, we would like to thank the many volunteers serving as session chairs and discussion leaders at the conference.

Special acknowledgement goes to our President, Richard S. Lapidus, who has carefully and thoughtfully managed MEA and this conference over the past year and was responsible for selecting the conference's beautiful location. Through his commitment to MEA and his many creative ideas, he has placed a lasting stamp on this conference and MEA as a whole. We would also like to recognize our secretary-treasurer, Robert (Bob) Lupton. His behind-the-scenes efforts are the oil in the machinery of MEA and the conference. Additionally, we would like to thank our immediate past-president, Kenneth J. Chapman, for continuing to share his time, wisdom, and insights.

We would also like to thank the many sponsors that help MEA to provide a conference of high quality. We gratefully acknowledge the support of the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, College of Business; Central Washington University, Information Technology and Administrative Management Department; Journal of Marketing Education; Sage Publications; McGraw-Hill/Irwin; Direct Selling Education Foundation; Interpretive Simulations; and Pearson Education/Prentice-Hall.

Finally, we would like to recognize the support and commitment of our membership. Without you, the MEA conference would not have evolved into the special event that it is today.

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INCREASING STUDENT-FACULTY INTERACTION – HOW TO DO SO AND IS IT WORTH THE EFFORT?

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ABSTRACT

Faculty members face increasing workload demands. While saving some time, technology tends to add to a faculty member's responsibilities. Online courses, emailing and advisement are only a few ways technology imposes on our time (Glater 2/21/2006). As we attempt to stay ahead of the game, time constraints can often outweigh the benefits of technology. However, as many researchers note, one of the most vital aspect of a faculty member's job is their interaction with students. Research supports the idea that student-faculty interaction plays an integral role in the intellectual development of students. For instance, Astin (1991, 1993), Bowen (1977), Kerr (1994), Boyer (1987), Pascarella and Terenzini (1978, 1991), Tinto (1988) and others stress the importance of student-faculty interaction as a positive predictor for academic and social outcomes of college. Knowing how crunched for time many of us are, how can faculty members be expected to increase or enhance interactions with students?

In this session we discuss a variety of methods and means by which faculty interact with students, with particular regard to the increasing expectations students have of their faculty members. Interactions can vary from informal situations, such as a conversation in the hall, to more formal scenarios, such as during office hours, in team meetings or in class. The co-chairs of this table topic, Kristen Walker and Deborah Cours (California State University Northridge) have collected data about a "forced" interaction with faculty. This interaction with faculty members was assigned as part of the course requirements and then students were surveyed after about their experiences. Marketing majors and other business majors were included in this study. The results discussed include how "forced" interactions with faculty are viewed by students and whether "forced" interactions lead to increased future interaction. These research findings launch a discussion among experienced and novice faculty members and an opportunity to share success stories of efficient faculty-student interactions, the use of technology, and lessons learned.

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INTEGRATING ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTO THE MARKETING CURRICULUM

**Michael J. Swenson, Marriott School, Brigham Young University,
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ABSTRACT

In recent years, the search for entrepreneurial relevance in business schools has been given additional impetus. Entrepreneurs complain that business schools often fail to meet their needs. Their major concern is that the traditional marketing strategies and tactics of Fortune 500 companies simply don't work for start-up companies.

The purpose of this roundtable discussion is to explore issues regarding entrepreneurship and marketing education. Faculty, students, and entrepreneurs in residence at the Marriott School, Brigham Young University, have pursued several initiatives related to integrating entrepreneurship into the marketing curriculum. These initiatives include Courses – Creating and Managing New Ventures, Entrepreneurial Marketing, Managing Entrepreneurial Firms and Family Businesses, Financing New Ventures – entrepreneurship lecture series, student mentoring, and business plan competition.

These initiatives will provide the starting point for the roundtable discussion. Participants will share ideas, activities, and best practices regarding integrating entrepreneurship into the marketing curriculum.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE ACADEMIC CAREER: CHANGING VALUES, EXPECTATIONS AND DIRECTIONS

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ABSTRACT

Faculty entering the profession in the 1980s and 1990s choose to teach at institutions according to whether they preferred primarily a research focus or a balance of research and teaching. Those who choose to be more active in teaching were openly discouraged by their mentors who pushed for an academic research focus. A faculty member at a research institution was primarily engaged in developing journal articles, engaging in research with nominal teaching duties. While those faculties in more balanced institutions predominantly taught classes, became actively involved in advising, university service as well as student organizations and also engaged in a wide range of professional development activities. Universities basically structured resources according to these expectations.

In recent years external professional accrediting bodies have evolved in their mission and standards which subsequently influenced the criteria for members to receive and maintain accreditation. Unfortunately, many balances teaching/research institutions have not reallocated adequate resources to reflect expectations.

This has resulted in:

- Older faculty required achieving and maintaining academic qualifications despite high teaching loads and university service expectations.
- Lack of resources to support research activities in the form of student assistance, reduced teaching loads.
- Difficulty in recruiting new faculty.
- Difficulty in maintaining a professional qualified part time pool.
- Limited number of outlets for pedagogical research.
- Lack of incentives to achieve and maintain academic qualifications.
- Changing characteristics of student population who need more not less attention and advising.
- Lack of personal interface between faculty and students due to electronic media and internet classes.
- Changing atmosphere in the academic department where interaction is rare.

The purpose of this topic is to obtain ideas to improve the situations facing many mid career and late career faculty. To also solicit feedback on how faculty are coping with changing conditions.

EXPLORING MARKET ORIENTATION AND PERFORMANCE IN THE UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

For a number of years, colleges and universities have adopted marketing practices to help attract and retain students. However, there is little examination of how important a market orientation is to performance in colleges and universities. This study examines the extent of a student-focused market orientation and its association to performance at one university. A survey of college professors found positive and negative relationships between selected dimensions of student-focused market orientation and performance.

INTRODUCTION

During the past decade, there has been consider-able interest and research concerning marketing orientation and its impact on organizational performance. In one of the first studies to develop a measure for market orientation, Narver and Slater (1990) found a positive relationship between a market orientation and return on assets. Kohli, Jaworski, and Kumar (1993), also developers of a market orientation survey now widely used, found a positive and significant relationship to overall performance. Others have demonstrated how market-oriented organizations perform better in terms of market share (Deshpandé, Farley, and Webster 1993), long-run financial success (Ruekert 1992), service performance in hospitals (Raju, Lonial, and Gupta 1995), and customer satisfaction (Webb, Webster, and Krepapa 2000).

While colleges and universities have been adopting marketing practices as they seek to attract and retain students, little research has been conducted assessing how important market orientation is to performance of universities. The purpose of this investigation is to examine the extent of a student-focused market orientation among college faculty and the effect it has on performance at one university in the USA.

MARKET ORIENTATION AND UNIVERSITIES

Caruana, Ramaseshan, and Ewing (1998) investigated the extent of market orientation and its association with overall performance at Australian and New Zealand universities. This survey of department heads found a positive relationship between market orientation and overall performance. Harmon, Webster, and Hammond (2003), using the Narver and Slater instrument, demonstrated that colleges of business exhibit a lower level of market orientation than business enterprises. In 2006, Hammond, Webster, and Harmon modified the Narver and Slater scale to assess business schools' market orientation toward students, parents of students, and employers of graduates. This study surveyed deans of business schools, and found an association between a market orientation and performance. These studies demonstrate the relevance of the market orientation construct to universities, and suggest the need for further study of the applicability of it to higher education.

The practice of marketing generally assumes the acceptance and implementation of the marketing concept (Kohli and Jaworski 1990). For colleges and universities, this means adopting market oriented practices. Because professors act as the producers and dispensers of educational services, they are the major marketers for the university. Consequently, professors' acceptance and practice of a market orientation is one factor in the success and performance of the university.

Varying definitions of market orientation appear in the literature. For John Narver and Stanley Slater, the need to create superior value and a sustainable competitive advantage drive the attempts to build a culture of market orientation. It consists of and is measured along the dimensions of customer orientation, competitor orientation, and interfunctional coordination. While this perspective sees market orientation as a culture committing the organization to a continuous process of seeking superior value for customers, Ajay Kohli and Bernard Jaworski's (1990) view is a behavioral one where specific behaviors are related to generation and dissemination of market intelligence, and the organization's responsiveness to it. Intelligence generation concerns studying student needs and wants, plus how factors in the external environment can impact the university. Intelligence dissemination is the sharing and communications to all departments and faculty of this student information. Responsiveness is actions taken in response to this information.

Measuring Market Orientation in Universities

Caruana, Ramaseshan, and Ewing's (1998 and 1999) invetigations used a modified version of the

Kohli, Jaworski, and Kumar MARKOR scale because of its focus on behaviors and ease in implementation. The studies by Harmon, Webster, and Hammond used a modified version of the Narver and Slater scale—the MKTOR. The intent in this study was to use a modified version of the Caruana, Ramaseshan, and Ewing instrument. However, a panel of professors (four panel members) reviewed the MARKOR and MKTOR scales and suggested these instruments be used as guides to develop a new survey. The panel's recommendation was for a student-focused market orientation instrument that centered on the practice and behaviors that implement the marketing concept at the level of the individual professor and student. This effort is discussed in the methodology section.

Market Orientation and Performance Relationship in Universities

The practice of a market orientation is expected to be associated with higher performance in universities. Kohli and Jaworski (1990) stress three major consequences of a market orientation as causes for increased performance. The first is it facilitates clarity of focus in the strategy of the organizations. Its application should assist universities to develop a more student focused mission and vision statements. Secondly, it helps motivate employees, leads to increased job satisfaction and employee commitment. Finally, it leads to increased client satisfaction that attracts and retains students.

Performance can be assessed with judgmental or objective measures. In a review of twenty of the most cited market orientation papers, Dawes (1999) found 14 used subjective measures and six relied on objective measures. The university market orientation studies cited here all use subjective measures. The rationale for subjective measures in universities is that they are more appropriate for what is being assessed, such as the contribution to learning or the nation's intellectual capital. It has been suggested that many of activities performed by government institutions, like universities, do not lend themselves to standard objective measurements, and that these activities are in the public sector because of such measurement problems (Mintzberg 1996). For these reasons and the difficulty in collecting objectives measures, this research used subjective measures of university performance provided by the survey respondents.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

College professors from a large university in the American Southwest were randomly selected and asked to participate in a panel. Three hundred professors were selected and 180 agreed to complete a series of questionnaires on a variety of topics. No incentives or rewards were used to encourage participation. A total of 10 surveys were administered over a period of eight months. The student-market oriented survey and performance measures were part of the surveys. The usable number of questionnaire for this study is 109. The sample includes professors from 45 different areas in the university. The respondents have a mean age of 51, an average of 11 years at the university, 14 years average of college experience, 80 percent hold a Ph.D., 60 percent are male, 40 percent female, 83 percent of their job is primarily teaching and research, and rank is 32 percent assistant professors, 23 percent associate professors, 30 percent full professors and the remainder are non-tenured track professors.

Survey Instrument - Student-Focused Market Orientation

The scales used to measure student-focused market orientation are based on previous works designed to measure market orientation (Kohli, Jaworski, and Kumar 1993; Caruana, Ramashshan, and Ewing 1998, 1999) and customer orientation (Saxe and Weitz 1982; Customer Focus Research 1988; Brady and Cornin 2001). The procedure used to develop the survey was to have a group of four faculty review the market and consumer orientation measures, and recommend any changes or modifications. The result, after several iterations, was to shift the focus from an organizational and top management level to a faculty level. The purpose was to concentrate on those market oriented activities faculty commonly engage in when they interact with students. The panel suggested an instrument to assess four dimensions of student orientation, including intelligence generation and responsiveness similar to the dimensions in the MARKOR scale. The intelligence dissemination dimension was replaced with the following two factors: 1) advising and mentoring of students and 2) department head role or leadership. The rationale given by the panel for this change is that advising and mentoring are important activities of professors in their educational service delivery, and are similar to items in the market orientation scales, but are clearly student oriented and pertain to faculty activities. The professor panel also suggested that at the professor-student level, the department head role and leadership are essential to maintaining a focus on the student.

The result was a scale administered to professors containing forty-four items designed to measure the four dimensions of student-directed market orientation. It was measured with a seven point Likert scale ranging from 7=strongly agree to 1=strongly disagree. The purpose was to create a shorter scale assessing four factors representing department head role, intelligence generation, advising and mentoring, and responsiveness. A factor analysis of these forty-four items using varimax rotation and estimated with maximum likelihood resulted in four factors as shown in Table 1. Items were removed that loaded on more than one factor and those with a factor scores below .40. Then reliability coefficients for items retained in each factor were calculated (see Table 1). Next, negatively state items were reverse-scored. Then items in each factor of every dimension were summed and divided by the number of items to create an overall mean (see Table1).The result is a student-focused market orientation scale of 23 items with the following four factors: 1) department head role (six items, Alpha=.91), 2) intelligence generation (five items, alpha=.91), 3) advising and mentoring (six items, alpha=.85), and 4) responsiveness (six items, alpha=.79).

TABLE 1
ROTATED FACTOR STRUCTURE FOR STUDENT-DIRECTED MARKET ORIENTATION

Factor	Eigen value	% var	alpha	X	SD
1 Dept Head Role	7.93	34.46	.91	4.84	1.46
2 Intelligence Gen	3.02	13.15	.91	4.27	1.37
3 Advising/Mentor	1.46	6.32	.85	5.90	.79
4. Responsiveness	1.10	4.77	.79	4.34	.98

Factor 1 Dept Head Role - Item	
1. My department head makes efforts to remove obstacles that hinder serving students well.	.72
2. I know what my department head expects of me in serving students.	.73
3. My department head seeks opportunities to try new ways of doing things to serve students.	.84
4. My department head frequently gives me honest & direct feedback about how well I serve students.	.81
5. When there is a conflict between a student & faculty, my department head listens to both sides.	.62
6. My department head ask for, and considers, my ideas for improving the quality of our student services.	.86
Factor 2 Intelligence Generation - Item	
1. Information from student surveys are regularly used to improve service we provide students.	.66
2. We survey students regularly to access their academic needs.	.77
3. In our department, we regularly ask students about their needs, wants, and expectations.	.67
4, We use the information we collect from students to identify ways to improve service to them.	.81
5. We regularly collect feedback from students about the quality of the service they receive from us.	.80
Factor 3 Advising and Mentoring Students - Item	
1. A good professor has to have the student's best interest in mind.	.49
2. I try to achieve my goals by satisfying students.	.52
3. I suggest a program of courses that is best suited to the student's needs.	.90
4. I attempt to find out what courses would be most helpful to the students.	.86
5. I try to match student's educational needs to courses that suit that need.	.74
6. In my interaction with students, I try to determine what they need.	.68
Factor 4 Responsiveness - Item	
1. Administrators frequently remind us that it is important for us to put student problems first.	.74
2. What my students want me to do & what the administration wants me to do are usually the same.	.62
3. Student problems are most always to the student's satisfaction.	.46
4 We regularly give students information about our services so they will know what to expect from us.	.47
5. The administration provides us with support & resources that we need to serve students well.	.45
6. Our policies & procedures rarely interfere with serving students well.	.45

Survey Instrument – Performance

Performance was assessed using the items in the Caruana, Ramaseshan, and Ewing study (1998). These measures are subjective and captured the professors' overall assessment of performance and their ability to attract outside funding and grants. Because of the growing importance of recruitment and student retention (major goals at the university

surveyed), this dimension was added as a subjective performance measures. The ten items of subjective performance measures are shown in Table 2. Each item was measured using a Likert scale ranging from 1=very poor performance to 7=very good performance. These ten items, subjected to factor analysis using varimax rotation and estimated with maximum likelihood, resulted in three performance factors: 1) overall performance - five items with alpha of .90, 2) retention and recruiting - three items with alpha of .85 and 3) fund raising and grants with alpha of .68 (see Table 2). The items in each factor were summed and divided by the number of items to create an overall factor mean. These means were used in further analysis.

TABLE 2
ROTATED FACTOR STRUCTURE FOR PERFORMANCE

Factors	Eigen Value	% Var	alpha	X	SD
1 Overall Perf	5.15	51.54	.90	5.33	1.19
2 Retention & Recruiting	1.36	13.61	.85	4.87	1.20
3 Fund Raising & Grants	1.03	10.36	.68	4.46	1.61
Factor 1 Overall Performance - Item					
1. In relation to the resources committed, the improvements achieved by my department in the past three years has been:					.83
2. The level of cost effectiveness achieved by my department in the past three years has been:					.75
3. The performance of my department in creating student satisfaction in the past three years has been:					.74
4. The level of student services provided by the department in the past three years has been:					.69
5. The overall performance of this department in the last three years has been:					.65
Factor 2 Retention & Recruiting - Item					
1. The performance of my department to retain students as majors over the past three years has been:					.82
2. The ability of my department to increase graduation rates in the past three years has been:					.81
3. The performance of my department to recruit students as majors in the past three years has been:					.65
Factor 3 Fund Raising and Grants - Item					
1. The overall ability of my department in obtaining research grants in the past three years has been:					.82
2. Compared to other departments at this university, the overall ability of my department to raise funds in the past three years has been:					.58

RESULTS

To examine the association between student-directed market orientation and performance, multiple regression analysis was used. The results are presented in Table 3. Results show there is a rather strong relationship between student-focused marketing orientation and each performance measure. As shown in Table 3, department head role and advising/mentoring are significantly related to overall performance. It is interesting to note that advising and mentoring are negatively related to overall performance. For retention and recruiting performance, the only significantly related market oriented factor is role and leadership of the department head. Department head role and advising-mentoring students are significantly related to fund raising and grants performance. Again, advising and mentoring are negatively related to performance. Department head role and leadership are strongly related to each of the three performance measures. Advising and mentoring of students is significantly, but negatively related, to overall performance and performance in retention and recruiting of students.

TABLE 3
REGRESSION OF STUDENT-DIRECTED MARKET ORIENTATION ON PERFORMANCE INDICATORS

	Overall Perf	Retention & Recruiting	Fund Raising & Grants
R^2	.49	.26	.15
Adj R^2	.46	.23	.12
F	21.58***	8.05***	4.20**
Depth	.50***	.35***	.31*
IG	.15	.04	.09
A&M	-.20**	.07	-.19*
Resp	.14	.16	.02

Notes: **p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001*
Coefficients reported are standardized beta values
Depth = Department Head Role
IG = Intelligence Generation
A&M = Advising and Mentoring Student
Resp = Responsiveness

DISCUSSION

This research is another example of the application of a market orientation and its relationship to performance. A student-focused market orientation measure was based on the MARKOR scale, but expanded to assess dimensions like student advising and department head/chair role so important to the implementation of the marketing concept in universities. However, the scale needs further testing to ensure it is a valid and reliable measure of market orientation.

The results of the study support the notion of a link between market orientation and performance. Previous studies in a university environment showed the existence of a link between the responsiveness dimension of market orientation and overall performance among departments in universities (Caruana, Ramashshan, Ewing 1998). In this study, the responsiveness dimension of market orientation was not strongly related to any of the measures of performance. What is a significant factor is the department head role and leadership in implementing a market orientation. Perhaps this applies to other organizations, especially those service organizations where employees are constantly interacting and delivering products and services to customers on a daily basis. It may be necessary to incorporate a leadership dimension or factor to the widely used measures of marketing orientation.

An interesting and somewhat unexpected outcome is the negative and significant relationship between student advising and mentoring by the faculty and overall performance. Intuitively, one would expect that advising and mentoring would be positively related to student retention and recruiting performance. Yet, there is basically no relationship. The negative and significant relationship to fund raising and grants might be explained on the basis that advising and mentoring students takes time away from grant writing and other activities that may lead to fund raising.

The negative and strong relationship between advising/mentoring and overall performance may be due to professionalism of the faculty. After all, the acceptance of a market orientation and marketing practices in professional service organizations, like universities, has been described as less than enthusiastic. Professional culture has been cited as a barrier to implementation of marketing in some organizations. Barriers include professional traditions, autonomy, desire to maintain the status quo, attitudes that marketing is unprofessional, and the lack of marketing skills by many professionals (Morgan and Piercy 1991; Harris and Piercy 1998). Others have found that the marketing concept is seen negatively by such professionals as editors and research scientists (Whittington and Whipp 1992).This negative view of marketing may give rise to ideological conflicts arising between professionals who are internally focused on their professional job, while a marketing orientation or student focus calls for an external focus that is seen as an attempt to legitimize internal control over them and their professional tasks as professors. Therefore, attempting the implementation of a marketing orientation in professional service organizations, like the university, involve a potential for ideological struggle, resulting in a negative view of certain marketing practices with university performance.

The research has a number of limitations. First, the survey was conducted at only one university making the results limited in scope. Second, it may be argued that the student-directed market oriented scale used here is limited in its development and must be developed further before offering conclusions or recommendations for marketing practice in universities. Third, there is of course, no general agreement on how performance should be assessed. Perhaps more objective measures should have been used such as actual student retention rates and actual semester by semester enrollments. Finally, one could argue that professors have a biased view of their profession and the responses from them do not really reflect what they do.

The application of a market orientation and its relationship to organization performance has produced a large body of research. Yet, this relationship needs to be investigated further, especially in non-profit service organizations like universities. This study was one small attempt to do so.

References Available on Request

OPTIMAL CLASS LENGTH FOR MARKETING UNDERGRADUATE CLASSES

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ABSTRACT

Some educators believe that the longer instructors and students meet face-to-face in a classroom setting the more effective the learning experience. Alternatively, others point to the significant disadvantages of lengthier classes (e.g., student attention problems). The purpose of this paper is to assess which of three class formats (i.e., one hour/three times a week, one and a half hour/twice a week, or three hours/one time a week) is optimal in terms of student perspectives.

The sample for this study included a survey of 467 undergraduate students at four universities. The survey instrument included attitudinal items on each class format (short, moderate, and intensive), class format preference, and expected learning from each class format. In addition, students were requested to provide demographic and class standing information, such as major, classification, GPA, gender, work hours per week, and whether they were full- or part-time students. Students were asked four seven-point semantic differential scale questions about the desirability of the three class formats. These were followed with three seven-point Likert scale questions about how the class was conducted and how valuable it was for learning.

The results of this study show that regardless of major (marketing majors, other business majors, or other non-business majors), students prefer the moderate class format to the other two formats. Students may prefer this format because they may retain some of the flexibility in scheduling (three days are open for other activities) and yet may not be as stressed or fatigued as in an intensive three-hour once-a-week class, which allows for the maximum level of scheduling flexibility. As noted by Henebry (1997), even with a ten-minute break in the middle of a three-hour class, students struggle to fully attend to the content in the last portion of the class. This may in part explain why, regardless of major, students in this study believe the more intense class format will result in lower levels of learning than the other two formats. The theory that there may be diminishing returns between classroom time and learning (Fredrick and Walberg 1980) or an optimal efficient class length (Grimes and Niss 1989) may be in effect.

Students, especially marketing majors, may also appreciate that a moderate class format can also accommodate a wider array of pedagogical techniques than is possible with a one-hour class. Marketing majors may better appreciate this than other majors because of the nature of the marketing major itself. The marketing major focuses on developing more behavioral/creative skills than other majors (LaBarbera and Simonoff 1999), skills that are more congruent with pedagogical variety. This may explain why marketing majors have stronger preference for the moderate class format than other majors.

The results of this study suggest that more moderate class formats should be offered to students, especially marketing students. However, there may be administrative constraints such as facility utilization that need to be addressed prior to implementation. Some administrations have suggested that moving from a five-day-a-week schedule (MWF and TuTh) to a four-day-a-week (MW or TuTh) leaves physical facilities underutilized. In fact, colleges with high facility utilization rates may not physically be able to accomplish this shift. However, this assumes that a one and a half hour/twice a week schedule mandates a four-day week, as opposed to scheduling classes MW, MF and WF, thus maintaining and even marginally increasing facility utilization, because it requires fewer breaks between classes.

References Available on Request

INTERDISCIPLINARY PROGRAMS: PRODUCT VARIATION IN DECLINING HIGHER ED MARKET

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ABSTRACT

Although demand for higher education continues to grow at a slow pace in the United States, that growth is expected to be disproportionate across both the nation and degree programs. Projections for high schools in almost half of the United States, and overall trends in business colleges (Greenbaum 2006) suggest that there will be a decrease in enrollment. One major challenge for colleges of business at state funded universities will be to develop programs that will allow maintenance of enrollment and/or credit hour production in this mature and perhaps declining market. Interdisciplinary and/or intercollegiate degree programs may provide one solution. These programs offer options for students to customize their degrees, affording them greater opportunities to differentiate themselves. From the college perspective, these programs can enhance student recruitment, student retention, better utilization of resources, and most importantly credit hour production. There is broad recognition that businesses value interdisciplinary problem-solving skills. However, business schools have placed almost no emphasis on promoting it (Adams et al. 2006). Interdisciplinary programs provide an avenue to escape from the traditional silo approach to teaching found in most business schools and produce graduates with the broad range of skills sought by businesses today. In this paper, the authors review the current state of enrollment trends in colleges of business and identify successful interdisciplinary programs in other areas of higher education. Finally, they propose opportunities for interdisciplinary programs for colleges of business and outline an approach for assessing the attractive-ness of these programs to students.

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THE DEVELOPMENT AND TESTING OF A MULTI-FACETED CHEATING BEHAVIOR SCALE

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ABSTRACT

Academic cheating is a fraudulent means of achieving resources allocated within the classroom setting. As such, cheating is similar in form to other types of theft such as shoplifting. That is, cheating is analogous to theft, as plagiarism is to forgery. Thus, we argue that cheating can be seen in the same light as other aberrant activities. Based on shoplifting theories, we identified drivers of student cheating, then developed a multifaceted cheating scale and tested the contribution of each of these cheating drivers on the propensity to cheat.

Four variables (economic, peer, risk and lack of skills to earn good grades) were tested as predictors of cheating. Students cheat because 1) they cannot afford the time to study, 2) have a desire for higher grades but not the work ethic required for them, 3) other students engage in cheating behavior and 4) a believe that everyone cheats. Many students also believe there is a minimal risk of being caught and that if they were caught, nothing would happen. Finally, some students may not have the necessary skills to earn the grades they desire. Therefore, they resort to cheating.

After identifying the four independent variables, we developed a two-faceted cheating scale. The extant literature suggests students view cheating as having both serious and trivial dimensions, with serious cheating behaviors requiring a much more active role by the student and minor cheating behaviors seeming to be more passive.

We surveyed 148 students. A factor analysis provided evidence of convergent and discriminant validity. Reliability for each scale was excellent with alpha values ranging from .80 to .90. We ran two linear regression models; one each for the predictor variable against each cheating scale.

For each scale, a grand mean was calculated and regressed on each of the two types of cheating behavior. For *serious* cheating behavior, the only significant variable was the economic dimension. This suggests students give other students the answers during exams, copy from another exam, plagiarize and/or take an exam for someone else because they need the grade badly or because they didn't bother to prepare properly. None of risk, peer or unattainable grades is significant. It seems students feel the grade is important enough that they cheat without considering risk or what their friends are doing. It should be noted that the explained variance, while quite high, still provides room for improvement.

For *trivial* cheating behaviors, risk, unattainable grades and economic factors are significant predictors. Peer influence, once again, is not a significant variable. With high mean values of 3.72 (risk), 4.46 (unattainable grades) and 4.79 (economic), it is evident that for trivial cheating, it is seen as a risk-free behavior that rewards laziness or is a shortcut to achieving a higher grade where one normally could not be earned. Students perceive these types of cheating behaviors to be much less serious than cheating on an in-class exam. Time and effort stingy students are rewarded by multi-class submission of the same paper or studying an exam prior to taking a make up exam. It may be that it is simply easier to work *smarter* – i.e., share the workload – to guarantee more time for other class projects and to pool ideas. After all, it is up to the instructor to take the time to check on these things.

It is interesting that peer influence plays no part in either type of cheating. It may be that because it is perceived that everyone does it, peer influence is no longer an explanatory variable. This indicates a possibility of a paradigm shift in how students perceive cheating, which now may be the normative means of achieving higher grades. As such non-cheaters would be in a minority. Therefore, it is important to understand the methods other than threats that reduce cheating proclivity, especially given that many educators see monitoring and punishment as not being conducive to a learning environment.

References Available on Request

THE EFFECTS OF THE DIARY METHOD ON TEAM PLAYERS AND SOCIAL LOAFERS

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports on the use of group and individual diaries to control social loafing on the group project. Classes of students were assigned to either a "no diary" requirement (the control group), a group diary requirement, or an individual diary requirement. Although both diary methods were designed to prevent social loafing, neither appeared to do so.

After students used the individual diaries, it was discovered that peer evaluations were at their lowest level and firings were at their highest level. One interpretation of these results is that the individual diaries caused students to misbehave on the project, resulting in the low peer evaluations and a high number of firings. Another interpretation – one that this author believes is more tenable – is that the individual diaries had no effect on the students' tendency to loaf on the group project. In other words, this author believes that the tendency for students to loaf on the project was the same among the control group (where no diary was used) and the two diary groups. And, while neither the group diary nor the individual diary was able to prevent social loafing, the individual diary dramatically affected the majority of the class, i.e., the "team players," in a way that was unforeseen. That is, the individual diary and the proactive manner in which it was implemented not only made the "team players" extremely alert to problems caused by their loafing partners, but it also made the "team players" intolerant of errant behavior. For this reason, the individual diaries resulted in poorer peer evaluations and more firings than either the control group or the group that was required to maintain a group diary. It appears the real value of the individual diary and the manner in which it was implemented is that it causes the "team players" to be constantly aware of the follies of their errant partners. This vigilance makes the "team players" intolerant of any social loafer's shortcomings and empowers the "team players" to effectively deal with the problem

This paper shows how the individual and group diary methods affect peer evaluations and group behavior, investigates the convergent validity of the individual diary, and summarizes students' attitudes toward the diary method.

ALL FOR ONE ... AND ONE FOR ALL: THE VALUE OF A STANDARDIZED INTRODUCTORY MARKETING EXPERIENCE

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ABSTRACT

There are a variety of advantages to standardizing course content for multiple sections of a class taught by different instructors. From applying the quality enhancement principles laid out by TQM and Six Sigma, to minimizing inefficiencies or omission of content, to enhancing student learning and accommodating the requirements of accrediting bodies such as the AACSB, there is ample justification to proceed with the standardization of curriculum. Our marketing department has developed an efficient and effective way to address the potential for cross-sectional variance in a required introductory marketing course while still allowing instructors to use their own classroom management styles and teaching approaches. This paper describes the process we went through to create and integrate a standard set of concepts for all of our introductory marketing courses.

Each semester there are, on average, 15 sections and 600 students enrolled in the introductory marketing class. These classes are typically taught by six different instructors. This allows for wide variation in the concepts that instructors choose to cover in their classes. In an effort to standardize our students' learning experiences in the introductory marketing class, all faculty and part-time instructors began discussions in spring 2004 to identify a set of fundamental marketing concepts that are central to understanding marketing and to which all students must be exposed.

From this discussion, twelve key concepts known collectively as the "marketing models" were identified and agreed upon by our department. In addition to a verbal description, a one page visual graphic was created for each concept. In fall 2004 the concepts were introduced into all introductory marketing sections as required reading and provided electronically to all students. In addition, instructors teaching other marketing courses were encouraged to make connections between the marketing models and their course content.

The standardization exercise and the implementation of a uniform set of fundamental marketing concepts have provided a number of important benefits. First, we ensure that there is uniform coverage of all critical concepts across all sections of the introductory marketing course. It no longer matters which instructor teaches which student, because we can be certain that all students have been exposed to the same basic marketing concepts. Second, the key concepts were selected partly for their ability to be fundamental building blocks for future marketing courses in the curriculum. Exposure to these concepts makes students better prepared for their other marketing classes. Third, the focus on a relatively small set of critical marketing concepts can potentially lead to greater retention of these key concepts by students. We clearly signal to students that these are 12 critically important building blocks for other marketing courses and their future marketing careers.

Fourth, the standardized approach creates more opportunities to highlight connections between marketing courses. By referring to the models, faculty can more easily remind students how topics covered in a marketing research class might relate to a consumer behavior theory or a discussion in international marketing. Fifth, a standardized set of concepts creates a variety of opportunities for the evaluation and assessment of students. Not only can assessments be made of students across sections, but the standardization provides some guidance to determine levels of retention and learning as students near the end of their marketing program. Sixth, the standardization process used for the introductory marketing class can be utilized in any situation where there are multiple sections taught by more than one instructor. Finally, all faculty and part-time instructors met regularly throughout the standardization process to identify key concepts and to share valuable information regarding teaching tips, examples, cases, or classroom management strategies that were particularly effective. This increased dialogue about effective classroom teaching has been extremely valuable.

SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN THE MARKETING CURRICULUM

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ABSTRACT

Social entrepreneurship is the citizen-sector application of entrepreneurial dynamics in the context of social reform. This paper will first offer an overview of the emergence and importance of social entrepreneurship. Next, the relationship of social entrepreneurship and marketing processes will be discussed. Finally, a specific implementation of social entrepreneurship dynamics in a "conventional" entrepreneurship course is outlined and discussed.

THE EMERGENCE AND IMPORTANCE OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Social entrepreneurship is the application of entrepreneurial dynamics in the context of social reform. It involves entrepreneurship not by the business sector, nor by the public sector, but by the *citizen sector*—individuals or groups who work for social change independent from commercial or governmental interests. The term "social entrepreneurship" is credited to Bill Drayton, founder of a social entrepreneur investment organization called Ashoka: Innovators for the Public, based in Arlington, Virginia (Hsu 2005). Social entrepreneurship is closely related to non-profit marketing and/or management, and the term is indeed often used to describe basic efforts by non-profits to use marketing and managerial principles to raise money, solicit volunteers, etc. However, the process can be extended and enriched by a conceptualization in which social entrepreneurs are seen as transformative forces whose efforts result in systemic changes in societal patterns and policies (Bornstein 2004). In addition, social entrepreneurship differs from non-profit marketing in that social entrepreneurship is focused on the "venture creation" aspects of the social marketing process.

Both the demand for and supply of social entrepreneurial efforts have increased in recent years (Bornstein 2004). On the demand side, the global spread of communication technology has made people increasingly aware of the existence and extent of social problems. In addition, the perceived inability of governments to effectively address societal needs has increased frustration in many areas, including within the developed world. On the supply side, socio-political changes (e.g., the end of the Cold War), economic changes (e.g., growing middle-classes in many countries), and socio-cultural changes (e.g., global women's movements, diminishing racial discrimination) have given more people the freedom to address social problems (Bornstein 2004).

These dynamics are increasingly recognized by academia in general, and by business schools in particular. More than thirty business schools in the U.S., Canada, and the U.K. offer coursework in social entrepreneurship (Dahle 2004), including many top-shelf MBA programs, such as Harvard, Stanford, the University of Chicago, and Duke (Hsu 2005). Social entrepreneurship coursework at the undergraduate level exists in a plethora of disciplines, ranging from management/general business, urban studies, public policy, social work, engineering, and interdisciplinary studies. Special topics courses in Non-profit Marketing appear to be the only places in which social entrepreneurship is significantly addressed in the marketing curriculum.

SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN THE MARKETING CONTEXT

Social entrepreneurship represents a direct application of the *social marketing concept* (Kotler and Roberto 1989). The social marketing concept involves the conceptualization and implementation of marketing programs with the objective of increasing the acceptability of some idea or practice. Social marketing advocates emphasize that the real difference between social and "conventional" marketing lies in objective, not in the methods used.

In general, social entrepreneurship involves the application of conventional entrepreneurial dynamics—such as recognizing opportunities and managing innovation and risk—in the creation of social value (Mair and Marti 2006; Peredo and McLean 2006). Mort, Weerawardeena, and Carnegie (2003) discuss the relationship between social entrepreneurship and marketing, beginning by conceptualizing social entrepreneurship as a multidimensional construct that, because of the moral complexities inherent in the overriding social mission, requires coherence of purpose and action. Alvord, Brown, and Letts (2004) discuss the broad

objectives of social entrepreneurship, calling for undertakings that lead to significant changes in the social, political, and economic contexts for poor and marginalized groups. Spear (2006) discusses the strategic context of social entrepreneurship, developing a model that emphasizes collective and/or volunteer-based social entrepreneurial organization

Despite this spate of recent scholarly emphasis on the strategic context of social entrepreneurship, it should be emphasized that the *execution* of ideas is more important than the mere the conception of ideas or the general call for socially beneficial programs (Bornstein 2004; Zietlow 2001). In this light, the basic marketing mix variables can be applied in the social entrepreneurial context. The "customer benefit" associated with social entrepreneurship most often involves the development of a service or set of services that address social needs (Roberts and Woods 2005). But while service may be the core of the social entrepreneurial benefit, there can often be products (e.g., the Lance Armstrong bracelets) and/or experiences (e.g., benefit concerts) associated with the socially beneficial service. While "pricing" is perhaps not a directly relevant concept in the social entrepreneurship context, it is nonetheless important to consider the *costs* to beneficiaries (e.g., opportunity costs). "Distribution" is extremely important in social entrepreneurship, particularly with respect to projects that target impoverished areas that have poorly-developed infrastructure. Finally, "promotion" or marketing communication can be a crucial element of the success of social entrepreneurial projects. Given that social entrepreneurship is commonly undertaken under low-budget conditions, such communications efforts often involve non-traditional forms and channels. Indeed, among the factors found to be associated with social entrepreneurial success are social networking and forming cooperative networks among for-profit and non-profit organizations (Sharir and Lerner 2006). Municipal governments also often provide resource support for social entrepreneurial endeavors, including assistance with marketing communication efforts designed to solicit funding, donation, and volunteer support (Korosec and Berman 2006).

CASE EXAMPLE: IMPLEMENTATION OF SE DYNAMICS IN A TRADITIONAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP COURSE

Given the important relationship between social entrepreneurship and marketing, it follows that social entrepreneurship can and should be incorporated into the marketing curriculum. This section will outline an application of social entrepreneurship in a senior-level Entrepreneurship course offered as an elective in the Marketing department of a northeastern U.S. college. The specific class to be discussed here was held in the fall semester of 2006, with a class size of twenty-six.

The application of social entrepreneurship took three main forms: the textbook, in-class case discussions, and the final project. Before discussion of this application, it should be noted that, despite the significant social entrepreneurship elements of the course, traditional entrepreneurship topics also were introduced throughout the semester. These were drawn from several entrepreneurship texts, and included such topics as feasibility analysis, industry/competitor analysis, developing business models, financial viability, and entrepreneurial management. In-class cases in traditional entrepreneurial contexts were used to help students understand these concepts. Ultimately, however, these concepts were also applied in the social entrepreneurial context.

The textbook for the course was *How to Change the World: Social Entrepreneurs and the Power of New Ideas* (2004) by David Bornstein, cited several times earlier in this article. This book offers a combination of chapters that outline important general issues in social entrepreneurship, and chapters that profile successful social entrepreneurs. A striking aspect of the book is the degree to which the importance of marketing is acknowledged and emphasized. Indeed, this book provides extraordinary insights into marketing concepts and applications. Consider, for example, this quotation from Bill Drayton: "I don't believe that *conceiving* an idea and *marketing* it are different. Every day you're modifying the idea. You're seeing new opportunities. You're seeing new nuances of problems. It's a continuous process." (Bornstein 2004, p.119, emphasis in original).

In-class case discussions helped students connect traditional entrepreneurial concepts and practices with the context of social entrepreneurship. The cases involved both creative vision (e.g., brainstorming sets of potential solutions for social problems) and creative problem-solving (e.g., development of marketing-based implementation of solutions to problems). Emphasis was placed on the application of marketing principles throughout these discussions, from the broad application of the social marketing concept to specific factors such as value-chain dynamics, market research, and integrated marketing communication.

The most significant social entrepreneurship aspect of the course was the final project, for which students prepared a marketing plan/proposal for a new social entrepreneurial venture. A written report and oral presentation were required. The "idealized" objective of the project was to develop a marketing plan of such a compelling nature that it could be considered for funding from Ashoka or a similar organization. Again, the structure of the project reflected the overall course integration of traditional and social entrepreneurship dynamics, as reflected in the general project outline:

Part One: Feasibility Analysis

1. Description of the Social Entrepreneurial Project and its Value (identification of problem, target beneficiaries, proposed benefits, costs to beneficiaries)
2. "Market" Feasibility (competitive dynamics and positioning)
3. Organizational Resource and Infrastructure Requirements and Feasibility
4. Financial Resource Requirements and Feasibility

Part Two: Implementation Plan and Value-Delivery Dynamics

1. Beneficiaries: Method of Value-Delivery and Logistical Details
2. Marketing Dynamics for Resource Acquisition
3. Integrated Marketing Communication Plan
4. Risk Analysis and Contingency Plan

Students formed groups of three or four members. The groups then decided on a social problem to address in their project. To facilitate this, students were assigned a short homework assignment in which they outlined three social problems that they as individuals found compelling and especially relevant. This made the subsequent group discussions quite rich, and all of the groups quickly agreed on project topics. The completed project topics were:

- Alternative athletics infrastructure in inner cities
- Infrastructure support for low-income housing
- Support services for AIDS victims in India
- Alternative medicine services for senior citizens
- Job-training and work support services for the teenage ex-convicts
- Access to computer technology for low-income households
- Improved logistics for food donation services

In general, the projects were rigorous regarding the application of both feasibility analysis and implementation. Also, perhaps because almost all of the students were marketing majors, their discussions of value-delivery and marketing communication were insightful and creative. In addition to the regular course evaluation, students were solicited for feedback specifically regarding the project. Students reported that the social entrepreneurial nature of the project (1) helped them feel good about the social impact of their proposals, in contrast to purely for-profit entrepreneurship; (2) helped them understand the application of social responsibility in marketing; and (3) added to the overall challenge of the project, because of the multiple stakeholders involved and the intangible nature of benefits in some cases.

FINAL REFLECTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

While the incorporation of social entrepreneurship dynamics in a traditional entrepreneurship course proved to be a natural match, other marketing courses are certainly amenable to such implementation. We recommend that marketing educators look for opportunities for social entrepreneurial applications across the marketing curriculum. For example, Principles of Marketing, Marketing Management, and other courses that either introduce or enhance students' understanding of marketing strategy and implementation have the potential for social entrepreneurial application. More specialized courses such as Integrated Marketing Communication, Consumer Behavior, and Marketing Research can include discussion and/or application of those aspects of social entrepreneurship relevant to those areas.

Ultimately, the potential for a distinct Social Entrepreneurship course based in the Marketing department certainly exists, perhaps even within the format of Special Topics or Advanced Topics in Marketing. Based on the extraordinary learning experiences associated with the implementation described herein, we strongly recommend that marketing departments consider such an offering.

Regardless of the particular form of implementation, social entrepreneurship can provide unique learning experiences and outcomes for marketing students. Understanding social entrepreneurship makes ethics and social responsibility a real-world, applicative aspect of the marketing curriculum. In addition, exposure to social entrepreneurship provides marketing students with an understanding of the

broader scope in which marketing principles can be applied, and can orient students toward non-traditional marketing employment opportunities in the citizen sector (e.g., idealist.org, etc.).

Perhaps the most poignant validation of the importance of social entrepreneurship came in October 2006 when Muhammed Yunus, the founder of Grameen Bank, a micro-financing institution that provides grass-roots funding for entrepreneurial efforts in poverty-stricken regions of Bangladesh, was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize. This award contributes greatly to the overall perception that business processes can indeed change the world in positive ways, and should serve to enlighten marketing educators as to the great potential for the infusion of such notions into our curricula.

References Available on Request

THE IMPACT OF RELIGIOUSLY AFFILIATED UNIVERSITIES AND COURSES IN ETHICS AND RELIGIOUS STUDIES ON STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD BUSINESS ETHICS

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ABSTRACT

Unfortunate unethical events are continuing in the business arena and now more than ever these business judgmental shortcoming focus attention on the ethics of business executives. Thus, colleges and universities must continue to address business ethics as they prepare and train the next generation of executives. Educational institutions should be concerned with the environmental factors and curricular additions or modifications that may impact their graduating students who will become future business leaders.

The purpose of this study is to examine students' attitude toward business ethics and to determine: (1) if attending a religiously affiliated educational institution impact these ethical attitudes, and (2) if completing ethics courses and/or religious studies courses effects these ethical attitudes.

A questionnaire was completed by a quasi random convenience sample of undergraduate students at six different colleges and universities located in the northeast region of the United States. Completed questionnaires were collected from 771 undergraduate students.

The survey consisted of the Attitudes Towards Business Ethics Questionnaire (ATBEQ) (Preble and Reichel 1988) as well as questions gathering approximate demographic information.

There is evidence to suggest that students attending religiously affiliated colleges and universities may have attitudes about business that are more ethical. Additionally, the argument that ethics can be taught is supported. Business majors who had completed at least one ethics course were found to have a more strict ethical perspective. No differences were found with non-business majors who had one or more ethics courses compared to those students that did not complete such a course.

Results also indicated that business majors with one or more religious studies course were slightly more ethical in their outlooks. The influence of religious studies courses on ethical attitudes was far greater for non-business majors.

The implications are that ethical education and institutional climate may play a role in effectively shaping students attitudes about business ethics. This study suggests that completing ethics courses for business majors and religious studies courses for non-business majors may impact undergraduate students' attitudes towards business ethics. Colleges and universities must continue to focus on the challenges and address opportunities to achieve success in business ethics education.

References Available on Request

BUILDING UNDERSTANDING OF MARKETING ETHICS THROUGH COLLABORATIVE LEARNING ONLINE

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ABSTRACT

This paper argues the utility of online collaborative learning in marketing ethics education. It presents initial findings from an analysis of student interaction during an online element of an Open University (OU) Business School course on fundraising, where the management of ethics by the students' organisations are considered and compared. The study reveals the importance of context (online, personal and professional) in how online learners work with each other to develop knowledge and understanding. Second, drawing on this analysis, the paper ventures some brief recommendations for designing collaborative learning experiences aimed at developing ethically competent marketers.

INTRODUCTION

This paper presents initial findings from an analysis of collaborative learning about ethics during an online element of an Open University (OU) Business School course on fundraising (an area of marketing requiring stringent ethics). Of particular interest is the importance in this process of context, not only the immediate context of the text-based conferencing medium itself, but also the professional and personal contexts of the participants themselves. Second, drawing on this analysis, the paper ventures some brief recommendations for designing collaborative learning experiences aimed at developing ethically competent marketers.

ETHICS – A SITE UNDER CONSTRUCTION?

Valuing collaboration in learning, whether online or in other settings, implies an epistemology which acknowledges learners' mental constructions of the world as valid knowledge rather than conceiving knowledge as an external, consistent and objective reality – an approach which has become known as constructivism (Salmon 2003; Jonasssen 1991). Bednar et al. (1991) point to the implications for education: " ... the learner is building an internal representation of knowledge, a personal interpretation of experience .... Conceptual growth comes from the sharing of multiple perspectives and simultaneous changing of our internal representations in response to those perspectives as well as through cumulative experience." (p.91).

Rowntree (1995) appears to value collaborative learning as skills development in the area of learning itself, rather than as a route to subject knowledge or understanding. For him its lesson is: 'not so much product (e.g. information) as process – in particular the creative cognitive process of offering up ideas, having them criticised or expanded on, and getting the chance to reshape them (or abandon them) in the light of peer discussion.' (p. 207).

But if a group of learners flounders on a complex and confusing subject like ethics, what, in the framework of constructivism, is to rescue them? The traditional liberal argument is that freedom of speech drives bad ideas out by allowing them to be challenged and replaced by better ones. Give collaborative learners long enough and they should, according to this theory, get it right in the end. But we are concerned with learners in the time-limited, curriculum-focused framework of formal education. Far from encouraging the abdication of pedagogic responsibility, constructivism throws down a challenge to educators to create an architecture offering students productive autonomy alongside the secure expectation of achieving agreed learning outcomes within the time and resources available.

Constructivism, Learning and Professional Knowledge

This challenge is worth accepting if only on pragmatic grounds. A number of studies show that the kind of collaborative interactions associated with constructivism in practice trigger cognitive mechanisms (such as explanation, internalisation, conflict and the recognition of discrepancies) which associate with understanding, learning and metacognition (Goodyear 2002; Thorpe and Godwin 2006).The online setting facilitates this considerably by allowing postings to be read, mulled over, and referred back to as appropriate. It also obliges participants to take ownership of their contributions more directly than might be the case in a face to face setting. Everything online is attributable and on the record.

Furthermore, professional knowledge (such as that which underpins ethical marketing activity) is itself the product of constructivist processes. Developed and promulgated in a particular community, a body of specific knowledge is one of the distinguishing marks of a profession (Eraut 1994). Industry ethical

codes or conventions are an important expression of this kind of knowledge. Vardy and Grosch (1999, p.4) point out the etymological root of the word, the Greek *ethikos*, denoting 'custom' or 'usage', a concept which makes no sense outside of a participatory, social setting. But professional ethics do not operate in isolation from a wider reality. They are, after all, developed to manage the moral dilemmas presented by balancing the internal and external interests at play in different professional communities as they interface with the larger world.

For these reasons (its cognitive advantages, its capacity for ownership and reflection, and its truth to processes of professional knowledge creation) collaborative learning online recommends itself to teaching and learning about marketing ethics.

METHODOLOGY

This data for this study was gathered from online collaboration by students preparing for the first of three assignments in a six-month blended learning course in fundraising run by the OU Business School in association with the Institute of Fundraising (the UK lead industry body for fundraising). The course assumes some experience in fundraising, either on a paid or voluntary basis, and is designed as a widely-accessible route to a nationally-recognised industry qualification. In spite of their common professional orientation, the course's students since its inception in 2002 have demonstrated considerable variation in experience and specialisation within the overall fundraising function. Their diversity makes them typical of the OU student population more generally. Informed consent was sought from all participants, and the data anonymised before publication.

The Nature of the Assignment

The assignment requires the students to compare the way their own organisation ensures ethical fundraising practice with how this is ensured in the organisation of at least one other colleague in their regionally-based 16-strong tutor group. The question stipulates that the comparison must be based on information exchanged using the web forum to which each tutor group has access

A number of delivery modes converge on this assignment – face-to-face teaching, online exchanges (using FirstClass conferencing software) and printed study texts. The assignment is introduced at a face-to-face tutorial for each regional group. Early student messages in the appropriate web forum tend to refer back to this 'live' tutorial, as the task-related discussion begins. At this point the course reading is covering themes around fundraising ethics (for example the representation of client groups in promotional material).The relevant web forums have a relatively brief life of up to three weeks, after which the students submit individual assignments (electronically) before moving on to the next set of learning tasks. It is therefore essential for students to address the collaborative task swiftly, and the initial personal encounter accelerates the formation of the necessary trust to do so effectively (cf. Castelfranchi 2002).

The assignment itself is formative. In the cohort under study, it was submitted by 93 students from an initial registration of 104. Interestingly, only 73 students actually posted in the relevant forums suggesting that a significant number of their colleagues compared ethical practice in another organisation without reciprocating with their own information. Indeed, one or two of the later messages in the forums were from students apologising for not having contributed, but acknowledging the help they had received. This demonstrates that collaboration within the exercise as a whole was variable, which could be seen as consistent with the voluntary conditions under which collaboration is likely to flourish.

Data Analysis

The data consists of records of the messages constituting the collaborative work in each web forum. Because of the relatively short lives of each forum this data was not so extensive as to suggest the 'corpus methods' approach often associated with computer-mediated communication (McEnery and Wilson 1996). Instead the analysis proceeded qualitatively, through repeated readings of the messages in each forum, identifying and coding recurrent themes, and noting the varieties of interrelatedness of messages.

The coding was not predefined, but developed from the data, and modified as further themes and sub-themes developed (Miles and Huberman 1984). However, taking account of the relevant literature about online communication, the issue of context as a sub theme became increasingly prominent and eventually formed the framework around which the analysis and discussion proceeded.

DISCUSSION

The online setting presents participants with a learning environment many of whose variables are centrally determined. Preece (2000) divides them

into the two broad categories of usability and sociability, respectively the technical affordances and social policies which set the scene for collaborative activity online. But more importantly, like any form of discourse, computer-mediated communication creates its own context. Participants begin to forge this even before the collaboration starts – bringing a variety of expectations to the exercise. Their presuppositions are subsequently open to challenge by developments in the interaction itself. So, in spite of terms like 'online environment' (or indeed 'the online setting' with which I began this paragraph) which imply that context is something which exists separately from discourse, it might be more accurate to see it as something which unfolds alongside, or even as a result of it (Jones 2002).

Immediate Context

The data revealed three levels on which this sense of context operated to affect the collaboration. First was the immediate context of the forum itself. With six different tutor groups working separately (and one of them subdivided further), forums showed considerable variability in how the task was approached. Early messages set formal precedents (dialogicality at work). The use of attachments is a case in point. One conference was populated early by a series of message attachments of written ethics policies or similar statements, but little direct discussion. This prompted a number of self-deprecatory messages from other participants with attachments containing their reflections on not having a written ethical policy. One such was titled '*Ethical policy (or lack of).doc*' (Forum 2, Message 12), and a later message in the same forum read '*Attached are details surrounding the non existence of the ethical policy for XY Charity! I hope I have given clear information, should anyone have any questions or comments feel free to contact me. Emily :o)*' (Forum 2, Message 14). The early messages had created the expectation of attachments as the main vehicle for meaningful contribution, as well as the impression of the desirability of a written ethics policy as a badge of a properly-run charity. Emily's emoticon rounds off the tone of cheerful self-deprecation evident in her message (and typical of this stage of the forum's development in terms of the somewhat detached social presence being created by participants by focusing interaction away from messages to attachments).

Following an intervention from the tutor, and the surfacing of several new participants, the discussion became more message based, and the attachments died away. To some extent this is because a critical mass of policies had now assembled for scrutiny (reducing participants' anxiety about the successful outcome of the comparison task) but it also marked a maturation of the discourse into a less nervy style.

Personal Context

Further to this immediate context of the form and content of messages, many participants established the personal context of life outside online communication (which had the effect of grounding their ethical discussion as part of day-to-day activity). A number of messages featured the intrusion of personal life into the discussion – either as a rhetorical gesture of exit from the forum (e.g. '*One last things about ethics before I head off to play five-a-sides*' (Forum 6c, Message 1)), or as an explanation for some kind of disruption in service as a participant (including not being able to find a tutorial venue, problems with software, moving house, a sudden crisis at work, and even a proposal of marriage). In several messages, participants reflected ruefully that raising the issue of the lack of an ethical fundraising policy with a manager or trustee in the course of their research had resulted in their being immediately commissioned to draw one up.

Professional Context

The personal thus overlapped significantly with the third level of context, the professional. One participant recounted a compromise she had reached with her charity's director over her personal reluctance to have anything to do with a multinational company of whose activities she disapproved (and which were, in her view, contrary to the purposes of her organisation): '*So although I do not buy XY products in my personal life, in my work life I now take part in one of their corporate promotional schemes!*' (Forum 3, Message 8).

Frequently, a participant would acknowledge the absence of a written code of ethics but describe informal policies on legitimate support. Usually these messages contained scenarios, based on the participant's experience which engaged other participants readily in discussion, and constructed ethics as a process of discernment case by case.

Other aspects of this professional context were more explicitly external – for example, discussion of the rationale for the newly-launched self-regulatory body for fundraising in the UK, or reflections on the potentially hostile attitude of the media. Certain sectoral emphases emerged in the discussions. Charities serving the elderly or dying admitted

particular challenges in the area of donations from beneficiaries, and acknowledged tensions between fundraisers and service providers. Those working in health or cancer research avoided support from tobacco or drinks firms, while other good causes were less reluctant to accept it (notwithstanding reservations about publicity).

CONCLUSIONS

Goodyear (2002) identifies three key design elements for successful collaboration: the tasks required of learners, the way that relationships are supported by organisational forms, and what he calls the 'space' (real or virtual) afforded to learners for their appropriation. This tripartite structure of tasks, form, and space suggests itself as an appropriate framework for the conclusions to this brief paper.

Tasks: there is merit in making the tasks required of collaborative learners as straightforward as possible. A considerable number of exchanges in the forums expressed personal anxiety about the feasibility of the task: '*Actually I felt really shaky on Section D because so few organisatations seemed to have a written policy, I was at a loss about what and how to compare ....*' (Forum 2, Message 42). The issue of a written ethical policy assumed a disproportionate importance in many of the participants' minds (perhaps because of the security it offered as reference material). Essentially a number of learners (re)constructed the task for themselves, and some tutors were more successful than others in steering them back to the original brief (which was about how ethical practice was ensured).

Form: the integrity of the constructivist view of collaborative learning relies on autonomous contributions from learners. Thus the organizational form adopted for collaborative learning needs to be one which allows participants at different stages of competence in this kind of learning to develop confidently. Opinions differ on optimum group size for online collaboration (Kukulska-Hume, 2003) but the evidence from this study suggests that smaller groups thrive, but that all sizes of group benefit from some degree of facilitation.

Space: finally, the space into which learners need initiation is essentially one of incipient professionalism. The exchanges in this exercise, for all their diversity of experience, shared a common sense of the seriousness and complexity of marketing ethics in a shared professional milieu. They provide evidence of learning about ethics not as an abstract system, or something that is done by other people in other situations, but as a directly relevant issue for engagement and ownership by learners themselves.

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STUDENT RISK PERCEPTIONS AND THE SUCCESSFUL DELIVERY OF MARKETING EDUCATION AS A SERVICE WITH CREDENCE QUALITIES

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ABSTRACT

When teaching marketing, faculty members have an asymmetrical level of information with respect to students such as the information to be learned and expectations of student performance. Additionally, the students have limited expertise in evaluating their educational experience and it is typically limited to perceptions of the faculty member, method of delivery and learned material. This qualifies marketing education as a service with credence properties which tends to increase perceived risk. Students develop uncertainties identified as risk perceptions. We propose that by ascertaining the nature of these risks and the criteria used to evaluate service quality, the risks can be reduced and evaluations improved.

The relationship between students and faculty can be viewed a couple of ways. One view is that we, as faculty, are the producers and the students are the outputs. Another view, and the one the authors prefer to adopt, is that we are the service providers and the students are the customers. As customers, students face a number of perceived risks in the process of this service delivery and the faculty is hoping to be successful in the delivery process. Unfortunately, the students face a situation of having incomplete information, no real way of judging this service prior to their experience and once having completed the course, a less than perfect way of judging its success.

Owing to the asymmetric nature of information in the educational transaction system, we approach and examine this system as a service with credence qualities. Credence services have been described as those not only provided by the seller, but the seller acts as an expert determining the customer's requirements due to the customer's lack of familiarity with the service. Therefore, an asymmetry of information between the consumer and the service provider exists.

A proposed conceptual model identifies and examines factors for the assessment of services with credence qualities that balance the risk borne by the customer and the service provider. In this case, risk is considered to be an objective characteristic of a given situation, with the consumer (student) bringing their own characteristics into the situation and their appraisal of the risk (Conchar, Zinkhan, Peters, and Olavarrieta 2004) Risk is characterized using those dimensions identified by Conchar et al. (2004), based on the existing risk literature. These suggested dimensions of risk are: a) financial, b) performance, c) physical, d) psychological, d) social, e) time/convenience and f) linked decision. It is our belief that students experience, at any given time, one or more of these types of perceived risk.

The actions of the faculty as service providers are evaluated using the dimensions of service quality (Zeithaml, Bitner, and Gremler 2006). These dimensions include reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy and tangibles. We propose that in implementing these dimensions, the consumer's risk perception will be reduced and there will be a positive experience of service quality.

We also propose that under the condition of existing market information, consumers' risk perceptions will affect their attitudes and information acceptance and the success of the service delivery. In addition, it is also suggested that the provider's contribution to the service delivery will moderate the effect of the perceived risks of the customer.

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THE IMPACT OF CHOICE ON MARKETING STUDENTS IN ACADEMIC PROGRAMS AND CURRICULUM DESIGN

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ABSTRACT

The findings of Ackerman and Gross (2006) suggest that a moderate amount of choice is desirable in the design of marketing degree programs. The findings show that students want some choice of courses they can take, especially when they are interested in the topics, but too much choice is viewed negatively. This suggests that some degree of guidance is desirable to students as they complete their degree programs.

The implications of the Ackerman and Gross (2006) findings for undergraduate degree programs are quite clear. Undergraduate marketing degree programs contain general education requirements, providing the breadth which facilitates a successful marketing career. Students feel they benefit from being guided toward the most beneficial types of general education courses and do not want to be asked to make too many choices. Most marketing undergraduates may not know or care about which basic math or writing courses are best for them to take. As a result, marketing majors should be guided toward one or at most a small number of choices of these types of general education courses, with the courses clearly listed as degree requirements and offered every semester. By contrast, students seem to desire more choices among specialized courses in their major. This suggests that marketing programs should offer more choice of electives within the constraints of departmental budgets and available faculty.

The implications of these findings are less clear for MBA and other graduate degree programs. First, there may be differences between MBA students who already have an undergraduate degree in business versus those who come from other backgrounds, such as the liberal arts or natural sciences. MBA students who have already completed a business undergraduate degree may view course choice in the same way that undergraduates view a choice of electives. They are already familiar with basic course content and are able to make informed choices about courses they would like to take. It follows then that MBA programs that have a high percentage of students already holding undergraduate degrees in business may be advised to offer a larger selection of courses tailored to the interests or needs of their students. In addition to course knowledge, these students have more diverse and more specifically defined needs which can best be satisfied by a higher degree of course choice.

On the other hand, MBA students holding undergraduate degrees in other fields, and having had little or no undergraduate coursework in business, may prefer a more structured program. Since they have not yet studied business, they do not know what they will need to know and so may appreciate a more guided program. This suggests that MBA programs attracting students preparing to change careers, as opposed to progressing on an already established business career path, might appropriately adopt programs that have a set schedule of classes with less choice, especially in the first year.

A second possible difference between MBA programs and undergraduate marketing programs is that, on the average, MBA students may be more highly motivated. Ackerman and Gross (2006) found that interest has an impact on desire for choice in courses. Perhaps motivation works the same way. This suggests that MBA students in general, regardless of their academic backgrounds, might desire more control than do undergraduate students over which courses they take in their degree programs. This might also account for the growing popularity of MBA programs tailored to the needs of specific businesses and individual work schedules.

Another area to which the Ackerman and Gross (2006) findings might be extended is to instruction within a particular course. Some courses have much structure, with the curriculum consisting of lectures, readings from textbook chapters and other instructor-selected materials, and exams testing mastery of prescribed material. Other courses have less set structure and students may choose from among alternative projects, readings, and even types of work assignments. Which of these do students like better?

At first it might seem that students would prefer courses allowing more curriculum choice. However, the findings of Ackerman and Gross (2006) suggest that it may not be that simple. Just as interest affects the desirability of course choice within a degree program, it may also affect the desirability of choice versus structure within a course. For example, student interest level and familiarity with course content may be less in required core courses, and so these courses might best be structured fairly tightly with little or no choice.

By contrast, students may prefer a looser structure and more choices among assignments in courses that are within their majors, and especially those that are electives and regarded as most interesting. Their motivation levels would on the average be higher in these courses. Capstone courses, highly applied project-based courses, and courses that focus on sub-areas within marketing which students find particularly interesting are examples of these types of courses.

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NOW IT'S PERSONAL: ANTECEDENTS AND OUTCOMES OF RAPPORT BETWEEN BUSINESS FACULTY AND THEIR STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Rapport is when two people click with each other, possess a personal connection or experience good interaction due to chemistry (Tickle Degnan and Rosenthal 1990). Business educators have begun to study rapport, but past research has principally focused on students' perceptions of rapport; faculty's perceptions of rapport have never been studied nor contrasted with those of students. Understanding this is critical as rapport between faculty and students can enhance students' motivation to learn, as well as their willingness and confidence to use faculty as a resource for learning (Huff, Cooper, and Jones 2002).

Across different contexts and different disciplines (marketing, psychology, and education), several antecedents and outcomes of rapport have been identified. Key antecedents include trust, approachability, caring, positivity, empathy, openness, and homophily (Davies and Prince 2005; Faranda and Clarke 2004; Lazarsfeld and Merton 1954). Key outcomes of rapport comprise satisfaction, loyalty, positive word-of-mouth, motivation and trust (Gremler and Gwinner 2000; Perkins et al. 1995; Price and Arnould 1999).

This study employed qualitative research to identify the specific antecedents and outcomes of rapport between faculty and students, as perceived by faculty. Forty faculty members in the Colleges of Business at several large public and private universities were sampled. The findings were analyzed according to methods described by Erickson (1986) and were triangulated across researchers (Lincoln and Guba 1985).

For the antecedents, 65% of faculty cited Approach factors; these include *being willing to work with students* (30%), *communicating openly* (27.5%), and *mutual disclosure* about personal and professional life (12.5%). Personality factors were mentioned by 60% of faculty and comprise *respect* (32.5%), *caring* (32.5%), and *positivity* (30%). Finally, 12.5% of faculty stated that *homophily* was an antecedent of rapport.

In discussing the perceived outcomes of rapport, faculty identified benefits to the students (72.5%), to the faculty (40%), to both students and faculty (12.5%), and benefits outside of the classroom (12.5%). Faculty mentioned the key benefits for students as including *enhanced learning* (37.5%), *greater effort and motivation* (32.5%), and *greater attention and involvement* (30%). Faculty benefits comprised *more fun* (15%), *greater satisfaction* (15%), and *increased appreciation by the department* (12.5%). Faculty-student mutual benefits included *enhanced communication* (7.5%) and *trust* (7.5%). Finally, benefits outside of the classroom were *lasting relationships* (20%), *increased faculty attention* (i.e., referrals, career advice) (15%) and *graduates value education* (7.5%).

In general, the antecedents obtained were similar to those identified in the multidisciplinary literature. However, this study, with its faculty viewpoint, brings findings such as *trust* and *mutual disclosure* into a business education context. Faculty most frequently listed Approach and Personality factors. While Approach can be taught, personality may be more difficult to change. Additionally, given the low frequency for mentions of *homophily* and its importance as identified in previous research, it would be prudent for faculty to focus on this.

Many of the perceived outcomes identified in this research mirror those found in past research. New outcomes were also uncovered and include *fun*, *increased faculty attention*, and *lasting relationships*.

Future research can focus on developing a model and testing whether the perceived antecedents and outcomes are valid across a larger and more diverse sample. If the perceived antecedents and outcomes are supported, the benefits create a strong case for faculty to increase their rapport with students.

References Available on Request

IDENTIFYING THE IDEAL ATTRIBUTES OF A MARKETING EDUCATOR

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ABSTRACT

Following administrative pressure, most universities and colleges have made a requirement to independently develop their own teaching evaluation process and a great amount of research has focused on how to better develop effective peer and student evaluations. Little is known about what are the important attributes for a practitioner when evaluating a teacher. Due to the new requirements coming from accreditation associations such as AACSB to increase the quotas of professionally qualified faculty in the curriculum, one would expect that the current perspectives on measuring teaching effectiveness be reevaluated. This research identifies the attributes of an ideal marketing educator according to students, academics and practitioners.

INTRODUCTION

Faculty and students may have different perceptions of what constitutes a good teacher. Previous research tells us that faculty members are questioning the use of students to measure teaching effectiveness, formally named student evaluations of teaching (SET). Most of the research to date has developed instruments to measure SET or to help the peer review process but little is known about the practitioner point of view. Other observers' perspectives may be anticipated when looking at the important teaching attributes from a practitioner's point of view. The objective of this consumer research is to identify the perceived characteristics of an ideal marketing educator according to the perspectives of students, academics and practitioners. Thus, what are the characteristics that students, instructors, and practitioners expect from a marketing instructor and how different or similar are these expectations among the respondents?

Thus, this research defines the eight attributes that make up the ideal marketing educator from the perspectives of students, academics, and practitioners. We reviewed the interactions between the attributes and for each viewpoint.

CONCLUSION

The contribution of this research is to revisit the attributes of an ideal marketing instructor and to bring up the perspectives of practitioners, as well as offer a combined model of the top eight attributes resulting from a diverging viewpoint. The findings from this research are based upon the inputs from students, practitioners, and academics. Results from this study can benefit the academics in developing valid measures of teaching effectiveness but also when hiring new instructors. This ideal set of attributes may enhance the students' experience and move them in a more active learning role. Finally, practitioners and professionally qualified instructors could gain visibility with this new set of attributes.

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TO TAKE OR NOT TO TAKE: THE CONSUMER BEHAVIOR DECISION-MAKING PROCESS AS FRAMEWORK FOR STUDENT NEW COURSE CHOICE

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ABSTRACT

Much past research on marketing education has focused on student learning and classroom interactions; the issue of student course choice has largely been neglected. It is important to understand not only what compels students to choose one existing course over another, but also what attracts students to new courses, in order to continue attracting students to a rapidly evolving discipline. It has been shown that students tend to view their educational choices in consumerist terms (Nicholls et al. 1995), and thus a consumer behavior decision-making framework can serve as a model of students' course choices. In this paper, we outline a conceptual framework of student course choices, developing propositions based on motivation-ability theory, the Theory of Reasoned Action, and other theories.

PROPOSITIONS

Motivation theory suggests increased risk leads to increased motivation. Thus, we posit that students who are financially independent will be more motivated towards their course selections than those who are financially dependent (P1a). Similarly, students who are on academic probation or must pass a class to graduate will be more motivated towards their course selections than those whose grade in the course has no immediate consequence (P1b). We also theorize that students will be more motivated towards selecting courses within their major than courses outside their major (P2a); and that students will be more motivated towards selecting upper-division courses than lower-division GE courses (P2b).

Research has shown ease of product exposure increases with motivation/ability; and individuals with high motivation/ability are more likely to pay attention to product information than are those with low levels (Canfer and Ackerman 1989). Thus, we posit that students with low motivation/ability towards course selections will be less exposed to information about those courses (P3); students with low motivation/ ability towards course selections will pay less attention to information they are exposed to about course choices (P4); and repetitive course marketing of new course information will result in higher a) exposure and b) attention paid by low motivation/ability students than single-source new course communication efforts (P5).

We also build on the learning and memory literature, proposing that students will perceive themselves to better understand the purpose of a course which clearly fits with their preexisting (marketing) category associations than those that do not (P6); and students will put more effort into processing course descriptions that differ moderately from their preexisting category associations than those that differ from them extensively or that match them closely (P7). We further propose that students with low motivation and ability will process course descriptions in more detail if the descriptions are benefits-focused rather than attributes-focused (P8a), and that students with high motivation and ability will process descriptions in more detail if the descriptions are attributes-focused rather than benefits-focused (P8b).

Drawing from the attitude formation literature we posit that students with low motivation/ability will more readily change their attitudes towards new course topics than will high motivation/ability students (P9); yet repetition of marketing communications regarding new courses will generate negative attitudes more quickly among high motivation and ability students than low motivation and ability students (P10). Further, high motivation students should be more likely to process new course information via the generation of support and counterarguments than low motivation students (P11a), while low motivation students should be more likely to process new course information via heuristic processing than high motivation students (P11b). Finally, for high motivation students, the use of two-sided arguments will generate more positive attitudes towards new courses than one-sided arguments (P12), while for low motivation students listing more attributes in a new course description will generate more positive attitudes than listing fewer attributes (P13).

PASSIVE AND ACTIVE METHODS IN MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT CLASSES: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

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

INTRODUCTION

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

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

Are we, as faculty, designing courses with the most effective elements for learning and influencing our business students to become the world's next business leaders? This study reviews current literature to identify the most effective teaching and learning elements and methods that should be included in our classrooms. It then reports the results of a comparative study of 522 marketing and management faculty across the United States to determine if these methods are being used in our university classrooms and to begin to identify variables that predict the frequency and amplitude of these active learning methods.

LITERATURE REVIEW

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

A preponderance of recent business education literature suggests business school curriculums are experiencing a shift from passive course designs to active course designs (e.g., Frontczak 1998). Empirical evidence suggests business students prefer designs that are active over more passive designs (Nulty and Bennett 1996). Evidence also

suggests that favorable attitudes toward course design lead to higher achievement (Young et al. 2003) and that matching course design with learning styles results in greater learning (Dunn et al. 1990; Prosser and Trigwell 2006).

Active Learning

Experiential Learning. Experiential learning is a type of active course design. It can be defined as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (Kolb 1983, p. 38). Kolb indicates the crucial first step is to provide the experience from which the learning comes. Experiential educators are generally aware that experiences alone are not inherently good for learning. The experiences have to be relevant to the learning goals and then the learners must have time and opportunity to reflect on the experience. Experiential learning can encompass a wide array of methodologies from outdoor, adventure-based learning, such as Outward Bound, to other forms that are more conducive to a classroom setting. Case studies are commonly used in many business classes. In addition, giving students self-learning instruments also provides experiential learning opportunities. Many universities offer business credit for internships which are also effective experiential learning experiences. Also, many in-class activities are experiential in nature. In addition, assignments can be experiential if they require students to apply concepts learned in the classroom to things they will be expected to do in the "real world" after they graduate.

Participative Learning. Participative learning is also a form of active learning. It can be defined as engaging the learner in the learning process (Mills-Jones 1999). Participative learning gives students the opportunity to take an active role in determining the types of activities and/or assignments they perceive will best help their learning. Methods that can be utilized in the classroom to assure participative learning include student participation in syllabus design, students writing potential exam questions, student participation in determining the grading scheme for a course, etc. By involving students in these decisions, participative learning theory suggests the students will feel more accountability for completing assignments, etc. (Mills-Jones 1999).

Passive Learning

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

The Evidence

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

HYPOTHESES

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

representing the hypotheses to be examined in this study is presented in Figure 1. Reviewing recent relevant literature suggests the following relationships.

H_1: There are no differences between marketing and management faculty in using active learning methods in their classes.

H_2: Marketing and management faculty from private universities utilize more active learning methods in the classroom than do those faculty from public universities.

H_3: Female marketing and management faculty utilize more active learning methods in the classroom than do male faculty.

H_4: Non-tenured marketing and management faculty utilize more active learning methods in the classroom than do tenured faculty.

H_5: As both marketing and management faculty get older, they will be less likely to use active learning methods in the classrooms.

H_6: As both marketing and management faculty gain teaching experience, they will be less likely to use active learning methods in the classroom.

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

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

METHODOLOGY

Data were collected to determine the extent to which these different designs are used in marketing and management classrooms in the United States. The investigators gathered data from a random sample of 522 management and marketing faculty across the United States. The sample was drawn from membership rosters of the American Marketing Association and the Academy of Management. Marketing and management faculty members were asked to indicate on a five-point scale from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always) how often they used each teaching method in their respective classrooms. Table 2 reveals there were six passive elements and thirteen active elements. The composite measures of passive and active learning methods were computed by summing the various items for each and dividing by the number of items. After creating the composite variables, the dependent variable to be assessed in the hypotheses was computed by subtracting the composite passive methods score from the composite active methods score.

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

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

RESULTS

Results of hypotheses testing are found in Table 3. Regression analyses shows support for H_1 by indicating no statistical difference between marketing and management faculty in their use of active and passive learning methods ($t = .982$, $p \geq .10$). Simple linear regression also revealed support for H_2 by indicating a significantly higher usage of active learning methods by professors from private universities ($t = 1.783$, $p \leq .10$). Support was also found for H_6 by revealing a significant difference in using active learning methods based on faculty teaching experience, where faculty with less teaching experience use more active learning methods in the classroom ($t = 1.844$, $p \leq .10$). Finally, support was found for H_8 by a statistically

significant difference in the use of active learning methods based on the number or preparations, with faculty members with lower numbers of preparations utilizing more active learning methods in the classroom ($t = 1.708$, $p \leq .10$).

Faculty gender, tenure, faculty age, and average class size had no significant impact on the use of active learning methods in the classroom. Thus, H_3, H_4, H_5, and H_7 are not supported.

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

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

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

As predicted, and as common sense suggests, there is no difference in the utility of active methods between marketing and management faculty. Both fields of study offer many classes in which active methods are readily included. Other fields of business, such as accounting and finance, may experience more difficulty in adopting many of these active methods into their classrooms. However, as evidence mounts to suggest that these methods are superior to passive methods, it would enhance the learning experience in all business classrooms, regardless of the business discipline. Further research should be conducted with faculty of other business disciplines to examine the frequency and amplitude of active learning methods.

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

In addition, at many private universities, professors teach more classes per semester, resulting in a larger number of annual course preparations. The larger number of preparations would seem to decrease the likelihood of active methods being used because active learning methods require more preparation time and more effort. In fact, this variable was also examined in this study and it was found that a smaller number of course preparations led to a greater likelihood of a faculty member using active learning methods. Therefore, this reason for the increased use of active learning methods at private universities is also not valid, though the predicted hypothesis was supported.

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

This study also revealed that both marketing and management faculty tend to think they are utilizing more active learning methods than they actually are. This finding should be a reminder to examine our teaching methods and try to include more elements that have been empirically shown to improve student learning and preparation for the "real world."

Tables, Figures, and References Available on Request

RELATING TEACHING METHOD EFFECTIVENESS TO INSTRUCTIONAL EMPHASIS AREAS: A STUDY OF MBA ALUMNI

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ABSTRACT

The matching of teaching methods to student performance is viewed as facilitating learning. However, questions remain as to what is most effective for various alternative instructional areas within business. This study thus reports on an approach that relates the perceived teaching method effectiveness of alternative pedagogies to key instructional emphasis areas. The results revealed some surprise and may serve as a guide for faculty within a program as to pedagogical deployment. The implications of the design are developed and presented.

RELATING TEACHING METHODEFFECTIVENESS TO INSTRUCTIONAL EMPHASIS AREAS: A STUDY OF MBA ALUMNI

Much has been made about learning styles and the importance of using teaching methods that support them (Davis, Misra, and Van Auken, 2000; Galvin 2006; Goodwin 1996; Karns 1993; Matthews 1994; Nulty and Barrett 1996; Stewart and Felicetti 1992). Typically, the nature of skill and knowledge presentations among faculty drive or influence the selection of teaching methods. To illustrate, the teaching of skills may involve pedagogies in the form of group assignments and in-class exercises, among others. Additionally, integrative course material may be taught through cases and simulations. Rather than taking an instructors' bias *per se* as to what an instructor thinks is appropriate, assessments of teaching methods as to student preference may be conducted and correlated with the students' perceived instructor emphasis on skill and knowledge variables. Couplings between the two that evidence statistically significant relationships would thus suggest the teaching methods that are considered by students as being most viable for a given area of skill or knowledge presentation. Thus, faculty can consider a student point-of-view with respect to teaching methodology. If a faculty member has skills or abilities that are congruent with the revealed teaching methodology, then the faculty member could consider the pedagogy for implementation.

STUDY FOCUS

This study thus proposes to assess among MBA alumni two primary areas. One will encompass the emphasis given to each of eleven MBA instructional areas, while the other will evaluate the effectiveness of each of eight teaching methods. It is these data sets that are to be correlated in an effort to reveal key associations. To expedite the comparison, factor analysis will be used to reduce the data into more meaningful chunks and to simplify the construction of the correlation matrix.

METHODOLOGY

The Sample

The MBA alumni utilized in this study came from a private New England based university that is accredited by AACSB-International. The study involved surveying 312 of them and of this number, 82 responded for a 26.3% response rate.

Instructional Areas

The study employs as instructional variables the skill and knowledge areas used by Van Auken, Chrysler, and Wells (2005) in their study of MBA program ROI. These variables are presented in Figure 1.

As can be seen, they have been *a priori* classified as to skills and knowledge to reflect AACSB-International emphases and the inherent conflicts between them as to emphasis (Alsop 2004; Middleton 2004).These variables were assessed as to MBA instructional emphasis using a one- to seven-point scale, with the value of one denoting a Very Low Emphasis and the value of seven evidencing a Very High Emphasis.

Teaching Methods

The teaching methods utilized in this study initially came from the work of Davis, Misra, and Van Auken (2000) who utilized them as predictors of attitude toward the marketing major. They encompass the following: cases, lectures, computer simulations, class discussions, group projects, in-class exercises, individual projects and written assignments. The effectiveness of each of these teaching methods was assessed on a seven-point semantic differential scale that ranged from Poor (1) to Excellent (7). If an alumnus did not experience a particular method, the alumnus was instructed to check a box indicating a lack of exposure to the approach.

DATA REDUCTION

Instructional Areas

To reduce the eleven instructional areas into constructs, a principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was employed. The results revealed the presence of three factors that explained 73.3% of the variance in the data. These three factors and the variables with sizable loadings are presented in Table 1.

As can be noted, a single skill factor has been revealed along with two knowledge-based factors (capabilities and understandings). Additionally, quantitative skills represented a departure from expectations as they were classified under knowledge-based understandings. Apparently, they add breadth to understanding and serve as a useful complement as to how a business works.

Teaching Methods

The eight teaching methods were likewise subjected to a principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation. This application revealed the presence of three factors that explained 64.8% of the variance in the data. The three factor patterns are presented in Table 2.

The first factor loads heavily on group projects and in-class exercises. The second factor denotes an emphasis on cases and computer simulations, while the third factor weights more on individual involvement.

CORRELATIONS

In an effort to reveal the presence of associations between teaching method efficacy and instructional area emphases, a Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was run. The results appear in Table 3.

As can be noted, only three statistically significant correlations were revealed. Of these, group projects and in-class exercises were associated with skill development ($P = .005$), and individual involvements were correlated with knowledge-based capabilities ($P = .006$). Finally, individual involvements were correlated with knowledge-based understandings ($P = .020$). Basically, group projects are viewed as best for skill development, while the development of knowledge (capabilities and understandings) is best pursued through the individual, at least in this particular setting. A near-miss association involved cases and computer simulations being somewhat statistically associated with knowledge-based capabilities ($P = .061$).

IMPLICATIONS

The revelation of a lack of association suggests that instructors may have great flexibility in teaching method selection for particular areas, although directionality may be inferred. In this academic setting, individual assignments seem to be preferred for pure knowledge acquisition, thus perhaps revealing a displeasure with group projects for this purpose. In turn, group projects and in-class exercises are seen as more viable for skill development. Basically, leanings have been revealed that may help to confirm or disconfirm one's expectations.

What is unique to this study is that it shows the viewpoints of alumni in only one program. Perhaps, other programs may reveal more extant relationships. As more and more outcome data are collected, the revelation of patterns and relationships will be facilitated. As it is, this study evidences a design that may be mimicked in other outcome assessments. The study is also compatible with the theories advocating a match between student preference and learning or teaching approaches (Glazer, Steckel, and Winer 1987; Gregore 1979; Gregore and Butler 1984; Okebukola 1986) and new models investigating these relationships are worthy of exploration.

CONCLUSIONS

This study has demonstrated an approach for relating perceived teaching method effectiveness to instructional emphasis areas. For a given program, it can provide suggestive insights as to what is working from a student or alumni perspective. As a

result, it may serve as a guide for teaching method deploy-ment. The approach is not meant to replace instructor choice, but to facilitate an understanding of the efficacy of alternative teaching methods. As outcome metrics are increasingly developed, assessments of relationships should be endemic to the process. This study thus revealed one such approach. Hopefully, this design or related designs will become more of a part of assessment and a body of evidence can be generated.

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FIGURE 1
INSTRUCTIONAL AREAS

Classification	
Skill	***Knowledge***
Technical preparation (ability to use software such as spreadsheets, statistical packages, database packages, etc.)	Ability to identify an organizational problem
Ability to work effectively as a time	Ability to analyze the relationships between organizational variables
Oral communication skills	Ability to develop workable solutions to organizational problems
Written communication skills	Ability to communicate effectively using the language of business
Quantitative skills (ability to work with numerical data)	Understanding concepts of the functional areas of business (i.e. marketing, finance, etc.)
	Understanding how the functional areas of business relate to each other

TABLE 1
RESULTS OF A VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR ANALYSIS APPLIED TO ELEVEN SKILL AND KNOWLEDGE VARIABLES

Variables	*Skills*	*Knowledge-Based Capabilities*	*Knowledge-Based Understandings*
Technical preparation	.58	.09	.29
Ability to work effectively on a team	.74	.44	.09
Oral communication skills	.87	.20	.16
Written communication skills	.68	.30	.24
Ability to identify an organizational problem	.36	.81	.20
Ability to analyze the relationship between organizational variables	.15	.83	.28
Ability to develop workable solutions to organizational problems	.30	.83	.23
Quantitative skills	.47	.33	.61
Ability to communicate effectively using the language of business	.53	.17	.58
Understanding concepts of the functional areas of business	.15	.36	.80
Understanding how the functional areas of business relate to each other	.20	.15	.90

TABLE 2
RESULTS OF A VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR ANALYSIS
APPLIED TO EIGHT TEACHING METHODS

Variables	*Group Projects and In-Class Exercises*	*Cases & Computer Simulations*	*Individual Involvements*
Case Studies	.30	.69	-.03
Lectures	.45	.46	.21
Computer Simulation	-.14	.79	.06
In-Class Discussions	.66	.35	.26
Group projects	.87	-.11	.03
In-Class Exercises	.81	.14	.17
Individual projects	.02	-.04	.91
In-Class Presentations	.30	.16	.68

TABLE 3
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN INSTRUCTIONALAREA EMPHASES
AND TEACHING METHOD EFFECTIVENESS

Variables	Group Projects and In-Class Exercises	Cases and Computer Simulations	Individual Involvements
Skills	.31[1]	.03	.08
Knowledge-Based Capabilities	.18	.21	.31[2]
Knowledge-Based Understandings	.05	.18	.26[3]

[1]p = .005
[2]p = .006
[3]p = .020

SEQUENTIAL CLIENT-BASED PROJECTS: TAKING STUDENT TEAM LEARNING TO A NEW LEVEL

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ABSTRACT

Sequential student projects are projects where students use the work of students from a preceding semester and implement the recommendations made in that earlier semester. This paper reports on an examination of student reactions to performing sequential projects in two separate settings. Student reactions are compared to a control group that did not receive recommendations from preceding classes, but rather received strategic recommendations from the client. Findings and issues are reported.

BACKGROUND

Group projects have become an integral part of the marketing curriculum as part of an effort to enhance student learning. The opportunity to provide students with practical experience accompanied with practice working with others provides an alternative to the passive learning environment of the traditional lecture based course. Group projects can, however, take many different forms and those forms provide different value in terms of the quality of the learning that takes place with them. This paper describes a sequential approach to group projects where student teams must use the research and recommendations of previous student teams and implement their recommendations in a real world situation.

Three basic approaches have been used to provide more valuable student learning experiences and reflect the push for a shift in the learning paradigm from passive to active (Barr and Tagg 1995; Saunders 1997). They are team-based approaches, experiential learning, and client-based projects. Team based approaches have provided an effective cooperative learning technique (Allen et al. 1987; Holter 1994; Amato and Amato 2005). Experiential learning approaches have provided more active learning experiences (Kolb 1984; Hamer 2000; Smith and Van Doren 2004). Experiential learning also increases involvement making it more effective (Morgan et al (1987). Client-based projects have provided increased reality (Elam and Spotts 2004; Lopez and Lee 2005). However none of these approaches is without problems.

Team based approaches, while valuable, may prove to be too difficult to implement in many courses and can meet with resistance by faculty (Smith and Van Doren 2004). Experiential learning and client-based approaches provide excellent student experiences, however, the problems that occur in "real-world" situations may also distract students from the important lessons for which the projects were designed (Gunz 1995).This paper describes two class projects where reality is taken to a higher level. Not only do students make concrete recommendations to a real client, but a later class is then charged with implementing the recommendations of the preceding class.

Experiential learning in the form of group projects has received much attention in the literature (de Los Santos and Jensen 1985; Dommeyer 1986; Williams, Beard, and Rymer 1991; Graeff 1997; Bobbitt, Inks, Kemp, and Mayo 2000; Hamer 2000; Smith and Van Doren 2004). In practice, we have referred to experiential learning as having students actually do something versus simply reflect on it or read about it. Kolb's framework describing the processes and styles of learning would thus place experiential learning (concrete experience with active experimentation) in the dynamic learner quadrant. See Elam and Spotts (2004) for a more thorough description of the Kolb model applied to experiential learning.

Client based projects provide an excellent opportunity for students to develop the ability to work in a group to solve complex "real-world" problems and engage in strategic thinking and problem solving. Even though these projects provide excellent learning opportunities, educators often choose not to use them because of the amount of work required to implement them effectively (Goodell and Kraft 1991; Razzouk, Seitz, and Rizkallah 2003). However, if approached properly, client-based projects can be manageable (Lopez and Lee 2005), and can provide learning opportunities that will be more readily transferable to settings outside the classroom (Smith and Van Doren 2004).

Elam and Spotts (2004) described a project that applied many of the principles of case-based experiential learning where they had three classes perform different functional areas in a client project. This approach was highly effective for a number of reasons. First, it succeeded in providing a realistic environment for student teams. Second, it help to avoid the problem of having students focus only on those ac-

tivities they most enjoy (usually the creative function of advertising). Third, it forced students to coordinate with other teams and use the work of others to help fulfill their own responsibilities. In this way, students gained exposure to the difficulties of communication and coordination between work groups in a major project.

This paper reports on three course projects that shed light on this approach by incorporating one significant difference in the project design, sequential projects, and describes student reactions in the same terms used by Elam and Spotts (2004). Where Elam and Spotts (2004) used three classes executing different areas of a project during the same semester, this paper reports on projects where students handed off preliminary research to another class in a subsequent semester. This approach may be more practical in situations where courses cannot be offered simultaneously or coordination is difficult. The remainder of this paper will describe the projects and then report on the experience from the perspective of the instructors and the students.

Two professors initiated sequential projects where students conducted research during one semester and in the following semester students were charged with implementing the recommendations from the prior semester. In one case, the courses differed, starting with a Consumer Behavior course conducting research on which services students felt were the most lacking on campus and how they could correct the deficiency. That project then concluded with a Professional Selling course, which implemented the project and did selling of the new service. In the second case a sport marketing course conducted research resulting in recommendations on how to improve attendance at men's basketball games on the campus. In the subsequent semester students in the same course implemented the recommendations. The two projects will now be described in more detail.

Project 1

Class 1 members were directed to analyze the needs of the nearly 8,000 business majors with respect to on-campus services, and to determine which services were deemed lacking or insufficient. This process was to take place via surveys designed, written, and executed by all members of a Consumer Behavior class and distributed to business students attending a career week event. Once a determination of need was identified, the execution of the solution to that need would be carried out the following semester by a Professional Selling class taught by the same faculty member. It was expected that a number of students would sign up for the first course and continue on with the second course. In fact, five out of twenty seven, took both classes and their experiences are noted in upcoming comments. The second class had thirty six total students including the five from the first class. Almost all of the students were first or second semester seniors. Second semester seniors, however, were taking the course in a sequence that would not allow them to see the results from the following class since they would be graduating upon completion of the first class. Only first semester seniors had the option of continuing on to the next class. This project had a number of objectives:

- The exercise was designed to have students identify a problem (need recognition) facing the current student population which challenged them to evaluate their own needs and wants as marketing majors.
- The exercise provided students with a non-structured way to solve the problem so that they would be forced to look at a multitude of potential solutions and choose the most beneficial one, from a cost / benefit standpoint.
- The exercise allowed them to interact with corporations outside of the University in a way that gave them experience in 'primary research' and negotiation methods.
- The exercise provided them with the insight to understand the importance of 'giving back' to the student community.
- The exercise required that the students research the University hierarchy and find the decision makers who would allow for, or deny, implementation of the new service. i.e., interact with University Asset Management office, Dean's office, etc.
- The exercise illustrated how students, non-profit institutions, and for profit corporations can all work together to generate long term relationships with each other.

Project 2

Students in a senior level sports marketing seminar course were given the charge of conducting research in the community to determine how best to encourage residents of the surrounding community to attend men's basketball games at the university. Students were given a set of six steps including problem definition, research proposal, research analysis and summary, strategic recommendations, and recommended tactics. A final phase incorporated all phases into a final report. The reports were presented to the head of marketing for the athletic department and approved for future use.

The following semester, students in the same course were charged with implementation of the recommendations from the preceding semester. They were first required to familiarize themselves with the work from the prior semester and then given the option of also conducting their own research to answer any additional questions they had. Students were given access to the final grade for each project as an indication of a paper's quality; however, they were also told that the grade reflected much more than the quality of the ideas and that they should judge for themselves which ideas would be most effective. Also occurring that semester, another section of the same course was asked to perform the same project but for the women's basketball team. In this second case all groups were given marketing strategy information provided by the NCAA. This class was given no information from another class and was used as a control group.

In the case of both projects, students were told that students in the subsequent semester would be shown their work, and use it to advance the project recommendations. Students were also assured that their individual grade/performance on the project would not be shown to anyone, but that the instructor comments that were written in their team papers would be shown to the students in the next class. No student objections were raised.

METHOD

After concluding their projects, students were asked to complete a questionnaire that contained twenty questions about their project experience. Eighteen questions were taken from Elam and Spotts (2004). The survey consisted of a series of statements about the project experience and students were instructed to respond to each statement on a seven-point scale anchored by 1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree. Two additional questions were used to measure student feelings about the sequential nature of the project. Students were given course credit for completing the short questionnaire. Project 1 had an n=28, Project 2 had an n=21, and the control group had an n=31 for a total of 80 students participating in the study.

RESULTS

Generally, students had positive reactions to the sequential projects. Table 1 shows means for the three classes on all of the questions. In particular, they preferred the project to a lecture and they felt they gained a strong appreciation for working in a group. In most cases the control group (the students who did not receive recommendations from a class in a prior semester) was slightly lower in their project ratings than the two sequential project groups. On seven of the questions, between group differences were statistically significant at the $p<.10$ level. A confounding factor exists in the results as an artifact of the fact that Project 2 and the control group were taught by the same professor while Project 1 was taught by a different professor. Therefore ratings may be caused by the instructor and/or course content rather than the project itself. However, when we compare Project 2 to the control group we can see that they gave higher ratings to several significant questions. Including "I put a great deal of effort into this project," ($p=.005$); "As a result of this project, I have a greater appreciation of project management skills," ($p=.085$); and "I think that having the results from a prior research project helped my team make this project better," ($p=.003$).

Overall, the ratings given by the students completing Project 1 were higher on 17 of the 20 items than the ratings of the control group. The ratings of Project 2 students were higher than the control group on 15 of the twenty items. Again, because Project 2 students had the same instructor as the control group their responses to the project would be expected to be more similar. Also, the control and Project 2 projects were identical except for the information supplied by the prior class and the fact that the control group was working on the women's basketball team and Project 2 was working on the men's basketball team.

DISCUSSION

Three classes were used to examine several significant questions of whether or not sequential projects could be valuable as an experiential teaching method in marketing courses. Results indicate that student reactions were at least as positive as the reactions of students who did not complete a sequential project. Additionally, there was limited evidence that the sequential project experience was better, particularly in the area of project management skills. Also, students felt that the results from the project from the prior projects helped to make their projects better.

Due to the small sample size, and the use of a control group for comparison that did not have an identical experience, it is important to continue this stream of research to more clearly understand the effects of sequential projects. While sequential projects clearly allow students to deal with a different type of ambiguity, namely evaluating the work of others, they also provide a chance for students to practice implementation and coordination skills. The opportunity to use sequential projects to help students to develop their

TABLE 1
MEAN RATINGS FOR THREE CLASSES: PROJECTS 1 AND 2 DID SEQUENTIAL PROJECTS, THE CONTROL GROUP RECEIVED RESEARCH FROM THE CLIENT ORGANIZATION

Question	Project 1 Student Services	Control Women's Basketball	Project 2 Men's Basketball
As a learning experience, this project was more productive than listening to a lecture. *b	5.54	5.00	4.47
As a learning experience, this project was more enjoyable than listening to a lecture. *ab	5.50	4.74	4.28
Compared to group projects in other business-related courses, this project was more productive.	5.28	5.10	5.47
Compared to group projects in other business-related courses this project was less enjoyable. (reverse item)	2.96	3.33	2.76
Having students in other classes provide information was a positive aspect of this project.	5.50	N/A	5.28
As a result of completing this project, I have a greater appreciation of what it takes to work in a group. a	5.46	4.87	5.47
My understanding of the marketing planning process was enhanced by this project.	5.35	5.16	5.28
This project should not be assigned to future classes. (reverse item) ab	2.17	2.96	3.04
This project was one of the best parts of this course. * a	5.10	4.12	4.52
Compared to writing a term paper, this project was more interesting.	6.07	5.71	5.90
I feel confident that I could now complete this type of project for a company or organization.	5.17	5.16	5.47
The learning experience provided by this project was not worth the effort. (reverse item)	2.82	2.90	2.71
My understanding of marketing activities was enhanced by this project.	5.07	5.12	5.42
This project game me stronger motivation to work hard at learning than listening to lectures does. *a	5.14	4.44	4.38
I put a great deal of effort into this project. *bc	4.78	5.25	5.90
This project allows me to apply marketing concepts to a hands-on business project.	5.57	5.29	5.76
As a result of this project, I now have a greater appreciation of team management skills.	5.32	5.06	5.52
As a result of completing this project, I have a greater appreciation of project management skills.*c	5.39	4.90	5.61
I think this project would have been better if I could have talked to the people who did the research that my team used. c	4.53	4.25	4.85
I think that having the results from a prior research project helped my team make this project better. *ac	5.28	4.38	5.57

*p<.10
[a] columns 1 and 2 are significantly different at p<.10
[b] columns 1 and 2 are significantly different at p<.10
[c] columns 1 and 2 are significantly different at p<.10

project implementation skills should be exploited.

The sequential method of experiential projects is not without its difficulties. Among the challenges faced by the instructors were the hesitancy of students to rely on the work of other students whom they did not know, the variation in quality of work produced by the students in the preceding classes, and the feasibility of the ideas created by groups of students who were not responsible for implementation of their ideas.

In the case of Project 1, students in the preceding course came up with a single recommendation so there was no variability in what students in the second class received. It should be noted that a single instructor taught both classes in Project 1, and was able to guide the students through the different tasks. It was set up this way, by the instructor, based on the learning objectives of each course syllabus. However, in Project 2 there were five student teams and they were allowed to use the recommendations of any of six student teams from the preceding semester. Thus, students struggled to decide which team's recommendations to use. Of course, this can provide a valuable learning experience, but a difficult task for students. Again, a single professor taught both classes in Project 2.

One of the biggest drawbacks of using sequential projects was the loss of first hand experience at conducting all stages of a project. Also, students from the later

classes were unable to consult with the students from the prior classes, except in the case of Project 1 where five students had taken the second course after being in the first course. In this particular case, the five students who enrolled in both classes, shared their experiences and data with the students from the second class, in class discussions and project strategy sessions. Nonetheless, students in both project groups indicated that they felt that the project would have been better if they had been able to talk to the students that had done the original research. This created a question in some 'second' term students as to whether or not the best choices were, in fact, made by the 'first' term students. Furthermore, several students conveyed a 'disconnect' of sorts, stemming from the fact that there were so many tasks and so little time, that they 'individually' were assigned only a small part of the overall responsibilities, and as a result, didn't 'experience' the satisfaction that being more deeply involved from the beginning might have brought them.

In an effort to overcome some of these shortcomings changes will be implemented in Project 2. After discussions with the project client, it was agreed that in future semesters the project would be redesigned such that each semester all students would implement the recommendations from the preceding semester and also conduct their own research for the purpose of making recommendations for the subsequent semester. Hopefully, this change will serve to make students more sensitive to the difficulties others have when implementing someone else's recommendations. Also, it will give students the opportunity to perform both stages of the project and still have an entire semester to implement the recommendations made.

The biggest advantage of using sequential projects is that students can be exposed to projects that are too large to be completed in a single semester. Also, they can experience implementation, something that is often excluded from student projects due to time limitations. Another important advantage of using sequential projects is that many service learning opportunities are ongoing and having a project run over several semesters allows many students to be involved in valuable experiences. In the particular case of Project 1, establishing contact with outside corporations was paramount to financially supporting the students in their efforts to fund their research and find a solution to their on-campus problem. The students were able to secure a material donation from one company, and a cash donation from another. This was critical to the outcome since the University itself provided no funds for this learning experience. This collaboration provided a clear illustration of how non-profit, student powered organizations and outside private corporations can work together for mutual gain.

In conclusion, we believe that the evidence support further examination of the use of sequential projects in marketing courses. Students benefit through the experience of using information provide by others, as is often the case in the workplace. Also, sequential projects keep clients engaged over longer periods of time.

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CRITICAL REFLECTION AND THE MARKETING CURRICULM: TRANSITIONING STUDENTS TO HIGHER LEVEL THINKING

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ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

Many of today's marketing students enter the business world with inadequate exposure to decision integration and reflective thinking skills necessary for discovering insights through experience, necessary requisites to becoming life-long learners (Catterall et al. 2002). In response, there is growing interest in developing curricular and educational practices that motivate, develop, and nurture reflective thinking in students (Hay et al. 2004).

Reflection was originally conceptualized as "active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusion to which it tends" (p. 9). This conceptualization is built on two associated ideas: "(1) a state of doubt, hesitation, perplexity, mental difficulty, in which thinking originates, and (2) an act of searching, hunting, inquiring, to find material that will resolve the doubt, settle and dispose of the perplexity" (p. 12). More recently, Peltier et al. (2006) conceptualized a reflective learning continuum, one that has a range of lower and higher order learning processes that encompasses habitual action, basic understanding, deep processing, deep understanding, reflection, and intensive reflection.

Underdeveloped in the marketing and business education literature, reflection is seen as a critical requirement to effective decision making, particularly in decision environments characterized as having ambiguous problems, unique requirements, and that lack clear resolution scenarios (Peltier et al. 2005).

Despite the paucity of conceptual and empirical research in the marketing and management education literature, developing reflective thinking skills in graduates should be a high priority for both the academic and business community. Without question, graduates who acknowledge that life-long learning is a journey of self-discovery, one that requires the testing of personal assumptions, beliefs, and actions, will be best prepared for leadership and leading by example.

Although reflection as a theoretical construct in the marketing education literature is in its infancy, the recent works published in the *Journal of Marketing Education* by Catterall et al. (2002), Peltier et al. (2005, 2006), and Roy and Macchiette (2006) underscore its importance. Clearly, marketing educators need to find ways to incorporate reflective learning into their curriculum (Lincoln 2005, 2006).

SESSION OBJECTIVES

Reflective learning skills can be learned and assessed in a variety of ways. Our special session focuses on three specific avenues: (1) the role of student groups in developing critical reflection opportunities, (2) how US and European universities differ in their approach to reflective education, and (3) the importance of transitioning students across the reflective learning continuum as they move through their college careers.

1. *The Role of Student Groups in Developing Critical Reflection Opportunities.* We first examine how student organizations can enhance reflective learning through the professional development programs that they offer students. We report the findings from a large scale study of Collegiate American Marketing Association Chapters from across the U.S. and the region. We highlight those professional development activities that are deemed most important to students and how they impact organization satisfaction.

2. *How US and European Universities Differ in Their Approach to Reflective Education.* Findings are reported that compare three universities, one each from the U.S., the United Kingdom and Germany. There is clear evidence of the importance of reflective learning and that cross-global educational differences do exist.

3. *Importance of Transitioning Students Across the Reflective Learning Continuum as They Move Through Their College Careers.* We conclude the special session with findings from a three-

level study measuring reflective learning characteristics of pre-business students (students during their first two years in their undergraduate programs), graduating undergraduate business majors, and MBA students. The findings suggest that students do in fact change their desired learning and evaluation needs as they become more experienced learners.

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SERVICE LEARNING IN A PERSONAL SELLING CLASS: SYSTEMS ARE THE SECRET

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this presentation is to expand upon my description of service learning in a personal selling course (Hagenbuch 2006) by detailing specific systems that have enabled the Sales Project to benefit students and nonprofit partners. In addition, these replicable methods have allowed me to manage a course that requires more time than other classes. The systems can be categorized into three interrelated areas: relationships & communication, strategy & tactics, and record-keeping & reporting.

SYSTEMS FOR BUILDING RELATIONSHIPS AND MAINTAINING COMMUNICATION

Key to the success of the Sales Project is building positive relationships with local nonprofit organizations and maintaining open communication.

Community Partners Luncheon

Nonprofit organizations are invited on campus to a luncheon for exploring partnership opportunities.

Pre-Course Survey

Through an online survey, students indicate the nonprofit organization they would most like to serve.

Initial Student-Client Meeting

Student teams meet their clients and learn more about the organization they will be serving.

Correspondence with Clients

Teams provide weekly email updates of their work, while I send specific letters to clients at particular stages of the Sales Project.

Frequent Sales Meetings

Class-time often takes on a sales meeting format in which we discuss selling successes and challenges.

Wiki Site

A unique Wiki site allows students and clients to share important Sales Project information.

SYSTEMS FOR MANAGING SELLING STRATEGY AND TACTICS

Students participate in two distinct planning processes and receive tactical-level sales training.

Marketing Plans and Personal Selling Strategies

Student teams develop marketing plans and personal selling strategies based on their client's needs.

Project Management Timeline

The planning process, workflow, and deadlines are managed through an electronic Project Timeline.

Typical Classroom Tools

Students receive training through common classroom pedagogies such as lecture, discussion, guest speakers, and textbook readings.

Training Presentations

Teams role-play specific selling scenarios, then offer analysis of the techniques they presented.

SYSTEMS FOR RECORD-KEEPING AND REPORTING

Several electronic tools help those involved keep track of sales contacts and results.

Sales-Call Logs

Students record each sales call they make, including prospects' contact information and call outcomes.

Sales Reporting Spreadsheet

A master worksheet is used to keep track of sales made by all five sales teams.

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WHAT I WISH I HAD KNOWN ABOUT THE ACCREDITATION PROCESS

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ABSTRACT

The primary focus of this Special Session Panel is to address those professors who are currently or have recently gone through the accreditation process. Specifically, this session will aim to exchange ideas and insights into strategies about how to effectively and efficiently develop and monitor "Learning Outcomes" from their respective school of business and/or their department of Marketing.

"Learning Outcomes" have become an absolute necessity in Marketing higher education. It would be beneficial to hear from those professors that have already been through this experience to share what they have learned, what has specifically worked well, as well as share ideas that have not been as successful. Furthermore, it would be an opportunity to provide helpful "Assessment Tools" that have been developed to assist colleagues attending the MEA conference. For example, at the Crowell School of Business, we have developed an assessment tool called the "Learning Outcomes Overview Chart." This helpful tool benefits both the marketing educators as well as the visiting accreditation team by providing an easy way of assessing a comprehensive learning outcome. The chart is divided into the following five sections:

A. Overview of the Measurement (Relevance to Program Goals, Desired Learning Outcomes);

B. Background of Measurement (Official launch date, frequency & method of collecting the information);

C. Actual Measurement Tool (Discuss why this tool was utilized as opposed to other options, Is measurement nationally and/or regionally normed?, Is their internal/external validation?);

D. Provide Evidence of Outcomes Data (Actual charts of Highlights and Concerns from the data collected);

E. Continual Follow-up Plans (Discuss the continual plan of action(s) as a result of the data collected in an effort to "Close the Loop").

APPLYING CRM IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

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ABSTRACT

The market for higher education in the U.S. is changing. According to *The Chicago Tribune* and *The Wall Street Journal*, as quoted in *The Ivy Jungle Network's Campus Ministry Update*, August 2000 (IvyJungle@aol.com), "The coming decade will see a significant increase in the number of nontraditional students (i.e., only 1/6 of the nation's 15 million college students fits the typical 18-22 years old stereotype)." These nontraditional students are looking for convenient and tailored programs resulting in an influx of new entrants (e.g., University of Phoenix, notHarvard.com) with creative offerings (e.g. online). The *Wall Street Journal* excerpt continues, "With an increasing amount of money flowing into online education, conventional universities have gone on the offensive, hoping to protect their share in the $250 billion market of higher education ... at a time when there has been a steady decline within the past 3 years of students enrolling in MBA programs in the U.S." (*BusinessWeek* 2005).

Given the competitive landscape and demographic trends in higher education, the challenge for traditional universities is how to meet and exceed buyers' expectations of education/learning. Customer Relationship Management (CRM) has been a major cornerstone strategy applied by Corporate America to exceed buyers' expectations when acquiring, growing, and retaining customers. In addition, these same buyer/customer-centric strategies have been applied by Corporate America to their employees for the purpose of: employee acquisition, employee performance growth, and employee retention. In a higher education environment, the company/employer-to-employee relationship comes closest to the university/teacher-to-student relationship. Hence, CRM, as applied by employers, can also be adopted by universities to their buyers. A key early step in developing a customer-centric strategy is to listen to the customer (Peppers and Rodgers 1997) in order to understand their perceptions and preferences. This understanding will serve as guiding principles that will contribute to the success of CRM and the university itself.

This special session will be staffed with a diverse panel of full-time, tenure track, and part-time faculty members in varying stages of their academic careers who teach a cross-section of classes to varying demographic segments of college students. They will discuss students' perceptions and preferences for service, process, resources, and personnel (e.g., faculty, administrators) based on early findings from marketing student surveys and propose approaches that can be applied by faculty members to start treating their students as buyers/customers.

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EXPERIENCE AS LEARNING 101: DEFINITIONS, THEORIES AND APPLICATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Experiential learning has existed for as long as people have prepared for careers. While Kolb and his experiential learning theory is perhaps the most commonly referenced in the experiential learning and business literature, the roots of experiential learning extend far beyond his work. This presentation provides an overview of the history of experiential learning, and a discussion and comparison of the major theorists. The presentation then will provide a discussion of the role and relevance of experiential education in the marketing classroom, including an overview and comparison of the major types of experiential learning activities found in the marketing literature.

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

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ABSTRACT

Experiential learning is a topic that has received considerable research attention over the past five years. Two important pedagogical methods within the experiential learning family not receiving as much attention are project-based learning and problem-based learning. While these instructional methods share similar characteristics, they are different. This study explores these two instructional methods in relation to critical thinking, student-instructor interaction and course evaluations.

Project-based learning emphasizes information search and retrieval, knowledge application, and critical thinking. Groups engage in lengthy projects based on commonly encountered problems and situations. These efforts end with delivery of a marketing plan and presentation

Problem-based learning challenges students to "learn to learn," by working in small groups seeking solutions to real world problems. Students meet regularly to investigate, explain and resolve complex real-world problems. Problems commonly consist of a description of a situation requiring an explanation and resolution. These problems often take the form of business cases.

This study compares these two pedagogies in an undergraduate introductory marketing class. Three research questions were asked: 1) Will problem-based learning increase student-instructor interaction and critical thinking more than project-based learning? 2) What were some of the students' thoughts and feelings experienced during the course? 3) Will the problem-based learning help or hurt an instructor's course evaluations?

In this study, two classes (n=190) were assigned a single project-based learning marketing plan project due at the end of the term. A third class (n=105) received four individual problem-based learning cases. Each case required iterative cycles of observation, evaluation, reflection, abstract thinking, hypothesizing, and testing.

The nature of this study is both descriptive and exploratory. The students' feelings and attitudes were analyzed using standard quantitative and qualitative research techniques. Seventeen Likert scaled questions measured students' perception of the two instructional methods. One open-ended question invited students to record feelings experienced during the class. Course assessments provided the data necessary to evaluate variance of instructor evaluations

The data collected on the seventeen individual questions was analyzed using the independent-sample t-test procedure in SPSS. The results indicated significant differences in critical thinking and student-instructor interaction between problem-based learning and project-based learning, with problem based learning higher.

The open-ended question was thematically coded and analyzed. Five of the six comment categories that emerged indicated a significant difference between the two pedagogies (groups, assignments, class structure, real world experience, and critical thinking).

Three of the eleven instructor evaluation items were significantly different and higher for problem-based learning: "Emphasizes conceptual understanding," "Has students apply concepts to demonstrate understanding," and "What grade do you expect?"

In summary, problem-based learning is suitable for undergraduate introductory marketing classes if increased student-instructor interaction and critical thinking are goals. Other important objectives making this methodology appropriate are: greater self-directed learning and class discussion, a real world orientation, and more analysis – evaluation – creation. Issues making this teaching method problematic are: the ill-defined nature of the problems, lack of student real world experience, students unwilling to engage in the learning process, student assessment, and increased instructor time and effort.

Finally, marketing educators must decide whether the return in increased gains in student knowledge is worth the additional preparation and time necessary to teach a problem-based learning curriculum successfully.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING: INQUIRY DEPTH AND BREADTH OF OTHER- VERSUS SELF-DRIVEN MODELS

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ABSTRACT

Within the experiential learning cycle (Kolb 1984) two primary modes of learning can be identified: other-directed and self-directed learning. Other-directed learning occurs by absorbing and elaborating on thoughts conveyed by others. To contrast, the self-directed approach to learning is more exploratory in nature. Here, knowledge develops through the process of personal episodes, during which people develop ideas grounded in their observations. Providing learning experiences that are partly self-directed and partly other-directed is being viewed as beneficial and even necessary (Dewey 1997).

In this exploratory study, the authors seek to examine whether the breadth and depth of student inquiries vary depending on the mode of learning. The authors evaluate student learning that results from working on an experiential assignment in the Consumer Behavior course. The assignment involves the linking of theory and data by having student teams statistically analyze data on consumer spending behaviors. The more specific objective was to have students learn how consumer values and demographic characteristics are related to spending behaviors. The assignment includes analyses questions that motivate other-directed learning. The assignment also includes a more open-ended challenge that motivates self-directed learning.

The other-directed set of analysis instructions entailed, as per the Experiential Learning model, the professor starting by presenting abstract concepts and generalizations, and a definition of values. Students were given several arguments about how values may affect consumption, and hence spending. To move students to the next level of the experiential learning process, students were then instructed to empirically assess the links between values and spending using actual survey data. Students were told to use regression analysis at a minimum, but were allowed to use any additional analysis desired. Finally, to move students to the stage of reflection, students were instructed to write a brief summary report that conveyed insights and conclusions based on their analysis.

The self-directed set of analysis instructions simply entailed asking students to evaluate the survey data, and try to understand how consumer variables relate to spending. Students were advised to reflect on their own experiences, form generalized ideas, and then write a brief summary report that conveyed insights and conclusions based on their analysis.

The results provide evidence that self-directed approaches to learning results in more holistic in-depth interpretations. The concrete experiences preceding the analysis perhaps lead to more detailed reflective observations. To contrast, other-directed approaches to learning seem to be reduced to a more technical and superficial analysis. Here, the reflective observations are at a minimum. However, since this mode of learning is induced by the instructor, he or she has the opportunity to include a greater breadth of subject matters. Interestingly, none of the two modes of learning reaches the ideal learning goals of large breadth as well as depth.

Some initial recommendations include: (1) When using self-directed assignments, the authors recommend having at least two separate submissions. The professor can scan for overly narrow analysis and can suggest further analysis to enhance the breadth for a second submission. (2) When using an other-directed approach, find early stopping points to prod students to think about and suggest a variety of ideas. The goal of this open-ended prodding is to enable the other-directed learning to gain depth in inquiry. (3) If a class largely contains self-directed learning experiences, emphasize some cumulative knowledge testing (e.g., in exams or papers). This recommended tactic encourages more breadth in thoughts, so the natural tendency of narrow inquiry is combated.

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ENHANCING THE VALUE OF THE UNDERGRADUATE MARKETING INTERNSHIP PROGRAM: A CASE STUDY APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

The number of business students participating in some form of internship prior to graduation is growing due to employers' preference for graduates who have completed an internship. Thus, it is surprising that so little has been written, at least recently, regarding the changing role that internships play in the overall business curriculum and, more specifically, concerning whether and how the internship program *content* should be redesigned. The focus of this paper is on how one particular internship – a marketing internship program at a Northwest Public University – was recently restructured in light of trends and research findings.

INTRODUCTION

The number of business students participating in some form of internship prior to graduation is significant and growing, with one third of AACSB schools reporting that over 50% of their students had completed an internship in 1999 (Coco 2000). This renewed interest in internships is driven by a number of factors. First, employers report that marketing graduates lack critical professional and career development skills (Kelley and Bridges 2005; Schibrowsky et al. 2002) and internships are one curricular means of developing them. AACSB's new standards for student skill development and learning outcomes reflect the perspective that we are training professionals for a career in business, not liberal arts graduates (AACSB 2005; Schibrowsky et al. 2002).

Second, students perceive internships (and other experiential, active, real-world learning activities) to be more enjoyable, challenging and, most importantly, of strategic importance in gaining employment in their field after graduation (Cook et al. 2004; Frontczak 2000; Gault et al. 2000; Karns 2005). Third, empirical support for the positive relationship between a business internship and career success has been increasing (Gault et al. 2000; Knouse et al. 1999; Sandvig et al. 2005): students who complete an internship are more likely to obtain their first job more quickly after graduation, list more networking contacts, report higher entry level salaries, and have greater overall job satisfaction. Last, and perhaps most important, a greater number of employers are beginning to utilize internships as a tool for recruitment and retention of college graduates (DiLorenzo-Aiss and Mathisen 1996; Gault et al. 2000; Pianko 1996; Watson 1995).[1] Given the increased importance placed on the internship experience by both students and employers, it is surprising that so little has been written, at least recently, regarding its changing role in the overall business curriculum and, more specifically, concerning whether and how the internship program *content* should be redesigned. Thus, the focus of this paper is on how one particular internship – a marketing internship program at a Northwest Public University – was recently re-structured in light of these trends and research findings. We begin with a brief look at how the objectives and timing of business internships have evolved over the last three decades.

EVOLUTION OF THE UNDERGRADUATE BUSINESS INTERNSHIP PROGRAM

Traditional Business Internship Model

Up until the early to mid 1990s, business/marketing students typically participated in an internship during the summer between their junior and senior years of their undergraduate business program (Henry et al. 1988). Students had typically completed only one "Principles" course in each of the functional areas, e.g. marketing, finance, management. The most common objective was to learn about the different business careers in order to determine which business discipline to major or concentrate in. Thus, students possessed minimal skills and internship employers could not and did not expect interns to carry out in-depth projects in any one functional area. The internship consisted of a significant amount of administrative (as opposed to managerial) tasks and was, as a consequence, typically unpaid (Henry et al. 1988).

21st Century Business Internship Model

By the mid-1990s, employers were beginning to see the value of the internship as a recruiting tool, while students began to see how an internship could give them a competitive edge in the job market with a

[1] There are certainly other important benefits associated with internships (e.g. fund-raising opportunities due to closer ties with the business community, improved student recruitment efforts due to better a placement record), but these are not the focus of the present study.

particular company or industry (Cook et al. 2004). For both groups, these benefits accrue only when the intern is able to move into an entry level position soon after completing the internship. Thus, the timing of the internship began to shift toward the end of the college career; many more students now participate in an internship during the last quarter of their senior year.

With the shift in objectives and timing, students are consequently better trained in a particular major/ concentration, having almost completed their degree. The type and nature of the internship have changed as well. Interns are able to locate intern-ships in their major (finance, marketing, etc.), take on more responsibility within the firm, and complete more complex, managerial projects (e.g. marketing plans, media analyses, marketing research projects). These increased responsibilities have resulted in the creation of more paid internships. Interestingly, in the last six years, personal experience suggests that a significant number of students are delaying their graduation and using the last quarter of their senior year to do their internship in the locale – and with the firm – where they plan to relocate after they graduate.

Challenges and Unresolved Issues

With the increase in the number of students participating in business internships, and the recent empirical evidence that demonstrates a positive link between internships and job placement/success, it is extremely important that the *quality of the internship program* be monitored and continually improved. The reputation of the University, relationships with the business community and most importantly, the learning outcomes realized by the intern are all at risk if the internship program is not designed properly. At a minimum, it should include (1) clear learning objectives and activities, (2) assessment methods to evaluate these objectives, and (3) consultation with and feedback from the business community regarding the internship program. The curriculum or learning activities should reflect recent pedagogical research such as that reviewed in the introduction. In the next section of the paper, an example of a recently re-structured internship program that attempts to follow these suggestions is described.

CASE STUDY: A MARKETING INTERNSHIP PROGRAM

Overall Objectives/Goals

The primary objective of the internship program is to prepare marketing students for a career in business by giving them the opportunity to apply their textbook knowledge (theory and best practices) in the real world of business. The internship also serves as an experiential learning activity that will assist students with their leadership, interpersonal, teamwork, communication and other skills identified as critical by employers (see Table 1). Finally, the internship provides a low risk method for employers and interns to "check each other out" for possible post-graduate employment.

Enrollment Trends

The internship course or program is currently a 400 level elective in the marketing major, attracting 35-40 students per year over each of the past three years. This is a significant increase over the previous ten years, as students now recognize the importance of the internship as a portfolio-building experience. The re-structuring of the program discussed in this paper was implemented during Fall 2006, precluding a comparison of interns' and employers' experiences before and after the restructuring. However, this comparison will be made at the end of the 2006-07 academic year, once there are sufficient data.

Timing

Consistent with the discussion above, students are encouraged (through advising, a GPA minimum and the course pre-requisites) to participate in the internship program during the last quarter of their senior year, and to find an internship in the location where they plan to live after they graduate.

Unlike other traditional courses, students prepare for the internship well in advance of actually participating in it. They usually meet with the professor/internship coordinator up to a year before they plan to enroll in the program, at which time they are told to begin by writing a one page reflective essay on their career goals and strategy. This essay includes a rationale for the type of internship they seek, the location in which they want to complete their internship, and which courses they believe they will need to complete as pre-requisites. This exercise serves to focus their thoughts and energies in preparation for the next steps of the process, resume preparation and internship search. Students are made aware of the minimum GPA criterion at this early stage, which allows them time to improve their grades if need be.

Sources of Internships

A database of internship employers in the region is maintained; this database is updated through the use of an annual survey sent to organizations (both in the database and new to the area). Many internship opportunities come in via marketing alumni, while some students find their own. Interns complete a one

page evaluation of the internship employer at the conclusion of the internship and this is added to the database for other students to review.

Screening of Students and Qualifying Employers

Students. Students must be marketing majors, maintain a 2.75 GPA in their marketing courses, have completed the Principles, Marketing Research, and Consumer Behavior courses. Additional electives may be required depending on the type of internship. For example, if a student plans to do an Account Services internship at an advertising agency, he/she must complete the IMC course first.

Employers. All employers are screened with a visit to their place of operation. The firm must operate out of a commercially zoned location (no home offices) and must have a desk for the student. The internship supervisor must know more about marketing than the student (this is supposed to be a mentoring situation). The firm puts together a job description after preliminary discussions with the Professor/Internship Coordinator. The projects or tasks cannot involve personal selling, nor can more than 10% of the intern's time be devoted to data entry or administrative tasks. Employers are asked to include one project that the student can be responsible for from start to finish, and one formal presentation to management. Employers are also informed about the portfolio requirement (see below) and the importance of generating tangible output to include in this portfolio. It may take several drafts or iterations before the employer develops a job description that is approved and ready to be posted for students to peruse.

Information Dissemination regarding Internships

Students find out about the availability of marketing internships in a number of different ways. All marketing majors are invited to subscribe to a listserv to which internship job descriptions are posted. In addition to the "hard copy" internship database maintained in the internship coordinator's office, there is also an online, interactive internship database, accessible by employers and students, that is currently being populated. In-class announcements and the Student Marketing Club website are other important sources of internship opportunities. While these listings of internship availabilities are useful, students also receive training on how to search online internship databases, particularly when they plan to re-locate elsewhere to complete the internship. Finally, students are reminded to consider the career goals they identified in their reflective essay when considering various internship options.

Hiring Process Mirrors Real-World

Students apply directly to the firm offering the internship; the professor/internship coordinator does not get involved. Insofar as possible, employers are asked to use a hiring process similar to "real-world" procedures. This means that students must create a resume and a cover letter, seek approval from three references, prepare for at least one interview and follow up "thank you" note, and negotiate compensation. Students are directed to the Career Center for classes in interviewing techniques and resume preparation. Rehearsing these skills in a lower risk environment like an internship is an excellent means of gaining self-confidence.

Internship Contract and Syllabus

Once the student has been "hired" based on an approved employer and job description, a contract signed off by the three parties – intern, internship supervisor/employer, professor/internship coordinator – is completed. The contract includes: (1) contact information for all three parties, (2) the job description, (3) start and end dates, hours per week and total hours; 160 hours total for 4 credits, (4) due dates for all assignments/activities, (5) compensation (if any), and (6) signatures of the three parties. There is also a syllabus that specifies the responsibilities for each party. For the employer, these include a weekly critique session with the student to provide feedback on his/her performance, and midterm and final letters of evaluation. The student intern must meet with or email the internship coordinator weekly with summaries of his/her internship activities. At the end of the internship the intern develops a professional portfolio of all work performed. These responsibilities, or learning activities, are derived from the overall learning objectives developed for the internship program.

Learning Objectives/Methods of Assessment

As noted in the Introduction, practitioners believe that certain professional and career development skills are important (and in some cases, lacking) in our marketing graduates if they are to succeed in marketing careers (Kelley and Bridges 2005; Schibrowsky et al. 2002). A marketing internship can be an important avenue for acquiring these skills if it is structured appropriately. After reviewing the literature concerning which skills are deemed most important by practitioners (see Kelley and Bridges 2005 for a review), a number of these skills were selected as appropriate for including as learning objectives in the current marketing internship program, and methods of assessment were designed to ensure that students do acquire these skills. Table 1 specifies the

relationship between each skill and learning activity. Note that the learning activities (i.e., responsibilities or "assignments") are in chronological order, and **in bold.** "Instruction" refers to a one-on-one discussion between the student and the professor or internship coordinator.

Importance of Portfolio

The portfolio showcases the work the student has done during the internship and as such, is a powerful self-marketing tool when the student is interviewing for jobs after graduation. Both students and employers have reported that the portfolio has often given the student a competitive advantage over others interviewing for the position. For this reason, emphasis is placed not only on the substantive content of the portfolio, but on its organization and its professional "look." Prose is minimized in favor of displaying actual work samples with accompanying explanatory text. Each portfolio is organized along similar lines, but the work samples differ in content and media (e.g., CD of web site, photos, Power Point slides, SPSS printouts, etc.). As marketers, students are encouraged to be creative in the presentation of their work and whenever possible, the graphics and letterhead of the internship organization are evident throughout the portfolio.

Feedback from Employer and Intern

Informal communications between each internship employer and the professor/internship coordinator occur regularly. However, **each employer** is contacted at the completion of the internship and a "debriefing" session is held to ascertain whether the employer has had a satisfactory experience. Changes to the job description and screening criteria are made as needed based on this conversation. As noted earlier, **each intern** completes a one page evaluation of his/her internship experience that is screened for appropriateness and then added to the internship database. Unsatisfactory internship experiences are handled by either working with the employer to correct problems or, if this approach is unsuccessful, by terminating the internship relationship with this employer (rare).

Tracking of the Internship-Career Success Relationship

All interns are required to complete an exit survey (www.wwu.edu/~bryce/exitsurvey) to be handed in with the Portfolio. The exit survey asks them to reflect on the internship experience, indicate whether they received a job offer from the internship organization and provide a permanent email contact address for a follow-up survey in one year. Tracking marketing interns after graduation allows an assessment of whether, as previous studies have demonstrated (e.g. Gault et al. 2000; Sandvig et al. 2005), students who complete a marketing internship have more career success than those who do not complete an internship (the exit survey is completed by all marketing majors). Insufficient data exists at present to make any conclusions regarding this hypothesis.

CONCLUSION

This paper outlines how one undergraduate marketing internship program at a business school in the Northwest has recently been restructured to address changes in the role of internships and concerns about the adequacy of the skills that marketing students are acquiring in our under-graduate business programs. It is too early to determine whether the quality of our marketing graduates will improve with these modifications to just one course, particularly since the internship program/course is an elective course in the marketing major, not a required one. However, if we are to transform marketing education so that a more "professional school" approach to teaching and learning marketing is taken (Schibrowsky et al. 2002) – a transformation that is sorely needed if we are to meet the demands of the 21st century marketplace – then changes to the internship program such as those suggested in this paper are a step, albeit a small one, in the right direction.

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TABLE 1

Learning Objective * (Skill Acquired)	Method of Assessment (Learning Activities)
Career Goals and Strategy	**One page reflective essay** on topic with rationale for type(s) of internship sought (e.g. ad agency, marketing research firm) and locale
Resume Preparation	With career goals in mind, **review/revise resume** drafts prior to submission to internship employers
Job Search Methods	**Instruction**** on how to search internship databases; criteria to use in light of career goals
Interviewing Skills	**Career center class** taken + **instruction** on pre-interview preparation, post-interview follow-up
Salary Negotiation	**Role playing exercises and instruction**; determination of how important compensation is to student
Business Etiquette and Attire	**Instruction** given; **books recommended**; discussion of corporate culture based on observations during interview
Written Communication Skills	As part of job description, intern must produce several written documents (e.g. marketing plan, marketing research report, web site, press releases); **employer letters of evaluation (midterm and final); Portfolio; weekly meetings/ emails between student and professor**
Presentation Skills	As part of job description, intern must make one formal presentation on an assigned project; **employer letters of evaluation; Portfolio; weekly meetings/emails**
Leadership Skills	As part of job description, intern is responsible for one project start to finish that requires initiative and teamwork; **employer letters of evaluation; Portfolio; weekly meetings/emails**
Portfolio Development Skills	**Professional Portfolio** of all work completed during the internship, to be turned in at the end of the internship; employer is made aware of the importance of assigning projects with tangible output for the intern's Portfolio
Skills Assessment	**One page summary of skills acquired**; included in Portfolio; midterm and final letters of evaluation from employer
Ability to apply text-book marketing concepts	Examination of these documents in Portfolio

* These skills are taken from Kelley and Bridges 2005.
**"Instruction" refers to a one-on-one discussion between the student and the professor or internship coordinator.

IMPROVING WRITING THROUGH THE MARKETING CURRICULUM: A LONGITUDINAL STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Writing skills are essential for marketing students (Kelly and Gaedeke 1990; McDaniel and White 1993), yet at this research site, as with probably many other colleges, writing skill had shown no improvement through four years of business education (Bacon and Anderson 2004). One reason why writing skills are not sufficiently emphasized in marketing education is that they are difficult and time consuming to teach.

A new approach to teaching writing skills, based on an automatically-scored instrument, has recently shown potential for improving writing skills while not demanding too much of the teacher's time (Bacon and Anderson 2004). The method asks students to identify grammatical errors in a short passage of text (approximately 1.5 pages double-spaced). Substantial improvements in editing skill were achieved across a single pretest and posttest using this test (ES = 0.7 standard deviations). Importantly, the only intervention by the teacher was to distribute a study sheet to prepare for the editing test.

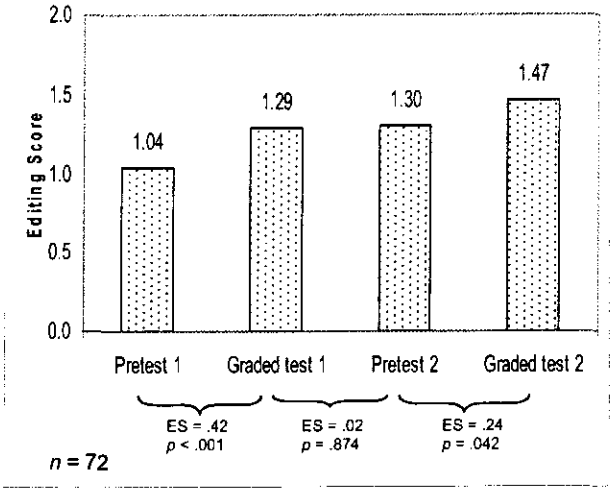
The present research extends Bacon and Anderson's (2004) findings by addressing two research questions:

RQ1: What pattern of improvement and forgetting is apparent after repeated cycles of pre-testing and testing on the editing task?

RQ2: How strongly is performance on the editing task related to writing performance?

To address these questions, data were collected over several quarters and across several courses. Multiple forms were used, and all forms were equated using the Rasch model (Rasch 1980). A total of 566 observations (pretests or posttests) were collected. The pretests were unannounced and did not count toward the student's grade, while the posttest was announced and did count toward the grade. Of all the observations, 72 students were found to have completed the pretest and posttest at least twice and so were included in the longitudinal study. To measure actual writing skills, writing samples were collected from 68 students and scored by two independent raters (alpha = .79).

FIGURE 1
IMPROVEMENTS IN WRITING OVER TIME



As shown in Figure 1, editing scores did improve with each administration of the editing test. Surprisingly, little or no decay in learning was observed between the first graded test and the second pretest (average retention interval = 18 weeks). The stability of this learning may be related to the frequent use of this skill, as opposed to the one-time learning characterized by the knowledge studied in Bacon and Stewart (2006).

The correlation between actual writing skill and editing skill was found to be .43 ($p < .001$). This relationship, while significant, was not as strong as it might otherwise have been due to the fact that students may have received outside help on writing their papers, they may have used a grammar checker, and they may have avoided grammatical forms that they were uncomfortable with.

In summary, evidence was found that editing skills can be improved with repeated administrations of an automatically-scored editing test, and that the improvement in skill is fairly stable over time. Further, the skill demonstrated on the editing task is associated with actual writing skill. Thus, this research demonstrates the effectiveness of repeated automated testing in improving student writing skills.

References Available on Request

IMPROVING THE CASE DISCUSSION WITH AN IMPROV MINDSET

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ABSTRACT

Business practitioners and scholars have increasingly recognized the value of improvisation in the business world. Organizational improvisation, has been studied in the context of, for example, new product development (Moorman and Miner 1998), organizational learning (Miner et al 2001), organizational design and analysis (Weick 1998), and organizational restructuring (Ciborra 1996). To better understand and explain the phenomenon of organizational improvisation, scholars have turned to improvisational arts, specifically theater and jazz, where improvisation is the norm, rather than the exception (Cunha et al 1999). For example, improvisational theater has been invoked to better understand business innovation (Crossan 1997), management (e.g., Koppett 2002), collaborative technology (McKnight and Bontis 2002), and team performance (Vera and Crossan 2005). Given the scholarly attention that has been devoted to using improvisational metaphors and techniques to better understand business, it is somewhat surprising that with a few exceptions (e.g., Gibb 2004), there is scant literature about how these techniques can be applied to improve business pedagogy. This paper describes how establishing an improvisational "mindset" in the classroom can improve discussions surrounding a case.

According to *Truth in Comedy*, "We all go through life everyday without a script, responding to our environment, making it up as we go along." (Halpern, Close, and Johnson 1994, p. 14). Indeed, all conversation is basically improvised (Sawyer 2000), and a case discussion is essentially an extended conversation. While much improvisation is extemporaneous, this is not to say that improvisers do not prepare and rehearse. On the contrary, successful improvisation relies on several guidelines that must be extensively practiced for the improvisers to be successful. Successful improv also requires players to listen intently to each other, to be "in the moment," in order to be successful.

The paper first briefly summarizes the case method and some of the challenges associated with utilizing it. It then describes several guidelines that can lead to an "improv mindset," defined as a predisposition to collaborate rather than compete, and support your fellow players' actions and ideas in order to see where they lead.

The cornerstone of improv theater is the concept of "yes, and" (e.g., Crossan 1998). This concept means that players must accept what other players say, then build upon it. Correctly utilizing this relatively simple concept leads individual improvisers to a sense of confidence in their abilities. The concept of "accept and build" is easy to explain and easy for students to understand. Other improv guidelines that may be beneficial to discussions include DORQ (Deny, Order, Repeat and Question), Driving in the Rearview Mirror, Build a Brick, not a Cathedral, Take Care of Yourself, and "Mistakes" are Good Offers in Disguise.

While it is doubtful that a business class could ever be mistaken for an improv troupe, an instructor can begin to instill the improv mindset by explaining some of the improv guidelines discussed in this paper and by reinforcing their use. If students accept and build upon each others' responses, and if they have confidence in their actions and that their actions will be supported by the rest of the group, they are more likely to take risks by participating and offering novel ways of viewing a problem.

In all, an improv mindset can lead to "high trust; spontaneity and creativity; collaboration; listening and awareness; communication; and effective interaction." (Gibb 2004, p. 743), all traits that are valuable in a case discussion. Comedienne Gilda Radner said: "Some stories don't have a clear beginning, middle and end. Life is about not knowing, having to change, taking the moment and making the best of it, without knowing what's going to happen next. Delicious ambiguity...." This describes improv, and case discussions, quite well.

The author is grateful to improv performers Elyse Becker, Steve Kleinedler, Sharon Leckie, Will Luera, David Marino, Matt Mosher and Erik Volkert; and case teachers Susan Fournier, Joby John and Andrew Zacharakis. Each contributed insights that greatly enhanced this paper.

References Available on Request

TEACHING THE MBA MARKETING RESEARCH CLASS ONLINE

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ABSTRACT

This MEA 2007 special session describes, in great detail, the frustrations, exhilarations and everything in between of developing and teaching an online Marketing Research class for MBA students, for the first time, during Fall 2006.

The online class is built on a series of html PowerPoint presentations. The author adopted a very well-regarded and established MBA-level Marketing Research textbook. This came with a series of PowerPoint presentations. These were modified and enhanced using the author's own examples and experiences from nearly 20 years of teaching Marketing Research to undergraduate and graduate students as well as consulting activities. Finally, the topics were combined into 14 modules and placed on the WebCT platform.

The online class features several unique aspects. The most prominent of these is the use of Audio+Video segments, produced using Camtasia and the Samson USB mic. These A+Vs walk through topics traditionally regarded as "more difficult", by students from an understanding perspective and by faculty from a teaching perspective. Currently, the featured topics include: basic data analysis (frequencies, means, breakdown of means, cross tabs, Pearson correlation and partial correlation), simple and multiple regression (including step-wise), analysis of variance, discriminant analysis, factor analysis, cluster analysis, multi-dimensional scaling and conjoint analysis. In every instance, datasets that either came with the book or were put together by the author are actually analyzed from scratch and explained via audio, while the students watch what exactly happens on the computer screen, in digital quality. The A+V segments come with DVD-like controls, allowing replay, rewind, fast forward etc.

Another set of A+Vs deal with a different kind of problem solving, such as those involved in calculating sample sizes and confidence intervals. For this, the Wacom writing tablet served as an "online overhead projector." The output was combined with electronic (pdf) versions of standard statistical tables (that came with the book) to create the Camtasia A+V lessons.

A third series of A+Vs were recorded with the help of former colleagues and on-campus experts to explain key concepts in designing and implementing focus groups and illustrating the use of the electronic library (using the examples of ABI-Inform and Lexis-Nexis).

As part of the course, the students designed and implemented a fairly sophisticated survey resulting in a dataset suitable for multivariate data analysis. For this, they made use of the site-licensed Web Surveyor software. Each team of 3-4 students shared a WS account, along with the author as ex-officio member. Private online chat rooms and discussion areas were made available to each of the 4 teams and some of them made excellent use of these resources.

Student performance was graded through five Graded Assignments and two exams. The graded assignments were: (GA1) A problem involving decision making under uncertainty and decision trees. Students solve a author-designed Excel workbook that calculates the Value of Perfect and Imperfect Information. They are also required to draw and then trim decision trees in both situations. (GA2) An assignment that illustrates the concepts behind sample size and confidence interval, for means and proportions, in a context, where N, the population size is 8 and n, the sample size is first 2, then 3. (GA3) Design and then implement a Web Surveyor survey for online data collection after some exploratory research (online secondary sources and web-sites) for developing the list of information objectives for the survey. These were shared among the teams, refined with the help of the author and then used to develop the online survey. The author had announced that the "best" effort would be selected and implemented for the entire class. As it turned out, two teams developed very good instruments whose features were combined and implemented online. The author deliberately avoided a lot of tweaking, fixing only problems seen as debilitating errors, keeping the students in the loop regarding the changes. The entire class took the online survey as "participants" several times: first, with their own submissions, then a draft version of the "class effort" and then the "final, revised version". These were used to spot and remove bugs, resulting

in a fine tuned survey instrument. (GA4) Basic data analysis and charting of the GA3 survey data, involving frequencies, means, correlations and cross-tabs. (GA5) Multivariate Data Analysis of a comprehensive case that came with the book, focusing on regression, anova, discriminant, factor and cluster analyses. In future semesters, the author plans to use various own datasets that resulted from several past projects. By the way, GA1, GA2 and GA5 are presently implemented as individual assignments, while GA3 and GA4 are group assignments.

It is the author's firm belief that completely fool-proof mechanisms do not yet exist for online examinations. Therefore, students are required to come to campus for the mid-term and final examinations. Likewise, the author has previously experienced and therefore avoids email-attached assignments. Students are required to submit hard copies for all graded work, either through a physical locked drop box outside the author's office OR via US mail/alternative courier services. The graded assignments are mailed back to them in the same manner. This has worked well thus far, perhaps since the class size is small.

The author implemented a detailed end-of-the-semester custom online survey about the class experience, to supplement the standard college evaluation. In general, student feedback on both instruments has been quite positive.

The sometimes very frustrating experience of developing the course was more than offset by the exhilarating and exciting experience of actually teaching it. At MEA 2007, the author plans to make a very detailed presentation, where colleagues can "see" all aspects of the online class, ask questions and obtain clarifications. Assuming access to the Internet in the conference room, they can even login and explore the class.

INTEGRATING PERIODICAL DATABASES INTO THE MARKETING CURRICULUM

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ABSTRACT

Over the last three decades, educational institutions – and business schools in particular – have aggressively embraced technology, both within the classroom setting and for student use in outside projects and activities. In the business school setting, technology has spanned a number of areas and applications. Over time, this use has expanded from its early emphasis primarily on word processing and spreadsheets to today's more comprehensive assortment that includes applications such as market simulations, Internet applications, presentation management, and digital video editing.

Ironically, one of the greatest and most useful resources offered within the university – and available at little or no cost – remains greatly underused. Students today have access to a vast array of periodical databases which allow students to pinpoint very specific search interests, allowing the researcher to maximize the return of relevant articles while minimizing irrelevant "false hits."

Students today have become greatly accustomed to the use of ordinary search engines that help identify relevant material from the Internet. Many students, however, fail to show any understanding of the limitations of such sites and the tremendous variability in the quality of, and motivations behind, various commercial web sites. Unfortunately, the fault is not entirely with students since many faculty members also fail to appreciate what is available in online sources. Gaining expertise with professional library databases is likely to be a considerable help in students' future careers. Although universities usually have essentially unlimited access to these databases for a fixed yearly fee, firms and private individuals who seek access to these databases at commercial rates will find this access very expensive. Therefore, employers are likely to appreciate students who have learned to perform quick searches that maximize the yield of relevant articles.

SELECTED DATABASES

ABI/Inform is a database that emphasizes business and trade publications. This database is hosted among a number of other databases that all use the ProQuest format and interface.
ProQuest allows you to use "Boolean" logic and other tools to expand or narrow your search. Notice the two boxes that, by default, specify "AND." You can specify the following options:

AND →	Both conditions must be true – e.g., "advertising" AND "marketing" would call for articles that deal both with Microsoft and marketing.
OR →	At least one of the terms must apply – e.g., "advertising" OR "promotion" would result in articles that use at least one of the two terms.
AND NOT →	The first term must apply but the second must NOT apply. For example, "price response" AND NOT "finance" would result in articles covering price response but not if the article relates to finance.
WITHIN3	The second term must appear no more than three words before or After the first term. For example, for "Internet" WITHIN3 "banking" would identify the phrase "Internet Credit and Banking," ignoring the "Credit and" string.

By default, ABI/Inform will identify only those articles that feature the selected search terms in the citation (e.g., author, title, periodical, and date) and abstract (brief summary if available or sometimes the first few paragraphs of an article).This helps reduce the number of irrelevant articles where a term may appear only in passing. In some cases – such as a firm that wants to find information a small company that is a competitor – you may want to specify "citation and document text" to allow for the terms to appear anywhere in the article. It is also possible to search for article authors. This may be useful if a particular writer covers an industry of interest.

Further options allow one to search by the following variables:

- Location (country or region)
- Product name (but not company name)
- NAICS code (see below)
- Person name (e.g., the name of a company CEO)

Sometimes, we may be able to predict which terms a librarian or author will use to classify an article. At other times, however, we may miss out on some related terms we did not think of. Suppose we want to find articles about low carbohydrate ice cream and run the search "ice cream" AND "carbohydrate." [We specify only "carbohydrate" since the author may use terms such as "reduced" or "minimal" rather than "low."] This will result in several articles. We can now examine the index terms used in those articles and run additional searches on those terms that we did not already use and seem promising.

Lexis-Nexis is a general database that tends to emphasize newspaper and magazine articles more than trade publications. This is the most commonly available database and the one to which you will be most likely to have access in industry. The default search screen provides only limited search options. Therefore, the following process is recommended:

1. In the middle of the screen, near the top, choose "Guided Search."
2. Choose a news-source such as "General news." [A separate "Business" section also exists, but you will likely get a larger number of relevant articles under "General News."]
3. Select a specific source such as "Major Papers" or "Magazines and Journals."
4. Select terms and where these terms should appear. You will get more "hits" if you select "Full text" – so that the word(s) will need to appear just once anywhere in the article – but you will likely get more relevant articles if you choose the default of "Headline, Lead Paragraph(s), Terms."
5. In the middle of the screen, near the top, choose "Guided Search."
6. Choose a news-source such as "General news." [A separate "Business" section also exists, but you will likely get a larger number of relevant articles under "General News."]
7. Select a specific source such as "Major Papers" or "Magazines and Journals."
8. Select terms and where these terms should appear. You will get more "hits" if you select "Full text" – so that the word(s) will need to appear just once anywhere in the article – but you will likely get more relevant articles if you choose the default of "Headline, Lead Paragraph(s), Terms."

Sometimes, you may want to search using only the root of a word when articles that use various words based on that root may be of interest – e.g., "color" and "colorful." Further, the use of the beginning of a word may be appropriate when the word's spelling differs between American and British English (e.g., "color" in American English and "colour" in British). To search on only a portion of the term, we use "truncation" symbol – an exclamation point – to indicate that any word starting this way is relevant. Thus, we would use the term

colo!

to find articles containing words starting with "colo" – e.g., "color," "colour," or "colorful." Unfortunately, articles about Colorado may also come up, so there is a tradeoff between flexibility and additional "false hits."

Other parts of the Lexis-Nexis Academic database offers other features – e.g.,

- "World News," which includes English language articles from foreign countries
- "Non-English language news," where, if you speak a Spanish, French, German, Dutch, or Italian, you can search publications in that language – but you must search in the respective language.

By default, Lexis-Nexis Academic will only bring up articles from the last six months. You can specify how far you would like to go back. Articles more than three years old are usually not current. Those dealing with rapidly advancing industries such as computers and biotech or with rapidly developing countries such as China may become obsolete in a year or less.

A handout with more elaborate information is available at http://www.buad307.com.

INTERACTIVITY IN MARKETING FOUNDATION CLASSES

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ABSTRACT

Over the last several years, successful retailers and service providers have increased the level of interactivity on their websites. A key benefit of the interactivity has been increased stickiness of the site, greater loyalty and usage.

In a similar fashion, a key take-way for marketing educators is that **interactivity is key**. Increased interactivity adds value to the educational experience. Our students today have grown up on interactive games, instant messaging, iPods, and the Internet.

A critical question on our minds as we approach our classes is how to enhance their learning experience. Again, the answer is **interactivity is key.** Over the course of developing our textbook (Grewal and Levy 2008), we have developed and interactive toolkit with seven tools.

These tools have received extensive feedback from instructors at various symposiums. They offer interactive exercises designed to allow students to gain a richer understanding of some of the core concepts of marketing. The Toolkit addresses the following topics:

- Conducting a SWOT Analysis (Strategy chapter),
- Understanding Consumer Decision Rules (Consumer Behavior chapter),
- Vendor Analysis (Business to Business chapter),
- Creating a Positioning Map (Segmentation, Targeting and Positioning Chapter),
- Developing a Zone of Tolerance Model (Services chapter),
- Break-Even Analysis (Pricing chapters),
- Advertising Creation (Advertising and Sales Promotion chapter).

The toolkit is hosted at the OLC at www.mhhe.com/grewal-levy. In the session, we will demonstrate a few of these tools and lead a discussion on them and other methods to increase interactitiy with students both in the classroom and on their own.

How did we identify the tools to develop? We focuced on concepts that students stuggle with, concepts that they really need to know, would increase their learning experience, and would help them be better prepared for careers in business (both for marketing and other majors). Thus, these tools would empower the students to showcase more skills on their resume.

Each tool has three exercises. Thus, the instructor can demonstrate the key concepts in class with one of the tools and assign the other two as exercises for the students to do on their own. Alternatively, an instructor could assign the three exercies as practice prior to the class and then cover the material. This would help them be prepared for class and make the instructors' task a little easier.

Let's look at some of these tools. They all start with a business scenario, employ drag and click technology, drop down menus with possible answer options, a self grading mechanism and the option to print, save and e-mail the completed exercise.

Today, AACSB is increasingly asking schools to demonstrate that the students have succesfully mastered key learning objectives. The successful accompanying three exercises per tool, provide completion of the seven tools, and the evidence that the students have mastered seven important learning objectives associated with seven chapters.

In conclusion, these interactive tools can provide multiple benefits to instructors, students and institutions. These are:

1. increased student involvement;
2. ability to use them in class to demonstrate key concepts;
3. ability for students to work outside the classroom on their own on the various exercises; and

4. ability to help develop expertise on key learning goals and provide evidence that students have mastered these goals, which is useful for AACSB reports).

The interactive toolkit, supplemented with other in-class and outside of class activities are key to increasing interactivity and the student experience.

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AN EXPERIMENT WITH "THEME DAYS" IN CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

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ABSTRACT

This study describes a new experiential method of assessment in a Consumer Behavior course, called "Theme Days." This technique provided an "element of surprise" so important to experiential marketing experiences and it offered great opportunity for critical thinking. Two methods were used to measure the effectiveness of Theme Days. Overall, this creative, new technique was favorably evaluated by both students and educators.

INTRODUCTION

The Experience Economy (Pine and Gilmore 1999) suggests that marketers should provide memorable, compelling experiences for their consumers. In the field of marketing education educators are also continually providing experiences for their students. The variety of new and creative experiential learning assignments in the marketing education literature is expanding each year. In a study of student perceptions of learning activities, Karns (2005) found that internships, student-operated businesses, live-case projects, case competitions and other active learning experiences evoked the most favorable student responses. Clever new assignments, such as the online auction project (Wood and Suter 2004), allow marketing students to apply theoretical concepts to a fun, experiential learning exercise.

One of the major points discussed by Pine and Gilmore (1999) is that marketing needs to provide an "element of *surprise*" to keep customers returning. For example, both Las Vegas and Disney World, perhaps the ultimate of experiences in the realm of the experience economy, consistently provide clever, new experiences full of surprise for their market. The "element of surprise" contributes to the success of each. In the academic world surprise can turn mundane events, such as a rote lecture, into a truly memorable experience. Marketing educators should consider this "element of surprise" concept in the educational experiences they offer.

This paper presents a unique approach for a Consumer Behavior course organized around a new concept, called "Theme Days," which continually offered the element of surprise to the students. For this research the initial surprise took place the first day of class when the instructor proposed the "Theme Days" concept to the students. There was an initial overwhelmingly positive response to this idea, which will be explained in the paper. Of course, instructor enthusiasm adds to the favorable student response, but the element of surprise in hearing about a brand new way of learning is a big contributor, too.

One of the common learning outcomes in marketing programs is related to critical thinking and problem-solving skills (Taylor 2003). Numerous studies in the marketing education literature have discussed the importance of these cognitive skills (Cooper and Loe 2000; Smart, Kelley and Conant 1999).The question always remains how to improve student CT skills. Typically case analysis, simulations, client projects and other experiential learning assignments are thought to stimulate CT. In their discussion of critical thinking theory, Frontczak and Daughtrey (2004) suggest numerous factors that contribute to a classroom that promotes CT: an interactive atmosphere, topics that engage student interest, the instructor as less of an authority figure, and time for the student to reflect. "Theme Days" offered both the "element of surprise" and the opportunity for critical thinking. This paper will: (1) discuss the significant aspects of CT theory, (2) present the concept of "Theme Days," (3) analyze results of the effectiveness of this new concept, and (4) offer recommendations to those considering using the "Theme Days" experiential learning technique.

CRITICAL THINKING THEORY

In the book, *Developing Critical Thinkers*, Brookfield (1987) discusses the importance of critical thinking in our society. "Critically reflective teachers are likely to foster classrooms in which challenge and excitement are found" (Brookfield p. 43). He also reviews several aspects to the process of critical thinking: (1) a degree of ambiguity is important in encouraging CT, (2) a diversity in CT methods is necessary, (3) risk taking is important in CT experiences and (4) the instructor is merely a facilitator in helping students learn. Each of these aspects of CT are important for marketing educators to consider. Harris (2002) discusses the key aspects of a related skill, creative thinking. Some of the behaviors that strengthen creativity are perseverance, the ability to suspend judgment and a mental playfulness. Some of the inhibitors of creative thinking are the beliefs that "I can't do it," "I'm not creative," or "that's childish." As an educator, in

addition to encouraging critical thinking and providing opportunities for critical thinking and creativity, we should model critical thinking and risk taking. Whenever we offer new experiential learning assignments to our students, we are modeling a desired skill.

"THEME DAYS"

The movement away from the traditional lecture by educators and rote memorization by students and toward active, experiential learning in marketing education has created a literature filled with numerous clever experiential assignments. A special issue of the *Journal of Marketing Education* (April 2000) includes seven articles on experiential learning. Frontczak and Kelley (2000) discuss the idea that "at the heart of all experiential learning theory is the basic belief that effective learning occurs when students are actively involved with an experience and then reflect on that experience." The concept of "Theme Days" was created to stimulate learning and critical thinking in an undergraduate Consumer Behavior course. Instead of requiring more traditional multiple choice or essay exams in Consumer Behavior, the instructor proposed "Theme Days," where a small team of students would select a theme and then prepare individual reports according to the assignment. The following goals for the "Theme Days" were explained to the students. These experiences were to provide the students with: (1) an opportunity to apply recently learned concepts in Consumer Behavior to real world situations, (2) time for reflection on these topics/concepts/theories, (3) an opportunity to feel more connected with other students in the program, and (4) a fun experience. Possible "themes" were suggested to the students. For example, students could analyze (1) consumer behavior in coffee shops, (2) fashion trends in a nearby central business district, (3) behavior in fast food restaurants, (4) student behavior in campus establishments, or (5) any other approved team-designed theme. Student designed themes turned out to be more creative than those suggested by the instructor. The following assignment was given to the students:

1. Class period before a theme day:
    a. Select "team" (3 or 4 students)
    b. Select "theme" (no more than 2 teams working on the same theme in one day)
    c. Determine your plan (where to meet)
    d. Share cell phone numbers (optional)
2. Theme Day:
    a. Meet at the designated place
    b. Bring a list or summary of concepts recently covered
    c. Make observations of real life behavior that relate to Consumer Behavior concepts
    d. Following the theme day experience, write a 4 page report applying your observations to the concepts studied
3. The three "theme days" reports will be graded on:
    a. Writing quality:
        i. Responsiveness to assignment
        ii. Thorough, detailed
        iii. Organization
        iv. Grammar, spelling, mechanics
    b. Critical Thinking:
        i. Creativity in application of concepts and theories
        ii. Clear understanding of concepts
4. General Guidelines:
    a. Select different team members for each theme day
    b. Work on a theme only once
    c. Plan your theme experience for class time
    d. No theme days by yourself
    e. Can use only concepts recently covered for that theme day
    f. Include team member's names on theme day assignment

The assignment was described in sufficient detail for the students to understand the idea of "Theme Days."

RESULTS

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of "Theme Days," two primary measures were implemented. The first method of evaluation involved asking students in the class to complete a brief survey related to their perceptions of "Theme Days." This survey was based on a form developed by Sandler and Kamins (1987), where students responded to 17 statements on a nine-point rating scale (where 1 equals strongly disagree and 9 equals strongly agree). The 17 items related to student learning through the "Theme Days" and their involvement, enjoyability and satisfaction with this experiential method of testing. The second method of assessment involved the educator's evaluation of how a traditional exam in the class related to the three "Theme Day" experiences. The course was arranged so there were no traditional exams, only the "Theme Days." On one of the last days of class the instructor gave the students a "surprise" exam (not always a good idea!) using a sample of the essay exam questions used during the normal semester.

Following the three Theme Day experiences, students were given an evaluation form. Overall, student

perceptions of the "Theme Days" concept were extremely favorable. Mean values for all 17 statements are presented in Table 1. In general, the students thought that Theme Days were:

- Helpful in understanding Consumer Behavior
- Made the course interesting
- Helpful in applying concepts and theories to real life situations
- Enjoyable
- Worth the effort
- A better learning experience than a standard exam

All of the mean values were greater than 7.6 on a 9 point scale, except one, indicating extremely favorable reactions to the new method of assessment. From the students' point of view, they enjoyed this type of exam more than most and thought this provided a more interesting learning situation than a standard exam. They did not necessarily think that Theme Days required more work than a standard exam however. Throughout the term, there were very few complaints or issues with the entire process. The only issue, and it was never a problem, related to the team that included a student with a seeing eye dog. Students then had to consider the location of their theme a little more carefully, especially on extremely hot days due to the hot pavement. Other than that, all students informal comments on their "Theme Days" experience were extremely favorable.

The other method of assessing the effectiveness of Theme Days involved instructor comparison of grades on a standard exam with grades on the Theme Days exams. Before administering the traditional exam, the instructor had several hypotheses related to student performance: (1) students would not do as well on more definitional questions on the traditional exam, because the students did not "study" for the exam since it was given without announcement, (2) students who performed better on the Theme Days assignment would also perform generally better on the standard exam, (3) in general, students would perform better on more conceptual and application type of questions. Although the comparison of Theme Days exams and the traditional exam is not quantitative, here are the results. Prior to the standard exam, the instructor "estimated" how each student in the class would perform based on Theme Day grades. Students were placed into one of three categories: + (estimated the student would do well), 0 (estimated the student would do okay), and − (estimated the student would not do too well). For students in the top half of the grade distribution on the traditional exam: 8 had +, 2 had −, and 2 had 0. For students in the bottom half of the grade distribution on the traditional exam: 2 had +, 7 had −, and 3 had 0. So previous to the exam, the instructor had "estimated" how well the students would do. The instructor estimated 20 of 24 students correctly. Also, in terms of final course grades, 6 students in the top half of the traditional exam scores received A's and none in the lower half of the distribution received A's. Generally, students who performed better on the Theme Days exams also performed better on a standard exam. One more finding related to grades on Theme Days is that grades improved from Theme Day #1 to Theme Day #3. For Theme Day #1 there were 2 A's, for Theme Day #2 there were 6 A's and, finally, for Theme Day #3 there were 8 A's. Overall this improvement in performance was likely related to student understanding of professor expectations and student interest in improving their personal performance. Of the total of 16 A's for individual Theme Days assignments, nearly all (13) were in the top half of the standard exam grade distribution. The conclusion of the more subjective instructor comparison is that Theme Days grades highly correlated with standard exam grades.

In considering the three previous hypotheses, results provided support for each of the three. (1) In general, students did not do as well on more straight-forward definition questions. For example, they did not perform as well on explaining (similar to defining) informational and normative reference group influence, instrumental and classical conditioning, and the difference between personal influence and word-of-mouth advertising. Each of these questions were more definitional in nature where the instructor would be looking for specific descriptions. (2) As the previous comparison between the traditional exam grades and the "Theme Days" grades showed, there was a high correlation between the two. So, the students who performed better on "Theme Days" also performed better on a standard essay exam providing some degree of validity to Theme Days. (3) Overall, students did perform better on the more conceptual and application oriented questions. For example, in discussing how the family life cycle concept could be used in the development of a marketing strategy or how a marketing manager might use psychographic data, students did well. Since they had spent an entire semester understanding the course concepts and applying them to real life situations through the "Theme Days" experiences, they seemed to perform much better on application questions.

RECOMMENDATIONS

"Theme Days" turned out to be a big hit with the students in Consumer Behavior. In addition, data

suggested that those who performed well on the "Theme Days" assignments also performed better on the standard exam. In the long run do students really remember precise definitions from a course or the learning gained through a memorable, compelling experiential learning exercise? "Theme Days" provided the students with a unique and fun opportunity to creatively interact with other students in the class and then apply the classroom theories to real life experiences. This experiential exercise could likely be used successfully in other marketing courses, such as Retailing, Services Marketing or Sports Marketing. It would also likely work for a more traditional campus or an urban campus with a more diverse group of students, which was the case in this study. Based on this new assignment, there are several recommendations to offer any educator considering using the "Theme Days" exercise: (1) give students precise instructions related to both the experiential process and the written assignment, (2) provide students with a writing rubric they might use as a guide in writing up their Theme Days exam, (3) check student interest in such an assessment measure before using it throughout a whole semester or term, possibly use it for just one exam or one project, (4) assess instructor's personal willingness to move away from the more traditional exam, (5) understand that the grading of Theme Days will be somewhat more subjective than a standard exam, (6) possibly allow students to give a brief presentation of their work where they may get feedback from others in class, (7) use this technique in smaller classes of 40 or fewer students, and (8) appreciate the fact that students are likely both learning from this experience and having fun at the same time. Although most instructors may have their favorite writing rubric, the following dimensions might be considered in grading the Theme Days assignment:

- Completeness: degree to which all elements of assignment are addressed
- Thoroughness: degree to which ideas are well developed
- Clarity: degree to which report stays focused
- Structure: degree to which document is well organized
- Mechanics: proper spelling, grammar, punctuation
- Professionalism: proper use of headings, titles, charts, figures, page numbers

In conclusion, Theme Days was an experiment in Consumer Behavior that seemed to be successful. Both the students and the instructor enjoyed the experiences and learned through this process.

TABLE 1
STUDENT EVALUATION OF THEME DAYS

(9-point agreement scale: 1= strongly disagree and 9= strongly agree)

		Mean
1.	Theme Days were helpful to me in understanding Consumer Behavior.	8.15
2.	They made the course more interesting.	8.92
3.	Theme Days allowed me to apply what I learned to real life situations.	8.46
4.	I was satisfied with my work on Theme Days exams.	7.69
5.	I learned a lot about Consumer Behavior from them.	8.00
6.	I was highly involved with Theme Days.	8.58
7.	The Theme Days experience was enjoyable.	8.69
8.	It promoted better student/professor relationships.	7.88
9.	I believe Theme Days provided a valuable measure of my learning.	7.81
10.	They were not boring.	8.58
11.	I enjoyed working on the Theme Day exam more than most.	8.23
12.	I would recommend this type of experience to other marketing students.	8.46
13.	It was worth the effort.	8.38
14.	Theme Days suggests the professor cares about me learning Consumer Behavior.	8.42
15.	It provided me with a more interesting learning situation than a standard exam.	8.73
16.	Theme Days required more work than a standard exam would have.	5.38
17.	Overall, this experiential exam was a better learning experience than a standard exam.	8.65

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MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS AND TACTICS FOR THE STUDENT-OPERATED BUSINESS

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ABSTRACT

The concept of motivating students to perform effectively in a student-operated business is addressed. To determine the relevance of using the CORE motivational factors of problem-based learning (PBL) to identify areas of importance, a comparison between the student-based CORE and Ramlall's factors of workplace motivation is conducted. This analysis then relates the specific techniques used by the student-operated business and how they apply to CORE.

INTRODUCTION

Most marketing graduates will utilize their discipline-specific knowledge in non-academic careers. It therefore seems prudent that marketing instructors teach skills that address the needs of employers. The literature suggests that problem-solving is one area where marketing majors appear to be deficient upon graduation (Wee and Kek 2002; Kennedy, Lawton, and Walker 2001; Titus 2000; Scott and Frontczak 1996). Chapman and Sorge (1999) gave an apt summation on the problem of problem-solving: "Students simply do not have enough exposure to making business decisions in uncertain and ambiguous environments." (p. 225)

Problem-based learning (PBL) addresses this need in higher education. Its aim is to develop self-directed, reflective, lifelong learners who can integrate knowledge, think critically, and work collaboratively with others (Barrows 1996). One of the key advantages of using a PBL approach is its inherent ability to intrinsically motivate students, such as learning for its own sake; higher likelihood to take risks, admit ignorance, and persist at difficult tasks (Dweck 1989).

PBL was introduced as a pedagogic approach at medical schools in the 1960s and has since been utilized in the curricula of numerous disciplines. In marketing, varieties of PBL have been recommended for use in specific courses (Kennedy, Lawton, and Walker 2001; Titus 2000; Clow and Wachter 1996; Ramocki 1994) and one institution integrated the methodology curriculum-wide (Wee and Kek 2002).

PBL MOTIVATORS

Despite the popularity of PBL in higher education, limited research has been conducted in reference to motivating students when using this approach. Motivation can be defined as the factors and processes that initiate and direct the magnitude, persistence, and quality of goal directed behaviors (Paulson and Feldman 1999).

One study of students in Hong Kong isolated four motivational themes (CORE) related to PBL (MacKinnon 1999): community; ownership; relevance, and; empowerment. Each of these elements address Maslow's (1986) basic human needs for affinity, esteem, and self-actualization.

This study concluded that if any of these four themes are missing, "it is likely that the motivational impact of the remaining elements will be ... diminished" (MacKinnon 1999, p. 56).

Community

This term encapsulates both teacher-student and student-student relationships and their perceptions of belonging.

Teacher-student relationships

Tutors play two roles, that of energizer and facilitator. As an energizer, PBL teachers heighten student interest in the endeavor. Secondly, after the problems are introduced, the instructor provides indirect support as learners grapple with solving them.

Student-student relationships

"The combination of a salient goal (relevant content) and a heavy workload (are) the factors that (contribute) most to building a sense of community" (MacKinnon 1999, p. 54).

Ownership

Students demonstrate great satisfaction with the ability of teaching themselves, instead of receiving direct instruction more familiar to more traditional pedagogies (MacKinnon 1999).

Relevance

In PBL, problem relevance is considered the most important factor for motivation and for developing reasoning skills (Barrows 1986).

Empowerment

"Empowerment ...involves providing students with a sense of mastery in skills that they perceive as

valuable and attained through their own efforts" (MacKinnon 1999, p. 55).

EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

Because marketing educators are preparing students for success in their careers, we must also examine motivation in workplace environments to determine whether these principles are congruent with the student-oriented CORE model.

The literature in employee motivation is extensive, but Pinder (1998) provided a definition that accommodates its different theoretical perspectives:

> Work motivation is a set of energetic forces that originates both within, as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behavior, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration. (p. 11)

This definition is similar to our earlier definition of student motivation, so it appears both concepts begin at the same starting lines. In his review of employee motivation literature, Ramlall (2004) identified the following critical factors from the dominant theories.

Needs of the Employee
Employees have multiple needs based on their individual, family, and cultural values (Ramlall 2004).

Work Environment
Employees want to work in an environment that is productive, respectful, provides a feeling of inclusiveness, and offers friendly setting (Ramlall 2004).

Responsibilities
Given that one feels competent to perform in a more challenging capacity and has previously demonstrated such competencies, an employee may feel a need to seek additional responsibilities and be rewarded in a fair and equitable manner (Ramlall 2004).

Supervision
Leaders more frequently than others feel a need to teach, coach, and develop others. These individuals seek to influence the organization's goals, objectives and the strategies designed to achieve the mission of the organization (Ramlall 2004).

Fairness and Equity
Employees want to be treated and rewarded in a fair and equitable manner regardless of age, gender, ethnicity, disability, sexual orientation, geographic location, or other similarly defined categories (Ramlall 2004).

Effort
Even though employees may exert higher levels of effort into a position based on a perceived significant reward, this could be a short-term success if the task itself does not challenge or provides satisfaction to the employee (Ramlall 2004).

Employees' Development
Employees prefer to function in environments that (a) provide a challenge, (b) offer new learning opportunities, (c) contribute significantly to the organization's success, and (d) offer opportunities for advancement and personal development based on success and demonstrated interest in a particular area.

COMPARING RAMLALL's FACTORS TO CORE

Based on the observations of the three authors, the CORE motivational factors for PBL appear to be aligned with various components of Ramlall's factors (See Table 1).

TABLE 1
CONGRUENCE BETWEEN EMPLOYEE AND STUDENT MOTIVATION

Ramlall's Factors	**Elements of CORE**			
	Community	Ownership	Relevance	Empowerment
Needs	X	X	X	X
Environment	X			
Responsibility		X		X
Supervision				X
Fairness and Equity	X			
Effort			X	
Employee Development		X	X	
Total	**3**	**3**	**3**	**3**

Accordingly, the CORE factors seem to be appropriate to develop motivational techniques for a specific form of PBL. Motivating students in this type of learning environment should be very similar to motivating employees in the workplace.

THE STUDENT-OPERATED BUSINESS

The primary tenet for using a student-operated business is to prepare students for their careers by replicating the situations they will encounter after they graduate. As summarized by Chapman and Sorge (1999), "to deliver future employees with strong problem-solving and decision-making skills to the workplace, we must adopt an educational process that improves and cultivates these abilities" (p. 226).

In marketing education, a dearth of research exists regarding motivation in problem-based learning contexts. This analysis will identify strategies for

motivating students in perhaps the most extreme PBL method – the student-operated business.

Over the years, many student-operated businesses have been supervised by academic institutions, but most of these concerns operate outside of the curriculum, most often by student organizations (Daly 2001). One example of a student-operated business engaged within a marketing curriculum was described in great detail by Shawn Daly (2001), whose insights serve as an excellent primer in the mechanics involved in undertaking such an endeavor. Additional work in this area was conducted by Jackowski and Daughtrey (2005, 2006).

Format of Courses

This section summarizes the operation of Brand Spankin New (BSN), the only e-commerce site in the country managed by undergraduates as part of their curriculum. The program is a collaboration between the marketing and industrial design departments at a large urban college in the Rocky Mountain region.

This alliance was formed because of a need identified by the business community in the United States. In order to increase the return on investment of new product introductions, American firms are beginning to understand that marketing and industrial design need to work together at the *beginning* of the product development process (Nussbaum 2005, Godin 2003).

Three courses, one in Industrial Design and two in Marketing, currently work full-time on BSN. "Industrial Safety and Production" incorporates the planning, development, and refinement of BSN's home and office décor products for manufacture and sale. "Seminar in Marketing Management" collaborates with students in the industrial design class during the new product development stages and markets BSN's existing product line. "Reputation and Brand Management" students are responsible for building the parent BSN brand and organizing BSN events. Beginning in the Spring, 2007 semester, a new course entitled "New Product Management" will join the BSN fold and concentrate on collaborating with industrial design students, allowing the Seminar course to concentrate on marketing the growing product line.

In both courses, after departments/teams were formed, each class (two days a week for an hour and fifteen minutes each session) took the form of a company meeting, where course concepts were integrated into BSN, each department gave progress reports and major issues were discussed. On many occasions, students were given time to work within their own departments during class time. As a group, students were required to present and deliver in report form the following: a department plan for the semester; weekly progress reports; and a final report on the achievement or non-achievement of the goals of their department. The next section will summarize student organization in the two marketing courses.

Seminar in Marketing Management (MKT 4520)

Students are divided into teams of two which are responsible for researching product categories near the start of the semester as part of new design development, as well as presenting a product feasibility plan for a BSN design finalist before a panel of professionals at the end of the term. Additionally, these teams brand the winning design from the previous semester and implement marketing plans for the existing product line.

Reputation and Brand Management (MKT 4110)

Students in this course were divided into the following departments based on their areas of interest:

Event Management
Students in this department are responsible for organizing BSN's major event held each semester.

Partner Relations Management
Students in this department are responsible for managing the ongoing relationships with BSN's organizational partners.

Customer Relations Management
Students in this department are responsible for developing and implementing BSN's database management plan.

Identity Management
Students in this department are responsible for developing and managing BSN's visual representations.

Online Marketing Management
Students in this department are responsible for developing BSN's online relationships.

Donation Management
Students in this department are responsible for cultivating corporate donors to BSN.

MOTIVATIONAL TACTICS USED BY BSN

Studies of college student learning typically indicate that an intrinsic goal orientation tends to enhance a student's academic performance and an extrinsic goal orientation, or one that places more focus on material rewards, tends to constrain one's performance (Paulson and Feldman 1999).

Despite this evidence, BSN uses using both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards as motivators for one reason; Employee reward systems common utilize extrinsic goals. Due to our task of preparing students for life after graduation, we felt it was necessary to include both orientations in our program.

Despite these realities, we also feel that it is crucial to motivate students on an intrinsic level if we truly expect students to achieve. Much of the coursework is self-directed and requires students to make sales presentations to professionals in the field that must result in sales.

Accordingly, here is how BSN lays the groundwork for both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation using the principles of CORE.

Community

Extrinsic
In past courses, a course dinner was provided by the student-operated business if all course goals were met. This incentive helped to pull students together as a team with a common goal.

More recently, the students with the best assignments/projects throughout the semester are awarded small, funny prizes and receive a round of applause from their peers. This helps to instill personal achievement while still being a part of a communal atmosphere.

Intrinsic
From the first day of class, the instructor attempts to build passion into the cause through storytelling of the success of past students. Built into these stories is the opportunity the current students have to be a part of an educational endeavor that has never been done before on the undergraduate level.

The concept of brand-building also helps to motivate students to continuously enhance the BSN brand so that is always growing stronger for students yet to come.

Ownership

Extrinsic
Since 40% of the overall grade in each of the two marketing courses revolves around the achievement of self-determined objectives, students determine how they will be graded at the end of the semester. This tactic helps to foster the fulfillment of goals because students themselves have identified them as attainable.

Intrinsic
From day one, students are instructed and then allowed to make all the decisions regarding the direction of BSN. The instructor only intervenes when a group consensus is not obtained, or if the decisions made are in conflict with marketing principles. The decisions they make are long-lasting, such as the naming and pricing of a particular design, so they understand quickly the importance of their task.

Relevance

Extrinsic
Additionally, students hear the oft-repeated advice that all of their experiences in the course will help build their resume and differentiate them from the pack of applicants with whom they will be competing for jobs in the near future.

Intrinsic
Students understand quickly that these courses serve as a preview of what their lives will be like once they graduate. For this reason, the workload is generally higher and more self-directed than in many of the other marketing courses offered within the department.

Empowerment

Extrinsic
Another motivational component is the ability for students to skip the final exam if they achieve predetermined benchmarks in their campaigns. Cash bonuses are also awarded to student teams who develop buying partnerships with retailers.

Intrinsic
Consistently throughout the courses, students are instructed that if they can do all that is required of them in the given semester, they will know what to do when they begin their careers in business. This portion of CORE is the confidence builder. BSN is student-operated, so once they pass the course, these students have greater confidence of what it takes to actually run a business from a marketing perspective.

LIMITATIONS

Although these principles provide a good foundation from which to begin analyzing motivation in the context of student-operated businesses, further research is needed. For instance, a more in-depth comparison between the level of congruity of student and employee motivational factors should be conducted.

Additionally, student testing should be conducted to determine the degree to which the extrinsic and intrinsic motivational factors had an effect on individual achievement in the student-operated business model.

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

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ABSTRACT

A repeated challenge in teaching Principles of Marketing is to offer active or experiential learning settings that engage a variety of majors in a manner that helps students understand how marketing concepts and decisions should be integrated. While a number of pedagogical approaches might be used for this purpose, the student development, writing, and presentation of a marketing plan is one approach many instructors employ. This paper describes a unique marketing plan assignment using dollar store products to overcome the problems associated with alternative marketing plan assignment settings such as live clients and cases. And, it can overcome problems associated with an effective implementation in a course as short as three weeks in duration.

STUDENT BENEFITS OF THE DOLLAR STORE MARKETING PLAN ASSIGNMENT

Student and instructor benefits from using my assignment include: (1) the project is "doable" within a short length principles course, (2) it is inexpensive for students (e.g. they do not have to purchase special cases or simulation software), (2) it does not involve often troublesome live-case clients (i.e., saves instructor time), (3) it lends itself well to student team or group assignments, (4) it is easy to grade, (5) it stimulates considerable student creativity, (6) it delivers an integrative or holistic view of marketing, (7) it stresses the financial accountability of marketing, and (8) it is fun.

HOW THE ASSIGNMENT UNFOLDS

One week before the class starts (when I have a good idea about final enrollment) I visit one of our local "dollar" stores and purchase several products for which my students will develop marketing plans. In order to present a wide variety or product assignments, I usually buy at least four more products than there are teams. I also buy two or three of each product so more than one team member has the product.

On the first class day, I take care to show lots of enthusiasm for the project and use humor when "introducing" the products to the class. Each one is hidden from their sight (in a bag) and as I pull each one out I take the time to get them thinking about the possibilities. It is important to get them off the predisposed notion that something from the dollar store can only be a low price product for a low income purchaser and perhaps provide little challenge for them. Another purpose of my staged introduction of the products and the marketing planning assignment is to also help them set aside a major fear many principles students have (especially non-marketing majors and those in summer school) on the first day of class. That being the fear of being unable to learn enough about marketing in such a short period of time in order to develop a meaningful plan. So, I take time during the first day to mention prior student/product assignments and those students went about repositioning their products. On this day I allow students to first choose who they want as teammates on the assignment and then allow each team (3-4 students in each) to express their first, second, and third product preference. I am usually able to finalize these decisions on the first day of class.

On the second day of class I distribute hardcopies of what I consider relatively "weak" and "strong" marketing plans that prior students developed. I run two or three previous student presentations (their PowerPoint® slides) and make some fairly "soft" critique-like comments. These slides are then placed at the Blackboard course site so students can review them at their convenience. My purpose for sharing previous work is to help students develop their self-confidence, provide structure for their assignment and, most importantly, begin to show them the holistic/integrative aspect of marketing. By seeing and learning about these former projects on the very first day students are quick to grab the concepts of market segmentation, product positioning, and the marketing mix. On this day I also present students with specific project background information that helps to make the projects manageable and consistent in terms of my expectations. (This background information is available upon request). The major aspects, constraints, or conditions faced by all teams include:

- A 24-month planning period
- The fact that the firm is now losing money on their product.

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

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

On day two I describe and review the three marketing plan deliverables (Details on these deliverables is available upon request). But, my main focus is on the deliverable number one (the Situational Analysis) which is due on day one of week two or in six days. It is important in the summer school class to allow significant time in class for the teams to work and interact with the instructor. On average I allow 60 minutes for this (the class meets for 3 hours and 40 minutes per day). As with any student breakout or in-classroom work, it is important to keep students on track and to touch base with each team's planning progress every day if possible.

As deliverable number two (segmentation and positioning strategy) is the briefest deliverable, students are given three days to complete this assignment. Teams receive feedback on deliverable one two days before deliverable two is due. Time in class that day is devoted to one-on-one meetings with teams to make sure they understand any major deficiencies in their first deliverable I feel need addressing before they can develop deliverable two. Deliverable two is graded in class on the last day of the second week. I use a grading rubric (one pager) for this and give a completed rubric sheet to the teams students and answer any questions they have on my comments during class or immediately after class. Teams are working in class on deliverable three (marketing mix, budget, calendar, and proforma income statements) while I grade their deliverable two. I find this immediate feedback method critical as it leaves the teams with a long weekend (Friday through Sunday) to make significant progress on deliverable three.

The last week of class is short with only three class days. The first day involves covering two important marketing topics (global and services marketing) that are not generally needed for their planning assignment. The second class day consists of a comprehensive final exam (two hours) with the rest of class time devoted to working on their marketing plans and plan presentations. Formal presentations (20-25 minutes apiece including Q&A) take place on the last class day. At the end of each presentation, audience member students are asked to evaluate the quality of the presentation they just witnessed using a rubric I provide. Once the results are analyzed, I post them to the course Blackboard site. I also complete my own rubric for each team and deliver to the teams via email. The rubric both students and I use consists of 20 evaluation items. (Available upon request)

EVIDENCE OF EFFICACY

In general, my students feel that their peers develop and present very solid marketing plans. While student scores are highly positive, students actually have an incentive to not score peers this high as these scores influence the final team presentation grade (student weight is one-third). I would like to think that the average scores I have given over the past two summers (the far right column) are a better indicator of presentation quality. Overall, the rubric scores reflect a "B-" average on the presentations. The average number of points (out of 75 maximum) I have given on presentations is 61.1 or an 81.5% average. The average number of points given for the three deliverables (out of 225 maximum) is 186.2 or about 82.8%. No team has delivered what I considered a failing project. I have also used this

product setting during our regular 15 week long semester for a total of eight different sections of the principles course. While I have not statistically compared team scores, my perusal of the average scores for each of these other sections suggests there are no differences in student performance.

Our college uses a 12 item student evaluation instrument with the highest score possible on any one item being "1" and the lowest being "5." My average scores on the items relevant to this assignment (e.g. not the question how much they liked the textbook) have been in the 1.3 to 1.5 range for all courses incorporating the dollar store assignment. My summer school scores (two summer sessions) have averaged slightly better (around 1.3). While student evaluations are influenced by many factors, I do conclude that if students did not like this assignment that these scores would be significantly lower. While certainly only anecdotal in nature, my summer school evaluations have generated a number of positive, open-ended comments by students. Such comments from the summer 2006 class follow.

- Great course
- Major strengths are the marketing report
- Great! Thanks.
- Excellent class. Lots of good info.
- Thank you.
- Finally, I feel I got my money's worth. I've learned so much.
- This class was really fun and exhilarating.
- Great class! I really like the way the class is designed. I learned a lot. Excellent professor.
- Instructor made marketing fun and meaningful. I wasn't excited about having to take this course but I enjoyed it and learned that marketing is more than trying to sell someone something they don't want.
- Enjoyed the class. Thanks!
- Very intense, but fun in the fact the course covers so many areas to learn about.

TIPS FOR SUCCESSFUL ADOPTION

My years of experience with this assignment lead me to suggest that future adopters consider the following ideas and actions I have found to enhance the student learning experience as well as minimize the time and effort I devote to managing these assignments.

1) While the dollar store product is an inexpensive option, care must still be taken to select products that will be of interest to students and allow them to be creative. For this reason, I avoid products with known brand names and go with products that usually have no brand name. This allows the students to develop (and defend) their own brand name (unless they develop a private labeling/branding strategy).

2) When I first started using this planning assignment, I would make sure that two teams had the same product and then I challenged them to compete with each other. I even went so far to say that the team with the better plan would get more credit on the assignment. I no longer take the competitive approach as I find it stymies in-class discussion as competing teams do not want to "reveal" their marketing plan ideas or research.

3) I suggest ways for them to "break up" situational analysis components (e.g. have one member go to stores and evaluate competitive offerings) but also stress the need to write a cohesive and coherent paper that does not read like it had four separate authors.

4) Stressing the relevance of daily topics and readings to their plans is also a key to a successful student. As most Principles textbooks are laden with marketing terminology, one must help students identify concepts and tools they might use in their plans. While there are some mandatory aspects for all plans (e.g. segmenta-tion, developing positioning approaches, etc.), students need to see the flexibility possible in marketing strategy (e.g. selling a private label product versus going with their own brand or using different channels). But, these issues are no different for those using a regular term or semester long project so I will not belabor them.

5) Outside of class (individual) written assignments tied to course and marketing plan components are very important. For example, I have them review Advertising Age's list of the 10 top brand icons and advertising slogans and write a paper on what they have in common. This helps students develop the same for their product.

6) The key to a successful summer school marketing plan is helping students not get overwhelmed with all the marketing terminology and strategy/tactic options but instead helping them narrow down to a manageable project. For this reason, I push them to think of only one target market to go after and not spread themselves too thin

7) One time consuming activity for teams may be trying to find advertising (media) costs for different options. While some of this information is easily accessible, I find it a good idea to

provide a general list that indicates such costs as 30/60 second television ads, national and regional newspaper/magazine costs, etc.

8) Some student teams will need help estimating how their fixed and/or variable costs might change as the result of their repositioning strategy. For example, you can count on all teams to change their product's package and labeling or even other attributes (e.g. adding a battery to a product that came without such). In this case the instructor needs to point them to potential sources of information (a local advertising agency) or suggest how to approach it reasonably. The goal is to make sure they understand costs will change and account for that versus force them to find the exact answer.

IMPROVING MARKETING EDUCATION: LESSONS FROM BRAIN SCIENCE

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ABSTRACT

Knowledge about how the brain works has grown in recent years. While it is too early and brain science is too isolated from educators for its findings to be broadly useful for improving education, further transfer of reliable brain science findings into marketing education is needed.

BACKGROUND

Despite recent research advances much of how the brain works is still a mystery. Brain science has found that brains learn in order to enable the solution of novel survival problems confronting people from moment to moment. Brains attend to input according to their capacity to attend and, more importantly, according to indicators of the information's meaningfulness. Visual images are strongly preferred inputs and attention spans are relatively short. In order to sustain a brain's engagement, breaks and motivations to continue attending to the information are necessary.

Hierarchically organizing information facilitates declarative memory. Memory is dramatically improved when information is repeated within certain time frames (e.g., 20 seconds; 90 minutes) and then supported by on-going repetition and rehearsal distributed over extended periods of time. Memory is further enhanced when information is more elaborately encoded. Interfering inputs must be reduced. Rest between learning sessions is needed.

Brains learn best when their stress loads are reduced. Regular exercise reduces stress hormones and improves brain health and mental acuity. A balanced diet contributes learning effectiveness. Regular and sufficient sleep is vitally important. Brain gender is also an important individual difference, especially as regards emotional memories.

Emotional connections add meaningfulness and elaboration enhancing memory. Further, brains need to sense that their environment is safe before they can shift into cognitive mode. Affective issues in relationships with others affect the perceived safety of an environment.

IMPLICATIONS

Marketing education must capitalize on a brain's purpose and function rather than expect it to perform in ways it was not designed to perform.

Outcomes. Marketing educators should pursue knowledge and skill outcomes which are readily recognized as relevant and meaningful to students.

Assessment. Repeated measures of students' knowledgebase are needed. Marketing educators need to gauge students' ability to contextualize their knowledge-base to novel situations. This may require more usage of embedded direct assessments spread across the curriculum. Student evaluations of teaching should focus on how well the instructor organized information, managed attention, used repetition and elaboration, and assured productive relationships.

Instructional Design. Marketing educators must adopt brain smart instructional designs in which information is hierarchically organized, ordered into meaningful segments and repeated. Breaks must be inserted into presentations. Multi-channel communication, emphasizing the visual channel and kinetic interaction with concepts, is warranted. Because the brain is deeply concerned with social relationships (safety), instructors must communicate empathy.

Curriculum. Traditional curricula probably miss most of the opportunity to optimize learning. Horizontally or vertically integrated curricular structures may provide opportunities for improvement, but may also be insufficient in hierarchical organization and intentionality of repetition and rehearsal with elaboration. Problem-based or repeating modularized (i.e., "helical") structures may be even better, but are likely difficult to enact.

References and Exhibits Available on Request

ANALYZING ECHO BOOMER BUSINESS STUDENTS AND HOW THEY LEARN: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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ABSTRACT

The popular media have increasingly been reporting on the generation currently coming of age labeled alternatively as Echo-Boomers (children of Baby Boomers), Generation Y, Millenials, and the Net Generation (Quinion 1999; Layman 2004; cbsnews.com 2005). This generation, born between the late 1970s and the mid-1990s is proving to be quite different from the previous Generation X and their Baby Boomer parents in enough ways as to require distinctive handling during many aspects of their lives, e.g. product marketing, shopping, supervision in the classroom, and overseeing their performance in the workplace (Smith, Clurman, and Wood 2005). Echo-Boomers have drawn the attention of marketers because they make up 27.5 percent of the population and have an annual purchasing power of $100 billion (NPD Insights 2004).

Generation Y (aka echo boomers) students are 60 million strong. According to the CBS magazine/news show, *60 Minutes*, Echo Boomers are used to home computers and 500-channel television sets. They are great at multitasking, though their schedules have been controlled by their parents. More than a third of them are non-white. They have a reputation for being team players, not overachievers (Wolburg and Pokrywczynski 2001).

This paper profiles the characteristics of samples of Echo Boomers, who attend public universities on the east coast and on the west coast. It analyzes to what extent these students, who represent a lower economic strata and multiple cultures, possess the characteristics that are most frequently ascribed to Generation Y. It tries to relate the degree to which identification with Echo Boomer values affects their attitudes towards learning activities and assessment methods.

Surveys were administered to a total of 321 students enrolled in five sections of business classes at a state university in southern California and five sections of business classes at a state university in central Connecticut. Half of the sample (50.0%) consisted of females. About 76% were born in the United States. The sample was quite diverse with 28.2% identifying themselves as Asian, 4.7% as Black American or African, 52.0% as Caucasian/European, and 13.2% as Hispanic (Caribbean, Mexico, Central America, Brazil, South America and Other Hispanic).

The survey instrument measured values, degree of participation in typical echo boomer activities, how much the students felt they learned from the a variety of classroom activities and how well each of the following assessment tools measured their class performance: quizzes, midterms, team projects, individual term projects, attendance, class participation, homework.

Results in this study show that the Echo Boomers in the samples conformed to some typical values like "confusing input with output" and "lacking the need to benchmark against their peers." They did not conform to other stereotypes like "believing that it was very important to fit in." Moreover, there seemed to be a lot of variance in the opinions they expressed, suggesting perhaps that a subset of Echo Boomers may be heavily influencing the popular stereotypes which abound. In contrast to the literature, these students did not feel they had short attention spans. They believed that traditional, more passive, teaching methods (e.g., live lectures) were preferable to more active pedagogies. These college Echo Boomers did not evaluate technology-based activities or group activities so positively either.

Based on this research not all Echo Boomers are created equal as the literature and media try to suggest. Differences occur even in what might be expected to be a relatively more homogenous subgroup like college business students.

Perhaps Echo Boomers, who come from diverse ethnic populations, may not fit the stereotypical mold. Yes they may be more wired and oriented to the internet. However, they may be more traditionally oriented when it comes to learning and assessment.

References Available on Request

USING STUDENT LEARNING STYLE PREFERENCES TO EXPLAIN ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE IN THE BASIC MARKETING COURSE

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ABSTRACT

To gain some insight regarding the learning styles of students in a basic marketing course two questions were addressed: (1) Can a student's learning style preference explain his/her overall course grade? (2) Can a student's learning style preference explain his/her performance on exams? The paper describe the: principles of marketing course, research methodology, composition of the sample, empirical results of multiple regression analysis, and the conclusions drawn.

The purpose of the sophomore-level Principles of Marketing course is to give students an overview of marketing as a discipline and also serve as a pre-requisite for upper-level marketing courses. The course is primarily lecture-based with many opportunities for students to participate in class discussion. Throughout the term guest speakers from the local business community are used to reinforce marketing topics. Students are graded on the basis of total points for the term. There are 500 total points possible divided between: three exams each worth 100 points, a team paper (group grade worth 50 points and individual grade worth 50 points), an oral presentation to the class worth 50 points and peer evaluations worth 50 points. Two hundred points are associated with a team project. Students are grouped in teams of four and are asked to develop a new product – one that is not currently in the marketplace. Their job is to thoroughly analyze the product in terms of the marketing mix. At the end of the term students submit a final group paper and present their work orally using PowerPoint and other visual aids such as product prototypes.

In this study the Felder-Solomon Index of Learning Styles (2006) was chosen for various reasons: the questionnaire is available on-line, free, simple to use and interpret, easily applicable, and the instrument has good validation results. The ILS was administered the first week of class to 75 Principle of Marketing students during the 2005-2006 academic year. Students were given a printed version of the ILS questionnaire that consisted of 44 incomplete sentences to which an "a" or "b" response could be selected to finish the statement. The questionnaire took approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. The responses of students were submitted on-line and a profile for each student was returned with scores on scores on four learning dimensions: active-reflective, sensing-intuitive, visual-verbal, and sequential-global.

Multiple regressions were used to investigate whether or not learning styles could explain a student's overall course grade or performance on exams in the Principles of Marketing class. From the multiple regression output it can be concluded that there is not enough evidence to suggest that a student's learning style preference can explain his/her overall course grade. Likewise there is not enough evidence to suggest that a student's learning style preference can explain his/her performance on course exams. None of the learning style indices were statistically significant at the .01, .05, or .10 levels. This suggests that learning styles indices did little to explain either total course grade or total exam score.

A major limitation to the study is the small sample size. In addition various statistical tests could have been performed on the data but were not based on the scope of this particular study. For example a regression quantile analysis that was first proposed by Koenker and Bassett and later refined by Portnoy and Koenker may give a more complete picture of the effect of learning styles on students' performance.

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

References Available on Request

ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS OF SOCIAL NETWORKS AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS: THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL NETWORKING ON MARKETING AND RETAILING

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ABSTRACT

The use of online social networks by college students has grown exponentially since the turn of the century. Students routinely post personal information, photographs and video footage on their personal pages of MySpace, Facebook and other sites as part of the social network experience. Marketers and retailers use this information to target potential consumers. However, do college students post false or inaccurate information about themselves on these websites? Are advertisers, marketers and retailers missing the target by relying on false information? This study investigates the attitudes and perceptions of college students regarding the truthfulness of information posted on online social networks, draws conclusions about those attitudes as they relate to marketing educators and makes recommendations regarding the future impact on the marketing and retail industry.

Our research found that 89.9% of respondents answered yes to the question "Do you believe that people falsify their persona on social networks?" When asked if the respondent knew of another person who has change their persona on a social network website, 55.3% responded "yes", 28.6% answered "no" and 16.1% indicated that they were not sure. Do marketers and retailers use online social networks to market products? It appears that students think they do, with 95.4% of respondents answering "yes" when asked if they believed that retailers use websites like Facebook and MySpace to advertise to customers. Is the current type of marketing effective, according to the student respondents? Apparently not, with 94.1% of respondents indicating that there is too much advertising on social network sites and 81% of all participants contending that web advertising does not get their attention and is unappealing. Are marketers and retailers missing the target when they incorporate user provided information in decisions regarding marketing and retailing? This study suggests it does.

Marketers, retailers and marketing educators should be concerned about creating advertising and marketing campaigns based on online social network user-provided data. The literature indicates that participants in online social networks are concerned about providing valid information based on privacy considerations and/or because they want to be free to change identities at will. This practice can have a negative impact on the effectiveness of marketing strategies.

Marketers and retailers would be wise to consider the type of persona conveyed by an online social network user, especially when targeting potential consumers based on social network profiles.

However, this study, with its faculty viewpoint, brings findings such as *trust* and *mutual disclosure* into a business education context. Faculty most frequently listed Approach and Personality factors. While Approach can be taught, personality may be more difficult to change. Additionally, given the low frequency for mentions of *homophily* and its importance as identified in previous research, it would be prudent for faculty to focus on this.

Many of the perceived outcomes identified in this research mirror those found in past research. New outcomes were also uncovered and include *fun*, *increased faculty attention*, and *lasting relationships*.

Future research can focus on developing a model and testing whether the perceived antecedents and outcomes are valid across a larger and more diverse sample. If the perceived antecedents and outcomes are supported, the benefits create a strong case for faculty to increase their rapport with students.

References Available on Request

TECHNOLOGY PERCEPTIONS AND TENDENCIES AMONG FACULTY AND STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

It is widely recognized that institutions of higher education are facing several pressures and challenges. One major challenge facing providers of education is staying current and relevant with technological advances for both business and academic operations (Rice and Miller 2001; Bailey and Dangerfield 2000). While there exists support for the use of educational technologies and recommendations for faculty to interact with technology both in and out of the classroom (Dickson and Segars 1999; Celsi and Wolfinbarger 2002; Chung and McLarney 2000; Rice and Miller 2001; Vannatta and Beyerbach 2000;Yuhasz, Buck, Edwards, and White 2004), there remains a limited understanding as to why some faculty use educational technologies more than others (Durrington, Repman, and Valente 2000; Rice and Miller 2001; Brennan, Miller, and Moniotte 2001; Butler and Sellbom 2002; Vannatta, and Beyerbach 2000; Durrington et al. 2000).

This limited understanding severely hampers the efforts of educational institutions that are striving to be market oriented in their efforts to address the pressures and challenges of today's environment. One concept that can prove helpful in developing this understanding is technology readiness. Technology readiness (TR) is a construct used to measure a person's tendency to adopt technology for accomplishing goals at home and at work (Parasuraman 2000; Parasuraman and Colby 2001; Parasuraman and Grewal 2000). This study investigates levels of TR among students and faculty, as well as their perceptions regarding the use of technology in introductory marketing courses.

Primary data was collected from 178 faculty and 795 students at randomly selected higher education institutions in the U.S. Results show statistically significant differences between the TR levels of faculty, students, and the general population. Results of the study indicate that TR levels of the general population are lower than both student and faculty TR levels.

It is interesting to note the difference in TR levels between the faculty and students who participated in the study. Because today's university student is currently exposed to such a vast array of technological products and services, it is logical to assume that TR levels of students would be higher than faculty. Surprisingly, results from the study indicate that the average student TR level (M = 115.42) was slightly below the average faculty TR level (M = 123.44).

Study results also show that the perceptions of faculty and students regarding the use of technology in the classroom are significantly different. Student reported technology use scores (M = 54.03) on the average were higher than faculty reported technology usage scores (M = 49.84). This indicates that students actually rated the faculty use of technology higher than faculty themselves.

Results from the study confirm the fact that students and faculty in the same education environment can have different TR levels and different perceptions regarding technology use. This is especially important in light of the fact that higher education is increasingly being viewed as a service (Chung and McLarney 2000; Davis and Swanson 2001; Desai et al. 2001; Ford et al. 1999; Ham and Hayduk 2003; Hill 1995; Umashankar 2001). Results of the study confirm that it is imperative that faculty have regular, consistent interaction with students solely for the purpose of gaining feedback on student perceptions regarding technology use.

References Available on Request

WEB-ENHANCED, DIGITAL LECTURES, AND BLOGGING: WHAT STUDENTS THINK ABOUT TECHNOLOGY IN THE MARKETING CLASSROOM

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents student opinions of six technology applications used in the marketing classroom. Students appear to adapt to technology that are perceived to be helpful. Suggestions for faculty are provided.

INTRODUCTION

Faculty and students alike expect the "newest and fastest" technology on our campuses and in our personal lives. From cell phones to laptops to software, we desire ease of use, convenience, and quick response 24/7. However, using technology in teaching and learning is more than the current gadget. Malhotra (2002) defined instructional technology: "Instructional technology includes hardware and software, tools, and techniques that are used directly or indirectly in facilitating, enhancing, and improving the effectiveness and efficiency of teaching, learning, and practicing marketing knowledge."

Technology is not only expected but required of colleges and universities today. Accreditation bodies call for instructional technology in achievement of their standards. Advanced ED (a merger of North Central, Southern Association, and National Study of School Evaluation) accreditation standard 3.11 requires that an applicant "ensures that all students and staff members have regular and ready access to instructional technology and a comprehensive materials collection that supports the curricular and instructional program." Additional standard documentation indicates optimizing technology and multimedia learning tools is a Core Task in improving teaching and learning is to (NCACASI 2006). AACSB also expects its accredited schools to have financial support for technology. Interpretative information on the standards states, "Modern business is highly information dependent. Management scholarship, pedagogy, and learning require sufficient up-to-date technology hardware, software, assistance, and instruction" (AACSB 2006). Consequently, universities allocate large amounts of their budget to the creation and maintenance of networks, computer labs, hardware, and software for instructional technology.

Marketing faculty have been at the forefront of technology use in the classroom. Embracing technology and applying it to the marketing classroom have been researched since the early 1990's with the emergence of interactive video distance education technology and more recently with the integration of technology in the traditional classroom using internet based software and hardware. Evidence of the importance of technology in marketing education are the special issues dedicated to the topic of using the internet and integrating technology in the classroom by the *Journal of Marketing Education* (2001) and *Marketing Education Review* (2001 and 2002). Evans (2001) reviewed the evolution of technology and instruction from the traditional classroom education to technology-enhance classroom education to completed technology-based distance education. He recommended that colleges and universities should continue their commitment to continually introducing more technology enhancements in the classroom.

While most administrators and faculty understand the need for technology in the classroom, it is the correct use of technology in teaching and learning that is important. Faculty spend countless hours learning and applying new software and hardware to their teaching and assessing the use of these resources is prudent. This issue has been addressed by several authors. Peterson et al. (2002) suggests that a comprehensive framework be developed to combine what is known about instructional technology and provide guidance for future research. Ferrell and Ferrell (2002) call for a balance between traditional methods and the use of technology.

One challenge of the incorporation of technology in the classroom is the acceptance by students. Do students feel the technology was useful for them? In a study of student intention to use technology, Robinson (2006) suggests that for technology to maximize the return, students must intend to utilize the tools beyond the minimum requirement. He further notes that students choose technology that will allocate their time efficiently and in this process more likely to choose technologies that are easier to use.

This paper describes several types of instructional technology used in marketing classes over several different semesters and provides student opinions on the usefulness of the application. Suggestions for faculty implementing instructional technology are provided.

WEB-BASED COURSE MANAGEMENT

A website is an easy method to house and organize course materials for students. This can be done through a course website or web-based course management software such as Blackboard or WebCT. While considered a passive technology, this method is convenient for students and can be accessed from most anywhere at anytime. Faculty can provide syllabi, outlines, slideshows, projects, links and other material for use 24/7. Clark III, Flaherty, and Mottner (2001) suggests online syllabi, internet term projects, online homework assignments, online lecture outlines and technology lectures have the greatest overall effect for students. Other research indicates that students later in their program of studies tend to value web management practices in their courses more than students earlier in their program of studies (Taylor, Humphreys, Singley, and Hunter 2004).

A course website was created for a mass Principles of Marketing class and evaluated for three different semesters, one fall and two spring semester. Class materials including course calendar, polices, slideshows for lectures, study helps, exam study guides, and web links were posted for student use. WebCT was used for posting of grades for all semesters, timed quizzes during the Spring 1 semester and audio lectures during the Fall 1 semester. A survey using a seven-point Likert scale was administered at the end of each semester. Students were asked if the website was helpful in obtaining class materials, if it was easy to navigate, convenient, and if they were comfortable using the website. Students in all semesters used the website (over 95 percent in each semester) and were generally positive about the website. They felt it was helpful and easy to navigate. They also like the convenience of study guides, slideshows, and the ability to obtain their grades. See Table 1.

However, one third (54) of the fall class were uncomfortable with the website and 25 percent (43) and 26.3% percent (26) of the students in the spring semesters were uncomfortable. This indicates that students have different levels of expertise with web use.

TABLE 1

Course Website	SP1 n=166	FA n=168	SP2 n=99
I found the website to be helpful in obtaining class materials.	6.20	6.10	6.02
The website was easy to navigate	6.07	6.04	5.94
I like the availability of the study guides at my convenience.	6.54	6.46	6.29
I like the availability of the slideshows at my convenience.	5.87	6.33	6.23
I am uncomfortable using the website for class materials.	2.94	3.24	3.06
I read the study help page on the website.	4.90	4.00	3.76

1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree

PRESENTATION TECHNOLOGY

As classrooms became equipped with computers and LCD projectors and the easy to use software such as Microsoft's PowerPoint and Corel's Presentations, many faculty switched to slideshow presentations as a preferred method to deliver content. Peterson et al. (2002) in a study 61 of marketing professors from 16 different countries report that the most frequently used technology was PowerPoint slides. Many textbooks come with prepared PowerPoint slides for students and faculty use. Ferrell and Ferrell (2002) discuss the possibility of over reliance on technology such as PowerPoint. They further note that some students comment that PowerPoint slideshows can lose their effectiveness while others like the framework the slideshows can provide for studying.

As noted above, students like the access of PowerPoint slides from the website. However, do they feel they are helpful in preparing for exams? This was asked of students in two different semesters. Students indicate that PowerPoint Slides helped them prepare for exams; however, they also indicated that study guides also assisted them. Study guides were basically the slideshows information in outline form. See Table 1.

A variation of the PowerPoint slideshow was Quick Quizzes. These were added in Spring 2 as a method to prepare students for exams. Historically students struggle with application questions more often than definitions or descriptive questions on exams. Example application questions were formulated in a slideshow by chapter. Used as a review, the Quick Quiz questions were shown on PowerPoint, students were allowed to think about the answer, and then the instructor would ask for the answer. While these questions were very similar to questions on the exam, students did not find the Quick Quizzes as helpful but agreed they should be continued in future sections. Students did request that these be added to the course website.

To provide additional assistance in learning the course material, lectures were recorded and placed on the web after each class. The purpose was to assist the student in clarifying material at anytime and especially when the instructor was not available and when students missed class. Lectures were recorded as they were presented on a small digital recorder. Because of the size of the room, the instructor wore a microphone and the recording filtered through the microphone for clarity. The recording was downloaded after class and a WAV file was created to use in Real Producer. The audio Real File was loaded onto WebCT for students to access. To decrease time for the instructor, the file was not edited. Real Media was chosen because of the free Real Media player available to all students. Because WebCt tracks student usage, only students that accessed the audio lectures were surveyed (14.6% of enrolled students). Students accessed the lectures from their off campus home or dorm room with only eight students using on campus computer labs. Six students used the audio lectures when they were absent and to verify information they didn't understand, five students used audio lectures only when they were absent, and six students used the audio lectures only when they didn't understand information. Students that used the lectures were generally positive about the usefulness with only three students feeling it was a waste of their time. Students felt they were also useful in preparing for exams. Over 40 percent of the students felt they would be more helpful if attached to a slideshow.

While the number of students participating in this technology was small, most felt it was useful. After the initial learning curve of the process and software, time to upload the lectures was minimal for the instructor. The purpose of providing additional assistance 24/7 was met; however, most students enrolled in the course did not access the lectures.

INTERACTIVE TECHNOLOGY

Course management and presentation techniques are passive uses of technology. Students' interaction using technology can be accomplished through avenues such as discussion boards, e-mail, and web searches. Interaction technology was implemented in the fall semester course using the WebCT quiz module. The learning objective was to assist students in applying concepts to marketing situations. The on-line structure allowed the professor to easily administer quizzes without using valuable class time. A paper quiz in a class of 166 takes time to administer, grade, and post the grade. WebCT allows for the quiz to be completed outside of class, it is automatically graded by the system and the grade is assigned to the student.

Cases were posted for the student to read. After reading the case, students activated the timed quiz module. There were three cases and combined equaled 20 percent of the total course grade. Student opinions on the on-line quizzes were not as positive but there was no indication the quizzes were too difficult. The timed technology was a problem for some students. Almost 60 percent of the students agreed that the timed quizzes made them nervous. Over 27 percent of the students agreed or strongly agreed that the cases helped them in understanding the material. Students had a window of time to complete the quizzes which included a point past the exam. Students preferred to have the quizzes due before the exam covering the material. WebCt would allow students to take the quiz and provide feedback before the exam so it is interesting that students expected the professor to create a restriction which was in their control. Students did not want to switch to an in class quiz format and most didn't work together on the quizzes. Quizzes were not in a controlled environment and 16 percent of the students worked with other students. While students were encouraged to work on their own, there was no way to control this. Students could have copied the case for reference during the quiz. Creating narrower time allowances curtailed referencing the case again but did not prevent it.

The learning objective was minimally achieved. A third of the class disagreed the cases were helpful. Student did not make the connection between the cases and the material or were perhaps intimidated by the technology. See Table 2.

Another interactive technology is the blog. Answers.com (2005) defines a blog as a website that contains dated entries in reverse chronological order (most recent first) about a particular topic. In July of 2006, there were an estimated 70 million blogs worldwide with 90 percent of the blogs being hosted on eight leading blog hosting sites (Duncan 2006). While blogs have been around since the emergence of the Internet (Jensen 2003), the rapid growth of blogs occurred after blog development applications such as Pitas and Blogger were released in 1999. The template-based software makes it easy to create an online blog and continuously add entries without having to write the pages in HTML. In addition, hosting services do not usually require software downloads to create a blog.

TABLE 2

Use of Slideshows	SP1 n=166	FA n=168	SP2 n=99
The study guides were helpful in preparing exams.	-	5.22	5.13
The slideshows were helpful in preparing exams.	-	5.59	5.24
Use of Quick Quizzes			
The Quick Quiz after each chapter was helpful in preparing for exams.	-	-	4.93
I suggest the Quick Quiz format be continued.	-	-	5.20
Use of Audio Lectures			
Audio lectures were a waste of my time.	2.65	-	-
Audio lectures took too long to download.	4.63	-	-
I found the audio lectures useful in my study.	5.09	-	-
I found the audio lectures difficult to listen to.	2.86	-	-
I would use the audio lectures more often if they were attached to the slideshow.	5.50	-	-
On-line Case Quizzes			
The cases were difficult.	4.82	-	-
The timed quizzes made me nervous.	4.95	-	-
The cases helped me understand the material better	4.38	-	-
I would rather be quizzed before the exam covering the material.	5.07	-	-
I would rather take the quiz in class.	2.98	-	-
I usually worked with other students when taking the quiz.	3.30	-	-

1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree

A course blog for the services marketing course was developed using Blogger.com. The purpose of the blog was to (1) compel students to read assigned material before responding (2) provide additional opportunities for students to apply concepts discussed in class (3) learn from other student comments (4) foster additional discussion during the class period and (5) assist in preparing students for exams and written individual and team cases. Students were asked to sign on to the blog at the beginning of each chapter and respond to a critical incident case written by the instructor. At the beginning of the semester each comment was worth five points and students were allowed to earn up to 50 points (12 percent of the total grade) for the semester.

The instructor felt that most students were familiar with blogging and wanted to capture the students' attention by using the technique for learning instead of the discussion board in WebCT. Unfortunately, no students in the class were familiar with web blogging. In the beginning, students were uncomfortable with the software, felt they didn't have time to answer before another student answered with "their idea," and were afraid the experience would negatively impact their grades. Students also felt that the cases would make more sense if they had heard the lecture and completed class exercises before reading the blog cases. In response to the student's concern, the instructor changed the 50 points to 25 blog points and 25 points for in-class exercises, posted cases after the lecture on the material, posted more than one case on a topic, and worked with individual students on the software. Discussion in class of the blog comments and use of the grading rubric continued as planned.

A student opinion survey was administered at the end of the semester to determine if students felt the blog was effective. Overall students felt that the course blog enhanced their learning and provide useful applications beyond the textbook. They also felt the software was easy to use – a change in their opinions at the beginning of the semester. However, students were more ambivalent regarding the blog's usefulness in preparing for exams and cases or that it provided useful information. In addition, they didn't necessarily enjoy the blog. See Table 3 for student responses.

Students felt the blog was manageable in terms of the requirements and most checked in once a week when they were posting their responses. Only eight students (32 percent) checked the blog to read other student comments. Most students (88.5 percent) felt they would have no reason to blog again.

Several learning objectives of the course blog were met. It appeared the blog assisted in providing additional opportunities to apply concepts and it fostered discussion in class. However, students were uncomfortable commenting on the cases without lecture and they also did not feel it assisted them in preparing for exams and written cases.

TABLE 3

1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree	Mean n=26
The Blog site enhanced my learning experience for Services Marketing.	4.00
The Blog site brought useful applications beyond the textbook.	4.20
The Blog site made the classroom more current.	3.88
I received lots of useful information from the Blog site.	3.58
The Blog site helped me in preparing for exams.	3.46
The Blog site helped me in writing my individual case.	3.50
The Blog site helped my term in writing the group case.	3.23
It was easy to use the Blog website.	4.04
I enjoy using Blog technology to share information with the instructor and my classmates.	3.65

DISCUSSION

Instructional technology is only useful if it improves the teaching learning environment for the students. The six applications provide some indication of what students feel about a particular type of technology. It appears that students will adapt to a technology if they perceive it will benefit them such as the course website for organization and PowerPoint presentations. Students were not particularly comfortable with the on-line quizzes and the blog. It is interesting to note that these two applications had a direct impact on their course grades. Most students did not even attempt the audio lectures and the quick quizzes were not perceived as very helpful.

Robinson (2006) suggests that "efforts must be made to improve student perceptions about the effort required for full use." The instructor, therefore, must illustrate the benefit of the technology to the students if they feel the technology achieves learning objectives. Once the efficacy of the instructional technology has been determined as appropriate; the instructor should create an organized plan to demonstrate how and why the technology is being used. Suggestions include:

- Clearly list the learning goals met by the technology so students understand the "why" of using the application.
- Provide easy to understand written directions. It would be helpful to ask a student to critique directions for clarity.
- Allow time for a "trial run" if the instructional technology will be used in the computation of student grades. This will help lower the stress in learning a technology for the first time.
- Create guidelines for students in case the technology doesn't work to alleviate fears of reprisal and ease the stress of technology failure.
- Provide discussions of how learning and using technology will benefit students beyond the classroom and into their professional careers.
- Provide additional office hours at the beginning of the semester to assist students who are having difficulty with the technology. Schedule a lab or demonstrate the technology in the classroom.
- Remember students will have different level of expertise and do not assume all students are computer experts.
- Don't be afraid to make changes if learning objectives are not being accomplished; reassure students that the change will not negatively impact them.
- Understand the technology and learn to troubleshoot. Technology support staff or graduate assistants will not always be available when needed. Students will not see the value of technology if they don't see the instructor using it.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The experiences provided are from one university over several semesters and cannot be compared or generalized to other student populations. Because the surveys were anonymous there was no method to objectively compute the impact of the technology on the student's content knowledge or course grade. While perception of usefulness may influence the student's use, the student may not realize the technology actually assisted their learning. Future research should include direct measurements of the impact of the student on learning both content and skills.

Additional research on blogging is warranted. Will Richardson (2006) believes individuals using the internet are no longer simply independent readers or consumers of information but collaborators in the creation of content. He states that the "Read/Write Web is changing our relationship to technology and rewriting the age old paradigms of how things work." Richardson also suggests that education has been slow in adopting the techniques necessary for the "Read/Write" transformation. A blog is an example of the "Read/Write" web. As a powerful technology tool, blogs assist in building communication and collaboration in and out of the classroom. Lankshear and Knobel (2003) argue that blogging is the new major technology integration in schools, following teacher websites and PowerPoint presentation in every subject area.

Many studies have been published on technology in the classroom. Close, Dixit, and Malhotra (2005) provide an excellent review of the literature on the Internet and marketing education. However, it is a dynamic environment with instructional technology evolving exponentially. Susan Metros, Executive Director for E-learning at Ohio State, insists that institutions that fail to embrace technology risk being left behind (McNamee 2006). Continued research of all types of instructional technology applications is necessary to determine best practices for teaching and learning for students.

References Available on Request

INTERACTIVE MARKETING COVERAGE IN THE CURRICULUM: AN EXAMINATION OF AACSB SCHOOLS

Co Chairs

James W. Peltier, University of Wisconsin Whitewater

John A. Schibrowsky, University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Presenters

Micol Maughan, Fort Hays State University

Gail Ball, Business Consultant

Carol Scovotti, University of Wisconsin Whitewater

Alexander Nill, James Cross, and Richard S. Lapidus, University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Lucille Pointer, University of Houston, Downtown Campus

ABSTRACT

The field of marketing is in transition. The emergence of new technologies such as the new direct marketing tools such as text messaging, WEB, consumer database marketing software, CRM technologies, and the integration of various interactive communication tools is creating a new interactive integrated marketing landscape. The use of these tools by most businesses has spurred interest in many institutions of higher education to expand their educational offerings to include course in traditional direct marketing, Internet marketing, database marketing, CRM, IMC, and other technology related courses. Despite this trend, relatively little is known about what mix of courses are being offered and whether this mix differs across school types, sizes, and missions. In addition, many marketing educators argue that these new marketing tools are adequately discussed in the traditional classes.

To remedy this information gap, and to serve as a benchmark for future comparisons, Schibrowsky and Peltier will present their findings from a study that examines the direct and interactive undergraduate course offerings for all AACSB schools in the U.S. This review will include the following measures:

1. *Number and Types of Courses:* (a) Traditional Direct Marketing, (b) Database Marketing, (c) Internet Marketing, (d) CRM/Relationship Marketing, and (e) IMC.
2. *Type of AACSB Institution Classification:* (a) Doctoral Level, (b) Primarily Graduate with Undergraduate program, (c) Primarily Undergraduate with Graduate Program, and (d) Undergraduate Program Only.
3. *Other Potential Institutional Demographics:* Rural versus urban, size, U.S. location (i.e., east, west, Midwest, etc.).

In addition the panel will present results from a secondary review of the major textbooks in each primary area of marketing to determine the degree to which these topics are integrated into the traditional marketing courses such as principles of marketing, consumer behavior, marketing communications, marketing research, sales management, channels of distribution, supply chain management, and international marketing. This review will include the following measures:

1. *Number of chapters and pages:* (a) Traditional Direct Marketing, (b) Database Marketing, (c) Internet Marketing, (d) CRM/Relationship Marketing, and (e) IMC.
2. *Specific topics and level of integration:* (a) Traditional Direct Marketing, (b) Database Marketing, (c) Internet Marketing, (d) CRM/Relationship Marketing, and (e) IMC.
3. *Location of the chapters and pages:* Introduction versus strategy sections versus end of the book chapters.

Finally the panel will provide a discussion of strategies that departments of marketing might follow to adequately prepare their students for future careers in marketing

STRATEGIES FOR REDUCING TEXTBOOK COSTS TO STUDENTS

Co Chairs

John A. Schibrowsky and James Cross, University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Presenters

Greg Bowman, McGraw-Hill Publishing

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ABSTRACT

The cost of textbooks is an increasingly important issue to students. The Nevada Board of Regents recently addressed the issue at one of their meetings. Barron's published a recent editorial on the topic and it was even debated on CNN. Popular perception is that book publishers (with the acquiescence of professors) are engaging in price gouging of students. When textbook costs are compared to inflation rates, this appears to be the case. This special session will explore these issues and suggest some coping strategies for students.

Instead of merely complaining about high textbook costs and trying to affix blame, an effective coping approach could include a mix of strategies including:

1. Buying used books
2. Buying new books online
3. Sharing books in some sort of pool
4. Renting books
5. Buying outdated editions
6. Not using books at all

Jack Schibrowsky will introduce the topic and serve as the session moderator. Professor Cross will outline possible student strategies. Professor Nill will add a European perspective, and Mr. Bowman will add insights from the publisher side, including some nuances and pitfalls involved in actually following one of the suggested strategies. Professors Pointer, Peltier, Ball, and Maughan will present non-traditional solutions to the problem.

GAPS ANALYSIS: EXPECTATIONS OF EMPLOYERS AND MARKETING STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Universities have several key constituencies: students, their parents, employers and society at large, each having expectations of the educational services the university provides. This presentation will focus on the relationship triangle between students (specifically marketing majors) and the employers who will ultimately hire them. A discussion of service quality, the GAPs model, skill sets employers value and how universities can best prepare students for their marketing careers by employing experiential learning activities will be provided.

THE PROBLEM OF IGNORANCE: A CALL FOR RESEARCH

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ABSTRACT

This paper proposes that as marketing educators we may be overlooking a problem that has developed with our students that makes much of what we do relatively irrelevant to our stated purposes and goals. It then calls for research to investigate the problem.

We claim to be producing educated and skilled marketing parishioners, but there is increasing evidence that our graduates are relatively unskilled and lacking in general knowledge. We all believe that students leave our own classes knowing the material taught, especially if our students received high grades. At the same time, we are constantly concerned that our incoming students, even if they have had prerequisite classes, are poorly prepared and don't know what they need to know to be successful in our class. Obviously something is wrong. We can't all be producing knowledgeable students and all be receiving unknowledgeable students.

The writer admits that the hypotheses advanced in this paper may be controversial. In fact, it is sincerely hoped that some of the pessimism expressed is unfounded. Nevertheless, the probability of the problems outlined is strong enough to warrant a call for new research.

PROBLEM

A number of reports have appeared recently in the media outlining a general failure of our educational systems to produce students who can perform to even basic standards (News Tribune 2006; Wall Street Journal 2006). It has become a staple of radio talk shows and late night TV programs to interview people on the street. These interviews exist primarily to showcase the ignorance of the general public, and the interviewees very seldom disappoint the program's intent. A number of years ago, Jay Leno interviewed a new graduate of the California State University system, still in her robes. He asked her how many moons the earth has. "Oh," the student replied, "I ought to know that. I had an astronomy class." She then gave the wrong answer.

Even if numerous students had to be interviewed to find this one person, finding one student with this depth of ignorance indicates that a serious problem may exist.

Not all evidence is anecdotal. A disturbing report on higher education was recently released by the U.S. Department of Education. In their National Assessment of Adult Literacy study they found that only 31% of college graduates were proficient at reading prose, a drop of 9% over the last ten years. Only 25% were proficient at understanding a document even to the extent of readily utilizing a TV guide, or finding a location on a map. Thirty-one percent were proficient at understanding a quantitative problem. This would be understandable if "proficiency" was defined as college graduates having an advanced knowledge of mathematical concepts. Yet all that a "proficient" person needed to show was that the graduate could do a simple problem such as finding the total cost of a number of items taken from a catalog. Over 20% were unable to make a decision from data as simple as the comparison prices between several products (National Assessment of Adult Literacy 2006).

It would be reassuring to find that marketing students do not follow these trends, but what little evidence that does exist is not encouraging. Stern (2000) found that 88% of the business students he surveyed did not know the population of the United States, and 90% did not know the population of their own city. Of some perverse interest, 84% did not know the name of the president of their own university. Clayson (2002) reported that marketing juniors and seniors at an AACSB accredited university believed that 27% of the nation's population was African-American. Only 22% of the students could identify the population of the nation to within plus or minus 60 million. About 1/3 thought the population was over a billion. About 1/3 did not know what state was south of Kansas. Over 56% of the students couldn't calculate the correct change in a store transaction, almost 70% did not know the square root of 0.25, and almost 60% did not know the interior angle of an equilateral triangle.

Consistent with these findings, the number of hours students spend studying has been declining rapidly in recent years (Young 2002). Students now spend 75 to 85% more time per week watching TV and other entertainment than they do in preparing for class, preparing for exams and quizzes, and preparing for projects and academic-related work

combined. Business students, by their own self-report, spend about an hour per week studying for each credit hour they take (Nonis, Philhours, and Hudson 2006).

At the same time, grades have been rising. The average grades students receive is currently higher than at any time in the past, and are increasing rapidly. If current trends continue, the average grade in America's colleges and universities by 2030 will be 3.56 at public universities and 3.81 at private colleges (Rojstaczer 2003). It is now common in many institutions to have 45 to 50 percent of all grades in the A range while C's have become almost as uncommon as F's once were (Johnson 2003). Research is consistent in showing that students now expect inflated grades for average work (Edwards 2000; Gose 1997; Kamber and Biggs 2002; Landrum and Dillinger 2000).

Even with inflated grades, modern students consistently overestimate their performance. Immediately after taking an exam, students will indicate that they should receive a grade considerably higher than the one they generally earn. One large study found that students at one university entered their business classes with an average GPA of 3.02, but expected to receive a 3.27 average in the new class, and thought they would "deserve" to receive a 3.34. In the last week of the class, students still "expected" to receive an average grade of 2.99 while the actual average turned out to be 2.75, a value 10 standard errors below the expected grade (Clayson, Frost, and Sheffet 2005). As one professor commented to this writer, "All my students think they are geniuses."

Some researchers have suggested that the inability to correctly judge grades is a "metacognitive" effect in which students who "don't know what they don't know" overestimate their performance (Kennedy, Lawton, and Plumlee 2002). Other research, however, only partially supports this hypothesis. It was found that students had a notion of their actual performance, but adjusted their expected grade about halfway from their actual performance to some standard held by the students. That standard appears to be the inflated average GPA of the university (Clayson 2005). Even though the students hold a rough estimate of their actual performance, they did not expect to be graded consistent with that performance. They seem genuinely confused, and in some cases, angered when their inflated expected grade was not received. It has been found that students tend to blame the instructor for the inconsistency (Clayson, Frost, and Sheffet 2005).

Since little research exists to clarify what our students actually know, it is possible that the above assessment may be overly pessimistic. Yet we do know that students with higher grades than ever before are graduating from our universities so poorly prepared that industry has had to initiate their own training programs to bring new employees up to basic standards. A research stream has developed highlighting problems our graduates have in the workplace (Kelley and Bridges 2005). A letter the writer received from a local business person is typical. "As a career-long marketing practitioner, I was in a position to hire perhaps three or four dozen college graduates for positions I offered. I can attest to your point that the 'quality' of such graduates has eroded, such that in certain cases we withdrew our open position and made other internal arrangements instead."

The bottom line is disquieting. Bluntly stated, we appear to be producing students that know almost nothing, and who are generally unaware of the consequences of their condition.

Proposition 1: It appears that the average IQ of Americans has been increasing (Herrnstein and Murray 1994), but the reason for this has been hotly debated (Teasdale and Owen 2005).There is no evidence that the decline in student performance is related to any type of general decline in innate ability. It is the experience of this writer that most modern students are bright and motivated. They are also pragmatic with many demands placed on their time. About 2/3 of them have jobs while attending school, and almost 20% have dependent children (Nonis, Philhours, and Hudson 2006).

If students are as pragmatic as they appear, then the reason our students may be deficient is very linear. If our students know practically nothing, it is because *it is in their immediate best interest not to know anything.* It appears that we may have created a system that not only does not produce knowledge-able and skilled students, but which reinforces the opposite.

Proposition 2: One scenario that may explain the lack of general knowledge with many students is a lack of connectivity. By the time we see students in our junior-senior level of undergraduate work, they know how the system works and how to survive within it. They have learned that nothing is ever connected to anything else. The system pretends that connectivity exists, but students soon learn that is a fiction. Students have found that the way to survive is to memorize (usually utilizing only recognition memory) a short list of factoids,

regurgitate these on the next exam, and then erase them so they will not interfere with the next group of unrelated factoids. Even prerequisite classes are seen as being disconnected. Many students seem genuinely surprised if an instructor requires them to know material from a previous class. Students fully expect that any material tested in a class will be taught in that class. Students not only expect modularization, some instructors actually take pride in being able to break a course up into small segments and then present and test the entire segment within one lecture period so the student will never have to see it again.

Imagine a large blackboard. Draw a circle to represent a learning module. At any given time there may be a limited number of circles on the board, but not so many as to interfere with memorization and short term memory. Once the material within a circle has been tested, erase the circle. The entire board now becomes manageable, allowing time for other activities, including the job that is necessary to pay inflated tuitions. Also note that at the end of any school cycle, including graduation, the board is empty. Surprisingly, this doesn't seem to matter enough to instructors or institutions for meaningful action to be taken. The writer is aware of at least one institution that has tested their students on standardized exams, found embarrassingly low scores, and then simply buried the information, forbidding even their own faculty to be told the results. As one business professor recently noted in a newspaper article about higher education, "I can think of no single piece of information that a college student is required to know to graduate from any of America's state universities."

Proposition 3: The above proposition does not explain why students seem genuinely confused when they don't receive higher grades. Part of this can be attributed to grade inflation, but not all. This writer believes that another factor is in play. An example may illustrate what is happening. In our marketing research classes, students are required to master the concept of scales as outlined by Stevens. The instructors can go over these concepts until students verbally express boredom and make requests that the class proceed. The definition of a ratio scale, as an illustration, will be given with numerous examples. On the next exam, if the students are asked what a ratio scale is, most will give the correct definition, and any example given in the class will generally be correctly identified. If however, the exam presents a new case of a ratio scale, identifying it as such will drop to what would be expected by random selection. Students will then appear in the instructors' offices sincerely expressing their frustration with not getting a higher grade. A common expression is, "I thought I knew that stuff."

The students apparently thought they "knew" the material because they had memorized a definition and several examples. Given the students' GPAs when they enter the class, this strategy had been successful in the past. Successful to the point that students honestly appear not to know that they did not understand the concepts taught.

Our students seem unprepared to handle any information beyond the basic factoids of a short memorized list. Even adding elementary additional steps seems to be confusing to many. The writer presented information about the average number of advertisements an American was exposed to daily, on three distinct occasions in a class. On the next exam, a multiple-choice question was asked with one additional step. The question asked how many ads a person could be expected to see in *a week.* All the students could multiply by seven, and the correct daily number was not identified as an option. Further, a post-test analysis showed that the students did not think of this as a "trick" question. Less than half of the students who would normally answer this question correctly identified the appropriate new response.

It is unfair to blame the students solely for these deficiencies. Although students share responsibility for their own education, the faculty and institutions are mostly to blame if the propositions outlined above are correct. If a person learns to successfully navigate through a complicated system created largely by others, then it is unfair to blame them if they do not meet standards of which they were generally unaware.

PROPOSALS FOR RESEARCH

There has been almost no research to investigate what our students know and how that knowledge impacts them in our classes. There is some weak evidence that general knowledge affects performance, even controlled for achievement as measured by GPA (Clayson 2002), but the depth and mechanism of this interaction is unknown.

A number of questions need to be addressed:

1) What is the level of general knowledge of our students? Does it influence how students perform in marketing classes?

2) What is the effect of general illiteracy in the

marketing classroom? For example, the writer took two words from a text used in consumer behavior classes, which were utilized as part of the definition of concepts. In two classes (n = 74), 1/3 of the students could not recognize the meaning of the word "vigilance" in a multiple choice response format. Over 23% could not identify the meaning of the word "hyper." It is possible that many of our students are having a difficult time with certain concepts, not because of a lack of attention, comprehension, or interest, but simply because they do not understand the words utilized to describe the concept. The same possibility exists for the exams we give. How often does a student do poorly on an exam not because they didn't know the correct answer, but simply because they couldn't understand the content of the question? The federal study previously mentioned would indicate that a large proportion of our students cannot understand moderately complex prose.

3) What is the effect of general innumeracy on the performance of our students? Innumeracy is basically the equivalent of illiteracy with numbers. The problem was first publicized by Paulos (1988). A participant at the MEA conference remarked to the writer that getting his students through the statistical section of his marketing research class was equivalent to, " ... attempting to push someone through a wall."

4) How could classes be constructed to produce effective marketing practitioners, given the general educational deficiencies of our students? In other words, how can we teach to the abilities of the students we actually have?

5) In the larger term, what could we do as marketing instructors and as educational professionals to produce students who are generally knowledgeable, literate, and proficient with mathematical concepts? It does not seem reasonable or perhaps even ethical to not address this issue simply because we have limited input into what happens to students before they come to our programs.

As an example, the problem of connectivity could be addressed by investigating and experimenting with different curriculum combinations and by utilizing different measures of outcomes. In a marketing curriculum, a core of information and skills should be identified and *everything* should be connected to it. This could be accomplished in a number of ways.
a) A senior capstone course could be created that requires the students to utilize everything that has been covered in other classes. Marketing theory and concepts, research, pricing, promotion, distribution, and management would have to be utilized to solve a problem. One program utilized a computer simulation in a capstone course that required students to utilize everything covered in the marketing curriculum. The course got only average evaluations from seniors, but received rave reviews from alumni.

b) Clayson and Haley (2005) suggested an interesting idea. Students who had completed a course would act as mentors, consultants, and tutors for younger students taking the courses they had completed.

c) It may be time to consider a comprehensive final that all students are required to pass to obtain a marketing degree. Given current attitudes and litigation precedents, a student who had failed the exam could still graduate, but they could not claim to have a degree in marketing.

CONCLUSION

The writer's college executive advisory board's recommendation at their last meeting show the importance businesses are placing on change in business education. They advised that the college must show, " ... willingness and ability to define and measure outcomes, and to respond to evidence; [have] explicit intentions and ambitions, strategies to achieve them, and mechanisms to assess progress." The world may have passed beyond our current instructional paradigms leaving us with models that no longer fit the real-world conditions that now surround us. This paper argues that we need more information, and the courage to act if that information demands it.

References Available on Request

IS A MARKETING BBA REALLY BS?

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ABSTRACT

Research has demonstrated that marketing students are among the most poorly prepared entering the university among all business disciplines, on a wide range of measures (Aggarwal, Vaidyanathan, and Rochford 2006). We attempted to further assess this dismal result by examining the output side – how do these same students perform once they graduate? Has the marketing major educational experience mitigated the initially poor performance of these students? To assess this, we examined a number of measures of quality. We started with a longitudinal analysis of GMAT® scores by major to identify marketing major performance on this standardized test over time. This helped us identify, on one measure, whether the issue of marketing major performance is new or has been around for a while.

Given that a basic tenet of marketing education is that it needs to be a philosophy underlying the entire organization, a successful marketing education should propel the best marketing students to leadership positions within organizations. To test this, we examined whether marketing majors had been successful reaching the upper echelons of organizations by analyzing the undergraduate majors of CEOs at the S&P 500 firms.

Finally, we looked at salary surveys to examine the "value placed by the marketplace" on marketing majors. While it is clear that there is still a demand for marketing majors, an economic view of the value of the education would suggest that average starting salaries of marketing majors relative to other business majors would be one (admittedly imperfect) measure of the value of the skill set they bring to their initial position.

The disturbing result of this entire analysis is the relative consistency of the findings across a widely disparate set of analyses. Marketing majors are among the worst performers on the GMAT®, have among the lowest representation of business majors in the CEO ranks, and have the lowest starting salaries of all business majors. Multiple assessments on multiple dimensions of achievement show marketing majors failing to make a significant intellectual impact on business.

We discuss the implications and point to future research directions that follow from these findings.

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CROSS-BORDER MARKET ENTRY: A TWELVE-STEP ANALYSES SCHEMA USEFUL IN EDUCATING PRESENT AND FUTURE SME MANAGERS

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ABSTRACT

This paper provides a Twelve-Step Pre-Entry Cross-Border Market Analyses Schema designed to close the gap between traditionally recommended broad-brush foreign market analyses and today's need for microanalyses. Traditionally cross-border market entry was relatively uncomplicated with international firms and SMEs (small- and medium-sized enterprises) facing largely local competitors. Broad-brush cultural analyses were sufficient to reduce market-entry risk. The competitive landscape has dramatically changed in nature and scope. Today it is a competitive mix of large and SME competitors – international, regional and local in origin – fighting over the same consumers in the same markets. Current managers need a set of multi-layered microanalyses, completed with 'due diligence,' to plan for cross-border market entry. Intra-firm and foreign market environmental microanalyses are needed to peal back the layers of competitive, economic, financial and social market entry risk to reduce the number of cross-border market entry failures. Many thousands of SMEs enter cross-border markets; most don't. Of those that do, many fail – largely due to the lack of detailed pre-entry market knowledge and insufficient planning. Because of the world's high rate of failure by SMEs that practice cross-border market-entry, and because of the high importance of SMEs to all nations' economic growth and employment rate, many governments (U.S., Peru, Greece, Turkey, Canada, and others) are offering a helping hand. Nations have stepped up SME market-entry training efforts and information availability.

AACSB International charged business schools to educate for today's globally competitive environment. Most are meeting that charge albeit with traditional broad-brush, analytical training. Because of time and resource restrictions, few educators are training managers to conduct pre-entry, 'due diligent,' multi-layered microanalyses of company, country, competition, market and market plan – prerequisite analyses for successful cross-border market entry. Without 'due diligent' microanalyses, the plethora of prerequisite competitive and market details are lacking and market entry plans suffer or fail accordingly. Furthermore, few schools of business provide sufficient training on accessing and using federally-collected and compiled international market information and trade data published by the government of most nations and made available for free or low-cost. For instance, few schools teach managers to use the U.S. Federally-collected and disseminated databases of international market information and trade data like STAT-USA/Internet, USA Trade Online, U.S. Economic Census, CIA World Factbook and others.

This paper, in the context of the twelve-step schema, details the microanalyses research constructs that need to be completed with 'due diligence' when considering cross-border market entry and preparing preliminary market plans and assessment procedures. The resulting rich and detailed set of competitive and market data, the intended product of 'due diligent' microanalyses, rewards each manager with prerequisite and holistic cross-border competitive and market understanding – the basis of successful cross-border market entry plans. The schema was piloted June 2006. Fifteen under-graduate students; twenty MBA students; eight marketing and/or economic professors; and twenty-three SME managers and/or export-related association managers participated in a 'reverse mission' type pilot. The pilot was carried out in Peru where English-speaking Peruvian students and business managers pursued U.S. market entry. As widely understood, flip side research many times provides insight otherwise not gained. Findings revealed the schema internationally applicable.

Suggested microanalyses needed at each step of the Twelve-Step Pre-Entry Cross-Border Market Analyses Schema are provided. The schema sets forth procedures to assist SME managers in conducting detailed research related to internal and external environment factors: Company; Cultural; Economic; Market/Target Market; Product; Price; Channel; Promotion; Competitive; Preliminary Market Plan; Financial Achievement (objectives); and Assessment/ Adjustment analyses. Among other unique aspects of this schema, this it provides pre-market entry *pro forma* (i.e., planned) income statement forms and guides to planning acceptable financial ratios. Furthermore, it provides a format for conducting post-market entry performance/*pro forma* income statement assessments or 'gap' analyses to identify needed corrective or adjustment marketing mix actions.

CENTRISM AND EXTREMISM IN CROSS-CULTURAL PEDAGOGICAL RESEARCH: A STUDY OF CHINESE AND AMERICAN BUSINESS STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The study illustrates the application of data ipsatization as a means for controlling extreme response style in Chinese and U.S. responses to queries concerning business program emphases and program satisfaction. In seventeen of seventeen measure comparisons, U.S. respondents had higher mean scores than the Chinese and the differences between the two country groups were statistically significant in every case. Given that the U.S. subjects evidenced extremism and Chinese respondents portrayed centrism, the ipsative procedure was used to remove response style bias. After this removal, parity was revealed as well as higher mean scores for the Chinese in five of seven comparisons that were statistically significant. The paper thus demonstrates the efficacy of bias removal and how poor research conclusions can result in its absence. Insights are provided into when to apply the ipsatization procedure, as well as its methodology. Additional emphases are also placed on using structural equation modeling to identify the presence of response bias and an alternative approach is identified for the further separation of attitudes from response bias.

CROSS-NATIONAL E-LEARNING PROJECT BETWEEN SLOVAK AND U.S. MARKETING STUDENTS: CROSS-NATIONAL E-LEARNING SUCCESS FACTORS AND STUDENT PERFORMANCES

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ABSTRACT

This paper introduces results of our cross-national e-learning project between Slovakia and USA in the fields of international retailing. Our project satisfied various generally accepted success factors. Satisfied items are physical activities which both Slovak and U.S. students might be able to visualize, including "what" and "how" they should "do" and "learn." In addition, they may be able to envision expected efforts and outcomes of such activities. On the other hand, unsatisfied items seemed to be intellectual related activities. They might not be able to visualize clear directions and outputs of such activities. Students needed to recognize such directions and outputs clearer to take actions for information and knowledge sharing activities which require higher levels of knowledge, information, communication skills and motivation.

INTRODUCTION

A global environment with diverse business cultures, legal and regulatory requirements and remote work forces requires an entrepreneurial attitude and the ability to adapt quickly to various and frequently changing environments (Levin 2006), touts a recent article in the Wall Street Journal. Never before have business faculty and students needed to prepare more for a diverse and global marketplace. Equally important in the global business environment are strong technology skills and the knowledge to apply those skills.

In 2007, the United States (U.S.) will have over 217 million Internet users comprising 69 percent of the country's Internet users (Internet World Stats 2006). Indeed, the Internet has created new business models for the U.S. and the world. U.S. e-commerce is approaching ranges estimated from $120 billion to $198 billion dollar mark for 2006 (Business Wire 2006; Kahn 2006). Globally, all countries have experienced exponential growth in Internet usage and e-commerce with worldwide sales of both retail and business-to-business e-commerce approximately 6.5 trillion (Lindburg 2005). We work and live in a technology driven, global economy.

Business schools are preparing students for the global Internet business world through case studies, journal readings and study abroad programs. Students need training in global business relationships and integrated Internet communication skills. To meet these requirements of the 21st century, business and marketing educators can develop and integrate well-planned cross-national learning activities using the Internet. These international joint projects can be developed in collaboration with faculty in other countries built around a web-supported curriculum that complements the classroom experience, empowering business students to consider the impact of global commerce and investments on their business skills and knowledge.

Scholars have long recognized that the Internet can provide a framework to enhance the educational process (Atwong and Hugstad 1997) and provide resources for pedagogical enhancement (King 2000). The design of web-based curriculum should incorporate the following factors: purpose of the learning activity, analysis of the learning activity, design of the learning activity, development of the learning activity, implementation of the learning activity and assessment of the learning activity (Kaynama and Keesling 2000).

The benefits extend beyond the business student with schools and educators benefiting from the integration of technology as more faculty, staff and administrators embrace the web-based and technology-based education curriculum. With budget restrictions and study abroad expenses going up, the international joint learning project is a feasible

and ideal project to help business and marketing students understand the global business world as they prepare to enter the global marketplace.

The purpose of this paper is to introduce the literature supporting the project development and assessment; the cross-national Internet retail marketing learning activity for use in business and marketing courses using the Blackboard web software (www.blackboard.com); and report the assessment results from the spring 2006 classes. We conclude with recommendations for future international joint projects.

GENERALLY ACCEPTED SUCCESS FACTORS AND INHERENT PROBLEMS OF CROSS-NATIONAL E-LEARNING

There are three inherent problems of e-learning (Business of E-learning 2002). These are (1) lack of time, (2) unclear measurements of learning performance and (3) difficulty of finding information. The lack of time is dependent on a student's learning environment. However, faculty could minimize this problem by allowing students to focus on the learning activities instead of long e-learning sessions. We could also overcome this issue by making programs flexible and personalized so that learners can learn *anytime* they want – more asynchronous curriculum. Indeed, we think learning performance should be measured for technical masterly and confidence in the subject area. To expedite the international joint project over a ten-week quarter, we provided most of the required information and materials electronically so that the students had the pertinent foundation information. We did, however, integrate the traditional assessment tools: exams and questionnaires.

Business of E-learning (2002) also suggests solutions to address these inherent problems. The suggestions are (1) blended learning, (2) rich media content and (3) useful web content. Blended learning has been considered one of the most important success factors. According to Clint Smith (2004), the blended learning concept incorporates an optimum combination of traditional and non-traditional instruction methods.

The traditional instruction method includes in-class sessions led by a professor and in-class presentations. Smith (2004) introduced the "Rossett Model" of non-traditional instruction. In the model there are five types of non-traditional learning: information learning, knowledge management, performance improvement, establishment of community of practice and e-learning support. Information learning includes out-of-class activities such as field trips. Knowledge management is knowledge sharing and improving via functional group discussions, individual discussions, and other interactions. Performance improvement is mutual learning aimed at maximizing learning results. The model also includes establishment of community of practice and e-learning supports such as Blackboard, discussion areas, message boards, and e-mail.

IBM uses a similar model "four tiers of learning" to facilitate its own successful e-learning program (Business of E-learning 2002). The four tiers are respectively "co-location" or learners' community building; "collaboration" or discussions and information sharing among the learners; "interaction" in the community and all community members; and "information" or sufficient information and content for learners.

While the above items are generally accepted as factors supporting successful e-learning, Ligoria and Cordeschi (2005) specify success factors for computer-supported e-learning. According to the authors, computer-supported e-learning will be successful if there are assignments or projects aimed at achieving common goals and clear responsibilities among learners dealing with each other's learning performance. Such responsibilities include meaningful discussion, active participation and critical thinking. Based on these issues, Ligoria and Cordeschi simply specified, "collaboration learning" as the success factor.

The collaboration-learning model is formed using four basic components: understanding of the learner, blended learning, learner empowerment and a cross-national integration (Ligoria and Cordeschi 2005). Understanding of the learner will help faculty to generate interesting discussion topics, assignments, and projects that have meaningful common goals. Blended learning addresses the inherent problems of e-learning as discussed previously. Learner empowerment means clearer responsibilities among participants and enhanced contributions to entire learning activities. Finally, the cross-national nature of learning will enhance interests in learning by students.

To this end, we conclude that there are five generally accepted success factors for a cross-national e-learning curriculum facilitated by traditional in-class tools and the Blackboard software. These factors are (1) time, (2) performance measurement, (3) information availability and accessibility, (4) blended learning and (5) cross-national focus. Therefore, our foreign direct

investment joint project with U.S. and Slovak marketing students integrate these elements.

INTERNATIONAL JOINT RESEARCH PROJECT

We followed the six steps of e-learning development suggested by Kaynama and Keesling (2000) to assess student learning (including student learning satisfaction) and to measure success factor differences among U.S. and Slovak students. The study was designed based on a previous cross-national teaching project involving U.S. and Slovak students conducted in 2002. We incorporated the entire success factor criteria previously discussed in order to observe the impact on student learning and satisfaction and as a way to objectively measure the benefits of the joint project.

Multiple instructors, located in the U.S. and in the Slovak Republic, facilitated the foreign direct investment joint project curriculum and research study. These instructors were already familiar with the marketing subject as well as e-learning teaching in international markets and classes. The study was implemented over ten weeks with three block units of learning using Blackboard software (See Appendices). It is important to note that we conducted workshops to teach students how to use the Blackboard software. The instructors discussed learning objectives and assignments with students during these workshops. Additionally, students were trained about the cross-functional team activity as well as on-line learning expectations. Our students were mainly marketing seniors and some general business seniors who had completed all foundation business courses.

The ten-week long joint research project final goal was to expand three U.S. retailers into the Slovak marketplace as a foreign direct investor. Through the use of Blackboard discussions, course textbook, site visits to retailers and direct collaboration between the U.S. and Slovak students, we developed an international plan for these expansions. Appendix offers a brief overview of the criteria used to develop the student teams and facilitate the collaborative environment on Blackboard. Assessments were done with the end-of-course evaluation and a written exam. We analyzed (1) if our global project contained all the success factors, (2) if there were differences in the success factors in our joint project, (3) if our students learned the subject and (4) if our students are satisfied with this project.

CROSS-NATIONAL E-LEARNING PROJECT BETWEEN SLOVAK AND U.S. STUDENTS

Our study design and development followed the following criteria. First, students had time to learn. Second, the project had clear learning performance measurements. Third, learners had sufficient information and easily identified support information. Fourth, we used blended learning techniques. Finally, we introduced cross-national dialogue into the project.

To maintain ample time for learning, we consider time length and focus. To give sufficient time for learning activities, we offer web only days, in-class discussion and workshops, and dedicated access to personal computers (PCs). This was particularly important for the Slovak students with limited access to PCs and the Internet. Since we contend that highly focused learning activities bring better learning performance within the same time length compared to less-focused learning, we split the learning process into three clearly defined block units (See Appendix). Students were expected to focus exclusively within each learning block unit. Each learning block unit has learning goals, a learning path, and supporting assignments. The units are designed sequentially to ensure step-by-step learning. The Blackboard program gave students the flexibility to learn using discussion boards, electronic based information, and support learning tools.

Setting measurements of learning performance included qualitative measurements, quantitative measurements, and learning process monitoring. To evaluate the confidence of our students in the subject, we simply asked questions relating to subject mastery and learning satisfaction. We used checklist questions and fixed alternative questions to keep answers unbiased. We provided a written exam to verify technical and subject mastery. The exam consisted of simple multiple choice questions based upon a 100-point scale. Both faculty and students monitored the learning process to maintain collaborative learning conditions. In addition to the professors' regular monitoring and supervision through Blackboard management, in-class feedback and additional workshops, we required each team to elect one marketing research leader and one marketing research coordinator representing each country and each group within the country/class. These students were in charge of overseeing all activities in each learner's online community and communicating to their respective country counterparts daily on the progress. They were responsible for monitoring, supervising, coordinating, and motivating of the online student community participants.

We worked diligently to provide good information[1] for the e-learning project. First, we gave clear instructions and repeatedly communicated instructions to all student learners. The syllabus included written instructions and students were given extensive training on the use of the Blackboard web program. The instructions included learning goals, learning flows, learning paths, common project goals[2], and clear tasks for each project and team member. Blended learning includes all four elements of the Rossett Model discussed above.[3] Our study attempted to satisfy all the elements of IBM's four tiers of learning and included an inherent cross-national joint project.

IMPLEMENTATION

In the Slovak Republic, 14 male and 15 female students participated in this study and the U.S., 11 male and 22 female students participated. Instructor preparation began with re-designing the course syllabi to include the same learning purposes, detail explanations of all assignments, detailed time-table of the learning process, three block units of learning, and learning paths. The end result was one syllabus for both classes in the U.S. and Slovak Republic.

Once we prepared one syllabus, we created various additional documents to support our students' learning. Such documents included a time-table sheet, assignment sheet for each block unit, country data, cultural information, digital pictures of our students, information about the U.S. and Slovak universities, cities, and state/region, announcements on Blackboard, retail field trip notes, class notes, functional descriptions, cross-functional team building sheets and a flow chart for the international joint project.

We scheduled several mandatory sessions and workshops, including instructional sessions for each assignment and activity. This allowed us to assess students on session participation. The Blackboard workshops were also mandatory. Web days were scheduled for group activities and unit assignments. There were two individual, one-on-one meetings to monitor the progress of each student in this study.

For the final evaluation, we used one questionnaire with 19 questions and one written exam with questions about international marketing and retailing concepts. The questionnaire was posted on Blackboard while the final evaluation was completed under professor supervision to prevent cheating. The questionnaire included checklist questions, fixed alternative questions and open expression of opinions. Our exam used multiple-choice questions. Both the questionnaire and the exam were completed at the end of the ten-week project. All students participated in this final evaluation.

We used very simple but critical variables for this joint project. The five generally accepted success factors were measured using 15 items in the context of cross-national teaching. The 15 items were: in-class sessions, field trips, store visits, group activities, e-mail, web days, access to PCs, introduction of students to each other, knowledge sharing between U.S. and Slovak students, information sharing between U.S. and Slovak students, discussions between U.S. and Slovak students, the Blackboard software application, cross-functional teams, final project with a common goal and the block unit approach (step-by-step learning paths).

Performance measurement was assessed using fixed alternative questions on the questionnaire and the exam. The questionnaire utilized several questions concerning international experiences, learning confidence and learning satisfaction of students. The exam measured learning level of basic concepts of this subject – international marketing and retailing. In addition to these success factors, we measured learning performance and student learning satisfaction by incorporating fixed alternative questions on the questionnaire and the distribution of a written exam.

RESULTS

All the generally accepted success factors are observed in our project. Both male and female U.S. and Slovak students considered almost the same factors as critical for the successful e-learning. They considered discussion between U.S. and Slovak students, information sharing between U.S. and Slovak students, group activities and knowledge sharing between U.S. and Slovak students as important and met by the project.

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[1] Information means clear instructions, visual items, in-class sessions, field trips, team-based out-of-class activities, and information sharing and exchange among each community.

[2] Common project goals means (1) common assignments in which answers are exchanged and shared to enhance mutual understanding and collaborative actions and (2) a joint project that requires professional obligations to achieve one common goal.

[3] For example, we conducted joint teaching through a mixture of traditional in-class sessions, workshops, web-days, field trips, store visits, cross-functional activities, group and individual discussions via Blackboard and e-mail. We balanced these activities carefully so that students did not feel they were forced to follow a specific type of learning activity. We were especially sensitive to maintaining a balance between faculty-led workshops and teamwork projects.

Our project did not satisfy some important factors that Slovak students considered as critical for the successful cross-national e-learning. For example, our Slovak students did not recognize discussion between U.S. and Slovak students, information sharing between US and Slovak students and knowledge sharing between U.S. and Slovak students very well. The U.S. students, however, rated these as very important. However, our project still satisfied the group project aspect that the students also considered critical. We also satisfied in-class sessions and store visiting criteria.

Overall, all students seem to learn quite well according to our results. We asked very specific question about the outcome of this intentional joint project. When asked, did you learn subject matter about international marketing and retailing from this project, 90 percent of the Slovaks and 93 percent of the U.S. students agreed. When asked if the curriculum made it easy to join in on the project with students from another country, 92 percent of the Slovaks and 100 percent of the U.S. students agreed. The students were also positive about the ability to facilitate cultural differences within the project. Ninety five (95) percent of the Slovak and 100 percent of the U.S. students agreed. Collaboration was also an important goal of the project. Ninety (90) percent of the Slovak and 96 percent of the U.S. students agreed. When asking, did you enjoy the international project, 80 percent of the Slovak and 93 percent of the U.S. students agreed.

Results of the written exam to check learning levels of basic international marketing and retail concepts of this subject showed that all U.S. and Slovak students learned very well from the joint project. For example, 5 percent of Slovak male students had perfect exams and 45 percent of them achieved at least 90 percent. Interestingly, fifty (50) percent of female Slovak students achieved perfect scores while 15 percent of them achieved at least 90 percent. The U.S. students also have similar results although none received perfect scores. Eighty (80) percent scored in the top 20 percent of the exam. While we observed that both male and female students seemed to enjoy this cross-national e-learning project, U.S. and Slovak female students showed higher satisfaction than male students.

CONCLUSION

According to the assessment results, our project satisfied various generally accepted success factors. Since satisfied items are relatively physical activities which both Slovak and U.S. students might be able to visualize "what" and "how" they should "do" and "learn." In addition, they may be able to envision expected efforts and outcomes of such activities. For example, over 90 percent of both U.S. and Slovak students want to study abroad as a result of the joint project. On the other hand, unsatisfied items seemed to be intellectual related activities. They might not be able to visualize clear directions and outputs of such activities. Students needed to recognize such directions and outputs clearer to take actions for information and knowledge sharing activities which require higher levels of knowledge, information, communication skills and motivation. While our project missed several critical items of the generally accepted success factors, U.S. and Slovak students' learning performances were beyond the faculty expectations.

RECOMMENTATIONS

Even with the excitement of using Blackboard web technology, students from both sides felt limited in their inability to work face-to-face in a synchronous, real-time environment. We recommend that marketing faculty adopt Internet-based real-time communication technology, such as Skype (www.skype.com) to address this issue.

We also suggest establishing strong common grounds for communications before starting cross-national knowledge and information sharing activities. The strong common grounds could include sufficient knowledge and information acquisitions through fine tuned balanced learning, long-term motivation through integration of physical learning activities to intellectual learning activities, visualizations of activities and counterparts and basic infrastructures such as communication tools.

Such strong common ground may be established well if faculty focus on rational teaching approaches to allow students to gain sufficient knowledge and information prior to the cross-national collaborations. We should establish clear and rational learning paths and action paths for students. Then, we must guide them to follow such paths.

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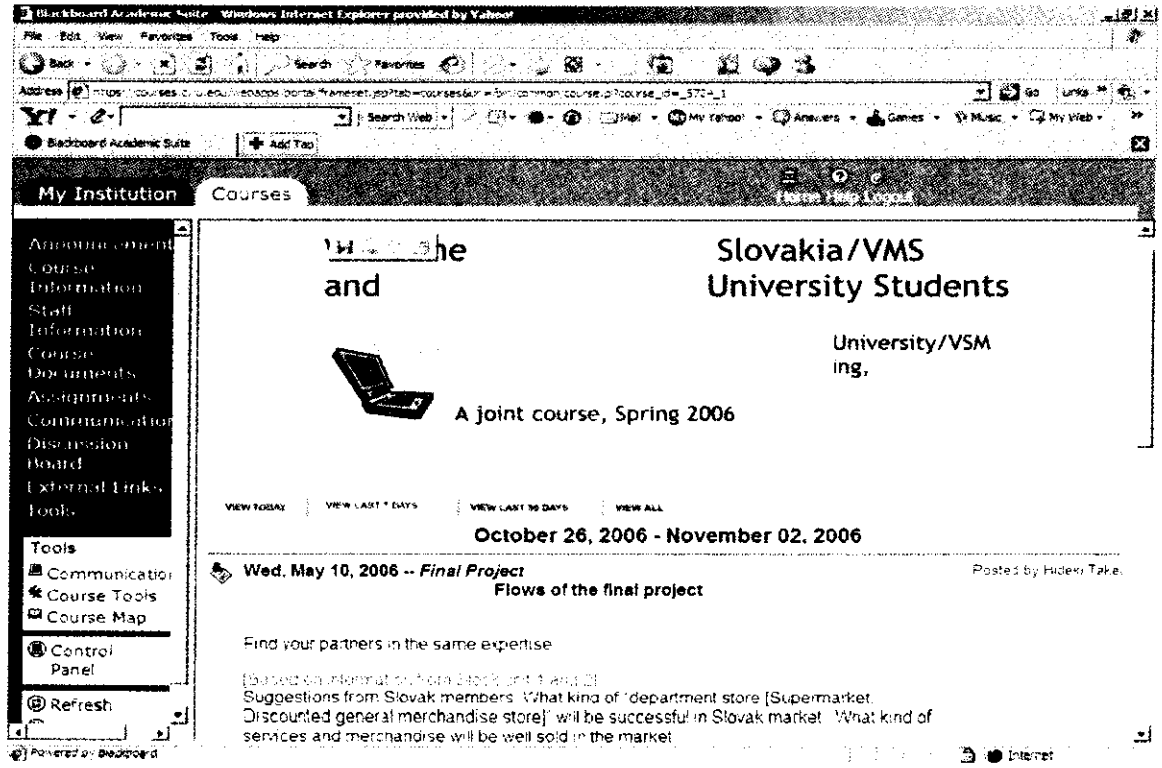
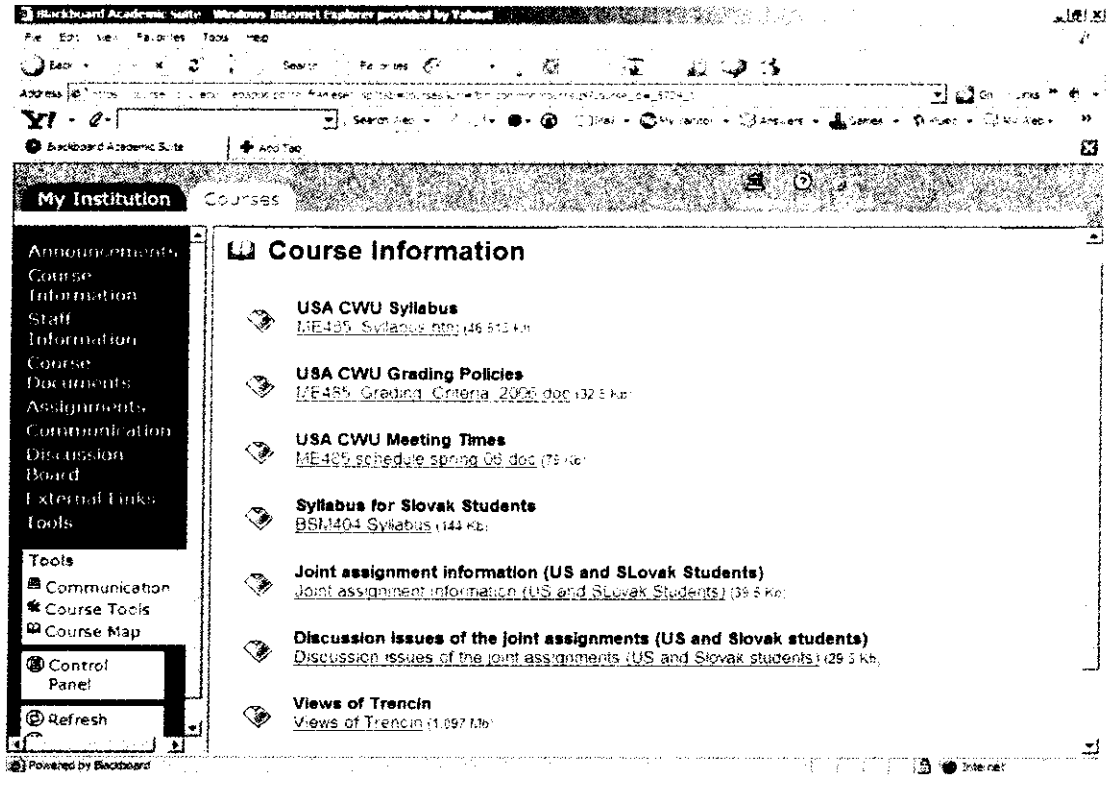
APPENDIX

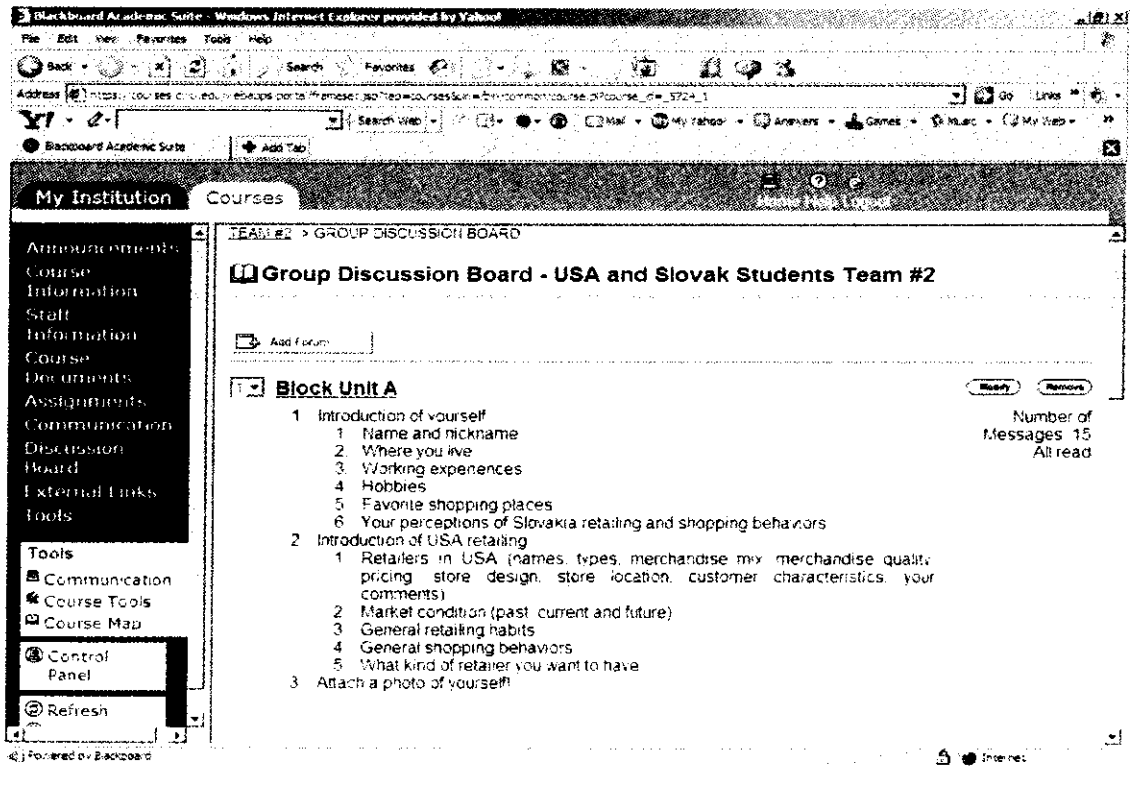
1. Blackboard Software for Slovak and US Students



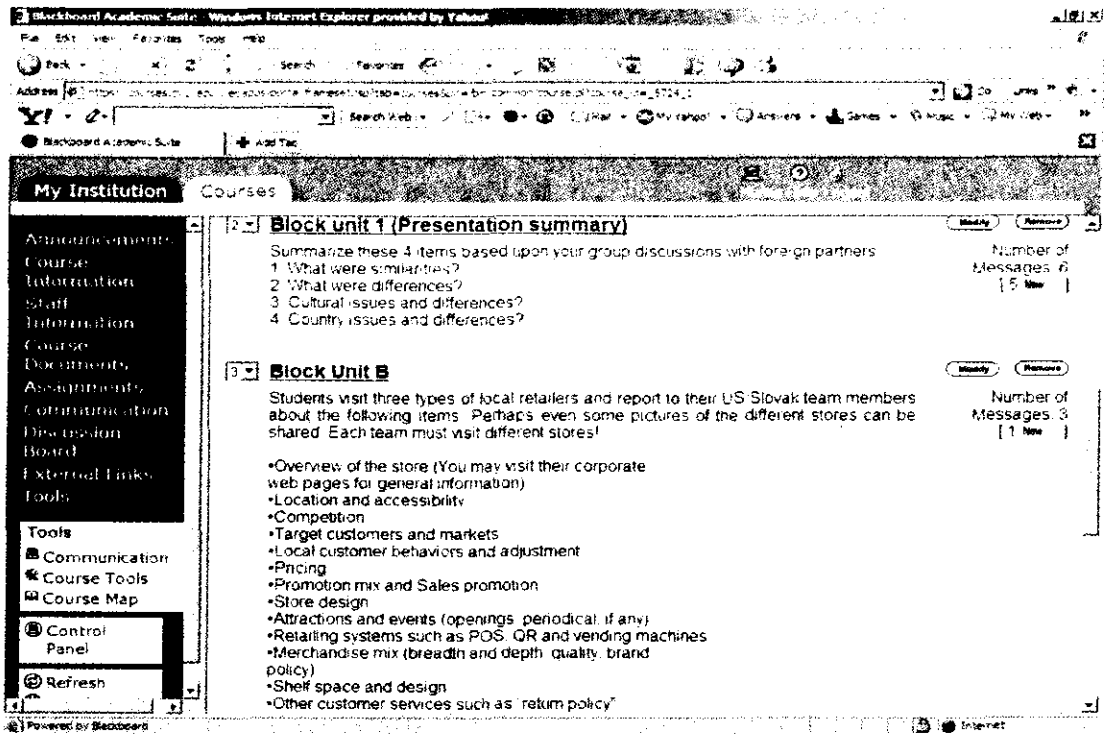
2. Joint Project Information for Slovak and US Students



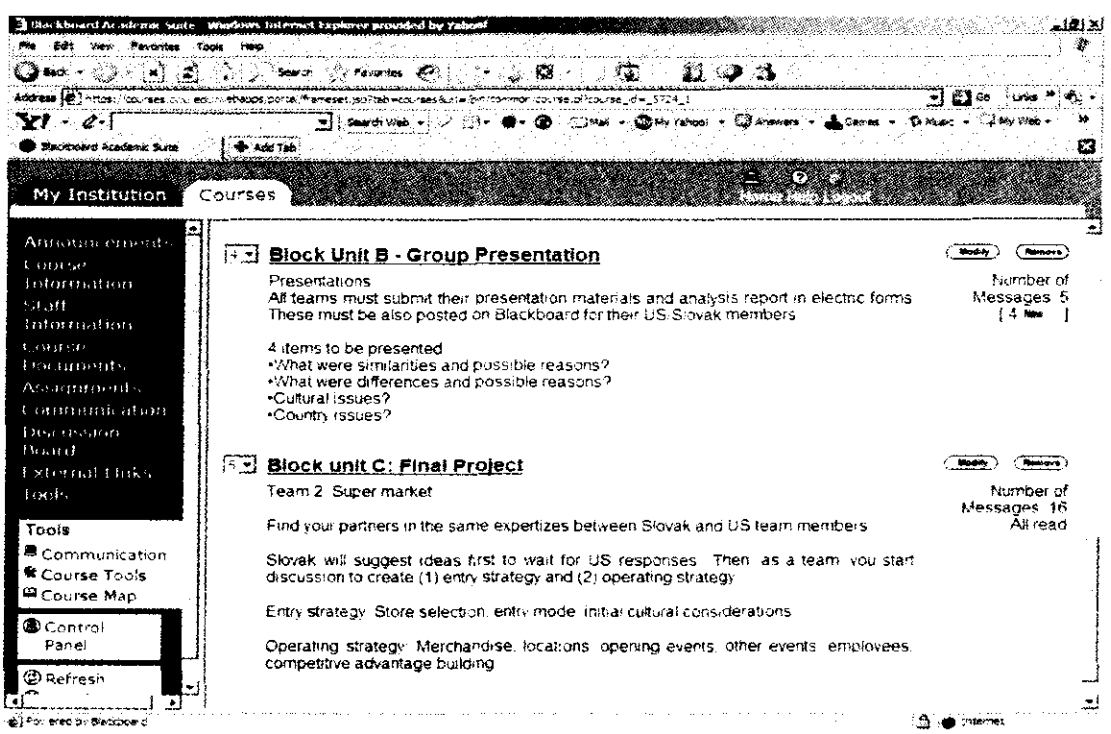
3. Group Discussion and Exchange Blackboard Areas Block One



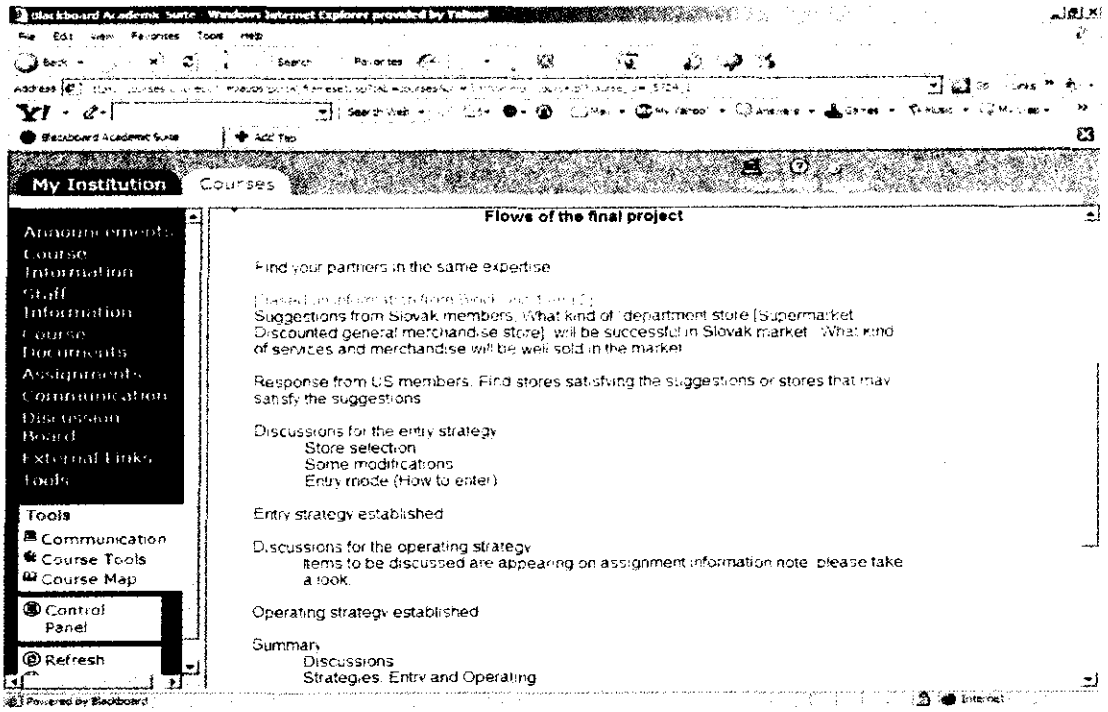
4. Group Discussion and Exchange Blackboard Areas Block Two



5. Group Discussion and Exchange Blackboard Areas Block Three



6. Group Discussion and Exchange Blackboard Areas Final Project Flows



E-MBA: THE PROGRAM THAT WOM BUILT

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to provide a better understanding on how word-of-mouth communication (WOM) contributed to the development of a master's degree program in e-Commerce (e-MBA). Through a review of the literature focusing on both online and offline WOM, research questions and a conceptual framework characterizing how both online and offline WOM emerges. The framework is then tested through a longitudinal case study strategy looking at the e-MBA program over a five-year period. The findings show that online WOM is emerging as a dominant form of communication in attracting students to business programs. The paper ends with a presentation of four types of WOM communication

INTRODUCTION

The inception, development, and implementation of any curriculum, be it the introduction of a new course to an existing curriculum, or the implementation of an entire program with a curriculum made up of several new courses, faces many challenges (Odini 1999; Ottewill et al. 2005). Universities today are trying to keep up by developing both courses and programs ("majors") that meet the growing needs of graduates from several disciplines in order to meet the demands and take advantage of today's technological developments (Nambisan and Wilemon 2003).

However, in trying to deal with the shrinking resources that most universities and departments continue to face (Roffe 1997), as well as the increased competition between institutions of higher learning (Oplatka and Hemsley-Brown 2004), there is a growing reliance on seeking more efficient means for communicating one's educational offerings (ibid.). This is the story about one such offering: A master's degree program in e-Commerce at a Swedish university (with the brand name of "e-MBA"). Due to facing such limited resources and the pressure to deliver the program (i.e., offer it) within a short period of time, the program relied, almost unwittingly, on the use of word-of-mouth (WOM) communication.

In the first year (2001-02), the inaugural class was small and homogeneous, consisting of only eight students, all from Sweden, all of whom were accepted to the program, as they were already studying at the university where the new program was being offered. However, in the second year (2002-03), with no real external marketing communication efforts, online or off, students from around the world found us rather than the other way around, as 44 students were accepted from nine different countries (27 actually arrived). In the third year (2003-04), 74 students were accepted from 16 different countries and 31 showed up. In the fourth year (2004-05), 67 students were accepted from 20 different countries and 28 students actually arrived. For the class that arrived in the fall of 2005, 99 students were accepted from 20 countries and early figures indicate that ca 35 will be the final "arrival" number.

What caused this growth during these first five years of the program if no external (i.e., outside of Sweden) marketing communication efforts were made? The answer is that the growth of the program was fuelled primarily by a combination of online and offline WOM. We now turn to a brief review of what previous studies have found regarding online and offline WOM, especially as it pertains to the marketing and communication of educational programs and opportunities.

LITERATURE REVIEW

WOM is considered the most important, informal means of communication between consumers and is defined as, "... the informal communication directed at other consumers about ownership, or characteristics of particular goods and services and/or their sellers" (Derbaix and Vanhamme 2003, p.99). It is well established that WOM is a major influence on what people do, feel, and know (Buttle 1998), and WOM has become an important tool used in the marketing (communication) of education (Davis and Swanson 2001). Furthermore, WOM is being given new significance by the unique opportunities offered by the Internet (Dellarocas 2003).

A review of literature within the area revealed that there is very little if any research done in the area of WOM and its role in the development and/or marketing and communication of education, regardless of whether the focus is on the course/curriculum, program, or university levels. One recent study that not only provides a comprehensive review on the literature covering the marketing of education but also brings up the use of WOM as a communication tool for such educational opportunities is Oplatka and Hemsley-Brown (2004). However, their focus is on offline WOM, not online.

Kiecker and Cowles (2001) explain that, even though the role of WOM in the marketing communication mix is well established, no research to date has examined the phenomenon of WOM on the Internet. Companies are also not taking the value (both negative and positive) of WOM on the Internet seriously (Stauss 1997). Furthermore, most WOM research has had a customer-only focus (Ennew et al. 2000), and little research has focused on the role of WOM in services (Mangold et al. 1999), even though higher education is recognized primarily as a service (Swanson 2001). This study will begin to fill in some of these gaps.

WOM is among the most ancient forms of communication (Dellarocas 2003). According to Derbaix and Vanhamme (2003), the power of WOM is based on four factors: First, WOM is a more credible source of information as compared to more commercial sources (e.g. advertising, sponsorship), and part of what makes it more credible is that it comes from trusted sources such as friends and family; second, WOM is real communication (i.e., the message flow is two-way); third, WOM provides potential consumers with a richer description of what the experience would be like and thus is considered a form of risk reduction; finally, WOM can be either positive or negative.

These days, however, customers are not only relying on information from friends. Today they are moving online to seek out opinions as well (Gelb and Sundaram 2000). Recent studies have looked at the concept of "online WOM" (Kiecker and Cowles 2001), "Internet WOM" (Stauss 1997), "interactive WOM" (Phelps et al. 2004), and electronic word-of-mouth, or "e-WOM" (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004), as well as virtual WOM (Newman, Jr. 1999). Online WOM has also become known as "viral marketing" (Welker 2002; Phelps et al. 2004) as well as "referral marketing" (Buttle 1998). Phelps et al. (ibid.) found that e-mail is the most common Internet activity and that it plays a big role in online WOM. According to Ha (2004), WOM is one of several important factors that influence trust in a particular brand within an online environment.

Hoffman and Novak (2000) discuss the challenges in acquiring customers for online companies, explaining that WOM can create the lion's share of an organization's customers if used the right way, yet these scholars speak only of the offline WOM used to get people to an online environment. Other sources of online WOM, or as Gelb and Sundaram (2002) cleverly put it, "word-of-mouse," come from such tools as chat rooms, newsgroups, and electronic consumer forums. Pitt et al. (2002) have consumers turning to, "... accurate, recent, unbiased information ..." via specific websites (p. 8). Dellarocas (2003) talks about the digitization of WOM and the use of online feedback mechanisms, while Pool (2005) states that blogs are also now a forum for online WOM.

OVERALL PURPOSE & RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This brief review of previous offline and online WOM research reveals that we have several names for "online WOM", but few studies have looked empirically into its role in the success of an actual "product." From this brief but helpful review of WOM studies, and in recognizing that none of them specifically focused on the use of WOM for educational programs or curriculum, the purpose of this study is to provide a better understanding on how WOM contributed to the development of an educational offering, namely a master's degree program in e-Commerce (e-MBA). To reach this purpose, the following research questions are posed:

RQ1: How can the role of online WOM be characterized?
RQ2: How can the role of offline WOM be characterized?

These research questions are depicted in the following conceptual framework, which guided how the empirical data was to be collected in order to be able to answer the research questions (see Figure 1).

FIGURE 1
THE ROLE OF WOM WHEN PROMOTING EDUCATION

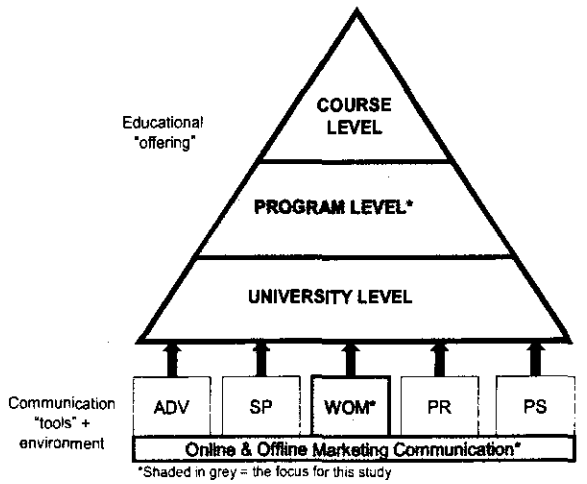


Figure 1 shows how WOM, as one of several marketing communication tools contributes to the marketing (communication) of a university at the macro level, the actual courses at the micro level, and in the middle at the program or "major" level. The areas shaded in grey depict the focus for this study.

METHODOLOGY

In order to answer the above research questions, thereby reaching the overall purpose, a longitudinal case study approach was used, looking at the first five years of the e-MBA program (the classes of 2001-02 through the recently arrived class of 2005-06). Yin (1994) states that the use of case studies is a good idea when a researcher is focusing on contemporary phenomena in a real-life context. A longitudinal case study is defined by Jensen and Rogers (2001) as the study of a research entity at multiple time points. Gummesson (2000) further explains that a case study is especially useful where the aim of the research is to provide practitioners (those marketing education) with specific tools.

Yin (1994) further recommends multiple sources of evidence when conducting case studies. For our purposes, three sources of evidence were used, namely depth interviews, documentation, and observation. Depth interviews were conducted with "generations" of students within the program via three specific case studies: Ghana, China, and Pakistan. Insights were also made available through reflection by instructors within the program as well as from the current program coordinator. The importance of collecting students' views is supported by Smart et al. (1999). Loe and Ferrell (2001) discuss the importance of investigating what works in a marketing curriculum using both students and instructors.

FINDINGS* AND CONCLUSIONS

Overall, students from three countries, namely Ghana, Pakistan, and China illustrate the power that offline but especially online WOM played in not only making them aware and getting them to the program, but turning them into "ambassadors" for it afterward, using a continuing cycle of positive WOM to get other students here over the first five years that the program was offered.

The findings and conclusions below are based on the data from the three case studies collected via interviews with "generations" of students from these three countries, as well as interviews with instructors and program coordinators.

RQ1: How can the role of online WOM be characterized?

Online WOM is the primary form of WOM for the e-MBA program and is often used instead of (or at least in addition to) offline WOM. Online WOM made the e-MBA website a "hit," but more importantly became the foundation for how we got students to apply for and attend the program from all over the world. From the interviews with the students in the three countries that were focused on for this study, as well as reflection from the program coordinator and two instructors in the program, three primary forms of online WOM emerged for attracting students to the program: The use of the e-mail and online chat functions were "first level" online WOM tools used in a more personal way between two individuals, be it student-to-student or faculty-to-student.

This led to the "second-level" of online WOM coming from current students or faculty, via hyperlinks within the e-mail or chat functions being clicked on, which led them to the e-MBA website. In this instance, a sort-of online WOM hierarchy-of-effects emerged, where e-mail and/or chat worked together (Awareness) to lead the prospective student to the e-MBA website (Interest), which led to them to contacting for more information (Desire) before applying to the program (Action).

However, for other students who did not know someone currently enrolled in the e-MBA program, the website acted as more of a "magnet." By searching online for an educational opportunity, using combinations of key words, the online WOM came from the website, the content of which is of course written by a person. From these examples on the website's role in online WOM, students came across it through online search efforts (i.e., a proactive visit) or through hearing about it online or off from others (i.e., a reactive visit).

RQ2: How can the role of offline WOM be characterized?

Offline WOM is not an alternative to online WOM, but instead is seen as a partner. As already stated, it was found that online WOM played a larger, more dominant role in terms of garnishing positive WOM for the e-MBA program (and eventually the program's website) developed over time, whereas offline WOM played a smaller role.

The primary form of offline WOM was via voice-to-voice contact over the telephone as compared to face-to-face contact in person. However, there are indications that as students graduate from the program and return to their home countries, or other parts of the world, they will act as offline "ambassadors" to get others interested in and applying for the program.

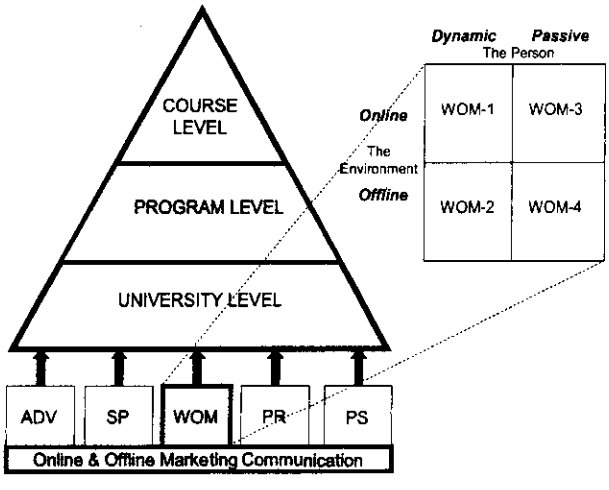
In the case study presented here, students are not necessarily "pushed" to become ambassadors but instead become that by default and of their own volition, should the program meet (or preferably exceed) their expectations. That says something

about the importance of the quality of such programs, but it is beyond the scope of this study to go into it any further. Offline, the graduates of the program either become passive ambassadors by spreading positive WOM (i.e., if asked by someone who finds or contacts them), or they become more active (dynamic) ambassadors where they actually seek out and actually recruit students to the program. In either scenario, regardless of whether the WOM takes place in an online or offline environment, or the person ("ambassador") providing the information is passive or dynamic, the WOM for this educational program has truly been a success in aiding its development.

An improved framework for categorizing WOM

The purpose of this study was to provide a better understanding on how WOM contributed to the development of a master's degree program in e-Commerce (e-MBA). Through the findings of the study and in the more specific answers to the research questions above, an expansion of the conceptual framework presented earlier (see Figure 1 above) provides for a categorization on the types of WOM (see Figure 2 below).

FIGURE 2
CATEGORIZATION OF ONLINE AND OFFLINE WOM CATEGORIES



By expanding the WOM "box" presented in the original conceptual framework, one can see from Figure 3 above the emergence of four types of WOM possibilities categories. First, an online/offline dichotomy describes the environment where the WOM will take place, whereas the dynamic/passive dichotomy describes the person carrying the message.

A "WOM-1" is a dynamic spreader of WOM (i.e., they are proactive in spreading information) working primarily in an online environment to "spread the word." A "WOM-2" is also dynamic, but moves offline in most of their WOM efforts. A "WOM-3" becomes a passive provider of information (i.e., they do not actively promote but will react positively if someone else initiates contact with them) and such a person is also an ambassador in spreading WOM primarily online. Finally, a "WOM-4" is also passive but spreads the word primarily offline.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The above quadrants are not mutually exclusive, but instead allow for someone to move in and out of the various quadrants depending on various circumstances. The framework above of course has limitations and deserves further research. Being qualitative in nature, the focus here was to develop and test a framework in order to uncover certain patterns. The role of qualitative research is to go in-depth and uncover "clues" for further testing and consideration. This study is seen as a stepping stone and not an end result.

Future research should focus on the continuing relationship between online and offline WOM working together to create true (communication) value. Looking more specifically at the WOM categories presented above is also of interest, as the categorization presented is the result of qualitative research. Testing the true validity of such categorizations should be done quantitatively on a much larger, random sample of students within the environments outlined above. It would also be of interest to compare the use of WOM communication with other forms of communication, including looking at such communication dichotomies such as online/offline, personal/non-personal, as well as commercial/ non-commercial tools.

REFERENCES*

*A reference list is available upon request via one of the author's e-mail: Tim.Foster@ltu.se. The actual data collected and presented as three, separate case studies and originally intended as appendices to this article has been cut due to space limitations. For a copy of that data, please contact the author in the e-mail provided here.

STUDENT SELECTION OF UNIVERSITIES: AN EXPLORATORY SERVICES PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

This paper identifies and analyzes factors that influence international student selection of universities and the role that education marketing plays in the process. The research for the paper was inspired by work done by Canterbury (1999) on education marketing, published in the Journal of Marketing Higher Education. The research environments selected for this study are two Australian based universities: one on the West Coast, the other on the East Coast. The study empirically tests key constructs in service marketing. According to Canterbury (1999) it is time that higher education marketing theoreticians and practitioners alike looked beyond our similarities to other applications of service marketing to understand how some of our markets and our services might differ. To this end, the current study examines the views of international students undertaking their studies in two universities (one on the east coast and the other on the west coast, hereafter referred to as 'east' and 'west' to maintain anonymity of the universities). It seeks to gauge an understanding of higher education marketing, student choice factors, and other aspects of student behavior.

The education market has become a dynamic and global-oriented environment. Flexibility is built into the marketing of education in the new millennium via open and flexible systems, direct and easy access to every learner, new knowledge with a personal touch as well as need and utility oriented teaching (Popli 2002). It is self-evident, the world over, that education is becoming more important in securing and retaining employment. Canterbury (1999) approaches the higher education marketing debate from a conceptual overview looking, among other things, at human development, family matters, competence to choose wisely in a higher education market, and the different choice constructs involved at the graduate and high school levels.

The paper's main aim is to provide an understanding of overseas students' interests, behaviour, and attitude in choice of foreign educational institution. The more specific objectives can be summarized as:

1. To investigate overseas students' preference, behaviour, attitude and satisfaction when choosing a country and/or state for their study;
2. To investigate overseas students' preference, behaviour, attitude and satisfaction when choosing a university for their studies;
3. To understand the overall factors that influence their decisions

To this end, a conceptual literature is posited, survey of both universities were conducted in 2004-5, analysis of students responses, the results and implication to the marketing of service discussed and future research directions suggested.

References Available on Request

MARKETING MARKETING: COMPARING HIRING INSTITUTIONS AND JOB CANDIDATES VIEWS

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ABSTRACT

There is a shortage of marketing faculty. An under-supply of PhDs is largely responsible, but the match between hiring institutions and job candidates may be another contributing factor. Most investigations of matching have been done in situations of equilib-rium; however, this is a disequilibrium situation where hiring institutions and job candidates can gain an advantage over the competition. Using exchange theory, we examine the match between what hiring institutions are offering and what job candidates are seeking.

The survey of hiring institutions found that job skills, especially teaching and research ability, are the most important factors sought by hiring institutions. "Fit" with the job and academic training were slightly less important factors. Institutions thought they offered a great location, but weak salaries. With regard to the wishes of hiring institutions, most respondents suggested that doctoral training include more focus on teaching. Meanwhile PhD granting and ranked institutions were *also* more likely to suggest that doctoral programs prepare students better for research.

The survey of job candidates found that candidates valued colleagues, research support, and teaching load as the most important factors they were seeking. Ironically, candidates were satisfied with the cost of living and benefits but not their colleagues or the location, the opposite of what schools perceived. On evaluating the quality of the job offer they accepted, these factors were rated poorly. There-fore, candidates who reported looking for specific factors in schools were generally not satisfied with what they received, yet found employment nonethe-less. The open-ended questions also revealed that many candidates reported that hiring institutions made them feel welcome, and this was highly valued by the candidates. Finally, they also identified communication as both a key strength (when it occurred) and a key weakness (when they weren't kept informed).

The assumption of homogeneous matching preferences does not appear to be the case in the marketing market. First, some schools put significantly more emphasis on research skills than others. Second, some job candidates were very concerned about location while others were not. With regard to actions that can best benefit hiring institutions in this state of disequilibrium, many of the job candidates expressed a wish for more communication and professionalism in the job search process.

TEACHING WRITTEN COMMUNICATION SKILLS IN PROFESSIONAL SELLING: "THE COVER LETTER"

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ABSTRACT

The selling process steps have been an integral part of professional selling courses and textbooks for years. Although slight changes have been made in their wording and format, most textbooks are consistent in the recommended process for an effective sales interaction. In an effort to combine teaching the selling process with the increased demand from employers and accrediting institutions to improve written communication skills, this paper introduces the cover (sales) letter as an assignment for marketing instructors. This cover letter assignment has been very well received by students and employers, highlighting how universities can engage students in an active learning environment, teaching both theory and specific skills.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH

A common, recurring complaint among corporate executives is that college educated employees cannot write effectively and succinctly. These employees are too verbose, have not mastered basic English grammar, and cannot write with any persuasive ability. Certainly the cover letters which students often send with their resumes, all too often, lack effectiveness. Like graduates from other professional schools, business graduates need both theoretical training and practical skill development to become market-ready professionals (Cheit 1985; Floyd and Gordon 1998; Grayson 1977; McKenna, Cotton, and Van Auken 1997; Peltier, Schibrowsky, and Kleimenhagen 1997; Ruyter and Crask 1994; Sterngold and Hurlbert 1998; Walle 1991). An AACSB (The International Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business) survey claims that two-thirds of business employers feel that students need more work in the area of management, including communication skills (Wright, Bitner, and Zeithaml 1994). A survey of marketing educators found that the development of oral and written communication skills is essential to the future success of students (Smart, Kelly, and Conant 1999). What is needed is a classroom forum where students are encouraged to be active participants in the learning process. Many students begin their careers in marketing through sales, and these skills need to be appropriately developed. Persuasive communication skills are an important factor in students' early career success (Arora and Stoner 1992).

PURPOSE

The purpose of this article was to describe a process, the cover (sales) letter, for developing students' written communication skills, while they simultaneously learn accepted professional selling theory. In this article, the sales process was transformed into a written system for a cover letter that has not only immediate value, but also future value and applicability to any task, which requires a persuasive written document. Students and professionals entering many different fields will be able to use the system to effectively communicate, either within their organizations or externally.

IMPLICATIONS

The implications of learning to write a persuasive document in any field are self-evident. Writing coherently and succinctly are critical skills for today's employees who must conduct business in a global marketplace.

RECOMMENDATIONS

One approach that has merit is adapting writing components currently used in the various classes and having the assignments be consecutive, building on the initial writing experience. The assignment could begin in Principles of Marketing, move on to Professional Selling and Sales Management, and could include assignments in Marketing Manage-ment or other elective classes. A final writing component could be included in the exit examination universities sometimes require.

References Available on Request

DEVELOPMENT OF A COMPUTERIZED IN-BASKET EXERCISE FOR THE CLASSROOM: ADAPTATIONS AND ALTERNATIVE EXERCISES

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ABSTRACT

The overall purpose of this article is to not only demonstrate how this particular computerized in-basket can be used in a sales management classroom, but to show how instructors can use spreadsheet software to develop in-basket exercises for a variety of marketing classes. Variations on this in-basket and other experiential exercises are presented by the authors.

IN-BASKETS

The traditional training in-basket exercise presents all the messages for the day, and asks trainees to rank the situations in the order in which they believe these situations should be addressed. The trainees are also instructed to be prepared to present and defend the strategies they would use to handle each of these situations. The discussion among trainees provides cross-training that expands the range of strategies considered, and analyzes the advantages and disadvantages of each alternative strategy. The handout in Exhibit 1 can be used as a traditional (non-computerized) in-basket by simply asking students to rank each activity as to the order in which these activities would be addressed and how each activity would be handled.

The addition of an "expert" to this exercise can provide additional valuable insights into the business firm's priorities and culture, as well as additional tactics for handling each situation. This expert rating plus the requirement that the student first rank the items individually, and then as a group, can turn the exercise into more of a "survival game" activity.

BUILDING THE SPREADSHEET

The following steps are required to build the in-basket spreadsheet: (See flow chart in Exhibit 2.)

1. Enter a list of situations.
2. Record expert input.
3. Enter student input.
4. Program Calculation Tables.
5. Program Feedback Table.
6. Program Feedback Table.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this article has been to encourage the development of computerized in-basket exercises for the classroom. The purpose has not been to develop a software package to sell to instructors. The authors see considerable potential in the computerized in-basket exercise as a classroom exercise to promote student learning. The authors see additional benefit when instructors involve themselves in the process of building their own exercise.

APPLICATIONS

The authors are using several variations of the in-basket exercise in their classrooms:

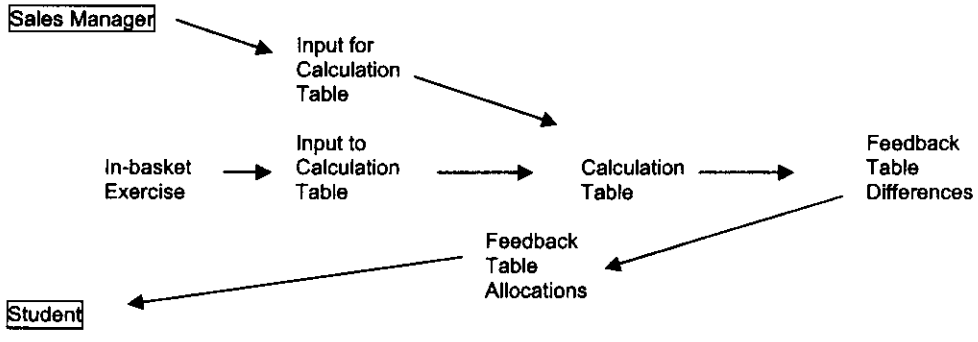
- Random generated computerized in-basket for store management.
- Traditional in-basket for store management.
- Traditional in-basket/"survival game" exercise for future of retailing.

EXHIBIT 1
IN-BASKET EXERCISE

Situation: You are a district sales manager for a national life insurance company. You have eight salespersons (financial representatives) reporting to you. You are the first person at the office at 7:15am. Your secretary (financial assistant) and all other office personnel are due in at 8:00am. The following is a list of situations that face you this morning. In the left-hand margin, rank the items as to which you would handle 1st, 2nd... 20th. Also, place your estimate of the number of minutes each item should require. Be prepared to discuss how each item should be handled.

1. You have a one-hour meeting scheduled with all of your financial representatives at 8:00am in the boardroom.
2. Telephone message on answering machine: John Smith (the richest man in town) "wants to talk about some new insurance."
3. Telephone message on answering machine: Bruce Williams (your neighbor) "wants to talk about some additional insurance."
4. Telephone message on answering machine: Ted Wilson (a person you do not know) "wants to talk about some new insurance."
5. E-mail message on your computer: Betty Burke (your assistant) "Will not be in today because of a sick child."
6. Telephone message on answering machine: Tom Thompson (your boss at corporate headquarters) "Please call first thing when you get into the office."
7. You have a noon lunch appointment at a local restaurant with your director of recruiting and Becky Williams, a senior at State University who is a candidate for a financial rep.
8. Prospect for new clients.
9. Prospect for new financial representatives.
10. Make coffee for you, your office, and your meeting.
11. You desperately want to keep up your exercise routine, and get to the health club next door for your thirty-minute workout.
12. Telephone for appointments for the week.
13. You have a 3:00 meeting with your three new financial representatives to review activity and results.
14. You have a telephone message from your teen-aged daughter "to call her because she has to talk to you about a serious matter."
15. You have an E-mail from your IBM salesperson asking for a meeting today to talk about an opportunity that must be acted upon immediately.
16. The new Fortune magazine rated your company as one of the top ten most respected companies in the USA.
17. You have an E-mail from your top financial representative stating that he got a job offer from a competitor at 25% more than he is making with you.
18. An article comes out in the local newspaper that is quite unfavorable for your company. You were interviewed for this article and your statements were greatly misrepresented.
19. You have a 3:00 meeting with your director of recruiting regarding status of financial representative who are starting their careers with the company.
20. Your spouse is out of town, so you have to pick up your eight-year-old son from school at 2:30 and drop him off to soccer practice at 3:00.

EXHIBIT 2
EXERCISE FLOW CHART



CORRECTNESS AND CONFIDENCE: EVALUATING USABLE KNOWLEDGE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MULTIPLE-CHOICE TESTS AND SHORT-ANSWER EXAMS

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ABSTRACT

Higher education assurance of learning techniques should be designed to assess whether lessons learned produce usable knowledge. While knowledge is often defined as "justified" information, it is the limiting of knowledge assessment to "correctness of answers" that is problematic in the development of complete learning assessment (Hunt and Furustig 1989). The purpose of this study is to continue research into the usability of knowledge as it appears to be influenced by testing formats. This article considers differences which appear to exist based on examination format, specifically differences between multiple-choice and short-answer tests. Results indicate that both the raw scores and self expressed student confidence with responses is affected by these two formats.

BACKGROUND

Darling and Hammond (2003) assert that objective, multiple-choice instruments are the predominant type of exam. A recent survey found that a majority of marketing and management professors (56.32%) use multiple-choice exams in their classes to assess student learning (Black and Wingfield 2006). The popularity in usage is attributed to several factors, such as ease of administration, uniformity of interpretation, and more research based issues like reliability and validity. While extremely popular, multiple-choice exams are unable to completely assess the student's usable knowledge. To adequately address the expanded dimensions of usable knowledge, it is beneficial to explore and analyze differences between multiple-choice examinations and the more subjectively based short-answer tests.

Mottet and Beebe (2006) found that multiple choice exams are not good instruments to assess student abilities at actually giving speeches. In this case, multiple choice exams provided evidence that the students had the knowledge of how to give presentations and speeches, but not whether they were actually able to use the knowledge in the delivery of the presentation. In addition, Wingfield and Black (2005) found that course designs primarily using multiple-choice exams to measure student performance were not as effective as other course designs. Other recent studies have found similar results in comparing multiple choice exams and more subjective forms of exams (e.g., Arthur et al 2002; Bacon 2003; Chan and Kennedy 2002; Krieg and Uyar 2001; Kuechler and Simkin 2003; Lawrence and Singhania 2004; O'Neill 2001).

Byus (2004) illustrated that merely being correct on any exam provides only one dimension of the usability of student knowledge. For knowledge to be completely usable, it is important for the learner to be both correct and confident of their correctness (Hunt and Furustig 1989; Byus 2004). To date, the analysis of this correctness-confidence relationship has been studied within the context of multiple-choice objective exam forms. Herein, the authors explore the usability of knowledge within more subjective short-answer exams and then compare differences in student correctness and confidence between the two more pervasive assessment instrument types. Both multiple-choice and short-answer item tests are widely used and universally acknowledged testing methods. Regardless of format, it is important for the educator to understand the relationship between learning and knowledge usability. These two often opposing influences (practical and academic) suggest that educators explore approaches to assess knowledge, which capture some usability criteria.

This paper continues work (Byus 2004) to explore an infrequently used knowledge assessment procedure that provides a better understanding of students' usable knowledge as measured by both the correctness of answers selected and the confidence expressed regarding answers selected in an academic setting. The authors will introduce a process and a model for such an assessment and will report on findings and implications as they regard differences between objective multiple-choice exams and subjective short-answer exams.

Important to this and other continuing studies is an acknowledgment of a basic assumption of knowledge usability. That assumption is that a necessary, but not sufficient condition of knowing something is that the person "in-the-know" must have confidence about that which is known (Ayer 1958; Hunt and Furustig 1989). Further, confidence influences the level to which an individual can

effectively and efficiently use his or her knowledge. Quine (1987) argued that the ability to measure whether an individual's belief (response) can be considered knowledge focuses on understanding that there exists benefit both in being correct and in being confident with one's correctness.

KNOWLEDGE AND CONFIDENCE

Sveiby (1997, p. 37) defines knowledge as "a capacity to act." It is precisely the intangibility and invisibility characteristics of "capacity" that makes understanding this aspect of usable knowledge even more important when considering marketing students becoming critical thinkers. This analytical capability supports the benefit of measuring usable knowledge, a combination of correctness and confidence, in assurance of learning outcomes. Further, when considering knowledge, it must be understood that at some level, knowledge is relative and there is some practical and academic value in a student being technically incorrect, especially if there is some systematic process that provides insight into the otherwise inaccurate answer: the usability of the knowledge. For the purpose of this study, usable knowledge is defined in accordance with Hunt and Furustig (1989, p. 238) as "... beliefs that are correct and confidently justified." This definition also fits well in the evaluation of marketing students' performance.

MEASURING USABLE KNOWLEDGE

Armed with the general understanding of the conditions of usable knowledge, it is important to develop the concept of certainty. Quine (1987,) stated the following. "Knowledge connotes certainty (but) what shall we count as certain? Knowledge applies only to true beliefs, and only to pretty firm ones, but just how firm or certain they have to be is the question" (p. 48). Including certainty into the assessment of knowledge requires educators to consider the confidence of the responder in at least as great a degree as one would assess the correctness of the student to the tested item.

Using simple one-dimensional logic, if the instructor observes an incorrect answer, the interpretation is that the person does not know the answer or is "uninformed." Such an inference does not necessarily portray a complete or accurate assessment of the student's knowledge. In the overall assessment of knowledge, the question must also be asked and answered: "If that student is extremely sure and still selects the incorrect answer, is that individual uninformed, misinformed, guessing, or just plain wrong?"

As argued in Byus (2004), to more fully assess knowledge, one must also consider the degree of confidence that a student expresses about responses provided and then analyze the relationship between the correctness and the confidence. A study using similar methods found that high-performing students were more confident of their answers on a multiple-choice exam than were lower performing students (Koku and Qureshi 2004). This study further found that the confidence levels of all students increased with easier questions and decreased with more difficult questions.

The Byus (2004) model suggests that being confident or unconfident with either correct or incorrect responses produces a set of four distinct levels of usable knowledge. First, the student is correct and confident and therefore is considered to be well informed. Second, the student is correct, but unconfident, which suggests that the student is in possession of partial information and incomplete knowledge. Third, a student providing an incorrect response and who is unconfident with the response produces a situation that suggests that the student is completely uninformed and that the level of knowledge possessed is "unusable." Finally, the student providing an incorrect response while being confident of the response's correctness is a situation referred to as being misinformed. To assist in this analysis, the Hunt and Furustig (1989) model can be reduced to a matrix that provides a practical diagnostic tool (see Figure 1).

A COMPARATIVE STUDY

Assessment of knowledge can be generally characterized as the process of evaluating the student's ability to critically analyze a problem and produce, from their knowledge, a response that is designed to solve or address the issues that surround the problem. This assessment process occurs within a competing framework of examining student understanding and the need to develop higher order thinking and communications. Objective multiple-choice examinations are reasonably proficient in assessing student understanding, yet are deficient in assessing higher order thought and communication skills. Subjective short-answer exams are reasonably proficient in assessment of both. Unfortunately, short-answer response exams are more open to subjective interpretation (Matzen and Hoyt 2004) and are more difficult to score and therefore, are less used by instructors seeking administrative efficiency in the grading and assessment process.

In addition to being more difficult to score, subjective short-answer exams limit the form and content of student responses (Popham 2002). This truncation of form and content may further aggravate the added limitation of student expressed confidence with the response. Kubiszyn and Borich (2003) argue that short-answer and essay type examinations are most likely used to more assess knowledge comprehen-sion in an application setting, which also might limit a student's ability to be confident of the response, regardless of correctness.

Where multiple-choice items predictably restrict student responses, such instruments may also produce greater confidence as a direct result of such constraint. While students might produce more confidence, they might also be producing less high-order thinking, comprehension, and ability to apply knowledge gained or expressed. Multiple-choice exam items also produce the ability to guess, while short-answer responses effectively remove, or at least greatly reduce, such guessing.

Herein, the authors report the preliminary results of ongoing research. The exam outcomes of a single Principles of Marketing class are reported. Both exams were administered to undergraduate students of a medium-sized regional university in the Southwestern United States. These students are enrolled and were tested during the Fall Semester of 2004. While admittedly small, the sample provides surprisingly, significant insights into analyzing the differences in the relationship of correctness and confidence using two different examination formats. The first examination consisted of 25 multiple-choice items and the second test consisted of 25 short-answer items. Both exams covered three chapters of the same textbook, using reasonably identical in-class instructional methodology.

A basic assumption used with these two exam forms is that all students enrolled and tested in a Principles of Marketing course, regardless of examination format, would possess the ability to express a similar amount of specific academic marketing knowledge. This assumption is made with the acknowledgement that perhaps certain undergraduate students would be repeating the course, or that individual students may have been exposed to some on-the-job marketing training. There also exists a possibility that some students may have enrolled in other business courses that included a marketing module. Finally, this assumption is made with the understanding that while seemingly insignificant to the instructor, subtle differences in instructional methodology might have been displayed between each of the two examination sections.

Students were uniformly instructed to provide two responses to each of the 25 questions. The first response requested a specific, direct-answer to the marketing subject addressed in the test, and the second responses requested the student to indicate level of "sureness" (confidence) with the direct-answer selected on the marketing issue portion of the question. Examples of both multiple-choice and short-answer items can be seen in Table 1. Both questions were followed by an identical confidence measure, as illustrated in the examples. Unlike previous exploratory studies of the knowledge usability question (e.g., Byus 2004), no further instructions were provided to the students. However, students were asked to be as honest as possible when providing the self-assessment of their confidence. Still, it is reasonable to assume that there exists an element of guesswork and/or a lack of student compliance/cooperation, or even integrity, in all tests by an undetermined proportion of students. This stated, the authors suggest that students are by and large honorable and will, when asked and motivated, provide honest responses to questions posed.

Specific hypotheses examined in this article are limited to some rather general questions. More specific research questions are being considered in the ongoing study, of which this is the initial findings. The specific hypotheses assessed in this study include the following.

H_1: Students will score significantly lower on short-answer examinations than on multiple-choice examinations.

H_2: Students will self-assess at significantly lower levels of confidence with responses provided to short-answer examination items than they will to multiple-choice examination items.

RESULTS

The demographic characteristics and distributional significances are illustrated in Table 2. As presented in Table 2, estimates of the student demographic make-up and distributions suggest that the class followed historic enrollment patterns as estimated from previous university statistics. Using Chi-square tests of distributional uniformity, none of the demographic characteristics suggest any statistically significant departures from the usual and expected. This historic pattern of uniformity allows the hypotheses studied to be considered within reasonably usual conditions.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability for the five-point Likert confidence scale was examined and computed to be acceptable for both the multiple-choice exam ($\alpha = .831$) and the short-answer exam ($\alpha = .884$). The combined reliability statistic for the scale was also computed and it proved to be significant also ($\alpha = .899$). A randomly assigned split-half test of reliability for the multiple-choice exam items produced an equally acceptable set of reliabilities, with .663 for 13 items and .752 for the remaining 12 items. The split-half statistics for the short-answer exam confidence scale were computed as .752 for 13 items and .821 for the remaining 12 items. The correlation between the two halves of the two exams was computed to be an acceptable .705 for the multiple-choice exam and .813 for the short-answer exam.

The data shows that students scored significantly lower on the short-answer exam when compared to the multiple-choice exam format. Specifically, the mean score for the multiple-choice examination was .733 and the mean score for the short-answer exam was .647. The mean score was computed based on the number of correct responses provided. A paired sample t-test used to determine the statistical significance of differences between the two computed scores provided statistical support for H1 ($t = 5.470$, $p \leq .01$). (See Table 3 for results of hypothesis testing.)

The data also illustrates that for both exam formats, students appear to be fairly unconfident with their responses. Specifically, the mean confidence score for the multiple-choice examination was 2.78 and the mean confidence score for the short-answer exam was 2.53. The scale used was scored as 0 = "Not sure at all," 1 = "Very unsure," 2 = "Somewhat sure," 3 = "Very sure," and 4 = "Extremely sure." This low level of student confidence also supported the authors' initial impression that students would, at this early stage in their business coursework, be relatively unconfident with their responses. Using a paired sample t-test to determine the statistical significance of differences between the confidence levels associated with each test format, H2 is also supported ($t = 3.922$, $p \leq .01$).

CONCLUSIONS

There are substantially more questions that must be examined in the context of the "correctness and confidence" concept. This discussion paper is a continuation of research into the usable knowledge issue. As illustrated, students are more successful (score) and more confident being assessed using multiple-choice examinations. Further, it appears that students' estimates of the confidence are provided in a generally reliable manner. This information, when coupled with other assessment data, can be of substantial benefit to instructors seeking to evaluate more than a student's correctness of answers. For today's marketing educator, the ability to diagnose both the extent of student's knowledge and the extent of their confidence provides substantial potential for improving future marketers with curriculum that promotes higher levels of correctness and greater levels of confidence.

Tables, Figures, and References Available on Request

THE MOTIVATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE EFFECTS OF EXTRA CREDIT

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ABSTRACT

Extra credit is very common in marketing education today, as it is in disciplines across campus. In fact, a great majority of faculty report using it at one time or another (Hill et al. 1993). Faculty may offer extra credit for a variety of purposes. For instance, extra credit points may serve as a reward to encourage students to put in extra effort or to learn a topic in greater depth. They are also commonly used as an incentive for obtaining student subjects to participate in research (Leak 1981). Extra credit comes in other forms and is offered outside of the classroom curriculum as well. Business schools will many times offer marketing honors courses to students who want the extra challenge. There are also consulting projects with real clients as well as internships that may be parts of culminating projects, all of which can be thought of as a form of 'extra credit' for students if they are not a mandatory part of the curriculum. For such a common part of the marketing educational curriculum, we know surprisingly little about its impact on students.

The literature on extra-credit tends to look at the effect of extra credit on students' final grade. There is scant research on whether extra credit assignments are perceived similarly to or different from regular assignments. In this paper we report on an empirical study that looks at how students react to and perform on an extra-credit assignment as opposed to the same assignment that is part of the required curriculum of a course.

Students are likely to frame extra-credit assignments in a different way than regular assignments that are a part of their grade for the semester. We propose that students will perceive extra credit to be more like a gift than the same assignment that is part of the curriculum and so will value it above and beyond its actual added value to their total grade. This difference in perception may be associated with differences in performance on the quiz as well as differences in students' attributions and perceptions of the quiz and their achievement on it.

We used the assignment of a quiz to assess the effects of extra credit on students' perceptions of classroom assignments. A between-subjects experimental design was used to determine if and how students would react to extra credit quiz questions differently than to same quiz given as a regular part of the course. We measured respondents' perceptions of the quiz, their performance and time spent on the quiz, as well as attributions for their performance.

The results of this preliminary study clearly suggest that students think about and respond to extra credit assignments in a different way than required class assignments. An extra credit assignment is perceived to be an extra gain for students, a gift. Students like the assignment more and they perform better on it. All of them take part in it. Their attributional processes for success may also differ. The results of this study suggest that making parts of the course extra credit may be beneficial to instruction. Student demands for extra credit may be an excuse for poor performance as some have suggested, but when delegation of it is in the hands of instructors and the opportunity for extra credit is given to all students, extra credit assignments seem to benefit both students and instructors.

Based on our results, students clearly feel as if extra credit assignments are a special gain or loss that is distinct from the coursework in general. More work needs to be done in this area, but our results suggest that instructors may want to use extra credit work not just as a remedial tool. They may wish to use it as a motivator in central parts of the course to encourage students to take ownership of the course material. An extra credit quiz or an extra credit project related to the course material that is not too time consuming may motivate students to engage in that specific project. It may even motivate them to engage more with other material in the course.

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ASSESSMENT OF STUDENT STRATEGIES AND LEARNING OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

Cramming for finals is a common phenomenon and many students seem to cram for their final in the Principles of Marketing course. We developed scales to assess a) cramming in general, and specifically b) cramming in the Principles of Marketing course. In addition, student *perceptions* of cramming are assessed and then related to *actual* GPA and grade in the Principles course.

Our interest in student Study Strategies (SSs) derives from a comprehensive assessment program being initiated for our Principles of Marketing course. In designing that assessment, we became concerned that the use of embedded multiple-choice "master tests," for assessment purposes, might cause students to cram more as a study strategy for the Principles course. If so, what would be the consequences of that on short and long-run learning?

We administered a survey about SSs to students in an upper-division marketing course as a pilot. This allowed us to relate the SS survey results to "Master Test" scores also administered to measure comprehension and retention of material from the Principles of Marketing course (which these students had previously taken anywhere between 2 and 11 quarters prior).

FINDINGS

We conclude that there is little difference between the tendency to cram for the Principles of Marketing course compared to "most other courses." Students do not think cramming is better for multiple-choice tests, which is an important result. Also we *reject* that students *perceive* cramming would earn a good grade (both in general as well as for the Principles course). We *reject* the hypothesis that cramming is *perceived* to result in remembering course material 6 months or one year later. With regard two measures of *actual performance,* cramming did not seem to have a very strong effect on the Principles of Marketing course grade, but the relationship is significantly negative for overall GPA.

We ran a regression to explain the Master Test score (percent correct) as a function of the course grade in the Principles of Marketing, the degree of cramming reported in it, and time since the course was taken (e.g., delay):

$$\text{Master Test \%} = b_0 + b_1\,\text{Grade\%} + b_2\,(\text{Cram}) + b_3\,(\text{Cram}) \times (\text{Delay})$$

The model estimation indicates that cramming interacts with quarters of delay, which is best illustrated by an example. Consider two hypothetical students: Student A with a high course specific cramming scale index (25) but an 88% on the Principles Course grade, versus Student B, who had a low index (11) and scored 83% on the course grade. The model predications are that after 7 quarters, Student A would have a Master Test score of 63% (an absolute drop of 25%), compared to a 67% (an absolute drop of 16%) for Student B.

MARKETING CURRICULUM – THE MISSING JIGSAW PIECE

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ABSTRACT

Concerns have been raised about marketing's apparent lack of strength at the board and senior management levels. The most obvious reason appears to be that marketers, and marketing as a profession, cannot clearly demonstrate how marketing contributes to the firm's financial performance (Doyle 2000). This theme is not a recent development as Day and Fahey (1988, p. 56) noted "once marketers understand the key relationships that determine how shareholder value is created, they will be better equipped to influence the strategy dialogue in the business." Another reason perhaps may be what universities *do not* teach in the marketing curriculum. Therefore, the proposition this paper pursues is that Australian business schools do not provide undergraduate marketing students with the necessary financial skills to evaluate, from a financial perspective, either a proposed strategy or to assess the post-launch success of that strategy.

Exploratory research was conducted, using only data from various university websites, to establish the frequency of occurrence of financial performance variables or concepts and what form they take, e.g. shareholder value, profit or some other metric. A non-random sample of twelve of what many would consider to be either the "premier" business school or the largest in terms of student numbers in each of the mainland states and the Australian Capital Terri-tory was selected. The selection of 106 subjects was also non-random and based upon the researcher's knowledge of what various subject titles suggest with respect to the marketing-finance interface. Typical subjects were marketing management, strategic marketing, marketing planning, brand and product management, marketing communications, and international marketing. The synopsis was obtained for each selected subject and where possible, a copy of the more complete subject description was obtained. In the majority of cases only a brief synopsis was available as access to further details was restricted to enrolled students.

A reference to financial aspects occurred only 16 times (in 7 subjects) with the most frequent refer-ence being to *brand equity/valuation* (5 times). No explicit reference was made to *shareholder value* although *firm value* was mentioned once. Disappoint-ingly, critical subjects such as the introductory Marketing subject, Strategic Marketing and Marketing Planning do not make any substantive reference to financial matters. Further, even the capstone subject, Strategic Marketing, is apparently devoid of the marketing-finance interface. Like many other subjects a reference is made to *evaluating strategies* but there is no specific reference to the financial evaluation of proposed strategies. These results are hardly encouraging if universities want to produce graduates who can bridge the gap between how marketing contributes to the firm's financial performance and the general perception of marketing being the sum of advertising plus sales.

Generalising the outcomes is restricted by the non-random selection of the business schools and the individual subjects, based on the researcher's perspective of the appropriate schools and subjects. The lack of evidence of the marketing-finance interface is likely to be exacerbated if every under-graduate marketing subject had been included in the study. The chosen business schools offered at least another twenty marketing subjects above the 106 included in this study. Another limitation was that in most instances only a limited subject synopsis, e.g. 3-6 lines of description was accessible.

Future research should endeavour to include all undergraduate business schools in Australia and to survey marketing academics to obtain more complete subject content information. This research could be expanded to encompass a global perspective. In addition, a survey of recent marketing graduates may assist in establishing how well prepared they believe they were to manage the marketing-finance link. Marketing academics need to demonstrate how marketing contributes to the firm's financial performance and provide students with the necessary skill-set to do so. Marketers must talk the language of finance or they will continue to be estranged from strategy determination and evaluation.

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BUSINESS NEEDS AND GRADUATE BUSINESS SCHOOL OFFERINGS IN MARKETING

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine if a gap exists in the skill and knowledge businesses require of marketing employees and what the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) accredited schools actually provide. In this quantitative study, two set of data were collected and compared, and a gap analysis conducted. A questionnaire was used to obtain data from members of the Business Marketing Association (BMA) regarding course preferences that would best prepare students for positions in marketing. Records analysis was then undertaken of the marketing course offerings of AACSB accredited MBA programs offering an emphasis in Marketing. Gap analysis was conducted by applying a test of difference to the results of the two data collection efforts. Results of the study suggest that some misalignment between school offerings and business needs exists.

BACKGROUND

The number of business programs offered in the U.S., combined with the development of corporate business training programs, has made the academic field of business the focus of discussion regarding relevance of curricular content (Cranier and Dearlove 1999). Demands for improved quality coming from businesses, government, and parents have forced business schools to reexamine their traditional operating methods (Merritt 2003).

Criticism of academic business programs, especially at the MBA level is multifaceted. Some suggest that the bureaucratic nature of academia interferes with business school responsiveness (Cranier and Dearlove 1999). Others observe that business schools are too far removed from the business environment to provide practical business knowledge and skills (Richards-Wilson 2002). It is also suggested that the dynamic nature of the business environment makes it difficult for curricular changes to be made in enough time to keep the educational material relevant (Ackerman, Gross, and Perner 2003; Hahs 1999).

Many studies have been conducted in the marketing education literature showing attempts by the academic community to address these issues (Arora and Stoner 1992; Baruck and Peiperl 2000; Borin and Watkins 1998; Duke 2002; Ellen and Pilling 2002; Louw, Bosch, and Venter 2001; Scott and Frontczak 1996). The primary goals commonly cited for conducting these studies are the desire to improve program relevance, and pressure from accrediting agencies, most notably the AACSB, the premier agency that offers accreditation for business schools in the U.S., for improved curricular quality.

Understanding the extent to which there is a gap between what is needed by businesses and what is offered; and where, if any, inconsistencies exist is important in designing graduate business marketing curricula that best prepare students for employment in positions utilizing MBA prepared employees (Davis, Misra, and Van Auken 2002).

METHOD

The question of whether a gap exists in what is needed by the business community and what schools provided required two sets of data. One set, Employer Needs, would address what businesses believed were important courses for students seeking employment in marketing. The second set, AACSB Graduate Business School Offerings would address what business schools offer in marketing curricula.

Employer needs

The target population for information pertaining to employer expectations of business school offerings was management-level marketing professionals from across the U.S. employed in a marketing function within an organization. In order to isolate marketing professionals from other functional business area executives, the population for this study consisted of those Business Marketing Association (BMA) members attending the Association's 2004 annual conference. The BMA is a professional association serving middle management marketing executives. Registration for the conference in 2004 was 126, and a census of this population was conducted to yield a list of graduate marketing courses thought by these attendees to be important for employment in the field of marketing.

AACSB Graduate Business School Offerings

Of the 435 AACSB accredited business programs in the United States, 180 offer an MBA with an emphasis in marketing. This group of 180 was the population of interest for this study, and a census of these 180 schools was conducted. The population of 180 AACSB accredited programs offering a marketing emphasis is different from the larger number of accredited business programs because these schools offer a specific or expanded array of marketing courses not offered in general MBA programs or MBA programs with an emphasis different from marketing. The bulletin of courses for each AACSB accredited program offering an MBA with an emphasis in marketing was consulted.

For each school, the number of marketing courses offered in common with the Employer Needs List, that is Marketing Strategy, B-to-B Marketing, Advertising, Electronic Marketing, and Marketing Research, was found and recorded. Then each school was given a score of 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5, which represented the number of courses the school offered that were common to the five courses listed on the Employer Needs List. The school was given a zero if it had no courses in common with the Employer Needs List; a one if the school had one course in common; and so on, up to a score of five if the school offered all five courses in common with the Employer Needs List.

MEASUREMENT

The survey instrument used for this study was derived from the work of Ellen and Pilling (2002) in their examination of data collected from employers in the geographic area surrounding Georgia State University. The Ellen and Pilling study and the specific survey instrument used in their research are important to this study. First, the structure of the data provided by the survey instrument was such that it could be compared with a school's course offerings. The data however could also be compared with a cumulative list of marketing course offerings at U.S. AACSB accredited business schools offering a specialization in marketing. Results of this study could also be compared to the earlier study.

The Ellen and Pilling (2002) survey instrument then influenced the methodology for this study. The structure of survey questions on the measurement prescribed the type of data analysis conduct if comparison between the two studies would be conducted. A statistical test of differences was conducted to assess whether a difference existed in the proportion of schools offering 4-5 courses in common with the employer list versus those offering 0-3 courses in common.

RESULTS

Of the members attending the BMA's 2004 conference, 126 individuals were preregistered, that is, they had mailed their registration information and fees to the association prior to the first day of the conference. Of those who preregistered, 126 members actually attended, as measured by the number of registrants who picked up their registration packets upon checking into the conference. The response rate for the survey was 93%.

The frequency of offering 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 courses is shown in Table 1. The schools were then assigned to one of two groups, those offering 0-3 classes in common with the Employer Needs List and those offering 4-5 in common. The proportion of the total represented by each of these two groups was then calculated. The differences between these proportions were then tested using Fisher's Exact Test.

TABLE 1
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS BY NUMBER OF COURSES OFFERED IN COMMON WITH EMPLOYER NEEDS LIST

Courses in common	n	%
Five	10	6
Four	38	20.1
Three	55	31.1
Two	36	20
One	35	19
Zero	6	3.8
Total	180	100

Of the 180 schools offering an MBA program with an emphasis in marketing, 48 schools, or 26%, had 4-5 courses in common. The remaining 133 schools, or 74%, had three or fewer courses in common with the Employer Needs List, and were in this study, considered to represent a gap between needs and offerings. Therefore the null hypothesis was rejected with a p value of less than 0.0001.

DISCUSSION AND FURTHER STUDY

In this study the majority proportion (74%), of AACSB accredited U.S. business school course offerings differed from the list of courses identified by businesses. This suggests more could be done to align business needs and school offerings. Efforts for improvement may include examining the input of different stakeholders, routinely benchmarking curricular content against business needs, and consideration of the factors contributing to the variation in standards against which course relevancy is measured.

Business School Rankings. This study tends to support the findings of Segev, Raveh, and Farjoun (1999) that extracurricular factors drive the business school rankings and the school selection process. Of those schools listed by the popular Business Week school rankings as being among the top U.S. business schools for Marketing only the University of Pennsylvania's Wharton School appears on the list of schools offering 4-5 courses in common with the Employer Needs List. While schools cannot be faulted for providing a package of attributes to attract students these results suggest that employers, accrediting bodies, and students may hold schools to conflicting standards.

Benchmarking. While total quality management practices are important, selective use of some tools over others may not provide the necessary results. For instance, benchmarking the course listing of other schools, a practice encouraged by the AACSB and discussed earlier in this study, yielded a course list that was very different than that revealed in the survey (see Table 2). This indicates that while benchmarking may be useful to uncover best practices in school administration, it is probably not as useful to assess curriculum relevancy.

TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF TOP FIVE COURSES OFFERED AND REQUESTED

	Population	
Rank	Schools	BMA marketers
1	Marketing Research	Business-Business
2	Consumer Behavior	Marketing Strategy
3	Marketing Mgmt	Advertising
4	Advertising	Market Research
5	Marketing Strategy	Electronic Marketing

Note: Courses ranked by frequency of selection.

Common courses. The survey data did reveal some differences in course selection between consumers and B-to-B marketers as well as between this study and Ellen and Pilling (2002). However, three courses were common to all groups examined. Those courses were Marketing Strategy, Advertising, and Marketing Research. This was true of both consumer and B-to-B marketers in the Ellen and Pilling study as well. Less than half or 31% of AACSB accredited schools provided this combination of courses. These results suggest that perhaps a common core of marketing courses is needed, with electives offered to assist in tailoring programs to more individual needs of both students and the businesses seeking to employ more specialized students.

Variation in need by stakeholder. Arguably, when seeking business input into the outcomes development process, business managers, that is CEO, Vice President or Directors, would be the most logical source of information about MBA performance or required skills. Background studies examined reflect this conclusion. The input of managers responsible for working with employees who are MBA prepared may vary from those who actually recruit, interview and ultimately hire these same employees. More research could be done comparing the specific view of these particular stakeholders.

LIMITATIONS

Population selected. The fact that in this study 78% of B-to-B marketers selected the B-to-B marketing course more often than any other course on the list of marketing offerings suggests that the type of customer the business serves, that is consumer versus B-to-B, may impact course selection and result in a different needs list. For this reason, an examination of consumer marketers' course preferences would be valuable to compare with the data collected in this study. The results of such a comparison would allow one to determine if different curricula are required for consumer marketers versus B-to-B marketers.

Number of courses examined. The average number of marketing courses offered in MBA programs with an emphasis in marketing was 6.77. When six rather than five courses were examined, no differences were revealed between the course selections of consumer versus B-to-B marketers. This finding is consistent with Ellen and Pilling (2002). In that number of courses selected for comparison was somewhat arbitrarily chosen, it may be useful to examine more than five courses in future studies.

Using the course bulletin. Seminar courses and other such specialized courses offered at many schools are designed to bring dynamic and important business issues to the classroom. The course bulletin doesn't always reflect the content of these special courses, and hence, examining the bulletins only may not give the complete picture of a program's content and may underestimate the relevancy of the actual coursework.

CONCLUSION

The pace at which the business environment evolves requires that educational systems to prepare students for employment in business be relevant and dynamic. Business schools must be able to adapt readily and consistently to these changes in order to provide

relevant curricula. This article illustrates the need for and importance of developing methods and modalities that demonstrate continual efforts to align business school curriculum with the changing needs of the business environment.

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MARKETING EDUCATION IN U.S. NONPROFIT MANAGEMENT ACADEMIC PROGRAMS: STATUS AND IMPLICATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Decisions about marketing curriculum are not always made within the realm of business programs and colleges at U.S. universities, especially in the case of nonprofit marketing. Nonprofit management programs – the programs most likely to educate future leaders of nonprofit organizations – frequently have a marketing component even though the programs often reside outside of the auspices of business programs and colleges. As the nonprofit sector continues to grow and employment growth in the nonprofit sector outpaces the growth in the for-profit sector (Salamon and Sokolowski 2005) so too will the need for astute graduates of nonprofit management programs with marketing skills and knowledge. Therefore, it is important for marketing educators to know what the current status of marketing education is in nonprofit management programs. This research presents the findings of a survey of nonprofit management programs in the U.S., the coverage of marketing in those programs, and the program directors' perceptions of marketing's role in their curriculum.

Nonprofits include religious, educational, health-related, social welfare, arts and culture, youth, environmental, as well as business and professional member organizations (Wymer, Kowles, and Gomes 2006). Beyond this diverse focus, non-profits are challenged by the complex mix of limited finances, high expectations in terms of performance, multiple stakeholders including a large segment of volunteers in their workforce, and a tradition of collegial decision making (Andreasen, Goodstein, and Wilson 2005).

While nonprofit organizations have significant differences from for-profit organizations there has been a trend to adapt for-profit marketing practices to the nonprofit sector (Clarke and Mount 2000). Just as nonprofits have grown in size and number, so too have the use and adaptation of business marketing skills and knowledge to nonprofit organizations. However, despite the need for and increasing use of marketing skills and knowledge there is evidence that the nonprofit sector makes much less use of marketing tools and concepts than for-profit firms (Andreasen et al. 2005).

The research examines the findings from a sample of 74 of the 251 nonprofit management programs in the U.S. Responses revealed that the programs often reside outside of business programs or colleges with directors who had a background that most likely did not include marketing. Program directors have incomplete perceptions of what is involved with marketing and do not always have marketing as part of their curriculum. The importance of offering marketing curriculum varied depending upon the location of the program within the university. Providing excellence in nonprofit marketing education needs to be more vigorously pursued to improve this situation, particularly in an era when nonprofits are growing in size and number. This article presents the status of marketing pedagogy in nonprofit management programs and offers suggestions for improvements that have implications for all marketing educators.

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DEALING WITH ENVIRONMENT AND SOCIAL ISSUES: STUDENT KNOWLEDGE AND OPINIONS

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ABSTRACT

As environmental and social issues are becoming more critical in mankind's long-term survival and way of life, they are also becoming salient in the teaching of marketing. Rather than merely teaching how to produce, sell and consume as much as possible, marketing should consider how to balance growth and various environmental and social concerns.

Last year, Ted Trainer (2006) stated, "Very few people realize that the environment problem cannot be solved without fundamental social change .... Most people and all governments refuse to face up to the 'limits of growth analysis' of our situation." These thoughts support the earlier work of Galbraith and McNabb (1999) who called for marketing educators to be more socially responsible by incorporating environmental and social issues that will help students to function in an environmentally friendly future. Armstrong and Kotler (2007) say that worldwide; today's marketers are "being called on to take greater responsibility for the social and environmental impact of their action" (p. 28). This notion was expanded upon by a special session at MEA in 2006 (Wilhelm et. al 2006) and is consistent with the societal marketing concept that asks marketers to consider the balance between short-run wants and long-term consumer welfare.

The study undertaken was designed to explore senior level business students' knowledge and opinions about the environment and social issues and ways of dealing with these concerns. Using Galbraith and McNabb's survey instrument data were collected over four academic years (2003-04 to 2006-07).

The student responses show that, regardless of major in the business program, students did not have substantial knowledge with regard to social and environmental issues. Based on these responses it is safe to assume that environmental education has been neither a salient nor significant part of their education. If, as Trainer and other postulate, it is important for marketing graduates to have an understanding of environmental and social issues, then we, as marketing educators, need to explore how we can integrate this knowledge in our courses.

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STRATEGIES TO ENHANCE BEAUTY: AN EXAMINATION OF PERCEPTIONS, PRACTICES, AND COMFORT LEVEL AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Based on the current standards of beauty, college students were surveyed to determine how attractive they rate themselves, where they turn to for standards of attractiveness and what their attitudes are regard-ing the different methods for altering appearance. The study found that students much higher regard for methods involving external efforts to alter appearance (e.g. diet, exercise) and were much more ambivalent about drastic surgical procedures (e.g., breast augmentation, face lift).

OVERVIEW

What is considered beautiful varies by age, time and culture. In the 1800s, women had to appear delicate to the point of "looking ill" (and in need of being protected by the male figure of the day). By 1890, voluptuous lusty-looking were the look of beauty (i.e., Lillian Russell or the Gibson Girl). In the 1920s, the boyish, flat-chested flapper look (Clara Bow) became the desired look (Solomon 2004, pp.180-1).

The concepts of attractiveness and beauty are learned beginning from a very young age (as young as 6) as part of the socialization process from childhood (Dove Study 2006, p.3). Further, it changes and evolves over time and may differ widely from culture to culture (Solomon 2004, pp. 180-1).

In many of the articles reviewed, the concepts of beauty and attractiveness were tied to our consumption of goods and services (symbolic consumption). Many industries are tied directly to beauty and attractiveness, such as:

Advertising & media	Exercise equipment
Cosmetics	Exercise clubs
Clothing	Exercise Trainers
Dentists and dental services	Fashion
Teeth whitening products	Entertainment

In America, not only are the values of what constitutes beauty learned by the social influences of family (for women it is Mom), but also through friends and the media. (Dove Study 2006, pp.15, 47). Advertising, publications focusing on beauty (there is a whole section on beauty at most bookstores) and programs on television and cable that emphasize attractiveness and beauty have an influence on framing modern beauty values and self-image. This includes such programs as *Nip-Tuck, The Swan, Extreme Makeover, The Biggest Loser, Miami Ink, What Not to Wear, The Tyra Banks Show, Top Model* and many others. Included in this media exposure are the programs of beauty contests such as *Miss America, Miss Universe, Miss USA* and several others.

By the time one reaches college age (around 17-22), the various socialization processes have influenced how we see ourselves and how we may wish to "improve" and enhance our self-image and our physical appearance (college students have been socialized through the media and the entertainment industry to achieve physical and professional goals).

There are, however, cultural differences as to what is considered as beauty and attractiveness. Many of these cultural preferences impact on how beauty is evaluated within that culture. For example, in Nigeria, voluptuous, robust figures in women are viewed as beautiful and big women (200 lbs. or more) are respected and considered as beauties. This is also reflected in the status obtained by the family to which she belongs (Simmons 1998, pp A1-12; Solomon 2004, p. 179). Being large as a woman in this culture is also a mark of wealth and prosperity and being thin is often equated with illness and poverty (Simmons 1998, p. A1).

In Asian cultures, lighter skin tones are often associated with wealth and status and the darker skin tones with the laboring classes (Solomon 2004, p. 177). This parallels a previous American value in the early 20th century where pale untanned skin was preferred over tanned (while today it is reversed).

According to the Dove Study (2006), today's international standards of beauty most often reflect a more "modern" and westernized appearance. There are, however, cultural preferences for various areas of the body that may emphasize beauty and attractiveness (Dove Study 2006, pp. 20-23). In Brazil, Asia, and Saudi Arabia, ones hair (texture, length, color, etc.) is important; and in Japan, it's the shape of the eyes (Dove Study 2006, pp. 20-23). In western societies, the fear of aging (or, rather the fear of appearing older) is a cultural value.

In addition, physical beauty and attractiveness are often considered to be manifestation of other

desirable cultural values. Thus, someone who is considered attractive is perceived also to be of higher status, higher social standing than unattractive person. In men, these people are judged to be more powerful, wealthy and capable. Other areas ascribed to appearance include gender role identification, group identification and membership. Therefore, physical appearance has also been used as a means of expressing rebellion, milestones of life, and fashion statements (Solomon 2007; Dove Study 2006; Jerome 2000)

In a television interview with Brit Hume, Alex Kuczynski stated that in 2005 there were over 10 million cosmetic surgeries done and that this industry is over $15 billion. She further cited that there were 3.29 million botox injections, 460,000 liposuctions, and over 360,000 breast augmentations performed in 2005 (Brit Hume 10/23/06).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Past research speculates that individuals view people whose traits are similar to our own more positively (Belk 1985). This study investigates a number of factors related to college students' attitudes towards beauty and attractiveness. In this exploratory phase of this study, a number of issues were included to provide insight into a better framework for a later study.

METHODOLOGY

An instrument was designed to explore several issues that relate to a person's perception of beauty and attractiveness. Since studies have shown that culture, media, peers and family are the predominant structure that one uses to frame their perceptions of beauty, this study focused on the influence of peers, media and culture. Therefore, items were generated for the questionnaire that included, where students get their information about beauty products, who they consider attractive, how they feel about their own body, if there are particular physical features that they are drawn to in other people, how important they feel physical appearance can be and their perceptions of people who employ various beauty enhancement strategies.

Each respondent was given a questionnaire in which they selected high-profile personalities that they perceived as attractive. Respondents were also asked to rate themselves on a scale of 1 to 10 (1= hate my body and 10 = very happy with my body). Three open-ended questions were asked: 1) My best feature is__, 2) When you meet an attractive person, the first thing you notice is__, and 3) Where do you get information about grooming products to buy?

Respondents were given a five- point Likert scale to rate how important appearance was to their career, personal life, and to themselves. Then, respondents were asked how they perceive people who have used beauty enhancement strategies/procedures by rating them on a five-point scale, with 1 = superficial/ "plastic" and 5 = smart/wise choice. Demographic information on respondents' gender, age, ethnicity, and grooming practices were also included.

Who is perceived as a cultural ideal?

Analyzing a cross-section of media and identifying some of the high-profile personalities that continue to appear, a list was drawn up to include those who seemingly appeal to the college age group (by virtue of popularity) (Solomon 2007, pp.176-78). These individuals were utilized as "benchmark" of what constitutes an attractive or beautiful person. An attempt was made to include personalities from diverse ethnic groups and age groups. These were:

Jennifer Lopez	Brad Pitt
Lindsey Lohan	Tiger Woods
Tyra Banks	Antonio Banderas
Paris Hilton	Denzel Washington
Angelina Jolie	Tom Cruise
Eva Longoria	Leonardo di Caprio
Catherine Zeta-Jones	Sean Connery
Heidi Klum	Pierce Brosnan
Halle Berry	Jet Li
Selma Hayek	50 Cent
Cristina Aguilera	Wesley Snipes
Penelope Cruz	Other male, please specify
Molly Simms	
Petra Nmcova	
Other female, please specify	

Beauty Enhancement Strategies

According to Solomon (2007, pp. 176-77) research has shown that physical features that were most often considered as attractive and glamorous for American women consisted of the following:

Big round eyes
Tiny waists
Large breasts
Long (usually blond) hair
Light colored eyes
Fair complexion (flawless)
Pleasant smiles with nicely shaped white teeth

For men, it was the following:

Clean-shaven
Muscular but not overly developed – (not skinny)
Taller than most women, without being too tall
Tan, clear complexion
Neatly dressed

As a result, technology, the cosmetics industry and medical science have developed various techniques and procedure to enable those who consider themselves "less than perfect" to modify or enhance their appearance. Various sources have resulted in the following listing of procedures (Solomon 2007; Dove Study 2006, p. 8; Jerome 2000):

Waxing to remove body hair
High heels (over 2½) – cause knee/hip problems and foot problems
Liposuction
Cosmetic botox injections
Collagen injections
Starvation diets to maintain overly thin body frames & androgynous look
Unhealthy practices to keep weight down
- Induced vomiting
- Overuse of laxatives
- Overly strenuous exercising or compulsive exercising
- Severe fasts

Body deviation
- Tattoos
- Piercing
- Permanent makeup

Overuse of dangerous weight loss drugs, bulky meds
Incorrect unbalanced eating habits (unhealthy)

FINDINGS

Respondent were students in marketing classes at a western public university, during the Summer and Fall 2006 quarters. There were 68 respondents, 36 female (52.9%) and 32 male (32%). Ethnic group breakdown was as follows: 33.8% Caucasian, 17.6% Hispanic, 1.5% Black, and 47% Asian. Forty-four percent were in the age group of 17-21, while 43.6% were 22-25, 10.3% were 26-30 and 2.9% were 31-35.

Students were presented with a list of celebrities and asked to indicate which one/s they found attractive. Opportunity was provided for specifying others not on the list. Of those females listed, Angelina Jolie was considered attractive by the most number of respondents with 56 percent, 46 percent for Eva Longoria and 41 percent for Catherine Zeta-Jones. Among the males listed, Brad Pitt received 49 percent, followed by Tom Cruise with 19 percent and Leonardo di Caprio with 16 percent.

When asked to rate how they felt about their bodies, ratings had an overall mean of 6.4 on a Likert scale (1=hate my body and 10=my body is perfect, I am very happy with it. A cross-tabulation of this item against ethnicity showed that Hispanics recorded that highest mean of being happiest with their bodies (7.04), followed by Caucasians with 6.48, then Asians (6.2) and Blacks (5.0). According to the Dove Study (2006), Hispanics and Blacks were the most comfortable with their bodies. Given that only one respondent self-identified as Black or African American, we were unable to obtain a valid measure.

When asked what their best feature was, 25 percent reported their eyes, followed by 10 percent reporting their smile, and 7 percent reported their personality. However, when asked what they noticed first when meeting an attractive person for the first time, 29 percent reported the face, followed by 19 percent reporting the smile, and 12 percent reported eyes.

Students rated the importance of appearance to their career, their personal lives and to themselves. Table 1 shows the results by gender, using a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = very important and 5 = not important at all.

TABLE 1
MEAN IMPORTANCE OF APPEARANCE BY GENDER

Important for	Overall Mean	Males	Females
Career	2.03	2.13	1.94
Personal Life	1.94	2.13	1.78
Themselves	2.00	2.31	1.72

Overall appearance is considered most important for careers and self, although there seems to have no real significant difference. Males regard appearance is all three categories significantly less important than females.

Table 2 shows responses to the question on what they thought of people who had different enhancement procedures done, using a 5-point Likert scale with 1 = person who is superficial or "plastic" versus 5 = a person who is smart and makes wise choices. As expected, low invasive procedures ranked highest. For example, exercise classes reported the highest mean of 4.23, followed by professional trainer with 4.0 and weight-loss programs with 3.74. At the bottom, perceived to be done by people who are "artificial or plastic" were invasive procedures including drugs, injections and surgery, as well those perceived to be extreme like starvation diets.

Cross tabulating these results according to gender shows that females saw the "use of professional trainers" more favorably than males, as well as "hair color," "hair replacement," "wrinkle removal," "tattooed makeup," "stomach tucks," "face lifts," "skin whitening" and "lip enlargement." The only item that males reported a slightly more positive perception on was "weight loss programs."

The table also contains a cross-tabulation of responses according to ethnicity. Because there was only one respondent who self-reported as Black, this

was not included in the table. The table shows no major differences between the groups. However, there were individual items where one group scored higher or lower than the other. For example, Caucasian responses seem to parallel the overall means. Hispanics generally followed the same pattern, however, scored significantly lower for items regarding exercise, dieting, tanning, and wrinkle-removal. Asians also generally followed the overall pattern, except for items like skin whitening, face-lifts, stomach tucks, and the use of laxatives.

Cross-tabs were performed on information sources of grooming products and rating on different beauty procedures. Students provided responses in an open-ended question. Of the different information sources cited, magazines and friends ranked the highest, which is consistent with the literature.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study highlights personalities that today's college students find attractive. It also shows that students demonstrate a slightly positive image of themselves in the way they rate how happy they are with their bodies. However, scores of 6 out of 10 show that there is a lot of room for enhancing body image among young people.

Respondents are more in favor of less invasive/natural procedures to enhance beauty. Although they perceive the more invasive procedures less favorably, they do not seem to be entirely against their use. This is exemplified by the personalities perceived as most attractive having the most natural beautiful image in the media.

Findings are not significantly different from the popular literature for this age group. This study provides insights into designing advertising and promotion directed to today's echo-boomer college students. Future studies should include a much larger sample and a wider variety of age groups. Studies should also address the influence of family on the formation of the perceptions of beauty.

References Available on Request

TABLE 2
PERCEPTION OF PEOPLE WHO HAD PROCEDURES DONE BY GENDER AND ETHNICITY

Procedure	Overall	Males	Female	Caucasian	Hispanic	Asian
Exercise Class	4.23	4.26	4.21	4.61	3.64	4.10
Professional trainer	4.00	3.83	4.15	4.05	3.82	4.10
Weight Loss Program	3.74	3.81	3.68	3.96	3.36	3.70
Teeth Whitening	3.68	3.68	3.68	3.74	3.36	3.70
Body Building	3.55	3.55	3.56	3.26	3.45	3.80
Eye Makeup	3.49	3.06	3.88	3.78	3.00	3.40
Low Cal Diet	3.43	3.29	3.56	3.65	2.91	3.40
Hair Color	3.31	2.90	3.68	3.57	3.0	3.20
Hair Replacement	2.77	2.39	3.12	2.87	2.55	2.70
High Heels	2.56	2.37	2.74	2.96	2.00	2.40
Body Piercing	2.54	2.42	2.65	2.78	2.27	2.40
Compulsive Exercise	2.44	2.48	2.39	2.35	1.50	2.80
Tanning Procedures	2.40	2.10	2.67	2.61	1.90	2.40
Tatoos	2.32	2.23	2.41	2.35	2.09	2.40
Fasting	2.32	2.23	2.41	2.14	2.30	2.50
Chemical Peel	2.30	2.10	2.48	2.48	2.00	2.30
Wrinkle Removal	2.20	1.81	2.56	2.04	1.64	2.40
Compulsive Exercise	2.10	2.10	2.09	2.17	1.30	2.30
Tatooed Makeup	2.05	1.90	2.18	2.00	1.82	2.20
Laxatives	1.92	1.90	1.94	1.87	1.44	2.10
Collagen Injections	1.86	1.78	1.94	1.87	1.50	1.90
Stomach Tucks	1.85	1.56	2.12	1.61	1.91	2.00
Face Lift	1.78	1.32	2.21	1.57	2.00	1.90
Breast Enhancement	1.76	1.56	1.94	1.83	1.58	1.70
Weight loss drugs	1.75	1.67	1.82	1.65	1.40	1.90
Skin Whitening	1.74	1.47	2.0	1.35	1.33	2.20
Liposuction	1.71	1.50	1.91	1.57	1.45	1.90
Botox injections	1.68	1.43	1.91	1.61	1.22	1.80
Lip enlargement	1.63	1.23	2.00	1.57	1.73	1.70
Starvation diets	1.55	1.45	1.65	1.35	1.70	1.60
Lip enlargement	1.48	1.23	1.72	1.32	1.45	1.60

CONSUMERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SEARCH ENGINES, AND THEIR USES IN INTERNET MARKETING – THE CASE OF FINLAND

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ABSTRACT

It has been studied that approximately 71 per cent of all commercial web pages focus primarily on advertising. Therefore it is problematic that in numerous studies it has been proposed that the general attitude towards web advertising forms such as banner advertisements and pop-up advertisements is low. To counter this decreasing trend, companies have opted in using search engines as one marketing channel to their products and services.

This study presents a phenomenon called search engine marketing (SEM), and an empirical study on how Finnish consumers perceive it and what role do search engines play in consumers' online buying processes. SEM is most usually divided into search engine optimization, which focuses on achieving high rankings in search results, and paid placement, which is basically an advertisement space sold by search engines. Empirical data with 314 responses was gathered from several Finnish online communities in order to gain understanding about the following issues: 1) How do consumers use search engines to gain knowledge about the products they desire? 2) What are their attitudes towards search engine marketing? 3) What is the search engine's role in the purchase process?

The findings from this study propose that search engines are very commonly used tools in information retrieval, and that they play a major part in the online buying process as well. The study at hand acknowledges the fact that since consumers usually view only a fraction of all the available search results, it is imperative for companies to be able to position themselves so that they can gain the maximum exposure. The results show that consumers do not tend to trust in the paid placements as much as they do in normal, organic, results, which poses yet another problem for search engine marketers.

Additionally, it was discovered that navigational searchers (i.e. searchers who know the exact URL to the desired page, but still navigate there via search engine) may produce errors when measuring web traffic from search engines and making assumptions from those figures alone. Navigational searchers may boost up the incoming web traffic rate from search engines which needs to be accounted for when evaluating the success of company's web sites. Managerial implications and conclusions are provided by the basis of the results.

BEYOND EXAMS: ACCOUNTABILITY THAT MAKES A DIFFERENCE

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ABSTRACT

Should marketing students have a critical thinking benchmark established prior to Principles of Marketing and a subsequent measurement in their capstone marketing class to establish their growth in the program?

RATIONALE

Marketing professors are well aware of the growth curve that students experience from principles to capstone but often have no external measure of success of the entire program. With state legislators, AACSB and ACBSP accreditation programs requiring accountability, faculty are often overwhelmed in trying to validate their success within the classroom for multiple shareholders. Faculty have clear validation of their students' success in their acquisition of knowledge by course testing etc. However, there is some nationally normed evidence that students' critical thinking ability has great room for improvement. Thus, there is a continued outcry from accrediting bodies and state legislators to provide proof that students have the ability to think critically.

In working towards a solution, a mix of faculty, some of whom have administrative experience were solicited to share their views in a panel discussion format. It is the intention of the panel to leave adequate time for audience discussion and interaction.

Accreditation and Legislative Demands

Following the recent report from the Spellings' Commission on Higher Education, regional accrediting associations are requiring colleges and universities to establish well-designed assessment processes and measures that can better assess the "educational quality" produced by higher education institutions. These academic audits of program quality are likely to elicit thoughtful conversations about how to produce tangible improvements in education quality without having to spend more money. There are some policymakers that advocate this information should also be used to rank colleges and universities rather than using metrics related to the ratio of faculty members to students, disciplinary coverage, research prowess, and other matters relating to resources and prestige. By focusing on "education-quality processes," the key faculty activities required to produce, assure, and regularly improve the quality of teaching and learning can be used by outsiders to gauge teaching performance and assess student learning. Ultimately what matters is the quality of student learning, not teaching per se. Learning should pertain to what is or will become important for the students enrollment in the program—not some "ideal" student. Exemplary departments determine their students' needs and work to meet them. This is why the marketing program should consider a critical thinking benchmark prior to the Principles of Marketing course. The application of marketing concepts and processes is dependent on the situational variables and it requires critical thinking about how these fit together for an effective marketing strategy to be carried out. The rate of intellectual growth among marketing students varies depending on their experiences, knowledge, and application of marketing concepts and practices. If marketing educators develop an assessment process with periodic, interval measures of student learning outcomes, then it can also motivate changes and improvements in teaching.

CBK and Critical Thinking Assessments

Our experience in marketing education has taught us that we appear to have wondered into unknown

territory without even being aware that we may be lost. We have always assumed that our students knew certain material and facts, and that they possess certain logical and pedagogical skills. Our lectures, our texts, and even our approach to the entire curriculum are based on these assumptions. Recent experience has called these assumptions into question.

Isolated research is coming back with disturbing findings about the knowledge and skills of our students. We seem to be graduating a large percentage of our majors knowing practically nothing about anything. We assume that our students are learning in the classes we present, but are constantly amazed at what students don't know coming to us from other classes. This obviously creates a logical contradiction in the whole.

The nature of our lectures, our discussions of concepts, and our testing of material make assumptions not only on a general background of knowledge, but also on the assumption that our students have certain logical and problem solving skills.

Coping skills can become very complex. I know a retired man who, because of dyslexia, has never learned to read. He was the production manager of a company and a community leader. He managed to hide the fact that he could not read for all his working life. Students are equally proficient. Recently a student sat through two lectures and a quiz without knowing the meaning of a word that was used to describe concepts she needed to know. She memorized an answer related to an unknown word, and assumed that this would get her through. It almost did. She was a bright and pragmatic young woman who had learned to cope. She should not have to do this. We should be aware of her knowledge and skill levels and prepare an educational experience for her that would allow her to learn without the burden of coping with a system that knows nothing about her.

We need pre-testing and post-testing on three general areas. 1) General Knowledge: Graduating students who don't know what state is south of Kansas, or who write advertising copy promoting "390 degree views" is simply unacceptable. We may not be able to change the world, but we can change our little corner of it. 2) Marketing Concepts and Skills: A marketing degree should have meaning and a value-added dimension. 3) Learning and Logic Skills: The ability to think and the tools with which to think are the most important thing we can give our students.

We have already implemented number two with exams used first in Principles and then given again in the Capstone course. We are in the discussion stage with numbers one and three. Even with administrative support, there is remarkable resistance among the faculty to change, especially with anything that could be even remotely called "rigor." Our next step is to obtain a consensus of what our students should know and the thinking skills they should possess. One of the goals is to keep the process grounded. There is no need to become Pharisees, or medieval philosophers arguing the number of angels who can dance on the head of a pin, or modern academics fearful to even define what "good" teaching is. We can use the water-engineering rule, determine where the water must be delivered and work backwards.

FINAL ANALYSIS

As a profession, it is in our best interest to decide what a university, marketing major, normed critical thinking exam should assess, and to embrace a benchmark approach. If we do not, then others will decide for us or we will continue a "patch quilt" approach that leaves our good outcomes questioned and continually under attack.

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