PREFACE

This volume contains the proceedings of the 32nd Annual Conference of the Marketing Educators’ Association (MEA) held in Salt Lake City, Utah, USA, April 24-26, 2008.

The conference theme, Reaching New Heights in Marketing Education, reflects the association’s commitment to advancing innovative and effective pedagogy and practices to prepare students who represent the future of the marketing profession. As always, the conference seeks to connect theoretical and practical aspects of the teaching of marketing.

These conference proceedings include competitive papers/abstracts, special session abstracts, and contemporary issues/roundtable discussions. 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 committee evaluated special sessions and contemporary issues discussions. Chairs of special sessions and contemporary issues/roundtable discussions were asked to include an abstract of up to two pages. Competitive paper authors and special session and contemporary issues authors and panelists represent a geographically diverse group from 24 U.S. states and the nations of Australia, Belgium, Finland, Germany, the Philippines, and the United Kingdom.

The papers and abstracts are presented here in the same order as presented in the conference program.

Competitive paper sessions present three research papers each on topics covering:

- Curriculum Design I, II, III, IV
- Ethics and Social Responsibility
- Marketing Education and the Community I, II
- Mentoring and Professional Development
- Motivating and Assessing Learning I, II
- Student Learning I, II, III
- Teams and Role Playing
- Virtual Worlds I, II

A sampling of special session titles and contemporary issues discussions includes:

- Assurance of Learning and Assessment Issues
- The Class Less Traveled – Teaching Innovations That Make a Difference
- Connecting 7,100 Islands through Professional Organizations: Different Strokes for Common Concerns
- The Elephant in the Room: “Good” Teaching – How to Recognize, Measure, Develop, and Reward It?
- Getting Published in the Journal of Marketing
- Improv Comedy: Techniques and Exercises
- International Travel Experiences for Students: Enhancing the Learning Outcomes
- Targeting Higher Education to International Students: Taxpayer Burden or Blessing?
- Teaching Consumer Behavior: Tips, Traps, and Positioning
- Toward a Deeper Understanding of Consumers and Markets: Integrating Qualitative Research Methods into Existing Marketing Courses
- The Use and Abuse of Students in Research Activities
- Using a Computer Simulation in the UG Marketing Capstone Case Course
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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

Special acknowledgement goes to our President, Brian K. Jorgensen, 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, Brian has placed a lasting stamp on this conference and MEA as a whole. We would also like to recognize our secretary-treasurer, Lori Braunstein. Her largely behind-the-scenes efforts are the oil in the machinery of MEA and the conference. We are grateful to Lars Perner our web master and David Ackerman our marketing director for their efforts throughout the year in communicating with our members and prospective members. And we would like to thank our immediate past-president, Richard S. Lapidus, for continuing to share his time, wisdom, and insights.

We would like to thank those who, through their sponsorship, help MEA to provide a conference of high quality. We gratefully acknowledge the sponsorship of Westminster College, Bill and Vieve Gore School of Business; Central Washington University, Information Technology and Administrative Management Department; the Journal of Marketing Education; SAGE Publications; the Direct Selling Education Foundation (DSEF); Chapman and Associates; and Interpretive Simulations.

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 and highly collegial event that it is today.

The names of those who served as manuscript reviewers, session chairs, and discussion leaders are listed below. On behalf of all conference participants, we thank you for your contributions.

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MARKETING EDUCATORS’ ASSOCIATION (MEA) AND ASSOCIATION OF MARKETING EDUCATORS, PHILIPPINES (AME): INTERNATIONAL LINKAGE PAR EXCELENNCE

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ABSTRACT

This session seeks to present the role of national and international professional organizations to improve the marketing curricular offerings of colleges and universities, both international and local. Highlights on the mutual professional benefits the members of both organizations will get from the linkage will be presented.

ASSOCIATIONS AS PRODUCTS

Even professional organizations require a clear and precise marketing communication mix to gain support and cooperation from everyone. A massive information drive to ensure participation and involvement from all concerned becomes imperative. More than large-scale promotion and advertising, however, the real intent and motive of the organization, coupled with a clear statement of its mission and vision to improve the professional lot of its members, are the best tools to gain the respect of the professional world.

All colleges and universities in the Philippines have the common concern of improving their curriculum offerings given the recommendations of the Commission on Higher Education (CHED). In 2006, CHED issued the latest standards covering business administration courses. It is the aim of the Commission to make more uniform and further standardize the offering of business administration courses, thus identifying five major fields of specialization under the course. One of these is marketing management. The technical panel proposed several marketing subjects geared toward enhancing marketing capabilities of students. It is for this reason that the Association of Marketing Educators, Philippines, with over 400 members in the country, cling to their AME membership to get much-needed faculty development programs, scholarships, and research-based teaching methodology in order to give credence to the subjects they handle with the end-goal of equipping students to be better marketing practitioners in the future. AME members and past directors have participated in seven annual conferences of the Marketing Educators’ Association (MEA) of America, formerly the Western Marketing Educators’ Association (WMEA), and have since, developed more in-depth appreciation of the marketing curriculum. The past Memorandum of Agreement of MEA and AME in 2001 has opened the avenue for bigger challenges in improving marketing education, not only for the personal or individual promotions of participants, but more specifically, for the improvement of the marketing program as a whole.

This year, it is the intent of AME to further strengthen the ties that bind both organizations with the hope of further enriching this relationship through faculty development programs, by sharing the special competencies of American educators to Philippine educators and vice-versa. Transcending mere participation in international conferences and trainings, it is the hope of AME that both organizations provide this year’s Memorandum of Agreement with more depth compared with the past.

The global context of marketing – three units each for subjects in E-Marketing, Global Marketing, International Marketing, E-Commerce, and others – see the need to strengthen AME’s linkage with MEA – east meeting west par excellance.

REFERENCES

CHED CMO 39 Series of 2006: Policies, Standards and Guidelines for Bachelor of Science in Business Administration (BSBA).

Association of Marketing Educators (AME) Constitution and Bylaws.

Poverty in the Philippines is most acute and widespread in rural areas. The gap between urban and rural areas has been increasing. While poverty incidence in the urban areas has declined by 14 percentage points over a 15 year period, rural poverty incidence decreased by only 4 percentage points. The incidence of rural poverty is now more than twice urban poverty. Compared to other countries in the region, the Philippines has not gained progress in poverty reduction. Among Southeast Asian countries, poverty incidence is most extreme in the Philippines where some 15.3 million Filipinos, half of the poor population are subsistence individuals or whose income cannot provide for basic food requirements.

The continued rise of poverty incidence and the low economic growth in the countryside lead to migration to urban areas. This has resulted in the proliferation of slum settlements, pollution problems, unemployment and deficient basic services. Abad and Eviota (1985) grouped the explanations of the causes of poverty in the Philippines into four categories: First, it arises from the anti-development values, attitudes and lifestyles of the poor; in other words, the poor are to blame for their own plight. Second, poverty is the inevitable outcome of historical circumstance and the industrialization process. Third, it is the result of power conflicts in which the poor do not have access to decision-making processes. Finally, poverty is the outgrowth of political economy which has consistently concentrated the ownership of productive assets and resources in the hands of a few people. Villegas (2005), attributed roots of Philippine poverty to: flawed economic policies that ignored competitive advantage of the Philippines, in labor-intensive exports; prolonged emphasis on inward-looking industrialization; neglect of agricultural development; and poor governance, corruption and bureaucracy.

While the proportion of poor families has declined between 1985 and 2000, the actual number of poor families has gone up from 4.36 million in 1985 to 5.14 million in 2000. (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Magnitude of Poor Families</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>4,355,052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>4,230,484</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>4,780,865</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>4,531,170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>4,511,151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>5,139,565</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 1985-2000 Family Income & Expenditures Survey, NSO

The gap between urban and rural areas has been increasing. While the poverty incidence in the urban areas has declined by 14 percentage points over a 15-year-period, rural poverty incidence decreased by only 4 percentage points. The incidence of rural poverty is now more than twice urban poverty.

Urban and rural poverty incidences are presented in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>50.7</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>47.0</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>46.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Family Income & Expenditures Surveys, 1985-2000, NSO.

In terms of magnitude, there are 4.3 million families who are poor while there are 26.5 million people who are poor (Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Magnitude of Poor Families &amp; Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>3,982,760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>4,338,780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>23,952,927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>26,540,094</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: National Statistical Coordination Board.

Eradication of extreme poverty is a Millennium Development Goal. Philippines 2000 commits the government to a social development program aimed
at improving the lives of all Filipinos. It is an example of the new paradigm at work. Its goals, poverty reduction, economic growth, and social equity are interrelated, but progress in one area must not come at the expense of others. This new strategy means that many different groups (non-governmental organizations, government, communities, the academe) are now working together to address the needs of the Philippines within the context of sustainable human development.

The magnitude of poverty has reached a proportion where the combined effort of the government, non-governmental organization, and communities is only a drop in the bucket. Therefore, there is a need for marketing educators and students to have broader academic involvement with the aim to achieve wider reach in addressing Philippine poverty. Failure of the government and markets to distribute resources, assets and benefits of development equally and equitably across economic and cultural groups, gender and regions, and responding to the government’s call to fight poverty, Marketing Educators led various civil society groups in forming a movement, to create a network and united front against Philippine poverty. Marketing educators involve themselves in various community outreach efforts and social development projects, launching centers for social responsibility, with marketing students’ participation on projects for genuine social transformation and development. Social responsibility programs include continuous dialogue, policy-oriented action research, training, financial assistance and collaborative partnerships. Services and activities include:

- Marketing educators and students adopt an underprivileged community and provide services for education, training on producing products for sale, arranging for short course on computer, donate computer units and sending of volunteers as tutors, putting up of cooperatives and encouraging residents to become members.
- Conceptualization of entrepreneurship program and make funds available, linking funding entities with projects to improve public education, provide street educators, training of coaches, trainees and volunteers who will improve sports management.
- Organize poor communities to gain access to livelihood basic infrastructure and social services, new skills and technologies, credits and markets.
- Organizing group of families for value formation.
- Formation of microfinance program for the poor run by people from the community. Program allows marketing educators and students to be involved in the training of partners. Project is evaluated in terms of how it has improved the quality of life of the partners.
- Formation of family farm schools: A special secondary agriculture and technology course that conforms to curriculum prescribed by the Department of Education. Students spend alternating periods in the school and in their own family farms and enterprises. Program leads to a high school diploma. Components include: Integral Formation for both the youth and their parent-farmers, and Rural Development.
- Sponsor a community-based enterprise: A livelihood approach that uses a direct sales marketing approach that provides products from community-based producers.
- Development of teaching curriculum, a participatory approach to poverty reduction. People map out the causes of poverty, difficulties and demands, and then the poor themselves think of solutions to this issue. Marketing students play a role of execution and help the poor access organizations which provide them funds, science, and technology and marketing their products.
- Technology and information transfers: Offers donation of personal computers, information technology and technical support. Seeks additional donors and help modernize public schools, bringing internet to rural and isolated areas.
- Launching of programs for Civic Welfare Training Service where each student gives back something to help people from poor places.

References Available on Request.
CONNECTING 7,100 ISLANDS THROUGH PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS:
DIFFERENT STROKES FOR COMMON CONCERNS

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ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

Benchmarking is an effective tool used by all universities and colleges to improve the delivery of services and teaching all over the country. Through this, urban migration caused by the desire to seek better educational programs and higher teaching standards may be lessened. Faculty membership in professional organizations will be an effective tool to break the barriers between universities and colleges in the national capital region and in the far-flung provinces of the country.

CURRENT RESEARCH INFORMATION

Surveys were conducted in past studies to determine, a) why students still go to the national capital region to study when there are colleges and universities in the provinces; and b) how individual and institutional membership in national organizations strengthens the university and marketing graduates’ competitiveness. The first issue was answered in an institutional research study conducted in 2004, where the following reasons were identified:

(a) “Imperial Manila,” as it is fondly called, is where the best schools in the country are located;
(b) exposure to the glitter of city life develops self-confidence in mingling with people; and
(c) education from a Manila school increases the chances of being hired for jobs.

The second issue was addressed by, (a) the establishment of branches and satellite schools outside of metro Manila, where programs and standards are on a par with, if not better than, those in Manila, and (b) membership of faculty members and school administrators in professional organizations, where exchanges of methodology, research and academic service learning becomes the focus. Accrediting bodies for university and college programs and standards give weight to the institutions’ national and international linkages.

GEOGRAPHICAL PERSPECTIVES

In an archipelago like the Philippines where languages and dialects are as numerous and as colorful as the different islands, numbering 7,107 in total, distances and culture no longer are barriers to professional growth. Twelve major regional languages are the auxiliary official languages of their respective regions, each with over one million speakers: Tagalog, Ilocano, Pangasinan, Kapampangan, Hiligaynon, Cebuano Waray-Waray, Bikol, Kinaray-a, Maranao, Maguindanao and Tausug.

Admittedly, English is the preferred medium for textbooks and instruction for secondary and tertiary levels. Television programs in English are not subtitled nor translated, and English is the sole language of the law courts. Suffice it to say that having a common language breaks the barrier in standards. In fact, Filipinos who cannot speak Filipino can speak fluently in English, and these are mostly the old folks in far-flung provinces.

International, national, and regional conferences for marketing educators and students tend to bridge the gap between geographically-distant universities and fill the vacuum in the wellspring of ideas of the marketing professors. Schools in distant islands of the country need not be deprived of the knowledge and the faculty development programs of the more affluent and city-based colleges and universities; and exchanges of ideas, strategies, and methodology for uniform approaches to the teaching
of the marketing program and strengthening the competitiveness of all marketing graduates in the country. Surveys and evaluation results of past national seminars and conferences substantiate the effectiveness of the professional organizations to connect the thousand islands (sounds like salad dressing!) of the country for more globally-competitive teachers and graduates.

NETWORKED PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Ninety-two colleges and universities, strategically located throughout the country, with over 400 members, are all under one marketing educators’ association based in the city of Manila. Annually, members meet for the educators’ and students’ conferences. Faculty share teaching techniques, attend research fora, meet and discuss the Commission on Higher Education’s (CHED) latest memorandum orders, and undergo faculty development and share success stories in the development of the marketing programs.

Marketing practitioners and business tycoons were invited to talk before seminars and conferences. During annual students’ conferences, more than 5,000 students from all over the country convened before a pool of speakers they had only heard of in the newspapers and on television shows.

There is not anything that faculty and students in metropolitan Manila know that those in the provinces and far islands do not know. The Asia Pacific Marketing Educators’ Conference (APMEC) in April, 2007 in Cebu City welcomed speakers from Bangladesh and regional and national managers, consultants, and directors of multi-national corporations.

Institutions and individuals involved in projects and activities toward the advancement of both theory and practice of the marketing management program make up the bridges over rushing waters of competition towards a common goal.

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The Philippine Almanac.
ABSTRACT

Because of the continuously growing importance of international business, many business schools are instituting programs that provide opportunities for students to travel internationally. These programs are generally designed to allow students to learn about the business environment, business practices, and cultural differences in a foreign setting. At our institution, Westminster College, a ten-day international travel experience is part of the program for all of our MBA students and serves as part of the capstone of the program. Additionally, optional two-week study experiences are designed and offered for undergraduate students that can supplement foreign language coursework or substitute for elective courses. The discussion session will cover four areas:

- Motivations behind faculty-led students trips,
- Challenges of designing and running trip experiences,
- Approaches to enhancing learning before, during, and after a trip, and
- Assessment and grading.

Student international trips are attractive for a number of reasons. First, these trips give students the chance to experience one or more different cultures firsthand, which makes previous and future courses addressing global marketing and management more real to them. Second, business visits during the trips allow students to hear from and rub shoulders with marketers and business managers in the countries that are visited and to have questions answered by someone who is working in the foreign environment. Third, these trips provide a wealth of personal experiences to the faculty that can be shared with other students upon their return.

Designing and running trip experiences is not easy. An initial challenge that business professors must confront is deciding what place to visit. Countries to visit must be interesting and unique from a business perspective, and not just fun places to visit. Further, a successful trip must be affordable. In our MBA program, trips are part of the entire MBA package, and all trips must pencil out at about the same budget. Some parts of the world are becoming quite difficult to afford. Our undergraduate trips are voluntary, so in planning these trips, we must discover travel opportunities that will attract a sufficient number of students at a price that students are willing to pay out of pocket (or out of parents' pocket). Once a location has been determined, decisions must be made regarding how much time will be spent on business visits versus cultural visits versus free time, all three of which are very important. Without good contacts, setting up business visits in a foreign land can be more difficult than one might expect. We will also address the benefits and challenges of operating cross-disciplinary trips with faculty partners from outside the business school.

Learning opportunities surrounding a business student trip abound, both before, during, and after a trip. Prior to a trip is a good time to have students do some research into the specific cities they will be visiting. Discussion of current topics related to the country or countries to be visited are also beneficial. Before the trip, students should also be given a clear understanding of what their assignments will be during the trip. Trip-related projects that require students to engage with locals in some way are generally more effective than simply having them keep a log of their activities. After a trip has ended, it is generally appropriate for students to prepare some kind of report to reflect on their experiences. We will address different ways of structuring these reporting requirements. As part of our discussion, we will talk more specifically about various assignments that we have employed as leaders of international travel experiences.

Some of the same kinds of issues arise with assessment of student learning and performance with travel experiences that arise in other types of classes. We will emphasize some of the differences for this kind of coursework. As one example, good citizenship and engagement with the whole group are essential in this kind of a class, and these items should generally be an integral part of the grading process. Hands-on projects must also be graded not only for the quality of the final products, but also the efforts and creativity that went into them.
ABSTRACT

Although the concept of validity is well-defined and extensive, the current measures of validity do not explain or justify the utilization of certain measures made regularly in academic settings. The debate over the student evaluation of teaching is used to demonstrate the problem. It is proposed that the current validity measures are missing a justification of purpose that may be important beyond any intrinsic measurement of error. The evaluations are lacking “utilitarian” validity, i.e., a measure of their usefulness as a tool even if non-random error is present.

In the physical sciences measurements can be made with great accuracy. Generally any error found will be due to instrumentation, or from variables which can be experimentally controlled. Unfortunately, the hypothetical constructs created to predict human behavior are generally second-order and dependent upon measurement that may not generate universal agreement. To appear scientific, attempts are made at quantification. Although necessary, much of these efforts appear strained. In Andreski’s (1972) scathing critique of the social sciences, he referred to these procedures as “quantification as camouflage.”

With hypothetical constructs, it is never certain whether variation in measurements are due to an inability to define the constructs correctly, to variations created by imperfections of the measuring devices, or to inconsistencies created by their utilization. Consequently, a number of secondary constructs have been created to serve as benchmarks when attempting to measure more primary concepts. Chief among these are the concepts of reliability and validity.

PURPOSE

As members of a teaching faculty, we are regularly asked to attach measures to a number of poorly defined constructs, which can include student learning (some measure of performance, typically grades), “good” teaching (a measure utilized for promotion and merit pay), and miscellaneous, but important measures of matters related to education in general (performance measures required for accreditation, etc.). This paper utilizes the debate and history of establishing the validity of the student evaluation of teaching (SET) to argue that current measures of validity of academic measures have limitations that make an argument for another measure called “utilitarian validity.”

INTRODUCTION

There have been divisive issues within the academy in the past, but few have been as well researched, documented, and long lasting as the debate over the validity of SET. The first published article on the evaluations appeared over 80 years ago (Remmers & Brandenburg, 1927), but it was years later when research appeared on the mass usage of the evaluations. The University of Washington began using a formal evaluation analysis in the early 1950s (Guthrie, 1954). Utilization of some form of SET at business schools increased from about 80 percent twenty years ago to estimates of over 99 percent currently (Crumbley, 1995; Seldin, 1993). Many deans place a higher importance on these measures than either administrative or peer evaluations (Comm & Manthaisel, 1998), and in some schools, SET is the only measure of teaching ability used (Wilson, 1998). Seldin (1999, p. 15) reported a California dean as saying, “If I trust one source of data on teaching performance, I trust the students.”

VALIDITY

Measures of validity are designed to establish that a measuring device is relatively free of non-random error. Unfortunately, there are so many ways that non-random error can influence any evaluation of a construct that no single definition of validity can be sufficient in establishing a measure as being accurate. Consequently, researchers have found it necessary to look at different approaches. These measures have been placed in various classification categories in the past, but there is a general consensus that validity can be broadly cast into three categories; content, predictive, and consistency with underlining hypothetical foundations. This paper will review the measures of validity typically utilized in marketing research.

Not unlike other instruments in academic settings, SETs have been handicapped by a fundamental problem. Essentially, no one has given a widely
accepted definition of what is being measured (Kulik, 2001).

**Face Validity**

The quality of a measurement instrument that appears to the person using it to measure what that person thinks it should be measuring, is called face validity. It does not depend upon any established theories for support (Fink, 1995), but the items on the instrument should correspond to those most observers would utilize to judge the construct (Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1975).

On the surface, SET instruments appear to have good face validity. The irony inherent in this statement summarizes the problems. SET measures typically have the full weight of the institution behind them. The forms are “official,” and the process involved has sanctioned formality involving rules and protocol. There are, however, several problematic issues.

Very few studies can be found which involve student input as part of the analysis. Qualitative data is typically absent. Surprisingly, students are generally not asked how they interpret questions or what they are thinking when they fill out the evaluations. In the extensive debate about the nature of the grade/evaluation relationship between Marsh and Roche (1997, 1999, 2000) and Greenwald and Gillmore (1997a, 1997b) that appeared in several journals for a number of years, there is no evidence that anyone simply asked the students what they do, or think, when they respond to the instruments.

The SET process also creates a strong halo effect. The effect is positively related to the evaluation outcome (Orsini, 1988). If students like the instructor and/or the course, they tend to mark everything positively irrespective of the content of the questions. Students who do see a problem appear to be hunting through the forms, attempting to find a way of expressing their discontent (Clayson, 1989). Dunegan and Hrivnak (2003) found that if students found their instructor incompatible with their notion of an ideal professor, then they carefully completed the evaluation so that their perception of overall performance and SET were correlated, but if the instructor was compatible with the ideal, the association between performance and SET disappeared. In other words, if a student had a negative experience, he or she attempted to utilize the SET to convey that message, but if the instructor or course was liked, then the student simply and “mindlessly” (the authors’ term) marked the form. These studies seem to suggest that the student respondents have a difficult time finding items that would allow them to express their own perception of “good” instruction.

**Content Validity**

Content validity for academic instruments is difficult to evaluate for several reasons. First, as mentioned earlier, there is little consensus of what SET should be measuring. The content of nebulous concepts is also likely to be nebulous. Students do, to a certain extent, agree on what they perceive to be good teaching. If asked, they will almost universally state that good teaching is related to learning. Their perception of learning, however, has been shown to be remarkably inaccurate, either measured by grades or the behavior and attitudes needed to produce good grades (Clayson, 2005; Chonko, Tanner & Davis, 2002; Kennedy, Lawton & Plumlee, 2002). Second, the content is far from being universal. A good music class may be taught very differently from a good business class. Effectively teaching graduate students may be different from effectively teaching freshmen. Third, there have been cases in which the selection of items on the evaluations appeared to be arbitrary. Trout (2000, p. 1) writes about his own experience with SET, “… no one ever explained why the form (SET) contained these items and not others; no one claimed that these items defined effective teaching, that they related to student learning, or that they were sanctioned by the best research on pedagogy.” Other writers, however, maintain that these problems are not overwhelming. Cranton (2001, p. 15) states, “The fact that student ratings are generally reliable and valid is an outcome of at least three factors: (1) The people who create forms agree, more or less, on what should be included; (2) Students agree, more or less, on what good teaching is within a specific context; (3) Individual differences among students are usually statistically removed.”

**Concurrent Validity**

An instrument has concurrent validity if there is a correlation between its measure and the criterion at the same point in time (Churchill, 2001; Carmines & Zeller, 1979). When the criterion is a hypothetical construct, concurrent validity usually is measured as the association of one measure with another accepted established measure.

Most analysts would generally agree that the SET has good concurrent validity. For example, SET has been found to be strongly correlated with instructors’ self ratings, administrative ratings, colleague
rankings, alumni ratings, and the rating of trained observers (Aleamoni, 1999; Cashin, 1995; Kulik, 2001). However, even here, problems emerge. Finkelstein (1995) reviewed some literature to suggest that the instruments will not lead to instructional improvement unless skilled consultants help the faculty interpret the ratings. The literature seems to be suggesting that the instruments are concurrently valid, but that the concurrent experience that faculty members or students have with these instruments, without expert supervision, is invalid.

**Predictive Validity**

The predictive validity of a measurement instrument relates to its usefulness as a predictor of some other characteristic or behavior. The research base here is generally lacking and contradictory. These contradictions can be shown by two examples. “There is no evidence that the use of teaching ratings improves learning in the long run” (Armstrong, 1998). But Overall and Marsh (1979) stated, “Students of instructors who got student feedback scored higher on achievement test and assessments of motivation for learning than students of instructors who got no feedback.” Many writers maintain, without reservation, that the evaluation instruments can be utilized to improve instruction (Aleamoni, 1999; Kulik, 2001; Theall & Franklin, 2001), even though Kulik (2001, p. 10) begins his arguments by stating, “The catch is that no one knows what measure to use as the criterion of teaching effectiveness.” The reported need for consultants in this process (Finkelstein, 1995) weakens the argument.

**Construct Evaluations: Convergent Validity**

Constructs are complex, necessitating several methods of validation. One of them is to establish that the measurement of the construct is associated with independent measures that, according to the underlying structural hypothesis, should be associated with the construct. A major problem with academic measures is highlighted by Garson (2006, p. 2):

“A good construct has a theoretical basis which is translated through clear operational definitions involving measurable indicators. A poor construct may be characterized by lack of theoretical agreement on its content, or by flawed operationalization such that its indicators may be construed as measuring one thing by one researcher and another thing by another researcher.”

According to this definition, many researchers would insist that academic measures would intrinsically lack construct validity. A validity measure can, however, be approximated. For example, although the definition of “good” teaching can vary, most educators would generally agree that students will learn more from a “good” teacher than from a “bad” teacher. In addition, most observers would conclude that effort and learning are related. Numerous attempts have been made to establish that SET has these relationships with mixed results. Many researchers have reported finding a positive relationship between learning and student ratings of instructors (Dowell & Neal, 1982; Marlin & Niss, 1980; Lundsten, 1986; Baird, 1987), many others have found either no, or even a negative, relationship (Attiyeh & Lumsden, 1972; Jake, 1998; Johnson, 2003; Robin & Robin, 1972, Weinberg, Fleisher & Hashimoto, 2007; Yunker & Yunker, 2003). The same pattern with rigor has been found with many researchers finding a strong relationship between rigor and SET (Chacko, 1983; Cashin, 1995; Sixbury & Cashin, 1995), while others have found no, or a negative, relationship (Clayson & Haley, 1990; Greenwald & Gillmore, 1997a; Marks, 2000).

The number of articles on this topic is a testament to the difficulty of establishing convergent validity with SET. It also shows why honest researchers can come to such widely different conclusions in the debate about the convergent validity of SET.

**Construct Evaluations: Discriminant Validity**

The evaluative measures of a construct should not be related to criterion unrelated to the construct. This is the area that has created the most heated debate with SET.

For example, an instructor should not be able to “buy” good evaluations by giving good grades. Numerous studies have found that grades are not unjustifiably related to the evaluations (Cashin, 1995; Marsh & Dunkin, 1992; Marsh & Roche, 1999, 2000; Kaplan, Mets, & Cook, 2000; see Marsh & Roche (2000) for extensive reviews). Another large group of studies have found that grades are related to the evaluations (Clayson, 2004; Gilmore & Greenwald, 1999; Johnson, 2003; Weinberg, Fleisher, & Hashimoto, 2007; see Clayson, Frost, & Sheffet (2005) for extensive reviews).

Personality unrelated to learning, the so-called “Dr. Fox Effect,” should not be related to SET. Many studies and reviews have found personality to not be related to the evaluations (Aleamoni, 1999;
Braskamp & Ory, 1994; Centra, 1993; Kulik, 2001; Theall & Franklin, 2001). Yet, another group of studies has found personality to be strongly related to the evaluations (Ambady & Rosenthal, 1993; Clayson & Haley, 1990; Clayson & Sheffet, 2006; Erdle, Murray, & Rushton, 1985; Feldman, 1986; Marks, 2000; Murray, Rushton, & Paunonen, 1990; Nuftulin, Ware, & Donnelly, 1973; Sherman & Blackburn, 1975).

Construct Evaluations: Nomological Validity

Nomological validity is the degree to which a construct behaves as it should with a system (nomological network) of related constructs. Concurrent and predictive validity are not sufficient to establish nomological validity. They demonstrate only that each researcher’s interpretative theory has some validity. Unless the same general conceptual net is accepted by the users of the construct, public validation is impossible. Hence, a researcher who proposes to establish a test of a measure of a construct (SET) must specify the network or theory clearly enough that others can accept or reject it (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955).

Nomological validity is a major problem with SET and other academic measures. The writer knows of only one study that has attempted to establish nomological validity with SET, and the findings were inconclusive (Paswan & Young, 2002). As would be expected of a process that can establish tenure, promotion, merit pay, and reputations, student evaluation of teaching has been widely debated and researched. Even though reports on the topic are voluminous, little agreement has been made on key points of validity.

CONCLUSIONS

It could be argued, with research support, that SET both have and do not have validity. Too often the process has created a measurement tautology. “Good” instruction becomes whatever the instruments say it is, and “good” measurement instruments become those that successfully measure “good” instruction. Even if this closed system could be broached by the introduction of an ontological construct, the relationships would be associational at best. This epistemological approach was rejected emphatically by Borsboom, Mellenbergh and Heerden (2004), who made the argument that a valid test cannot exist unless a) the attribute to be tested exists, and b) that variations in the attribute casually produce variations in the measurement outcome.

Nevertheless, even with these contradictions and questions of validity, SET is now strongly entrenched. This raises a question that should be addressed. How can a measurement system with so many contradictory findings about its validity continue to be almost universally utilized? One answer was given by an administrator known to the writer who pointed out that he was required to evaluate his faculty and SET was currently accepted as the instrument for that assessment. This argument may appear tautological, but it is extremely pragmatic.

Given the reality that these instruments are not likely to be replaced, another measure of validity seems justified.

Utilitarian Validity

An instrument could, hypothetically, be useful as a tool to achieve an end irrespective of any validity related to theoretical constructs. If SET is going to be utilized as an evaluation tool, even if its validity is debatable, then we would be justified in asking if the measures are of value in achieving some goal, and if that goal is valid to the instrument’s purpose. This measure is closely approximated by what Onwuegbuzie and Daniel (2006) referred to as “outcome validity,” or the meaning of scores in relationship to the consequence of using the instrument. It differs in not being restricted by “consequences,” instead it centers on the validity of outcomes for which it is utilized.

Broadly, utilitarian validity would answer the following question:

Does this instrument achieve the purpose for which it was utilized?

This question is pertinent to a wide range of measures used in an academic setting. Several examples:

1. In a recent discussion, the Provost gave a charge to a faculty committee to create a measure to give information in a periodically scheduled evaluation of the Dean of the Business School. The Provost suggested that the Dean’s tenure would be extended unless serious, but unforeseen, problems were identified. In a subsequent meeting, the committee discussed several instruments that were available for evaluation. Concerns were raised about response rates, and other issues that may invalidate the measure. Finally, one committee member stated that the faculty was not voting, and no statistical hypothesis was being tested, and that unless some unforeseen problem was found, the results would
simply be utilized to publicly validate a decision already made. In other words, the traditional measures of validity were relatively irrelevant, but the measure still had to be made to fulfill a specific purpose which was deemed important.

2. In like manner, an administrator recently remarked that a certain measure needed for accreditation was made and then filed. No one in the organization had seen it in years, but he said that the measure was nevertheless successful because "it worked" in keeping the college accredited.

What is missing in the measures of validity is a determination of purpose. Measurements are made for a reason, and many times those purposes are utilitarian. Traditional measures of validity may or may not be necessary or adequate to establish a measure as a good tool to accomplish its purpose. An extreme example, and one hopefully not embraced as a centerpiece of the concept, would be a politician who tells a lie in the hope of being elected. Irrespective of the validity of the statement, if that statement results in the politician being elected, it then accomplishes its purpose, and therefore has a type of utilitarian validity.

In our discussion of the SET, the concept of utilitarian validity actually clarifies the issue. The important question becomes:

Does the use of this instrument improve instruction, evaluation, or administrative processes of the individual or organization that utilizes it?

This is exactly what is missing in the SET debate. The writer knows of no published findings showing whether the adoption of SET at an institution has improved instruction, students are learning more, employers are finding better prepared workers, society has improved, or that faculty or students are made happier. This may appear to be an unfair standard to apply to the process, but when evaluations are used by over 99 percent of all business schools and constitute a major (and in some cases, the only) measure of faculty instructional competency, more than just arguments over extant validity measures are warranted. Like any other standard of validity, this question could and should be studied. It remains the topic of another paper.

References Available on Request.
INSTRUCTOR FEEDBACK: HOW MUCH DO STUDENTS REALLY WANT?

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ABSTRACT

Feedback is generally considered beneficial. Marketing students expect and request feedback on exams, papers, and other assignments. Students and instructors alike believe that feedback helps students and learning. Some marketing professors expend a great deal of time and effort in providing individualized and substantive comments in response to student work. Doing so becomes extremely challenging and time consuming when faced with large class sizes and high student-faculty ratios. This is particularly true when student-learning objectives are communications-intensive, with coursework consisting of oral presentations, written assignments, cases analyses, essay exams, and the like.

Such realities have led these authors to question whether and how feedback is actually used by students. This exploratory study examines the impact of feedback, specifically written feedback, on student emotions and perceptions. Is more instructor feedback on assignments always good? Do students want feedback, use it, and if so, how much? The answers are important from the point of view of facilitating learning, and also from the point of view of instructors' workload management.

THE VALUE OF FEEDBACK

Feedback is generally considered essential to effective learning. However, it has received little attention in the marketing education literature, and Higgins et al. (2002) noted that understanding feedback from a student perspective has received surprisingly little attention in the education literature. Carless (2006) argued that the effects of feedback on students are not only under-researched, but more complex than typically acknowledged.

Marketing instructors who have taught for any time notice much variability in student desire for feedback. Research shows that not everyone seeks feedback with equal effort, and ironically it is often those who need it the most who desire it the least. Further, comments viewed as helpful by instructors are often regarded as less helpful by students. Yorke (2003) argued that an awareness of the psychology of giving and receiving feedback is important for understanding its effects on student learning. There are further some documented social psychological phenomena – the negativity effect and self-serving bias – which suggest that feedback can have negative, even harmful, effects.

METHOD

A between-subjects experimental design measured perceptual and emotional reactions to different amounts of feedback on a hypothetical assignment.

Students were asked to read a slide stating, “You have just received a failing grade of ‘F,’ 52 out of 100 points on your paper for a Marketing Strategy course.” Students in three conditions – no further feedback, low feedback (two pre-tested comments), and high feedback (11 pre-tested comments) – then responded to a questionnaire. Items measured satisfaction with performance; the degree to which students felt the instructor giving the feedback would have a negative impression of them; students' attributions of how much the poor performance was based on ability, luck, and task difficulty; and the perceived fairness and perceived helpfulness of the feedback. Finally, students responded to an emotions inventory listing 15 positive and negative emotions.

RESULTS

Providing more feedback had a negative effect on the perceived helpfulness of the comments, even though each comment was perceived by students in a pre-test to be equally helpful. However, students in the high feedback condition did perceive the assignment as being less difficult and were less likely to attribute the poor performance to task difficulty. This suggests that feedback may have the effect of shifting perceived responsibility for poor performance onto the student. Overall, other findings suggest that instructors may want to limit the feedback given to students after a disappointing performance, at least keeping it to a moderate level.

References Available on Request
ABSTRACT

This paper concentrates on assessing cognitive outcomes of the learning process in Principles of Marketing courses as measured by various multiple-choice-type question (MCQ) formats that measure learning at lower- and higher-levels. It is intended to assist professors and core-course coordinators who set desired learning outcomes and choose appropriate and effective assessment modes. The discussion encourages marketing educators to address the objective/assessment questions posed by Ghoparde and Lackritz (1998) in their research on test construction. These questions include: What are my educational objectives? What level of understanding do I want my students to attain? Are the test modes I am using really appropriate for my objectives and level of instruction? Are test item stem and answer options technically sound?

A brief review of the literature is provided about MCQs and their effectiveness when testing learning at various cognitive levels. Tables present various MCQ formats including atypically-used formats such as permutational; vignette or scenario; extended matching; and others; and, present how well these various formats measure Bloom’s (1956) higher levels of learning: synthesis, problem-solving, and evaluation. Exhibits of MCQ formats are provided using marketing content.

Two types of MC questions are presented and discussed in depth. The first is the Permutational Multiple Choice Question (PMQC) that has been frequently used in professional exams, albeit not typically used in marketing courses. We present a hypothetical marketing application of the PMQC. Further study of the efficacy of this format is warranted. It is suggested that PMQC format items be developed and tested in a Principles of Marketing setting. Testing the PMQC’s goal of minimizing guessing and assessing learning in marketing education settings is the subject of one study under way. Discussion of the second alternative MC format stems from a practical classroom application of a combined form of the vignette and extended-matching MC formats (VEMCQ) that has been used regularly by one of the authors in a Principles of Marketing course. Findings showed that the VEMCQ format minimizes guessing and rewards students who spend more time reading and thinking than memorizing and guessing.

Both illustrations show how marketing educators can creatively go ‘outside the box’ combining typically-and rarely-used MC formats. Such combination allows assessment at higher levels of learning while retaining the grading efficiency of MC examinations.

The motivation behind the study comes from a preliminary literature review that showed that, at least as far as marketing courses are concerned, little academic attention has been paid to the validity, reliability, and usefulness of the various types of MC test items marketing professors use. Many draw test items from test-banks supplied by publishers who write the MC items with distracter and correct answer options directly related to text content, and typically point out the corresponding page in the textbook. Students perceive such text bank-drawn exams as fair (tests the material taught) and professors perceive them as efficient (pre-written test bank MC questions can be withdrawn verbatim from test banks and are easy to grade.)

However, more needs to be done to test the tests. Marketing educators need to consider what they want to test and whether that is what their test formats actually measure. Indeed, for many who teach principles classes to non-marketing majors, the knowledge-vocabulary testing MC item may be exactly the right instrument to use. Others may be more interested in assessing how well their students understand, apply, analyze, synthesize and evaluate information. If this is the case, other MC formats that demand higher order thinking are more appropriate.

In light of the higher demands for accountability professors face today, it is a good time for marketing educators to assess how well their assessment tools really assess those learning outcomes for which we are accountable to our discipline, student, and employer constituencies. The current paper is but a small step in that direction.

References Available on Request.
WHEN STUDENTS BUST YOUR MELLOW: GETTING THE CLASS BACK IN THE GROOVE, DUDE

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ABSTRACT

The majority of students have no trouble behaving within class norms. However, most professors have occasionally encountered a small subset of students who engage in occasional behavior that is outside the norm, and disturbs the learning environment. Common examples include walking in after class has begun, leaving class early, sleeping in class, text messaging in class, taking or making calls on cell phones, talking to classmates during lecture, submitting assignments late, etc. Educators must have strategies and skills for effectively dealing with norm violation because this may inhibit or even stop a student’s learning.

Many of the studies investigating the attributes of “master teachers” have suggested that a flexible, friendly classroom environment will enhance teaching effectiveness (Faranda & Clarke, 2004; Kelley, Conant, & Smart, 1991). Students also prefer an open, level environment where they are equals with their professors (Faranda & Clarke, 2004). However, professors can bring an open, egalitarian atmosphere to their classrooms only when a learning harmony is established and maintained. To promote a harmonic stasis, university education takes place in a well-codified environment of traditional roles and classroom norms wherein both student and teacher know their expected roles, contributions, and normative behavior (Amanda & Smith, 1994). For example, master teachers use their syllabi and assignments to set boundaries for their students; deadlines and rules are structured to enhance the student’s learning experience (Conant, Smart, & Kelley, 1988; Kelley, Conant, & Smart, 1991). In addition, many schools proscribe clear codes of conduct for the university, college and departments. The purpose of codifying these norms is to provide a structure of respectful human interaction that produces freedom of thought, expression and inquiry within a harmonious learning atmosphere.

A critical issue is how to respond to the student after he or she violates classroom norms. This paper identifies strategies to help maintain classroom decorum and to prevent violation of the classroom norms in the first place. A model is also presented that describes a process to resolve problems involving the violation of classroom norms when they do occur. These strategies help the professor deal with the violation of norms in a way that is mutually beneficial to both the professor and the student.

References Available on Request.
ABSTRACT

Business faculty have often shied away from "service learning" activities, commenting on "what's serving soup in a kitchen have to do with (fill in the blank course topic)?" The reaction is understandable – if the faculty does not see the connection between activities students are asked to do and the course material, the students certainly won't see it.

However, education does not need to be an "either-or" situation, given the myriad of experiential educational options available to educators to enhance the classroom environment. In this case, faculty and staff of a college in the western states have chosen Community-Based Learning (CBL) activities as a way to help students not only connect what they are learning in the textbook with "real life," but also to allow them time to reflect on themes of justice, equity and ethics.

This paper discusses the Community-Based Learning model followed in the classroom as well as how the learning experience is operationalized. The paper then reveals results of a two-semester survey with regard to what students gain from the experience, the benefits they derive and advice other educators can use to implement similar projects in their own classrooms.

Over the course of the 15-week semester, students were asked to complete one CBL exercises from five of six unit areas that directly correlated to themes presented in their textbook. A variety of CBL options were available in each of the six areas, giving students a breadth of opportunities from which to choose in order to focus their learning. Copies of the CBL activity lists were provided in both the syllabus at the beginning of the semester and the instructor’s WebCT online classroom. For instance, the focus of one of the six themes, Making Marketing Value Decisions, encouraged students to choose from exercises such as exploring the marketing of smoking and the effects of a local smoking ban in restaurants and bars, researching a local socially or environmentally conscious product-oriented organization, or examining one’s own relationship toward consumerism through tracing one’s own consumptive activities over a two-week period.

Students were expected to reflect through dialog and writing on these exercises and to bring their learning into class discussions on a regular basis. Analytical reflection was vital to the success of this process because, as Mooney and Edwards (2001) and others stress, “the greater prevalence of structured reflection in service learning makes students more likely to apply critical thinking, synthesize information from classroom and community settings, and examine structural/ institutional antecedents of social issues …." (Eyler & Giles, 1999, p. 188).

The CBL project’s purpose is to assist students to observe/identify and apply marketing theory in the community. The activity can also engage students in self-understanding/awareness, career exploration, and enhancing translatable skills as writing, research and critical thinking skills that are important to any industry or career field the student may choose.

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ABSTRACT

There is a gap between what we teach in the classroom and what corporations feel they need from their employees. We argue that liberal arts education and, in particular, a Great Books Program provides the foundation for an integrative approach in marketing by equipping students with skills and attitudes that prepare them for a more demanding and inclusive marketing course of study. Specifically, the skills provided are the formation of abstract concepts, analytical skills, independent thinking, leadership ability, mature social and emotional judgment, appreciation of cultural experiences, and oral and written communication skills, which are precisely those that are often reported by corporate leaders as lacking in business education today.

INTRODUCTION

We have been formally teaching marketing for over a century in higher education. However, there is still a gap between what we teach in the classroom and what corporations feel they need from their employees. Part of this gap is the result of how marketing education has become more and more fragmented at many universities. Very often, a marketing curriculum is a collection of individual courses, rich in content and technical knowledge, but with little integration or focus on general and relational skills.

There is an obvious need for a more integrative approach to better prepare future marketers. While we may think of several solutions ranging from comprehensive case studies to real-life consultancy projects and others, in this paper we will argue that liberal arts education, in particular, a Great Books Program, provides the foundation for an integrative approach in marketing by equipping students with skills and attitudes that prepare them for a more demanding and inclusive marketing course of study.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. First, we explore the requirements for marketing education. Then we analyze the role of liberal arts curriculum in marketing education. Next we investigate the impact of a Great Books Program on marketing education. And, finally, we offer our conclusion and possible venues for future research.

REQUIREMENTS FOR MARKETING EDUCATION

Educational Vehicles

The instructional toolkit available to marketing instructors is as varied as the discipline itself, and includes lectures, business cases, simulations and exercises among others. In fact, with minor differences in emphasis, all those teaching techniques are commonly used in locations around the globe (Kuster & Vila, 2006). However, there is a long-standing argument as to which methods are best, or under what circumstances one method is more appropriate than another, with scant conclusive results. Morrison, Sweeney and Hefferan (2003, 2006) defend that different student learning styles call for an adaptation of the course activities while Karns (2005, 2006) find no empirical evidence that course activities adapted to learning styles have a positive effect on learning outcomes.

Young (2005) proposes that active application-oriented experience delivered by enthusiastic faculty, who provide high interaction, supportive feedback and clear goals that emphasize learning over grades, increases intrinsic motivation and the use of self-regulated learning strategies which in turn lead to positive learning outcomes. While this could be read as an endorsement for the use of business cases, simulations and exercises in the classroom, Steven Shugan (2006) from his very influential position as editor of Marketing Science deplores the use of the Socratic method and, in particular, the case method. According to him, and unlike legal cases, business cases lack precedent, the foundation of written law, and rigorous adjudication. In addition, they often ignore research findings. As Calder and Tybout (1999) affirm, optimal business education is one based on theories of why certain events occur, rather than approaches that worked or did not work in specific situations like the ones described in business cases.

But beyond the specific tools Sautter, Gagnon and Mohr (2007), CASE Professors of the Year 2005, suggest that innovation, experimentation, and creating a culture of learning, paying attention to creating an impact the first day of class, and maintaining high academic standards are the keys to a successful marketing class.
Learning Outcomes

Even more importantly, if a marketing course is meant to be successful, there needs to be a measurable impact on the students' knowledge, skills and attitudes after completing the course. What those learning outcomes are or should be is widely debated. Given that marketing is a multi-disciplinary science, marketing education should be approached from a similar multi-faceted standpoint. In fact, some standard-setting bodies recognize just that. For example, the Wisconsin’s Model Academic Standards for Marketing Education states that, “Education for marketing requires the application of mathematics, communications, psychology, economics, technology, and specific product and service knowledge in conjunction with human resource skills in problem-solving, decision-making, conflict resolution, group work, and goal-setting within the context of a marketing activity” (Fortier et al., 1998).

This interdisciplinary approach seems to call for a “liberal arts” flavor in marketing education. But, should marketing education be narrowly designed to meet employers' real or perceived needs, or with a broader scope allowing general, liberal education aims (Stringfellow, Ennis, Brennan, & Harker, 2006)? In fact this choice may be completely artificial. Laura Tyson, a former dean of the London Business School was quoted on September 18, 2004, in the Straits Times of Singapore saying that there is a “need for more thoughtful, more aware, more sensitive, more flexible, more adaptive managers capable of being molded and developed into global executives … from equipping people with knowledge, and instead furnish them with skills and attributes, the means by which knowledge is acted upon” (Tyson, 2004). Her view is shared by many other business educators and has been for a long time. The benefits of constructing programs of study that effectively prepare the liberally educated business professional have been well recognized and discussed for over a century. In 1890, Charles William Eliot, president of Harvard, commented that the object of a good education for business people would require development of “accuracy in observation, quickness and certainty in seizing upon the main points of a new subject, and discrimination in separating the trivial from the important in great masses of facts,” and that “liberal education develops a sense of right, duty and honor.” Further, he emphasized the need for communication and values, two things believed to directly emanate from a liberal education (Eliot, 1923).

We often put emphasis on strategy (knowledge), but we seldom cover issues of implementation and execution in our courses (Kono, 2006), and it is precisely in execution where skills such as inter-functional coordination, project management and external partner management become increasingly relevant. Interestingly, these skills are mostly of a relational nature, bringing together separate functions and parties with diverse interests in order to create integrated strategies that deliver customer solutions (Hutt & Speh, 2007). These integrative mechanisms are often taught in executive education (Narayandas, 2007), but seldom in degree programs, resulting in a series of skill weaknesses in decision making, leadership, problem formulation, persuasion, creativity and negotiation (Dacko, 2006). Filling that skill gap requires the critical thinking skills typical of a liberal arts education: analyze, evaluate, and present oral and written arguments; distinguish fact from judgment and knowledge from belief; and embody intellectual standards such as accuracy, evidentiary support, clarity, logicalness, and fairness (Dehler, Welsh, & Lewis, 2001). That requires critical debate (Roy & Machiette, 2005) and curiosity (Hill & McGinnis, 2007), not only to be receptive towards current knowledge but also towards future advances in marketing (Pavia, 2006).

THE ROLE OF A LIBERAL ARTS CURRICULUM IN MARKETING EDUCATION

One of the more comprehensive assessments of the nature of a liberal arts education was compiled by psychologists Winter, McClelland & Stewart (1981). Their review of the prominent perspectives on the liberal arts resulted in the following common goals and outcomes of a liberal arts curriculum, which largely overlap with skills necessary in marketing education.

Critical Thinking

Critical thinking consists of the mental process of analyzing and evaluating statements or propositions that have been offered as true. It includes a process of reflecting upon the specific meaning of statements, examining offered evidence and reasoning, in order to form a judgment. Critical thinkers can gather information from verbal or written expression, reflection, observation, experience and reasoning. Critical thinking has its basis in intellectual criteria that go beyond subject-matter divisions and which include clarity, accuracy, precision, relevance, depth, breadth, logic, significance and fairness.

This skill is of overarching importance and critical, not only in analyzing the statements made by research subjects, but more importantly in evaluating marketing plans, alternative strategies, market reports and interpreting research results.
Formation of Abstract Concepts; Integration of Concrete Phenomena with Abstract Concepts

One of the main criticisms of the use of case method in marketing education is precisely that it focuses on a concrete and specific business situation that might not be generalizable. Therefore, it is necessary for marketing students to have developed this abstraction skill, so that they can take lessons from a particular business case (or workplace experience) and apply them to more general situations.

Analytical Skills, Including Evaluation of Evidence and Logical/Mathematical Reasoning

It goes almost without saying that this skill is paramount when learning and utilizing all the quantitative tools in market research and market planning. Students often take quantitative results with religious reverence and these analytical skills will allow them to understand the meaning of the data. In fact, a recent study conducted by Coremetrics found that one of the widest skill gaps U.S. and U.K. employers find among marketers is in the area of analysis and measurement (Coremetrics, 2006).

Independent Thinking; Evaluation of Disparate Realms of Thought

This skill is essential for creative and innovative managers, able to accept other people’s ideas and mix them in new and different ways to produce original results.

Leadership Ability

Ultimately, a manager’s job is in large part an exercise in leading people and teams, making leadership skills one of the most useful for executives in all kinds of organizations, from the corporate world to not-for-profits and government.

Demonstrating Mature Social and Emotional Judgment; Integration of Personal Values and Beliefs

Life after Enron and WorldCom has shown us the importance of looking beyond the bottom line and purely numerical objectives, and making decisions based not only on solid business practice but on consistent values within a fragile social environment.

Oral and Written Communication Skills

Marketing managers need to communicate, not only internally, with subordinates, peers in the same and other functional areas, and senior executives, but also externally with clients, distributors, value-added partners and, to an increasing extent, suppliers. They need to be able to convey their ideas clearly, efficiently and convincingly to be effective at their jobs.

Appreciation of Cultural Experiences

Markets are seldom local. Usually they encompass wide regions of the globe and often the whole of it. And even when markets are local, they are often multicultural due to the increasing movement of people across borders. Being able to operate effectively in a variety of cultural environments is mandatory for successful marketing managers.

THE IMPACT OF GREAT BOOKS PROGRAM ON MARKETING EDUCATION

A handful of institutions of higher education (mostly in the United States and Canada) have chosen to approach a liberal arts education through a so-called Great Books or Collegiate Seminar Program. (Please refer to Appendix I for a list of Great Books programs in North America).

The value of the Great Books Program comes from the direct and sustained confrontation with the books in which the greatest minds of our civilization have expressed themselves. (Please refer to Appendix II for a sample list of readings in a Great Books Program). From Plato to Martin Luther King, these masterpieces are not treated reverently or digested whole; they are dissected, mulled over, interpreted, doubted, often rejected and often accepted. They serve to foster thinking, not to dominate it. The Program strives to put students in possession of their powers to think clearly and articulate their ideas effectively. This is precisely the kind of approach that we want our students and future executives to take when confronted with a marketing plan, a new product idea, alternative marketing campaign or any other marketing proposal.

Some of the learning outcomes of this Program are:

• growing in understanding of some great ideas of humankind and of the problems and dilemmas that people have struggled with over the millennia;
• growing in their intellectual curiosity and open mindedness;
• advancing appreciation and understanding of different ways of knowing (e.g., philosophical, literary, historical, scientific, artistic, etc.);
• developing a tolerance for ambiguity and a desire for clarity; and
• recognizing that ideas and human life are complex and not easily explainable.

By reading and analyzing texts, the students engage in collaborative dialogue, develop awareness of diverse kinds of human knowledge, their uses, and their fundamental unity; and appreciation for the process of discovery and the search for meaning. Isn't this what we have to do when we are making decisions in group settings, like the ones that we find in corporate marketing departments? Doesn't it resonate as an ideal client-vendor conversation exchange?

The Great Books Program helps lay the foundation for a successful training of marketers. It is not a substitute for a functional emphasis, but rather it gives marketers the skills necessary to make better decisions, be more creative, continuously learn, and be more open to external ideas while at the same time being more fluent and persuasive in their communications.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

We have shown that a classical liberal arts education can be an excellent base for a marketing education. It gives students a set of skills that are uniquely useful not only as they continue their studies but also as professionals either in the corporate world, government or the not-for-profit sector. These skills, including the formation of abstract concepts, analytical skills, independent thinking, leadership ability, mature social and emotional judgment, appreciation of cultural experiences, and oral and written communication skills are precisely those often reported by corporate leaders as lacking in business education today.

A liberal arts education, based on the Great Books Program, serves as a solid bridge to clear the gap between the needs of companies and the skills university graduates typically have to offer. In addition, it prepares students for a more rigorous and comprehensive marketing curriculum.

We have taken a relatively high view of the connection between marketing education and liberal arts curriculum. Future research avenues could focus on a closer look at specific skills to be gained from it or the specific connections between classical readings and marketing concepts.

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- Aeschylus, *Agamemnon, Libation Bearers, Eumenides*
- Sophocles, *Oedipus Rex, Antigone*
- Thucydides, *Peloponnesian Wars*
- Aristotle, *Lysistrata*
- Plato, *Menon, Apology, Crito, Phaedo*
- Aristotle, *Nicomachean Ethics*
- Euclid, *The Elements*
- Anonymous, *Two Athenas (artworks)*
- Sappho, poems
- Euripides, *Bacchae*

## Roman, Early Christian, and Medieval Thought
- Marcus Aurelius, *Meditations*
- Lucretius, *On the Nature of the Universe*
- Virgil, *The Aeneid*
- Plutarch, *Life of Coriolanus, Life of Mark Anthony*
- Genesis, 1-6
- Gospel of Mark
- St. Augustine, *Confessions*
- Marie De France, "Prologue," "Guigemar and Equitan"
- St. Thomas Aquinas, *Summa Contra Gentiles*
- Dante, *The Divine Comedy, "The Inferno"*
- Chaucer, *Canterbury Tales, “The Wife of Bath’s Tale,” “The Merchant’s Tale”*
- Hildegard of Bingen, *Scivias; “Illumination” (art)*
- Anonymous, *Arabian Nights*

## Renaissance, Seventeenth and Eighteenth Century Thought
- Machiavelli, *The Prince*
- Luther, *On Christian Liberty*
- Bartolome de las Casas, *Devastation of the Indies*
- Cervantes, *Don Quixote*
- Shakespeare, *Antony and Cleopatra*
- Galileo, *The Starry Messenger*
- Descartes, *Discourse on Method*
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- Swift, *Gulliver’s Travels*
- Sor Juana Ines de la Cruz, “Letter to Sor Filotea De La Cruz”
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- Rousseau, *Discourse on Inequality*
- Jefferson, *The Declaration of Independence, Notes on the State of Virginia*
- Wollstonecraft, *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman*
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- Lippi, "La Vergine Col Figlio" (art)

## Nineteenth and Twentieth Century Thought
- Newman, *The Uses of Knowledge*
- Darwin, *The Origin of Species*
- Blake, *Songs of Innocence and Songs of Experience (selections)*
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- Freud, *Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis, Civilization and Its Discontents*
- Ibsen, *A Doll House*
- Woolf, *A Room of One’s Own*
- Bacon, “Triptych inspired by the Oresteia of Aeschylus” (art)
- Unamuno, St. Emmanuel *The Good, Martyr*
- Garcia Marquez, *Love and Other Demons*
- Malcolm X, “The Ballot or the Bullet”
- Martin Luther King, *Letter from Birmingham Jail*
- Toni Morrison, *Beloved*
- Nietzsche, *Genealogy of Morals*
# APPENDIX 2
## U.S. and Canadian Educational Institutions with Great Books Program

### Canada (5)
- **Brock University, St. Catharines, Ontario**
  - Great Books / Liberal Studies Program
- **Carleton University, Ottawa, Ontario**
  - College of the Humanities
- **Concordia University, Montreal, Quebec**
  - Liberal Arts College
- **Malaspina University, Nanaimo, British Columbia**
  - The Liberal Studies Program
- **University of King's College, Halifax, Nova Scotia**
  - Foundation Year Programme

### United States (30)
- **Biola University, La Mirada, CA**
  - Torrey Honors Institute
- **Boston University, Boston, MA**
  - Core Curriculum
- **Central Washington University, Ellensburg, WA**
  - The William O. Douglas Honors College
- **The College of St. Thomas More, Fort Worth, TX**
- **Columbia College, Columbia University, New York, NY**
- **Gutenberg College, Eugene, OR**
- **Kentucky State University, Frankfort, KY**
  - Honor's Program of Whitney Young College of Leadership Studies
- **Lawrence University, Appleton, WI**
  - Freshman Studies
- **Lynchburg College, Lynchburg, VA**
  - Lynchburg College Symposium Readings Program
- **Mercer University, Macon, GA**
  - The Great Books Program
- **Northwestern State University of Louisiana, Natchitoches, LA**
- **Louisiana Scholars' College, Rose Hill College, Aiken, SC**
- **Saint Anselm College, Manchester, NH**
  - The Liberal Studies in the Great Books Program
- **St. John's College [MD], Annapolis, MD**
- **St. John's College [NM], Santa Fe, NM**
- **The Graduate Institute at St. John's College, Annapolis, Maryland and Santa Fe, NM**
- **Saint Mary's College of California, Moraga, CA**
  - Integral Liberal Arts Program
- **Saint Olaf College, Northfield, MN**
  - The Great Conversation
- **Seaver College, Pepperdine University, Malibu, CA**
  - Humanities/Teacher Education Division
- **Shimer College, Waukegan, IL**
- **Southern Virginia College, Buena Vista, VA**
- **Temple University, Philadelphia, PA**
  - Intellectual Heritage Program
- **Thomas Aquinas College, Santa Paula, CA**
- **The University of Chicago Center for Continuing Studies, Chicago, IL**
  - The Basic Program of Liberal Education for Adults
- **College of Arts and Sciences, University of North Texas, Denton, TX**
  - Academic Core Programs-Great Books
- **University of Notre Dame, South Bend, IN**
  - The Program of Liberal Studies
- **University of Dallas, Irving, TX**
  - Constantin College of Liberal Arts
  - Braniff Graduate School of Liberal Arts
  - Institute of Philosophic Studies
- **The University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI**
  - Great Books Program
- **Wesleyan University, Middletown, CT**
  - College of Letters
- **Whitman College, Walla Walla, WA**
  - General Studies Program

Source: Mercer University, Great Books Program
http://www.mercer.edu/gbk/gbk/othergbk.html
INVESTIGATING PLAGIARISM: CREATION AND VALIDATION OF EXPLORATORY MEASURES

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ABSTRACT

The need to develop theory to aid understanding of attitudes and behaviors toward plagiarism has grown with the social acceptance of the practice. Syllabi from marketing classes are filled with policies targeting the practice and school guidelines are being developed to deal with its ubiquitous presence.

Though plagiarism is being viewed with increasing scorn by administrations and instructors, it is becoming more frequently observed as the Internet and various online electronic information sources make access easier. Case analyses of many of the prominent business school assignments are easily located for sale online. With this increase have come new and creative detection tools such as Turnitin, iThenticate, plagiarism.org and others.

In the interest of encouraging discussion and theory development on the topic, two scales were empirically developed: the Plagiarism Avoidance Index (PAI) and the Discipline for Plagiarism Index (DPI). Following Churchill’s (1979) paradigm for measurement development, the reliability and validity of the new measures were evaluated.

other academic venues. Administration of the measures could be used to craft a useful policy or to better appreciate how a given policy will be perceived. Although the PAI and DPI were developed to measure behaviors and opinions, the motivations that drive students to plagiarize are likely to be found to be rich and complex.

As marketing educators, this readership should be concerned with the perception of our discipline and its commitment to encouraging noble ethical conduct among our charges. Disagreements regarding what that conduct represents and/or the means by and extent to which related behavior should be regulated may be surprisingly common.

Emotions run high among those holding polarized beliefs regarding policies and standards for academic institutions to adopt. Empirical research, though it is an admittedly imperfect tool, perhaps offers the best inadequate resource available to resolve the differences. Because of the implications for the credibility of our profession and the legal and conceptual links between plagiarism and property rights, the issue rightfully continues to be a topic of passionate debate.
THE EFFECTS OF CULTURE ON CHEATING: AN EXPLORATORY EXAMINATION

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ABSTRACT

Two trends in marketing higher education include growing opportunities for intercultural encounters in the classroom and a growing concern about student cheating. Research regarding these two trends is rare in the context of marketing programs in higher education. This study tests the differences in cheating perceptions between marketing college students from an individualist culture (United States) and marketing college students from a collectivist culture (Belgium). It draws from Hofstede’s (1980, 2001) commonly studied cultural dimension of individualism/collectivism, as a foundation to the hypotheses presented. Results show that all three hypotheses are supported as follows. Collectivist marketing students copy/paste from the internet more than individualist marketing students. Individualist marketing students “free-ride” in group project work more often than collectivist marketing students. Finally, collectivist marketing students will share questions/answers to tests more often than individualist marketing students.

In future research, more areas of student cheating should be explored (e.g., copying from others during an exam; buying or downloading papers online; fictitious excuses for missing class, late homework, or missing an exam). Also, more predictors or explanations for cheating should be addressed (e.g., age, GPA, gender, major, ethics/morals).
ATTITUDES TOWARDS BUSINESS ETHICS AND DEGREE OF OPINION LEADERSHIP OF FUTURE MANAGERS IN THE UNITED STATES, FINLAND, AND CHINA

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ABSTRACT

Unethical misdeeds continue in the business arena and now more than ever these business judgmental shortcomings focus attention on business ethics. Educational institutions are not exempt from these ethical problems either. Evidence of academic dishonesty abounds. A survey of graduate students in the United States and Canada found that 56 percent of graduate business students admitted to cheating in the past year compared with 47 percent of non-business students. Students commented that it was an accepted business practice and one they will need to succeed in their professional lives (McCabe, 2006). This does not fare well for ethical behavior of the managers of the future. Educational institutions should be concerned with environmental factors and curricular changes or modifications that may impact their graduating students and our future business leaders. According to AACSB, business schools must “renew and revitalize their commitment to the centrality of ethical responsibility at both the individual and corporate levels in preparing business leaders for the twenty-first century” (Report of the Ethics Education Task Force, 2004, p.9). The increasingly global economy necessitates a study of ethical attitudes both within and across cultures.

The purpose of this study was to compare the attitudes towards business ethics of future managers in three countries: the United States, Finland, and China, and determine whether ethical attitudes differed. The relationship between the degree of opinion leadership and ethical attitudes was also examined to determine if opinion leaders’ attitudes towards business ethics differed. Additionally student’s major, class year, GPA, gender, age, and the number of ethics and religious studies courses completed was investigated.

The survey consisted of the Attitude Towards Business Ethics Questionnaire (ATBEQ) (Preble & Reichel, 1988), the Opinion Leadership Scale (Childers, 1986), and questions gathering appropriate demographic information. The questionnaire was completed by quasi-random convenience samples consisting of 780 undergraduate students in the United States, 196 undergraduate Chinese students, and 147 undergraduate students in Finland. Significant differences were determined using the methodology of Moore and Radloff (1996, p. 868). This method considers the cumulative impact, rather than individual t-tests. Thus, significant differences must have been found on 50 percent or more of the items. Additionally for the country comparison, the Lin methodology was applied. Lin suggested that, to facilitate comparisons, particularly comparisons across cultures, the ranking differences should be examined. This methodology considers the range of mean values, i.e., “… the difference between the highest and lowest item mean” (Lin, 1999, p. 644).

The conclusions of this research suggest that the attitudes toward business ethics of the students in the US, Finland, and China do significantly differ and opinion leadership is somewhat related to ethical attitudes in the three countries. Opinion leaders were found to put much less emphasis on issues involving ethics, than on the profitability of business. Support was also found for the relationship between ethical attitudes and age, gender, and class year. The impact of the student’s major, GPA, and the number of ethics and religious studies courses on ethical attitudes was not found to be significant.

As business schools prepare the executives of the future in today’s global economy, an understanding of ethical attitudes within and across cultures is essential. Business schools must continue to assess their performance so that improvements in ethical training and curricula may be implemented.

References Available on Request.
This MEA 2008 special session makes a case for using computer simulation in the undergraduate marketing Capstone Case Course (CCC) and describes it in detail.

RATIONALE FOR THE APPROACH

In US business schools, the typically case-based CCC goes by many names such as Marketing Management and Marketing Strategy. The typical CCC case is ten to twenty pages long, is static by nature, describes a strategic marketing decision situation and emphasizes identification and evaluation of alternatives.

The author believes that “meaty” cases are excellent vehicles for learning to thoroughly analyze a situation. However, in the author’s opinion, the “cases only” approach has many limitations. One of these is that there is no opportunity for students to actually implement their ideas and hence no way of knowing whether/how well they will work. In addition, it is possible that a case is fictitious and/or outdated, since it is typically written for “illustrative purposes.” Another drawback is that spending an entire three-hour session on case analysis, especially in the afternoon, can be a drag.

The special session describes the author’s approach used in the CCC since the advent of PCs in the mid-1980s, combining traditional case analysis with a computer simulation game. The author typically plays the simulation game throughout the semester, as a stand alone activity.

A simulation may, in fact, be thought of as a “dynamic” case. It emphasizes repetitive decision making, with feedback after each round to student teams that compete in the game marketplace. This nicely complements traditional case analysis by allowing opportunity for implementation of decisions and providing feedback on what happened, over multiple periods. While the simplification of the reality of a complex market is a weakness with most simulations, it must be noted that the more complex a game, the more difficult it is for students to understand. This could lead to less interest and motivation, especially at the undergraduate level. Based on 15 years of handling computer simulation as a part of the CCC, the author can emphatically say that this approach keeps the class very much alive for the entire three-hour period. In fact, typically, the second half of class (when the simulation is played) is more hectic than the first.

IMPLEMENTING THE CLASS

Most class sessions are held in the computer classroom for the entire semester. This facility allows a maximum of 48 students, divided into eight random teams of six students each, four in each of two independent game “industries.” The same team works on cases and the game, facilitating interaction and efficiency. The author likes random teams because, in the real world, organizations are made up strangers who must make things work. The author has also tried splitting the six-person game team into two teams of three each for the case assignments. However, when and if one or two members of such a small case team drop out, the group naturally encounters difficulties.

Once teams are formed, for the next six weeks, the author leads at least two complete in-class case discussions from the text book, using the problem definition-situational analysis-identify the alternatives-evaluate the alternatives-recommend-summary sequence. The students also complete Excel workbooks and a PowerPoint presentation of the case as part of this activity. Each in-class case discussion easily consumes half of three, three-hour classes.

During the next six weeks, the student teams analyze and write up a sequence of two new cases per detailed and strict guidelines provided by the author that set out the task specifications. Class time is allowed to complete and verify the Excel workbooks and PowerPoint charts for these cases. This also speeds up the grading of the assignment. The student teams spend the last three weeks of the semester in first preparing for and then delivering oral case presentations. Teams are judged on how well they present what they are asked to do, including workbook analysis.

The Marketing Game! is scheduled during the second half of each session. During a typical 15-
week semester, the author is able to comfortably schedule and play eight simulated "years" in class, one each week, after spending about three weeks on orienting students using game-related presentations placed in the WebCT site for the class. The first four game years are played at Level 1 and the next four at Level 2 which requires an expanded set of decisions.

The author distributes results to each team via their private WebCT (Discussion Area) folder by the next day. In addition to the six market research reports specified in the game book, the author makes up additional market research information to enable the teams to make a very comprehensive analysis of their competitors’ performance, if they choose to. The author prefers to see how well the teams make use of all Market Research information (as opposed to whether they buy and use some information), and hence MR is provided free of cost. The results, however, have been mixed.

Yearly budget shortfalls (compared to the best performing team) are required to make up by depleting a $1 million reserve fund available to each team at the beginning of Year 1.

The game is graded each year by averaging two 0-100 index numbers for (1) $ Gross Margin, which measures effectiveness, and (2) $ Net Contribution, which measures efficiency. The author typically also varies the weights for the performance in different years and incorporates subjective criteria, to soften the sometimes brutal impact of the objective game performance criteria on course grade. This recognizes the role of luck in the game, which is a class assignment, not the real market place!

CUSTOM RESOURCES FOR THE CLASS

The author provides custom Excel workbooks for all case analyses. These differ from canned Excel templates by requiring students to first hunt for and input relevant case data and then write their own formulae for obtaining the correct answers that match the clues on the worksheet.

The author has also built three custom game resources that did not come with the book. The GreenYellowPinkBlue.xls workbook (named for the color paper used when the analysis used to be done by hand, instead of Excel) helps student teams extrapolate forecast demand and production quantity, do the breakeven analysis of last year’s company performance and allocate and spend their budget for the upcoming year, while examining alternative breakeven scenarios. The second custom game resource is the Diagnostic Analysis (DA). This takes students through a “what happened and why” detailed diagnosis of the just concluded year. The third custom resource is the “Jumbo” game worksheet that accumulates key input and output data year after year. In the past, this completed industry worksheet has provided the data for end-of-semester game presentations by the teams and/or the author.

The author has found that typically, in each semester, there are at least two “winners” in an industry out of the four companies. Sometimes, all four do quite well, by flanking rather than going head-to-head with competition in the same segments and cutting each other’s throats.

STUDENT FEEDBACK ABOUT THE CLASS

Student feedback has been collected since the early 1990s, in various formats. The evidence, especially for the case analyses and the game, is clearly positive. Future plans for this course include web implementation, 60 percent online and 40 percent face-to-face.

SUMMARY

The MEA 2008 special session describes a different way of teaching the undergraduate Marketing Capstone Case Course. By combining a dynamic marketing simulation game with traditional case analyses, students are exposed to making as well as implementing decisions. The intensely competitive environment of the game seems to add a lot to the class experience. Student feedback about this format of the course has been overwhelmingly positive and the author strongly recommends it. Complete details of the approach will be made available to colleagues who wish to use the same approach.
ABSTRACT

Consumer behavior is arguably one of the more interesting courses to teach. A course in consumer behavior also presents the marketing student with a special opportunity to gauge the marketing process from the point of view of the customer, thus better understanding how consumers with other backgrounds and values may respond differently to marketing programs than they, personally, would. Nevertheless, many students demonstrate considerable difficulty in relating to this course and appreciating its value, in large part because the course spans the consumer experience in many domains without focusing consistently on one set of applications such as advertising, branding, or new product design. This concern applies both at the undergraduate and MBA levels. In fact, receiving comments from MBA students on a mid-semester evaluation that some of them did not work in industries that dealt with consumers can be a rather eye opening experience. The way this course is positioned – and the way student “trust” is developed – are crucial in bringing students on a constructive path through the course.

This session presents ideas relevant to developing greater student trust, interest, progress, and integration through:

- Introduction and positioning of the course by developing clear expectations of the subject matter, the span across of multiple substantive marketing functions, and practical applications to strategic planning, implementation and execution of marketing programs, and an overall enhanced understanding of the customer;
- Sequencing the course such that students find immediate practical applications of the material covered early in the course, resulting in the development of trust motivating students to accept less structured analysis and more “big picture” appreciation later in stages;
- Assigning projects and in-class activities that motivate the students and demonstrate practical use of the material; and
- Demonstration of the interrelation of perceptual, behavioral, and cognitive phenomena within the consumer experience, with an appreciation of the cumulative impact of various design and strategic choices made.

POSITIONING THE COURSE

Technically, many university catalogs actually list the title of this course as “Buyer Behavior” as a means to promote the inclusion of organizational buyer behavior into the course framework. Some of the cognitive and behavioral models presented in the consumer behavior context – such as framing and perceptual distortion – can be readily generalized and adapted into the organizational buying behavior context. In fact, some ostensible consumer behavior research such as Puto’s (1987) work on consumer framing has actually been conducted in the organizational context. Nevertheless, those with the background to teach consumer behavior usually have neither practical nor theoretical background in organizational marketing, a reality acknowledged by the fact that most consumer behavior textbooks have either no chapters or at most one chapter on organizational buying behavior.

Positioning of the course, then, will usually need to focus almost entirely on the value of studying consumer experience, perceptions, and behavior. One approach which may accomplish this objective is to speak in terms of the BASF advertisement which acknowledges that the firm does not make most products but instead, through the chemical products it creates, helps manufacturers make their end products better than these could be made absent the firm’s output. In consumer behavior, from this perspective, we do not so much study how to perform all aspects of advertising planning and execution, but rather how insight into the experience and cognition of the consumer can help design more effective advertisements. We study not the process needed to design and bring new products to market, but how these products can be made to better suit the consumer’s needs, how this utility can be communicated to the consumer, and what is needed for the consumer to be ready to adopt the new product.

SEQUENCING THE COURSE

Some topics covered in the consumer course tend to have more obvious and immediate applications than do others. Once the student is persuaded of the practical use of consumer behavior knowledge, he
or she may be ready to appreciate how an understanding of the idea of prototypicality of objects affects consumer acceptance or rejection of a given offering. It is much easier, however, to demonstrate a clear and obvious application of demographics to marketing planning. This, in turn, can be applied to segmentation, targeting, and positioning choices facing the firm.

Although many consumer behavior textbooks do not devote an explicit chapter to market research, this topic, too, demonstrates immediate applications. Here, it is possible to focus on how behavioral, interpretational, and perceptual phenomena influence consumer response. The use of projective techniques, for example, can be highlighted as a demonstration that consumers, when asked directly, can often not provide reliable answers to seemingly simple questions.

The study of cultural differences and their impact – documented by a wealth of anecdotal examples of failed marketing efforts proved incompatible with an unfamiliar and poorly understood cultural environment – further demonstrates the importance of considering the perspective and experience of the consumer. After going through this stage, students are likely to be more receptive to the value of understanding topics such as attitudes, their underlying components, and issues of saliency, consistency, and accessibility.

COURSE PROJECTS AND ASSIGNMENTS

In a psychology course, many students may be willing to research and write a paper on a substantive topic in its own right as a term project. Business students, on the other hand, tend to see more value in projects that are more directly applied to a specific marketing challenge. To the extent that students can relate course issues to the success or failure of actual products, greater appreciation is likely. One example of an assignment that is useful in this context is having students find a seemingly promising product in a 99¢ store – clearly intended to sell at a higher price – and propose hypotheses for the apparent failure based on issues covered throughout the term. Earlier in the term, in-class projects may apply demographic concepts and tools to media and other outreach planning to a desired target market.

The consumer information search and decision making processes provide opportunities for interesting assignments. I have, for example, asked students to interview an acquaintance about a significant decision that he or she made, contrasting this with the theoretical model leading from problem recognition to post-purchase behavior. This exercise demonstrates both the usefulness of the overall model and the more complex reality that it often represents. As an in-class exercise, it may be useful to discuss different promotional tools that may be used to reach consumers in various phases of the decision process.

USE OF TRADE AND POPULAR BUSINESS PERIODICAL ARTICLES

Current articles in the business press often present a complex set of conditions facing a firm, whether in launching an entirely new product, expanding its current market or market share, or in addressing possibly inaccurate beliefs held by consumers. The assignment of such articles as "cases" make possible a class discussion of all the different consumer behavior issues applicable to the situation identified cumulatively by students, the inter-relationships between the phenomena, and the sequence of marketing efforts that may be needed to bring about desired results such as greater brand awareness, more favorable attitudes toward the brand, brand preference, and willingness to pay a premium.

USE OF TRADE BOOKS AS TEXT

Many important lessons on consumer behavior can be found in trade and popular business books. In the past, for example, I have used Malcolm Gladwell's book The Tipping Point and Paco Underhill's books Why We Buy and Call of the Mall as textbooks. This approach may be useful in a course structure that emphasizes projects and assignments over exams. Core consumer behavior issues can then be covered in class – often in the context of examples raised in the assigned readings.

REFERENCES

IMPROVING THE USE OF CLASSROOM RESPONSE SYSTEMS (AKA “CLICKERS”) IN THE PRINCIPLES OF MARKETING CLASSROOM: EXPERIENCES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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ABSTRACT

CHALLENGES IN TEACHING LARGE CLASSES

There are at least five main problems or challenges instructors face in helping students learn within the larger-size class environment. They include: (1) getting students to attend the classroom on a regular basis, (2) gaining and keeping student attention once they are seated, (3) getting students to actively participate in the learning process, (4) finding a way to gauge or sense, on a real-time basis, “where” the students are in the learning process at any given moment, and (5) managing the significant volume of course maintenance or housekeeping needs, such as the distribution, collection, and grading of numerous student documents such as quizzes, tests, and papers or tracking student involvement with classroom activities.

MEETING THE CHALLENGES WITH CLICKERS

Clickers, if used properly, can make the classroom experience more engaging and enjoyable for students and therefore generate high, voluntary attendance levels – the first challenge. Preis and Kellar (2007) found 87.2% of their Principles of Marketing students reporting they were more likely to attend class as a result of using clickers. The second challenge is gaining and keeping student attention. Strategies have been developed in which well over 90% of students attending lectures respond with clickers (Ohio State University, 2005). Clicker questions, posed at the beginning of the class period, can serve as ice breakers and an introduction to the day’s lesson. Likeability for clickers was reported in a University of Minnesota study where 96% of surveyed students said they liked using clickers (Hatch, Jensen, & Moore, 2005). If students like using clickers, they are more likely to attend class and pay attention as they look for opportunities to use their clickers. The third challenge is getting students to actively participate in their own learning process. Murphy and Smark (2006) note that today’s students are very familiar with technology, are less tolerant of impassive learning environments, and thus require more interactivity. It has been demonstrated that clickers improve classroom dynamics for both student-lecturer and student-student interactivity (Draper & Brown, 2004). Anonymity of responses is a major benefit provided by clickers that encourages students who would not normally contribute their views to the entire class to do so (Herreid, 2006). When students know their responses are anonymous, instructors are more likely to draw out and learn more student opinions and engage a diverse classroom of students. The fourth challenge is the instructor’s need to sense or gauge “where” his or her students are in the learning process at any given moment; to obtain real-time feedback. Clickers have the potential to help both students and instructors identify students’ misconceptions and deal with them at the time they are recognized (Hatch, Jensen, & Moore, 2005). With clickers, students get the chance to express themselves and see what others in the class are thinking (Terreri & Simons, 2005). The fifth challenge is coping with the additional class maintenance or housekeeping demands of the large-size class. Clicker responses are automatically recorded for the instructor and there is no need to use scan sheets, collect papers, signatures, count raised hands, etc. Clickers permit automatic attendance taking and provide a convenient mechanism for quantitatively tracking student contribution to classroom activities.

THE AUTHORS’ CLICKER EXPERIENCE

After considering student feedback on my clicker-based Principles of Marketing course, I feel generally satisfied with my approach to using clickers for conducting readiness assurance assessment via quizzes, but also feel my use of clickers for non-quiz learning activities was less than optimal and offers the greatest opportunity for improvement. After reflecting on this experience and an extensive review of classroom response system literature, recommendations for others fall into three sequential steps: (1) establish explicit learning objectives first, in-class activities second, and clicker integration third, (2) design effective clicker questions using established guidelines, and (3) carefully compose your clicker question session. The full paper includes student feedback data from the class and explains approaches to implementing these recommendations.

References Available on Request.
Relationship marketing (RM) has been credited with greatly enhancing marketing's effectiveness in creating customer and shareholder value. Its aim is to forge relationships between the firm and its customers so as to add value beyond that of transactional exchange. Accordingly, customer lifetime value (CLV), rather than profit per transaction, is the proper criterion for evaluating RM initiatives.

Classroom experience suggests that RM strategies and dynamics can be examined instructively and expeditiously along two dimensions, namely (1) a symbiotic/predatory dimension, and (2) a customer dependency dimension. At the symbiotic extreme, buyers and sellers benefit commensurately from their relationship. At the opposite extreme, benefits accrue predominantly to the seller.

Customer dependency, which may stem from the likes of switching costs and network externalities, affect the viability of particular RM alternatives. When customer dependency is low, relationships between sellers and buyers survive only while sellers create more customer value than customers can realize from transactional exchange. Customers who feel exploited will sever relationships because they can do so without paying a heavy price. Hence, sellers must court customers and cultivate trust by consistently delivering what they promise and resisting exploitive urges.

When buyer dependency is high, sellers enjoy strong, exploitable bargaining positions. In the marketing literature, RM usually is portrayed as a mutually beneficial, win-win exchange. Yet, exploitive RM opportunities abound. Of course, via patent and copyright laws, society has created some exploitable market imperfections intentionally to promote innovation.

Manipulative exploitive RM is pursued under the guise of cultivating mutually beneficial relationships, but reflects little regard for its targets. Customer relationship management (CRM), which sometimes is equated with RM per se, has provided critics with abundant examples of manipulative RM. CRM relies heavily on databases that often contain extensive information about current customers and promising prospects. Beyond contact information, such databases commonly identify vulnerable customers and include particulars that can be used to manipulate them. Prospects are vulnerable when age, ignorance, strife, addiction, or the like impair their decision making and render them easy prey. For example, some casino executives boast of having gathered so much personal information on prime patrons that, per individual, they can readily determine which of several incentives is most likely to lure each customer into returning and wagering more. While CRM's advocates maintain that people generally welcome CRM initiatives and benefit from them, CRM's targets frequently see themselves less as partners in a mutually beneficial long-term relationship than as perpetual victims of intrusion and predation.

Structural exploitation is facilitated by customer dependency. It entails exercising bargaining power with little restraint or concern for the exchange partner. It has been equated with hostage taking. Customers who are completely satisfied with a product or a vendor often become apostles, in a marketing sense, whose loyalty extends not only to making repeated purchases, but also to sharing their favorable opinions about the product or the company with others. Hostages, in contrast, are dissatisfied customers who cannot switch readily because switching costs are prohibitive or no satisfactory alternatives exist. They bolt at the first opportunity. Although firms generally prefer apostles to hostages, taking hostages can be profitable. Indeed, Microsoft may have more hostages than apostles.

Buyer dependence may change over the course of a relationship. When it intensifies, sellers may choose to maintain symbiotic win-win relationships, or they may move toward predation as their power over buyers increases.
RAPPORT BETWEEN BUSINESS FACULTY AND THEIR STUDENTS: 
DEVELOPMENT OF A THEORETICAL MODEL

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ABSTRACT

Rapport refers to when two people connect. While business education researchers have begun to study rapport, several gaps remain. First, past research has principally focused on students’ perceptions of rapport, while faculty members’ perceptions of rapport have never been studied nor contrasted with those of students. As rapport is a co-interpretive experience that neither participant accomplishes individually, it is essential to understand the perceptions of both parties. Second, a detailed model inclusive of antecedents and outcomes has never been presented. Third, outcomes obtained in different contexts, as well as those hypothesized in an academic setting, have not been tested nor fully identified in the specific academic context of faculty and students. Finally, the techniques for building rapport in an academic setting have not been fully researched.

This research study has the following objectives: To compile the findings on rapport from the extant literature, to develop a model of rapport, to understand how business faculty create rapport and to offer recommendations on how to build rapport, and to compare and contrast students’ and business faculty member’s perceptions of rapport.

Building on findings from the extant literature, this study presents a model of rapport between business faculty and their students.

This model shows that approach (Respect, Approachability and Open Communication), personality (Caring, General Friendliness and Empathy), and homophily (Shared Ideas, Values, and Goals) factors serve as antecedents to such rapport, while student benefits, faculty benefits, outside-of-the-classroom benefits, as well as benefits for both faculty and students, follow from rapport.

Despite similar student observations on the factors leading to rapport with those reported by faculty, a comparison of the student perceptions of rapport with those uncovered in this research revealed several attributes mentioned by faculty that were not mentioned by students. These included Communicate Openly; Interest in Student Success; Student Interest; Expertise; Make an Effort; Keeping it Real; Patience; and Shared Ideas, Goals and Values.

The implications of the findings, contrasts to past research and recommendations for faculty to build rapport are presented.

References Available on Request.
ABSTRACT

Chinese benchmarking of their educational programs against the U.S. should increase with the development of business education programs in China. For the purpose of such comparative analyses, this study develops a prototype model that encompasses the following three constructs: program emphases, general satisfaction, and explicit satisfaction. Using these constructs, a comparison between a Chinese business institution and its U.S. business school partner suggest the presence of response style differences. A procedure is presented for operationalizing response styles and for the making of adjustments in mean scores. After the ANCOVA-based adjustments, the bulk of comparative assessments still reveal substantive differences with the U.S. business institution denoting greater favorability. The prototype model is advanced for future comparative studies.
This article reports on an application of Kolb’s (1981, 1984) experiential learning cycle in the context of international marketing education. Specifically, the paper reports on the experiential learning processes implemented during two study tours in which International Marketing students at a U.S. college visited Europe in 2006. First, a descriptive overview of the two study tours will be presented, with an emphasis on comparison and contrast in the structure and execution of the two experiences. Second, the paper discusses the different ways in which the study tours applied Kolb’s experiential learning cycle. Finally, the outcomes and their implications for the development of future international learning experiences are discussed, including specific recommendations for marketing educators.
ABSTRACT

Consumer attitudes toward foreign products or companies are based on underlying attitudes and may include, but are broader than, specific concepts such as country-of-origin or ethnocentrism. A classroom illustration of the complexity of foreignness is presented as a useful tool for eliciting and evaluating perceptions of what makes nations alike or different.

EXPLAINING PERCEIVED DIFFERENCES

One of the great challenges of international marketing education is to create an appreciation among students of the challenges faced by marketers when goods, services or people move across borders. It is difficult to help students with little or no international experience to understand that others in the world do not see us as we see ourselves; nor are our perceptions of others universally held, or even accurate (cf., Lundstrom, White, & Schuster, 1996). Experience indicates that when asked to describe peoples from other countries and cultures, a common response is that others are different. When pressed, the response is more specific, but no more insightful – they are “not like us.” A method for presenting and evaluating the issues underlying the loose not-like-us construct held by consumers and students can enrich global awareness.

International marketing textbooks tend to discuss differences among countries and cultures with chapters on well-established issues such as global economies, political/legal systems, culture, and international communications. However, textbooks are not intended to be a vehicle to make the student aware of their own personal perceptions as well as the variety of perceptions that others may hold. Self-Reference Criterion work shows that perceptions of others and/or ourselves impacts marketing decisions. The effects of SRC can be neutralized (Lee, 1966), but only if its presence is acknowledged and appreciated. Students can gain benefit from insight into their own perceptions of foreignness. This insight can be provided through an exercise that demonstrates the attitudes of each classroom using conventional data gathering and limited time to complete the task. The focus of this exercise is to solidify early in the course in the minds of the students a concept of what it means to be not-like-us and of how differences across cultures and countries can affect the decision making of marketing managers (Tyagi, 2001).

PERCEPTIONS OF OTHER COUNTRIES

Perceptions of other countries and cultures affect the formation of product quality and willingness-to-purchase judgments by consumers (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). The most commonly used constructs in marketing are ethnocentrism and country-of-origin, while the management discipline is primarily concerned with liability-of-foreignness. Each construct contributes to understanding and is limited in its contribution. What these constructs share in common is an underlying belief that others are, or can be, “foreign.”

Ethnocentrism refers to the tendency (a) to view cultures as alike or different or (b) to judge other cultures by the standards of one’s own. Evaluating ethnocentrism has been done most often as the attitude toward another country and its products compared to the respondents’ home country. The CETSCALE is the most commonly accepted measure of consumer ethnocentrism (cf., Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995).

Country-of-origin recognizes that perceptions of quality and consumers’ intention to buy vary not only with the location of a firm’s ownership, but also with the location of production and even the pronunciation of a firm’s name (cf., Peterson & Jolibert, 1995). Country-of-origin better explains perceptions of quality and intention to purchase when multiple issues are being used simultaneously by the consumer.

Liability of foreignness describes the costs of local acceptability associated with doing business in another country and the operational costs associated with overcoming these perceptions. Even in a market where products are essentially identical, customers prefer domestically-owned offerings to foreign-owned alternatives. Being foreign reduces profitability relative to domestic competitors (Zaheer, 1995). Conversely, marketing views foreignness as an issue of product acceptance, primarily as a result of production location. What country-of-origin and liability of foreignness share in common is an underlying belief that consumers feel that other
people are not like us and solutions to their problems may not be solutions to ours.

A broad view of foreignness permits consumers to define in their own terms what makes countries (and, by extension, their firms and products) foreign. Some nations (their companies and products) may be more foreign than others. Alternatively, it is possible for countries, and their firms or products, to be foreign in a legal sense, but not foreign in the eyes of their customers. Developing an approach to foreignness that permits multiple dimensions allows us to view conventional constructs relative to underlying attitudes and the final outcome of how a marketer approaches doing business (Table 1).

### Table 1
Possible Connections: Foreignness Constructs

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<tr>
<th>Approach to Doing Business:</th>
<th>Resist, Tolerate, Embrace Differences</th>
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<tr>
<td>Results of Attitudes:</td>
<td>Country of Origin, Liability of Foreignness</td>
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<td>Intermediate Attitudes:</td>
<td>Ethnocentricity</td>
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<td>Underlying Attitudes:</td>
<td>Multiple Dimensions for “Not Like Us”</td>
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</table>

Without some framework, students and practitioners are required to rely on their own notions of “foreignness” to develop these marketing analyses. To fill the need for a structure of “not like us,” tools can be developed to elaborate and explain the dimensions of similarity and difference among countries. These dimensions may help to position conventional constructs in the analysis of consumers. The techniques discussed here provide a mechanism for appreciating these differences in the classroom.

### WHAT IT MEANS TO BE FOREIGN

A broader view of foreignness permits consumers to define in their own terms what makes countries, firms, and products foreign. Some may be more foreign than others. These issues require an understanding of the underlying conditions of what it means to be foreign. If foreignness cannot be captured appropriately by any one construct, then multiple dimensions of foreignness criteria must exist.

These dimensions can be used to understand their perceptions of why others are not-like-us. Following qualitative and quantitative development of foreignness dimensions, a parsimonious set of categories was developed to effectively discuss the concepts of what it means to be foreign:

1. Economic – relating to the level of economic development, or the type of economic system (e.g., capitalist, centrally planned) of a country;
2. Political/Legal – relating to the political or legal environment of a country;
3. Cultural – relating to people’s culture, in all its dimensions, or social organization (exclusive of the other dimensions);
4. Technological – relating to the technology of a culture, what they produce or how they produce it;
5. Linguistic – relating to the language of a country or a people;
6. Historic – relating to the history of a nation or a people;
7. Geographic – relating to the geography of a nation, its location, topology, population size or density.

### OPTIONS FOR EXERCISES

The basic approach for exercises is to have students make judgments about countries on each of the dimensions. One exercise could have the students choose the dimensions that show country A to be most like (or least like) country B. Comparisons among countries that are not students’ home countries may stretch the students’ concepts beyond their self-reference criteria. Frequency counts of the student responses will illustrate to the class that there are some opinions widely held (for example: China and Taiwan may be rated alike on culture and linguistics but different on economic and political dimensions). But other dimensions may show the interesting diversity of opinions held by consumers about any two countries. The instructor may want to ask the home country to be compared to a number of other countries to illustrate what dimensions are used for similarity and dissimilarity of the home country compared with multiple other cultures. One example is given in Table 2 showing students’ choice of countries least like Russia and what dimensions made the difference.

More students felt that Russia was least like the USA on economic and political dimensions. Other countries chosen by some students show some points of discussion for technology and culture.

Another approach for the comparison is to ask the students to rate countries on a similarity scale (1 = very dissimilar to 10 = very similar) for each of the...
TABLE 2
Example Frequencies:
“Russia is Least Like (Country B) Because ...”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Economic</th>
<th>Political</th>
<th>Cultural</th>
<th>Technological</th>
<th>Linguistic</th>
<th>Historic</th>
<th>Geographic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

individual dimensions. Similarity can be compared with the one’s own country or with other countries. To ease the analysis effort for the instructor, a limited set of countries can be presented for the students to rate. Experience indicates that 4 or 5 countries permits an adequate range for illustration and 10 countries presents a challenge of too much data for the instructor to discuss in the classroom.

Another option is to have the students rate the importance (perhaps on a 5-point scale) of each dimension when comparing country A with country B. It is interesting to observe that while students may feel that countries differ on some dimensions, they may rate those differences as low importance. A conversation about differences versus the importance of those differences can be a fascinating discussion.

DISCUSSING MULTIDIMENSIONAL FOREIGNNESS

The purpose of this exercise was to demonstrate the complexity of foreignness and why countries are different (Lundstrom, White, & Schuster, 1996). The dimensions indicate that foreignness is a more general and more complex concept than country-of-origin, ethnocentricity, and liability of foreignness. Points of differences may be found to be important depending on the reference country (cf., Netemeyer, Durvasula, & Lichtenstein, 1991). Thus the criteria of foreignness in each market must be considered separately when developing firm or product strategies. This exercise is a very accessible option (cf., Tyagi, 2001) in raising international awareness and broadening the students’ view of what it means to be foreign. Students can become more aware of their own perspectives and the potential attitudes held by others (cf., Lundstron, White, & Schuster, 1996). Discussions can solidify concepts and improve the students’ understanding of international marketing decisions.

Using multiple dimensions of what it means to be foreign enables the instructor to capture a wide array of issues and provides the underlying rationale that ultimately affects managerial decisions. These dimensions may have direct effects such as consumers feeling that Italian designed clothing are better than other clothing. In this case, country-of-origin is affected without passing through intermediate attitudes such as ethnocentrism (cf., Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995). Underlying foreignness attitudes view people, counties, companies, and products as not-like-each-other in a wider, more cosmopolitan worldview. Conversely, ethnocentrism combines the underlying attitudes into a narrower construct of not-like-us. These narrower attitudes suggest natural or cultural protectionism that affects both country-of-origin and liability-of-foreignness. These narrower attitudes may be more strongly held than underlying attitudes because they may be conceptually closer to the self. Ethnocentrism attitudes are directed without discretion at all counties perceived to be foreign (cf., Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995). The intermediate attitudes combine some very strongly held underlying opinions into strongly held negative intent-to-purchase positions directed toward a country and create special liabilities that must be overcome (cf., Zaheer, 1995).

STUDENT RESPONSE TO THE SAME / DIFFERENT EXERCISE

Following the exercises, students were presented with an open-ended evaluation of their experience as well as Likert scales for statements on their beliefs about the same/different exercise. Ratings statements asked how useful the exercise was in raising awareness and understanding of the number of criteria used to evaluate whether a country is foreign (Table 3). Results indicated that students would use more evaluation criteria in foreignness judgments. The exercise helped them to improve their ability to judge and integrate issues. In addition, the exercise allowed them to predict responses from others beyond their original considerations. They felt more comfortable in their own judgments and relayed concern for making good judgments about foreignness.

37
TABLE 3
Student Responses and Assessment of Same/Different Exercise (n = 152)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question/Issue</th>
<th>avg</th>
<th>sd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The exercise does not broaden the number of criteria that I will use to judge foreignness.</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The exercise has improved my ability to evaluate foreignness.</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The exercise has improved my ability to integrate the multiple issues of foreignness.</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that this exercise improved my ability to predict responses of others who hold foreignness criteria different from my own.</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel more comfortable about making foreignness judgments</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I really do not care about making foreignness judgments</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The exercise does not help me make foreignness judgments</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note: Likert Scales with 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

This paper presents various recommendations and suggestions given different environmental situations of small to medium-scale businesses on marketing mix strategies which helped regain business profitability, as well as success stories of businesses and the strategies adopted.

Having sufficient capital is not the sole consideration for starting a business faced with keen competition. Being a new entrant requires innovative ideas to be recognized. Trial-and-error practice has no place in a marketing environment where only those with unique selling propositions survive. Marketing practice is not simply selling; winning a larger, secure share of profitable markets is essential to organizational success. Periodic readjustments in the light of new information, new tastes, new preferences, and the number of direct competitors may change a business strategy which used to be operational and under control marketing-wise.

ACTUAL CASE STUDIES AND MARKETING RESCUE

A food processing business started about three years ago with a business partner. In November 2005, partners decided to leave the partnership to create their own meat processing business. Problems cropped up in the process.

Another family business passed on by the parents had its origin at Plaza Miranda in Quiapo, Manila; after seven years in operation, six years of which were located in a five-star hotel lobby, the flower shop business needed marketing rescue.

An ice cream production business targeting an upscale market found that it was not prepared to meet its market demand, hence, it needed marketing rescue.

A family in Marikina City, Metro Manila has ventured into shoe manufacturing, and the business was passed on to the children. Most of the designs were the creation of the eldest daughter, who was also the de facto manager of this home industry. The quality of the products were excellent, however the company has not yet established a brand name. The shoes they manufactured were presented and sold to popular local shoe brands, and sold to the public using the brand name of the latter. The manager wanted to start and create a brand of their own, and sell to the general public.

A peanut butter manufacturing home industry wanted to expand their market and sell their products not only to local bake shops, but also to local grocery stores to earn greater profit, as perceived by the business owners. However it is quite obvious that this home-based manufacturing business was not prepared to meet the market demand.

METHODOLOGY

Plant visitation and production process inspection were conducted in each of the case studies. Human resource, as well as electricity, energy, water, raw materials, factory/facilities, production standards and practices, and distribution channels were keenly observed and recorded.

Interviews were conducted among the following resource persons: The owner/s of the business/company, the administrators, the production staff and laborers, as well as neighbors and people in their locality. Interviews were also conducted with other owners of similar manufacturing and production businesses.

The business case studies were featured on national television shows, on different dates, the purpose of which is to set examples to the viewers who may be faced with the same business concerns.

CONCLUSIONS

Marketing rescue strategies range from capital injection to simple innovative techniques requiring not just capital but pure and simple unique selling propositions.

Product Line Extension. The shoe manufacturing business had a very large amount of excess raw materials. In reaching a decision of product line additions, organizations need to evaluate whether the total profits will decrease, or the quality/value
associated with the current products will suffer. It was recommended that they design and produce other leather good items such as handbags and coin purses. This helped lessen the garbage problem, and added a new product line with the use of excess raw materials, adding more income to the business.

**Branding and Packaging.** The Brand name is perhaps the most important element of a package. The logos, designs and symbols of the products in all the case studies were improved, adding an identity of the company distinct from competitors producing and selling the same product line. Distinctive or unique packaging is one method of differentiating a relatively homogenous product. The packaging design, labels, and product information were improved, creating new attributes of value in the product brand.

**Target Market and Marketing Plan.** Consumers vary as to their needs, wants, and preferences to products sold in the market. Market segmentation and consumer behavior was discussed to the company owners and brand managers. In most of the business case studies, development of product positioning was the main concern. Resolving it gave clear and focused marketing strategies specifically designed for their respective industries.

**Advertising and E-marketing.** With a tight budget for advertisement expenditure, the companies in this case study developed new and clear advertising objectives. Advertising budgets were properly allocated, and e-marketing strategies were strengthened.

**Resource and Facilities Management.** Findings show that all of the businesses in the case study incurred big expenditures on electricity and water bills, communications costs, excess raw materials, and mismanaged human resources. Ventilation, lighting and fixtures were greatly improved, and factory/plant layout for faster production was improved dramatically. Uniforms were given to the staff and factory workers. Proper daily time allotment for work breaks and personnel schedule shifting was improved. Other tasks and production were outsourced, thus reducing labor costs, space and warehousing problems, and product standards and quality.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

Success stories of entrepreneurs under study may be used as classroom examples and may be the subject of plant visitation activities. From the businesses studied, more similar activities may be conducted to elicit recommendations from the students themselves.

Businesses which have tried marketing rescue techniques by the author were featured on a national television program. More television programs of this nature should be produced to help entrepreneurs and business owners who may be faced with the same business concerns.

The academe may include in their marketing curriculum the conduct of marketing rescue consultancy as outreach. The program would be a good venue for students to practice their management and marketing skills, with the supervision of their professors.

**REFERENCES**


ABSTRACT

In our economy, price influences the allocation of resources. In individual companies, price is one significant factor in achieving marketing success. And in many purchase situations, price can be of great importance to consumers. However, some pricing difficulties occur because of confusion about the meaning of price, even though the concept is easy to define in familiar terms. On the other hand, in recent years, studies show that the best way to raise productivity is to improve product quality. The Japanese have proven that "doing it right the first time" improves product quality, lowers production costs, and maintains the competitive position in the market.

This descriptive special session is designed to analyze or to seek to develop a clear understanding of what price is all about and its relationships to product quality. Some salient features are base price for a product that is consistent with the pricing objectives, strategic pricing strategies, price determinations, factors influencing pricing decisions, and the major methods used to determine the base price.

Likewise, dimensions of quality will also be presented and discussed. Tradeoffs exist among the dimensions of quality. In addition, companies can seldom pursue all dimensions at the same time. Management has to make decisions based on a strategy for marketing its products in a competitive environment.

THE RESEARCH PARADIGM

The marketing and sales managers’ roles revolve around influencing maximum numbers of consumers to patronize their product offerings given the quality and features their products can offer and the price the consumers are willing to give in exchange for them. Marketing’s corporate goals to: a) optimize profit; b) reduce losses; and c) maintain market shares, will be discussed vis-à-vis a) how the market will react to price changes, and b) how competitors will react to the price changes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified Dimensions of Quality</th>
<th>Major Pricing Objectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Earn a target return on investment or on net sales</td>
<td>1. Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Maximize profits</td>
<td>2. Features</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Increase sales</td>
<td>3. Reliability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Hold or gain a target market share</td>
<td>4. Conformance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Stabilize prices</td>
<td>5. Durability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both suppliers and consumers react to changes in prices. There are as many determinants of supply as there are determinants of demand. Both, however, cannot be far from considering price expectations, income, and tastes and preferences as used by marketers as their prime considerations in their strategic pricing decisions.

Key Factors That Influence Price
(1) Demand for the product
(2) Competitive reactions
(3) Strategies planned for other marketing mix elements
(4) Cost of the product

Price mix decision strategies for a budget-sensitive target market use different pricing schemes for varied consumer products from local and multinationals based on product type and outlet categories, geographic locations, and the degree to which marketing goals are to be achieved.

Base price may be based on any of the following:
(1) Cost-plus pricing
(2) Marginal analysis
(3) Setting the price in relation only to the market

CONCLUSION

The marketing curriculum is wide and inter-disciplinary, dealing with concepts interrelated with other disciplines. Hence, the use of economics concepts becomes imperative given the premise that economics is a social science highly influencing marketing decisions. Since both areas of discipline deal basically with satisfying customers’ wants and
needs, and with the cost that they are willing to forego, discussions of both areas need concepts to support each other’s claims.

REFERENCES


COLLEGE OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION GRADUATES TRACER STUDY

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ABSTRACT

IMPLEMENTING INSTITUTION

The data analyzed and presented in this paper were products of the graduates tracer study conducted for the College of Business Administration of Adamson University, Manila, Philippines, covering the school years 2001 to 2006. Said study was presented before the University Research Forum on December 12, 2007, following the call of the University President, Rev. Fr. Gregg L. Banaga, Jr. C.M. for sustaining excellence in the tertiary education through quality academic programs, research and community service.

In keeping with the mandate of the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) to instill and nurture important qualities and skills in our students that are essential for future business leadership and organizational success, a graduates tracer study becomes imperative as a tool for improvement in the curricular offerings of the university, recommendations for faculty development programs to conform to the government’s call, and the application of integrated marketing communications to promote the BSBA Marketing Management and other programs of the university under the College of Business Administration.

The industry needs for college graduates constantly change. What could have been appropriate and effective at one given time may prove to be futile at other times given different environments. This holds true more particularly for the business sector for which the business administration curriculum of the tertiary level are supposed to answer for human resources needs.

A tracer study is descriptive research which involves the careful mapping out of a situation or set of events in order to describe what is happening behaviorally and assess the graduates’ employability, and eventually improve course offerings of the BSBA Programs. Data were collected through the use of questionnaires adapted from the Graduate Tracer Survey (GTS) form developed by the Commission on Higher Education. The high percentage of retrieval rate of the questionnaires was attributed to the fact that a big number of alumni joined in the celebration of the university’s 75th Foundation Anniversary, or the Diamond Jubilee in 2007.

FINDINGS

Biographical data of the graduates revealed that a big percentage of the Business Administration alumni who graduated from school year 2001 up to 2006 are still single, belonging to age bracket 21 to 30 years of age. Age-turnover relationship shows that young professionals are more likely to quit and change their jobs until the “greener Pastur” is found. In terms of gender, significant changes have taken place in the workplace whereby there is an increasing female participation rate. The assumption is that there is no significant difference in the employability of male and female since jobs of Business Administration graduates are not gender-sensitive.

As to the situational factors which influenced the qualifications of the respondents, data gathered reveal that the graduates’ reasons for taking their courses are due to influence of parents or relatives, prospects for immediate employment, availability of course offerings in chosen institutions, and prospects for attractive compensation.

The factors which influenced the employment status of the graduates were identified as owing to their reasons for not being employed, and they vary from,
family concern and decided not to find, (2) lack of work experience, (3) no job opportunity, and (4) did not look for job. Communications services employed a big percentage of our graduates, with the growing number of call centers in the country. Distributed in almost equal small percentages are major lines of businesses where, however, the biggest number of those employed came from the Marketing Department.

Graduates of all the courses of Business Administration considered information technology skills as the job competency learned in college related to their present jobs. Aggressive product development, expanding product lines, and the presence of hundreds of product brands, added to the fact that in the past decade service marketing, outsourcing and franchising have grown to a surprising rate, the Marketing graduates were given better chances of being employed and promoted.

As of the time this study was conducted, 89.87 percent of Marketing graduates are presently employed, 78.63 percent for Management, 50.52 percent for Banking and Finance, 45.62 for Accountancy, and 75 percent for Office Administration. Data revealed that Marketing graduates got the highest percentage of graduates being employed while Banking and Finance got the lowest percentage. Course description may have been a factor because graduates limited their job search only in companies doing business which they feel seem to be related with their qualifications like banks and other financial intermediaries. Marketing graduates seem to try all companies where they think marketing skills in product planning, advertising, promotions, sales, public relations, food services, hotels, restaurants, and tourism may be needed.

Those who have their own businesses ranging from photo studios, computer shops, and franchising of micro-financed food stalls, said that their confidence in meeting and talking to people, which they learned by being ushers and usherettes during conferences, and mingling with students from other schools and universities, developed their self-confidence in communicating with their customers.

VINCENTIAN CORE VALUES

Spirit of St. Vincent and Social Responsibility got the highest percentage among the Vincentian core values the graduates felt helped them in their employment. These are followed by Search for Excellence and Sustained Integral Development which were instrumental in getting high performance ratings in their jobs, while teambuilding activities learned in college developed in the graduates the core value Solidarity.

CONCLUSIONS

Competencies learned in school were the biggest factors which developed self-confidence among our graduates. On-the-job training was very useful, and actually was their stepping stones to being discovered by future employers. Computer skills were found by the graduates to be instrumental in looking for their first jobs.

Courses requiring the passing of a licensure examination still got the highest potential for receiving high salaries. Marketing jobs, however, receive additional compensation in the form of commissions and bonuses for closed sales deals, hence, the graduates found their skills in communicating and dealing with people instrumental in their jobs.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Curricular offerings of colleges and universities have to be revisited for the performance of graduates based on the competencies they will learn in college will shape the socio-economic conditions of the country. Problems owing to the situational factors affecting employability and qualifications of the graduates may be addressed through a review of the curricular offerings of the university and improve capability-building activities like a strengthened on-the-job training and other academic experience and competencies learned in college.

Colleges and universities should have an open mind to evolving curriculum standards. Sans the difficulties of revising the curriculum to conform to government standards, schools can only cope with the changing environment in the government and industry arenas through a timely revisit of the programs.

(It is noteworthy that Adamson University has continuously conducted graduates tracer studies in other colleges. New programs were offered, after a revisit of the different existing programs, in compliance with the mandate of the Commission on Higher Education, particularly CHED Memorandum Order No. 39, Series 2006, bearing on the subject: Policies, Standards and Guidelines for Bachelor of Science in Business Administration (BSBA)).

References Available on Request.
TARGETING HIGHER EDUCATION TO INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS: TAXPAYER BURDEN OR BLESSING?

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ABSTRACT

THE CHALLENGE

Are there differential effects in public versus private universities when targeting and engaging international student markets in higher education? Are international students a burden or blessing to the U.S. taxpayers when served in their home country? What are the differences between different delivery models (face-to-face, hybrid, compressed courses)?

DISCUSSION

There are myriad reasons for targeting international students for U.S. higher education that have both short-run and long-run benefits and costs to the individual universities and our nation as a whole. This panel will address a number of issues, including culture and costs (both apparent and hidden) to various stakeholders in higher education. A selective sampling of the topics to be covered is as follows:

Culture. Traditionally, there was a “cultural exchange” when international students enrolled in U.S. universities. What happens to this cultural exchange when students stay in homogenous groups with little or no interaction between the cultures? Is there actually less knowledge of another culture due to exporting our educational product?

U.S. Taxpayers. Traditionally, our cities and small towns benefited from international students residing in the U.S. They would shop and spend their capital in the local economy and travel the U.S. Although U.S. taxpayers subsidized their education there was an exchange that was mutually beneficial. Are taxpayers subsidizing the export of a U.S. education to an international student and foregoing a traditional trade-off? As U.S. taxpayers subsidize less of our nation’s costs of higher education, what is the net loss or gain to the nation as a whole and the local economy?

Enrollment Management. Does on-campus enrollment increase or decrease when U.S. higher education is exported to other countries?

Finally, how do the public versus private universities view this system? As higher education is increasingly scrutinized, these questions are likely to begin to have an effect on the way the state legislatures allocate money within a state system. Are there federal issues that will impact the system of higher education in the U.S. as well?

These are only a few of the issues that the panel members will address and then open to the session attendees. It is believed that a fuller exploration of these contemporary issues might provide a more comprehensive understanding of the challenges that higher education faces. As a potential crisis in higher education, it is advantageous to explore possible repercussions in anticipation of, rather than a reaction to.
THE ELEPHANT IN THE ROOM: “GOOD” TEACHING – HOW TO RECOGNIZE, MEASURE, DEVELOP, AND REWARD IT?

Dolores Barsellotti, Helena Czepiec, Patricia M. Hopkins, Juanita Roxas, James Swartz, and Debbora Whitson, California Polytechnic University, Pomona, 3801 West Temple Ave., Pomona, CA 91768; dabarsellott@csupomona.edu, hczepiec@csupomona.edu; pmhopkins@csupomona.edu; jroxas@csupomona.edu; jeswartz@csupomona.edu; dwhitson@csupomona.edu

ABSTRACT

This session is intended to be a discussion of teaching – its importance, its role within the scope of AACSB requirements for business schools, and whether institutions value good teaching.

INTRODUCTION

What is good teaching? Over the past several decades, there has been a wealth of studies into the issue of “good teaching.” Journals devoted to teaching exist in almost all disciplines. Drs. Juanita Roxas and Dolores Barsellotti will give a short summary of what the marketing literature describes as “a ‘master’ teacher,” first from the students’ perspective (Appleton-Knapp & Krentler, 2006; Clayson & Haley, 1990; Desai et. al., 2001; Ducette & Kenney, 1982; Faranda & Clarke, 2004; Feldman, 1976; Gremler & McCullough, 2002; Kelly et. al., 1991; Rice, 1988; Smart et. al., 2003); then, from the perspective of peers who are required to judge teaching (Brookfield, 1990; Clayson & Haley, 1990; Conant et. al., 1988; Cross, 1977; Feldman, 1986; Friedmann, 1991; Hise et. al., 1989; Kulik & McKeachie, 1975; Laverie, 2002; Marsh & Roche, 1997; Rice, 1988; Seldin, 1985; Tang, 1997; Weaver, 1985); and lastly, from the administration’s perspective (Seldin, 1985; Smart et. al., 2003).

DOES GOOD TEACHING MATTER ANYMORE?

Dr. Patricia Hopkins, as a former administrator, will do a presentation discussing current AACSB standards for reaccreditation and where good teaching fits in the criteria. What are the differences between Research 1 institutions and more balanced teaching/research institutions in the means they use to meet AACSB criteria? Is good teaching mentioned in the AACSB standards or does it depend on the institutions’ mission?

How is good teaching measured?

Dr. Helena Czepiec is currently in a task force that is charged to design a criterion for good teaching. She is conducting a content analysis of the Retention, Tenure and Promotion documents for each department of the College of Business.

This university requires that teaching be evaluated by students as well as peers. Therefore, each department has its own criteria for weighing these evaluations. The California Faculty Association Collective Bargaining Agreement requires that at least two evaluations each per year from students and peers be submitted. Thus, when there are not enough qualified faculty members to do peer evaluations in a department, outside evaluators are invited to do peer evaluations to meet the minimum number of evaluations required.

Dr. James Swartz will make a short presentation on student websites that invite comments and ratings of faculty like, “The Good, The Bad and The Tenured,” “Grade Cal Poly.Com.” What impact, if any, do these have on students, faculty, and administration?

HOW IS GOOD TEACHING MEASURED?

Dr. James Swartz will make a short presentation on student websites that invite comments and ratings of faculty like, “The Good, The Bad and The Tenured,” “Grade Cal Poly.Com.” What impact, if any, do these have on students, faculty, and administration?

HOW TO DEVELOP GOOD TEACHING

Dr. Debbora Whitson is one of the more dynamic instructors in the department. She will provide insights into what she has had to do to adjust to the changing nature and characteristics of students over her years for teaching.

Past research suggests that activities stimulating students to participate in the process of learning are an integral part of a “good” teaching paradigm (Brookfield, 1990). These activities include the use of classroom demonstrations that promote comprehension. The use of demonstrative material that reflect current issues are more likely to achieve this goal by stimulating cooperative learning. In order to stay in tune with the challenges facing students in today’s marketplace, an instructor has to
understand how the material they traditionally cover must be modified and updated.

Increasingly, students are utilizing notebooks/laptops in class. The use of this technology can promote cooperative learning. For example, when a concept is discussed, students are invited to visit a website illustrating the concept in question. Consequently, students will also point to other examples (i.e., sites) that demonstrate the case-in-point. This promotes a classroom environment which is stimulating to both students and instructor. Serendipitously, it can also increase material delivery effectiveness.

An important aspect of developing good teachers is the willingness to take risk (Friedmann, 1991). One has to be open to trying new methods and discarding outdated techniques that once worked but are not currently effective with today’s student. It is important to note that having such an interactive teaching paradigm requires instructors to constantly be searching for new material to enhance the classroom experience. The path to developing “good” teachers starts with the understanding that the process is dynamic and cannot be found solely in a textbook’s instructor manual.

**HOW IS GOOD TEACHING BEING REWARDED?**

This part of the session will start off with a review of how good teaching is rewarded at Cal Poly Pomona. Then, participants will provide the pros and cons of rewarding good teaching (e.g., pro: finally rewarding good teachers; con: creating elite class, morale fallout by those excluded).

Attendees to the session will be invited to share how good teaching is rewarded in their institutions. They will also be encouraged to share any innovations they are familiar with in the area of rewarding good teaching.

**References Available on Request.**
A cursory review of academic headlines would suggest that educational institutions can be perceived as formalized, regimented and systematic academic factories rewarding staff and students who conform best to rigid systems that ensure the efficient processing of quantity. However, is this the reality of the situation? Do economic and bureaucratic pressures at best stifle marketing and design excellence, or at their worst actively eradicate innovative inclinations? By case studying a marketing entrepreneurship module within a design school, this discussion takes a satirical and subjective view of five of the “top ten” difficulties encountered when incorporating enterprise and design into a manageable teaching situation. It is hoped that while this will strike a cord with many in the teaching profession, it will also initiate a wider debate concerning the institutional requirements for creative enterprise, and the validity of bureaucratic tensions that impede the natural synergy of marketing, design and entrepreneurship. The paper also reviews current thought from social sciences, marketing, management and economics literature relating to creativity, creative thinking, creative problem solving and entrepreneurship.

Creativity is a complex construct that has numerous definitions depending on the field of study viewing it. Although there may not be one universally agreed upon definition, there is a growing emphasis in marketing and economics literature to the importance of fostering creative thinking and creative problem solving (in its many forms and applications) as key competencies for the 21st century (Fillis, 2005; Robertson & Collins, 2003). Marketers, entrepreneurs and designers are allied in that they operate within turbulent environments that require constant updating or creation of better and/or new customer-centered solutions (Stenstroem, 2000; Titus, 2000). The importance of this ability to develop innovative outputs has been linked with the generation of competitive advantage at individual, organizational and national levels (Cox, 2005; Levitt, 1986).

However, if the economic and social importance of nurturing creativity is not in question, we have to ask: Why are so few government and educational resources placed in facilitating the development of creativity-friendly environs? Surely it is a key responsibility of educators to ensure emphasis is given to nurturing creative inclinations. But it is not easy for today’s bureaucratic educational institutions to balance the need to employ formalized and systematic structures to meet the requirements of transparency and financial viability with the seemingly juxtaposed position of making realistic commitments to developing creative affirming process and environments. Yet highly creative individuals, both staff and students, may not always survive organizational life as conformance to the structure may in itself be at odds with the processes of the creative individual.

REFERENCES


IMPROVING GRADUATE BUSINESS EDUCATION: THREE KEYS FOR CREATING PEAK LEARNING EXPERIENCES

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ABSTRACT

Alignment of core student motivations with instructor pedagogical techniques provides a potent combination for creating peak learning experiences in the classroom. In this study of graduate business students located in a major business center in the southwestern U.S., the authors uncover three core motives associated with a successful career that drive business students to pursue a graduate business education. The research shows how core motives give rise to and explain a network of student needs regarding instructor behaviors and course content.

In this study, students fall into three “core motivation” groups based on their reasons for pursuing a graduate business education and how they feel they will attain success in their business careers. The three groups are (1) obtaining “security and control” in the workplace, (2) making a “positive impression” on others, and (3) achieving personal growth and development so as to “make a difference” on the job and in society as a whole. Roughly one-half of the sample fits into the “security and control” group whereas the remaining students are equally split across the other two “core motivation” groups.

Student responses regarding peak and worst learning experiences fall into four major categories related to course content, course assignments, instructor, and classroom setting. Responses also show a high level of asymmetry between items leading to peak learning experiences and items leading to worst learning experiences.

Within the critically important “security and control” group, peak learning experiences are driven by “relevant and practical content,” and “instructors that deeply care about students.” On the other hand, worst learning experiences among the same group are driven by “instructors that make the class stressful,” “unprofessional instructors appearing inexperienced, unprepared, or disorganized,” and “disinterested instructors.”

Students provide specific cues they link with peak and worst learning experiences. To qualify as a peak experience, students look for current examples and problems that directly relate to their job or career, and instructors that listen respectfully, using cheerful and patient encouragement. Instructors create worst learning experiences by increasing stress through testing unfamiliar material that goes far beyond material introduced in the classroom or homework, showing disinterest by using a monotone voice and being unavailable before and after class, and appearing unprofessional by having unclear class goals, unclear examples or explanations, and acting awkward or nervous.
A NEW MODEL OF EDUCATION FOR INTRODUCTORY LEVEL MARKETING COURSES

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ABSTRACT

In small liberal arts colleges, we have had difficulties using various teaching methods and mentoring approaches for students when we teach introductory marketing courses. The main cause of these problems could be the fact that the mentioned courses are open for students from various majors, years, interests, and backgrounds. Especially, our main challenge has been to consider class management (teaching) as well as individual-level treatment (mentoring) of students.

In this paper, the goal is to propose an educational model to make both teaching and mentoring effective to students from various majors in our introductory marketing courses. To make the model distinctive in this paper, it is called a hybrid education model (HEM). While we have not proven the performance of HEM yet, we think it can be effective for such courses at small liberal arts colleges.

OBJECTIVES OF THIS PAPER

As described, when we teach introductory marketing courses, which have around 45 to 50 students out of a total student population of 1,400, we face a serious challenge of dealing with students from various majors, years, interests, and backgrounds in the same classes. If we exclusively take care of students who are business majors, we may not be able to satisfy other students from different majors. This problem is not only about teaching but also mentoring, and therefore, students from different majors may not get sufficient mentoring from us.

In order to solve these educational dilemmas in our introductory marketing courses, we must consider class management and individual-level treatment of students far more carefully. We will call the class management as teaching and the individual-level treatment of students as mentoring.

INTRODUCTION

While various liberal arts colleges have tried to increase student satisfaction by taking good care of students, such student satisfaction is the core strategic goal for small liberal arts colleges. At small colleges, faculty members have been very thoughtful about student satisfaction through teaching and mentoring activities. Our college with approximately 1,400 total student population is quite the same.

However, we have faced various challenges in increasing the level of student satisfaction. What makes this challenge more difficult is a fundamental nature of the student satisfaction. Generally speaking, these challenges are not about simply teaching the students but also about mentoring them throughout their classes because student satisfaction can be achieved only if we match their needs for teaching and mentoring.

This can be more challenging for lecturers who are constantly teaching introductory marketing courses. Since such introductory courses are open for students from various majors, years, interests, and backgrounds, lecturers have had to carefully use various teaching methods and mentoring approaches for students who have various levels of interests, experience, knowledge, and learning skills.

MARKETING EDUCATION AT LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES

When students with sufficient liberal arts education become marketing managers, they tend to show strong competitive advantages in managerial flexibility in constantly changing marketing environments (Chew & McInnis-Bowers, 2004; Gillmor, 1999). This is because they usually have wider breadths of managerial scope and better basic managerial skills through meaningful connections between liberal arts education and marketing education (Chew & McInnis-Bowers, 2004; Vinten, 2000). We are aware of these benefits; moreover, HEM considers them as crucial factors.
Chew and Mclnnis-Bowers (2004) explained education to create the ability to connect liberal education to business education as blending education. Blending education can develop students’ basic managerial skills such as observation, assessment, flexible adaptation, learning, leadership, and communications. This is also supported by premier commissions such as the Carnegie Foundation and the Ford Foundation. These institutions clearly state that business managers need to learn more basic education in the various fields rather than highly technical marketing skills (Chew & Mclnnis-Bowers, 2004).

Some colleges have already tried blending education in introductory marketing or business courses. For example, Birmingham-Southern College created an introductory business course named, “Foundation of Business Thought.” This is taught by an interdisciplinary faculty team whose members come from the humanities, the sciences, and business. The team teaches business from various perspectives so that students can effectively develop various basic managerial skills such as (1) oral and written communication skills, (2) critical thinking and assessment, (3) a wider scope of business perspectives, (4) a sense of business ethics, (5) global business perspectives, and (6) self-assessment (Chew & Mclnnis-Bowers, 2004).

These learning outcomes are very similar to the key elements of the successful college education which were reported by Light (2004). Such key elements are (1) solid basic concepts, (2) controversy arguments, (3) group homework and group study, (4) group presentation, and (5) group projects.

Light (2004) also mentioned that successful students tended to be self-motivated with strong basic knowledge, and learn material effectively through group activities which students with different backgrounds had to work together. As Light (2004) made the solid basic concepts the first of his key elements, we also think that learning basic concepts is the most critical thing, therefore, a starting point of the blended learning. Exams should be also effectively used to support such basic concept learning in introductory courses.

Myers and Myers (2007) proposed frequent exams to make sure students learn basic concepts well. According to them, frequent exams are very effective since students can focus on narrower areas of study, receive prompt feedback about their basic knowledge, feel more confidence and competence in the subjects, and maintain learning motivation. Edwards (2007) also reported one thing that makes exams effective. He found that self-graded exams allow students to notice their weakness and to maintain learning motivation in a less-stressful learning environments. Therefore, we think that frequent self-graded exams may be highly suitable for our situation.

**STUDENT MENTORING AT LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES**

Effective mentoring is one of the most important components of college education. When mentoring exists, professors can directly support each student in his/her career and professional development. Such support also includes emotional and psychosocial assistance to the students (Cox & Orehovec, 2007). As a result, excellent mentoring can be called a humanization of interactions between faculty members and their students.

Mentoring is the highest and fourth level of interaction between professors and their students. There are four different levels of interaction: non-interaction, functional interaction, personal interaction, and mentoring. In the functional interaction stage, students feel comfortable to ask questions to professors. If functional interaction becomes personal interaction, students tend to start talking about their personal issues and enjoy informal meetings and personal chatting with professors (Cox & Orehovec, 2007). We can see that personal interaction will be a precondition for effective mentoring. In other words, we think that lecturers need to have the ability to (1) start interaction with students at some point, and (2) satisfy the precondition quickly for the effective mentoring.

While we discussed our responsibilities as mentors, successful mentoring relies not only on mentors but also on mentees. Light (2004) discussed six prerequisites that students must satisfy in order to be successful mentees. First, they should be certain about academic and personal meanings of learning. Second, they should know effective time management. In other words, students should be able to have sufficient time to work on their tasks through effective time allocation. Third, they should be able to see things from both short-term and long-term perspectives. Especially, they should be able to determine several short-term goals towards their long-term goals. This includes their ability to design and plan their long-term career development through short-term learning components. Fourth, they should be motivated and encouraged to apply learned knowledge to real situations. Sustainability of
motivation can be strengthened if professors can make student autonomous through hands-off management approaches. Fifth, they should be able to diagnose themselves in order to recognize their own strengths, weakness, opportunities, and threats. Such self-discovery will allow students to make realistic learning goals and career development plans. Finally, they should expect to receive continuous and timely feedback from their lecturers.

EDUCATION COMPONENT OF HEM

HEM is designed to respect various preconditions to make teaching and mentoring effective in our introductory marketing courses in small liberal arts colleges. Therefore, as Figure 1 shows, HEM has both teaching and mentoring components and they go simultaneously throughout an introductory marketing course. This synchronization has been also suggested as a part of marketing education standards by the Texas State Board for Educator Certification (2003). In addition, Figure 2 shows a detailed education component and Figure 3 shows a detailed mentoring component.

The main goals of the education component are to support individual learning of basic marketing concepts and in-class cross-disciplinary group learning activities to master basic concepts and gain some managerial skills.

The individual learning is not simply to read the textbook before and after sessions or to take notes. Rather, this is about establishing self-confidence. That is why HEM recommends self-graded pre- and post-chapter exams that allow students to discover learning levels of basic marketing concepts under less stressful learning conditions.

The pre-chapter exam show all critical concepts of a certain chapter so that students can see lesson points which they will master. The pre-chapter also shows concepts that each student already knows. This allows each student to have some confidence in the chapter. Students see these points better and immediately through self-grading while scores of the pre-chapter exams are not counted into the final grades. This motivates students to learn such concepts actively during sessions.

We use the same exam for the post-chapter exam. By doing this, we expect that students will clearly see how much they have learned. This is very important since they can sustain learning motivation by seeing their learning progress constantly. Scores of the post-chapter exams are counted into the final grades. Naturally, we expect all students get full scores on the post-chapter exams.

We begin the first session of each chapter with overview, learning goals, and key words of the chapter. Then we ask students to take the pre-chapter exams and let them grade their own exams. We carefully go over all the key words and concepts so that our students can learn well and achieve learning goals.

While we go over several key words and concepts, we put these key words and concepts into a few marketing issues for a session. By doing this, we expect that students can comprehensively understand such key words and concepts. For example, our students can learn concepts and keywords of integrated marketing communications when we use a large promotion campaign which has various promotion mix and media mix elements. Therefore, the marketing issues can be found in textbook cases, news articles, VCR cases, real stores, daily shopping, and the lecturers' marketing experiences. During our sessions, we try to be facilitators instead of being teachers in order to let our students learn actively. We believe that marketing can be learned very well when our students can try to connect class materials to their own experiences in marketing. We also try to use easy-to-understand words to explain the concepts and technical terms. By using such words, non-business majors can understand and use the concepts and technical terms appropriately.

We expect that the cross-disciplinary team activities to expand the breadth of marketing knowledge of students by allowing them to exchange various marketing ideas and approaches with other members from different disciplines and with different experiences and interests. Additionally, the members are able to learn basic managerial skills through various group activities which include selecting cases for class discussions, doing a final project, conducting several group studies, preparing for group presentations, preparing for class facilitations, and performing various other class activities.

We expect that in-class cross-disciplinary team learning will let our students (1) digest and master basic marketing concepts which have been individually learned, and (2) learn various marketing approaches to constantly changing marketing environments. We use controlled class activities such as controversy discussions and devil’s advocate. Since team members are required to quickly create team environments and be able to
exchange various opinions and work collectively, we design a few ice-breaking class activities in order to help students with such team environments at the beginning of the course.

On the other hand, we also have out-of-the-class cross-disciplinary team learning to let our students (1) establish meaningful connections among various disciplines and opinions, and (2) learn fundamental managerial skills in organizations. Students are expected to communicate their own ideas and approaches clearly to other students from different backgrounds in the group. Students can learn various managerial skills such as teamwork, leadership, integration of different perspectives and values to their own opinions, constructive conflict and consensus building, and time management.

We continue in-the-class cross-disciplinary team learning until the end of a course. However, in the first half of the course, we create more chances for controlled in-class activities while we will gradually shift the activities to less controlled activities such as group presentations, work out activities, and class facilitations. At the end of the first half of the course, all teams must submit group activities evaluation reports to their lecturer. The lecturer should use the performance reports to directly give suggestions, encouragement, and recognition to each team.

In addition to the performance reports, cross-disciplinary teams are asked to invite the lecturer to their group studies at least four times per course, which will be two times for the first half of the course and another two times for the rest of the course. We are expected to (1) participate in the group studies as a member, and (2) offer direct suggestions and recognition to the groups. This gives us constant chances for mentoring groups.

MENTORING COMPONENT OF HEM

The mentoring component is designed to support students’ self-development throughout the course. Self-development means not only learning basic concepts but also developing career paths and learning skills continuously. Therefore, the main goals of the mentoring component are (1) to give our students appropriate direct assistance for career and learning skill development, and (2) to keep their motivation high throughout the course.

We use the self-leadership approach to keep our students’ motivation constantly at a high level. According to Manz (1992), a self-leader is a continuously self-motivated person who will be very effective not only for managerial success in organizations but also for personal development and self-actualization. In addition, we found that ways to develop self-leadership satisfy various prerequisites for successful college education (Light, 2004). This shows the importance of self-leadership for our project.

As Manz (1992) also stated, each self-leader must have goals for personal accomplishment and the goals should be related to self-motivation, self-determination, self-confidence, self-satisfaction, and self-actualization. To let our students have such goals, we use management by objectives (MBO) which requires clear and challenging goals from both short-term and long-term perspectives, appropriate coaching and controlling plans, visible performance measurements, and timely feedback (Raymond, 2006). In addition, we found MBO effective for increasing levels of responsibility and the commitment of participants to achieve their goals (Odiome, 1992). While MBO is considered a hands-off supervision technique (Odiome, 1991), we have several individual MBO meetings with our students to constantly create occasions for recognition, encouragement, support, and self-confidence.

In order to use MBO effectively, we use MBO sheets which show goals, majors, interests, and career planning. In addition to the items, we ask all students to perform SWOT (strengths, weakness, opportunities, threats) analyses and bring the results with the MBO sheets. SWOT analysis has been used with MBO frequently because knowing the participants’ strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats are expected to help them to make more realistic goals and effective action plans (Williamson, Jenkins, & Moreton, 2003).

In order to be more specific about HEM, we begin the mentoring component with clear instructions about MBO and SWOT analysis for our students. We try to make sure that all students understand appropriate ways and the value of these methods for their career and learning skills development in their courses. Once students complete their MBO sheets, we go over the contents of the sheets with them. Especially, we will make sure that objectives are realistic, challenging, and meaningful.

Our introductory assignment is to let our students make their own goals and perform SWOT analyses. This assignment is due at the first session of the second week. Then, there is the first individual meeting with each student to complete MBO planning together so that each student will have at least clearly defined objectives and action plans.
For SWOT analysis, we make sure that each student honestly conducts self-assessment for the best results. We use strengths and weakness for short-term career development and learning. Recognized strengths can encourage students if we show the strengths as their acquired skills; moreover, we can encourage them to improve weaknesses as short-term motivations. We can also motivate students if we can show opportunities as possible options for their future career and learning plans. In the same manner, we can encourage them when we can show threats as long-term challenges which they should conquer for better career and learning situations.

MBO sheets and SWOT results are the only tools to start our mentoring component. MBO needs continuous monitoring, controlling, supervising, and feedback in order to let participants (1) go through the MBO process, (2) attain their objectives, and (3) be motivated to further developments. Especially, if we want our students to be self-leaders, MBO also needs effective mentoring tools for the self-leaders which will continuously give positive feelings and experiences, visible outcomes and improvement, and stimulation (Manz, 1992).

We will also use the continuous improvement or Kaizen method which is characterized by mini kaizen and kaizen events. The mini kaizen is to support the gradual but constant progress of participants; therefore, this will continue until the end of a course. We expect that this will continuously satisfy MBO’s continuous monitoring, controlling, supervising, and feedback through the plan-do-check-action (PDCA) cycle (Alukal, 2007). The kaizen event is a special workout in order to correct inappropriate situations quickly. The kaizen event should be a collaboration between each mentee and a mentor (Manos, 2007).

As one of the mini kaizen activities, we have biweekly meetings with each student in order to check his/her progress. If the student is doing just fine, the lecturer simply gives recognition, encouragement, and further suggestions as well as small talk about the course, personal experiences, and extracurricular activities. However, when the student is not showing progress or is performing less than initial expectations, we will make a plan and perform the kaizen event with the student in order to correct the situations promptly. By this kaizen event, we expect that the student can achieve the objectives at the end of the course. We think that the kaizen event is not about changing the defined goals but about fixing inappropriate situations together in order to achieve the goals.

At the end of the course, a final MBO meeting with each student is held to evaluate each student’s performance. This final meeting is not about criticizing or grading each student but about evaluating the entire process, making a new SWOT table, setting new goals, giving recognition and congratulations, and showing positive outcomes for each student. We consider this as the most important moment for the lecturer to create high levels of student satisfaction.

**SUMMARY**

We proposed HEM to make teaching and mentoring effective in our introductory marketing courses in small liberal arts colleges. However, HEM is neither a complete education model nor a proven model in order to make both teaching and mentoring effective to our students from various majors in our introductory marketing courses. Therefore, we will finalize HEM and test its performance in our college.

**REFERENCES**


FIGURE 3: Detailed Mentoring Component of HEM
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to better understand student satisfaction with a collegiate living/learning program. Literatures from both the education and services marketing domains, coupled with verbatim accounts generated by student informants during depth interviews, provide theoretical and conceptual support for two antecedents of student satisfaction, namely programming and community-building. The proposed model also considers two intervening factors – whether students know others in the program and gender – that could affect the links between each of the antecedents and satisfaction.

INTRODUCTION

A casual surfing of college websites indicates that collegiate living/learning programs exist at a number of universities, both large and small (e.g., Goucher; Albright; Catholic University of America; the Universities of Michigan, Minnesota, Iowa; and the SUNY system to name a few). An interest clearly exists for educational institutions to provide students with the opportunity to explore the relationship between their curricular and residential life or off-campus living experiences. One way to view a collegiate living/learning program is as an extended service encounter. Students “consume” a series of activities (curricular, extracurricular, residence-based) on a regular basis, over an extended period of time, that provide a number of intangible outcomes (experiences, opportunities for reflection, social bonding, etc.). As a result, student satisfaction should depend, at least in part, on both the various identifiable elements of the living/learning program (i.e., various planned activities and events) and the resultant sense of community that hopefully emerges from these shared activities/events.

This research proposes a simple model that identifies two possible antecedents of student satisfaction with a collegiate living/learning program, namely programming and community-building. Further, the proposed model accounts for two intervening influences – whether students know others in the living/learning program and gender. Research in the education literature (Strange & Banning, 2001), in conjunction with both exploratory and empirical work on extended service encounters in marketing (Arnould & Price, 1993) as well as depth interviews with participants of a living/learning program, provide the background for model development and resultant hypotheses.

MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

Figure 1 presents a model for identifying student satisfaction with a collegiate living/learning program. This model proposes that both programming (directly and indirectly) and community-building are key causes of student satisfaction. Further, the model suggests that both whether students know others in the program and gender can influence the various paths.

Programming

Strange and Banning (2001) discuss the influence of formalization (rules, procedures) in developing effective living/learning environments. However, a danger exists if too many rules (too high a degree of formalization) are in place, because living/learning environments must also be about providing students the opportunities to explore different avenues of thinking and acting. Too many rules make the environment "predictable," which in turn can seriously limit the experience. Arnould and Price (1993) discuss this notion with regard to extraordinary service encounters, where customers may have certain expectations; however, these expectations, formed by service provider messages, are intentionally left vague, so that the individual experiences will be "spontaneous and unrehearsed." Using the theatrical metaphor, the living/learning experience needs a "tangible," well-developed setting in which the actors (students) have many experiences, some predictable, others unexpected (Grove, Fisk, & John, 2000). Programming should create/maintain activities that foster "surprises," i.e., "transcending" the students’ expectations (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). For example,
although students might have expectations with regard to a field trip (e.g., this is what I will see, this is what I will learn), they cannot predict what will result from reflective discussions with one-another (which are informally weaved into the trip). Thus, an effective living/learning program will have some formal procedures, outlining the various opportunities and objectives associated with being part of the program; however, the procedures will also be carefully designed so as not to limit or confine student participation or potential outcomes. Students interviewed in this particular living/learning program talked at great length about the variety of planned activities occurring throughout the course of the year. In addition to academically-based activities, a guest speaker series and a number of culturally-based programming initiatives enabled the students to glean insights into other aspects of their own lives that they would not have thought about prior to being part of this program. As an example, one informant (senior) talked about attending a guest speaker lecture, where the speaker said things that enabled the student to engage with the speaker on a personal level after the event. Although the programming was formalized from the beginning (i.e., students knew this particular speaker was going to be part of the living/learning agenda), the thought-process and discussions that ensued from hearing this speaker were very impromptu, which provided the flexibility for this student to more seriously discuss his interests and vocation.

H1: Programming that formalizes the living/learning program, yet that also provides flexibility to interact with others and engage in a variety of experiences will lead to greater student satisfaction.

Community-Building

A well-developed sense of community enables students to more freely discuss (and compare/contrast) their experiences in the living/learning program. As a result, the social climate becomes an important element of a successful student living/learning program; and in order to create and maintain a healthy social climate, programming is again necessary. Specifically, programming facilitates a positive social climate, i.e., a community, by providing some semblance of order (e.g., formalization), being clear on its expectations, but also being able to facilitate change when needed (Moos, 1979). The residential, classroom and social environments must provide clear rules for students to engage with one another (e.g., attendance at workshops or social functions, working in groups for class projects, etc.), as well as with the various activities and pieces of information available in each of these environments; however, programming must also allow for relationship development and personal growth (Strange & Banning, 2001).

Most of the students interviewed in this particular living/learning program commented positively about how the programming facilitated community-building and relationship development. Comments such as “The program gets you to extend your social circle” (sophomore), and “It [the program] encouraged random people who normally wouldn’t hang out to get together” (sophomore), suggest that careful planning of activities/events also considered how students could become more actively engaged with one another.

H2: Programming that formalizes the living/learning program, yet that also provides flexibility to interact with others and engage in a variety of experiences will lead to greater community-building.

Community-building, in turn should lead to greater student satisfaction. In extraordinary service encounters involving multiple customers who live through the same experience for an extended period of time, the theme of “communion with friends” is quite prevalent (Arnould & Price, 1993). This “communitas” occurs as each member of the group realizes that his/her experience is “shared” with the others, and as a result, each of the other members is an important element for the overall success of the experience. A central theme of living/learning programs is to foster the realization in students that what one learns while at college and how one lives when at college should not be mutually exclusive, i.e., each affects the other. Likewise, those who choose to participate in the living/learning programs are likely to have experiences that are in some way affected by those others who also choose to participate. As one informant (senior) stated, he felt “a sense of comfort with the people who lived there [in the living/learning residential community] … because everyone was very supportive.”

H3: Successful community-building in living/learning programs will lead to greater student satisfaction.

Knowing Others

In extraordinary service encounters, one of the positive outcomes is the community that develops among complete strangers (Arnould & Price, 1993). Contrary to this, college students are likely to apply for living/learning experiences with others whom they know (the exception being living/learning programs established for incoming first-year students). As discussed above, once in a living/learning environment, one’s expectations, experiences and
perhaps even relationships could change dramatically (the notion of flexibility in programming); however, at the outset, it is reasonable to assume that students who know one another will most likely attempt to engage in similar activities, i.e., aggregates are more likely to be the norm, as opposed to individuals (Strange & Banning, 2001).

H4: The programming \(\rightarrow\) student satisfaction link will be greater for those who know others in the living/learning environment.

**Gender**

Considering again the influence of aggregates, certain groups on college campuses tend to bond more quickly and, as a result, become more visible and/or vocal on campus. Some groups automatically become the minority, not necessarily because such groups have fewer numbers but because their groups are not as visible or readily-accepted. With regard to gender, female groups tend to be less visible than male groups on campus (Strange & Banning, 2001), even if the overall student population is more female than male. With regard to living/learning environments, it seems plausible then to suggest that males will find greater satisfaction from the community-building experiences that occur in living/learning environments. Although females might indeed welcome a living/learning environment as an opportunity to more openly develop an “aggregate,” males should have a greater appreciation for this chance to increase their bonds with one-another.

H5: The community-building \(\rightarrow\) student satisfaction link will be greater for male students.

**METHOD**

**The Program**

Interview participants and survey respondents were members of a living/learning program at a small, private east coast school. The program, based in the students’ sophomore year, infuses various social/cultural/spiritual activities and mentoring sessions (with both peers and adults) with academic coursework and lectures. If accepted, students live together in a designated space on the university premises for the entire sophomore year. Many alums of the program continue to participate as facilitators, resident assistants, and peer mentors during their junior and senior years. The entire programming and formatting of this particular living/learning experience revolve around three broad/thematic questions about the student’s “vocation” at this point in his/her life.

**The Sample**

As part of an honors thesis research obligation, a senior marketing student, who was also an alum of the living/learning program, assisted with data collection. In addition to identifying current and past participants of the program to interview (see hypothesis section), she also administered surveys to 35 students in each of the classes that participated in the program (current program students, junior alums, senior alums; \(N = 105\)). Although the commonly recommended minimum sample size is 200 for LISREL models, acceptable models have had as few as five to ten respondents per item measure (Hair et al., 1998). Fifty-five percent of the survey respondents were female, 68 percent of the respondents were arts/sciences majors (other majors include business, engineering and nursing), and approximately 69 percent were involved with at least 3 other extracurricular activities in addition to the living/learning program.

**RESULTS**

**Measures**

Due to a lack of empirical work on this topic, as well as to the variety of collegiate living/learning programs currently in existence (e.g., discipline-specific, faith-based, extracurricular-oriented, etc.), items for the programming and community-building constructs came from the mission and purpose of this particular program. The three satisfaction items were modified from Oliver’s (1999) consumption satisfaction scale. Concerning item reliability, all Cronbach alphas and composite reliabilities (C.R.) were .78 or higher.

Discriminant validity was assessed via two methods. The first method, recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), involves looking at each construct pairing (e.g., programming and community-building), constraining each pairing’s correlation to one, then computing a Chi-square difference between a single-factor and a two-factor model. Discriminant validity is achieved when the Chi-square difference is significant; in the case of all three pairings in this dataset, the differences were significant. The second method, proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981), involves calculating the average variance extracted for each construct and comparing this result to the squared correlations of that construct with each of the other constructs. Discriminant validity is achieved when a construct’s average variance extracted exceeds all its squared correlations with the other constructs. This occurred for all three constructs.
Finally, with regard to common method variance, “CMV” can occur when using the same survey instrument to collect data on both exogenous and endogenous variables. If CMV exists, a model with fewer factors should fit a dataset as well as (or better than) a “more complex” structural model (Podsakoff et al., 2003). A series of Chi-square difference tests, in which the model becomes “more complex” (i.e., gains an additional factor), shows that not only are the changes significant but model fit also increases. For example, a two-factor model generates a Chi-square of 129.94, with 34 degrees of freedom, while the three-factor model generates a Chi-square of 59.01, with 32 degrees of freedom. Although this procedure does not eliminate common method variance, it does indicate that inter-item correlations exist for reasons other than due to method bias (Korsegaard & Roberson, 1995). The various measurement statistics for each item/construct are available in Table 1.

**Structural Model**

The results, obtained from LISREL 8.72, indicate a significant Chi-square ($\chi^2(32) = 59.01, p<.01$) but also a well-fitting model (NFI = .93, NNFI = .95, CFI = .97, IFI = .97). The results support H1, namely that formal, yet flexible programming leads directly to greater student satisfaction ($\gamma = .44, p<.05$). These results also support H2, namely that formal, yet flexible programming fosters community-building ($\gamma = .51, p<.05$). Finally, with regard to community-building leading to greater student satisfaction for the living/learning program, the results support H3 ($\beta = .38, p<.05$).

**Intervening Effects**

Tests for the intervening effects of “knowing others in the program” and gender were performed by conducting multi-group analyses using LISREL 8.72. The results show that the model differs for the “knowing/don’t know” groups but not for the two genders. Further, the results do not support that the specific paths differ between groups, for either the “knowing/don’t know” groups or the two genders. Therefore, in this data, knowing others does not intervene on the Programming $\rightarrow$ Satisfaction path (H4 not supported). Likewise, the results do not support H5 (gender intervening on the Community-building $\rightarrow$ Satisfaction path). However, although the statistical results do not support the hypotheses, the path coefficients for both effects are in the appropriate direction. For example, as hypothesized in H4, the coefficient on the Programming $\rightarrow$ Satisfaction path for those who “know others” (.49) is greater than for those who “don’t know others” (.36). Likewise, with regard to H5, the coefficient on the Community-building $\rightarrow$ Satisfaction path for males (.55) is greater than for females (.26). Perhaps future work, with an increased sample size will lead to more robust and significant multi-group results.

**DISCUSSION**

At the end of their book, Strange and Banning (2001) discuss ways to shape both the physical and academic landscapes, in order to more fully accommodate student living and learning initiatives at the university-level. Although students, for the most part, are able to adapt to changes in these environments, part of the responsibility lies with the university and its ability to provide not only various opportunities for bridging these two environments but also clear (though not rigid) guidelines and programs that facilitate such bridging of environments. Budgets and other resources (e.g., physical space, administrative efforts) can positively or negatively impact living/learning programs; however, based on a cursory scan of various institutional websites, colleges and universities of various sizes continue to develop or maintain living/learning programs. Thus, the timing is perhaps most appropriate to begin looking at whether such programs fulfill the expectations of the students who participate.
The results of this exploratory work suggest that both “effective” programming (i.e., formal, yet flexible) and community-building lead to satisfied students. These antecedents are in-line with both the educational literatures that focus on living/learning environments, as well as the literature in services marketing that focuses on extend service encounters. With regard to programming, while formal rules, procedures and guidelines for running the program are necessary in order to identify its theme and promote its reason for existing, an element of vagueness is also necessary, so that the student participants can take away their own personal experiences. For example, in living/learning-focused classrooms, required readings and examinations should perhaps be tempered with reflective journaling and/or “open” discussions, in which students have the opportunity to not only provide their own views on a particular reading but also be given the chance to pull in “outside” information that might not at first appear relevant. Research in marketing education shows that students learn through multiple methods, and that students who live on campus are “active” learners – i.e., they learn best by doing various activities (Karns, 2006; Morrison, Sweeney, & Heffernan, 2003). Activities that match students’ learning styles (e.g., active learning) provide the students with experiences that foster more positive attitudes (Morrison, Sweeney, & Heffernan, 2003).

In terms of community-building initiatives, simply because the students live together does not necessarily lead to common bonds and relationship development among them. As was discussed earlier, some groups are more likely to take advantage of the community-building opportunities that are implied by being part of a living/learning program. However, effort needs to be made, to insure that various groups (both the majority and minority groupings) have the resources (i.e., programming) to develop bonds with one another. Education is a “co-production” service; neither the student nor the teacher (or facilitator or activity itself) is solely responsible for the learning process (McCollough & Gremler, 1999). Thus, it is imperative for a living/learning program to foster relationship development among its constituents. Only after some time has passed during shared experiences are individuals more likely to realize the importance of and need for others. Returning again to the theatrical metaphor, programming for the living/learning environment must create a “setting” in which various types of individuals have the opportunities to share common experiences. In the classroom, this could be as simple as randomly assigning groups (as opposed to allowing students to choose). In lectures and other planned social/cultural activities, especially those where it is impossible to include the entire living/learning community, perhaps provide some mechanism for randomizing invitations to those who are interested in participating. With regard to the living environment, support opportunities for others to interact with those who they know, while also providing opportunities for new interactions to break individuals out of their “comfort” zones.

These results are biased to a particular living/learning program. Future work needs to perhaps involve some kind of content analysis of existing living/learning programs, in order to identify a larger spectrum of possible antecedents to student satisfaction. A more exhaustive list could in turn lead to more robust (and hopefully generalizable) measures that could be applied to other programs. As stated earlier, with regard to the intervening effects, although the data suggest that the path coefficients are in the right direction, the analyses are not significant. This is most likely due to the small sample size. Future work will benefit from a larger sample size.

Collegiate living/learning programs provide novel ways for students to combine and better understand their curricular and extra-curricular activities while in college. From an institutional perspective, living/learning programs provide a way to market the institution to certain students, who seek out the option of more closely co-mingling their various activities while in college.

REFERENCES


ENGAGING STUDENTS IN MARKETING CLASSES

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ABSTRACT

High levels of student engagement have been linked with better student learning outcomes, such as the quality of their output. Marketing has traditionally been delivered in a teacher-centric model, as opposed to a student-centric model which better encourages independent learning. Important aspects of the latter model are interactivity, active and collaborative learning, and enriching educational experiences. The author has experimented with various aspects of his marketing classes and combined student feedback with findings from focus groups conducted with business students to derive a preliminary model of student engagement. The model was tested via quantitative research and initial analysis reveals tentative support for directly linking elements in the Lecturer’s Approach and Learning Support to the level of student engagement.

INTRODUCTION

Four colleagues from various disciplines in the School of Business won a grant from their university to study student engagement at the undergraduate level. The research aims to establish the level of student engagement and identify the drivers of student engagement. Students specialise in fields such as: accounting, applied economics and finance, entrepreneurship, human resource management, marketing and tourism. Approximately 20 percent of students major in marketing and a high percentage of undergraduate business students, majoring in other disciplines, undertake at least one marketing subject. The findings will be used to shape the School’s learning and teaching efforts across all discipline areas. The paper commences with a brief review of the student engagement literature and proceeds to describe the use and findings of focus groups conducted at the start of the research. Next, the paper outlines how the author, in an attempt to improve student engagement, has experimented with the structure of marketing classes, the delivery of material, and the nature of the assessment tasks. The paper then describes how the findings from the focus groups and the marketing class experimentation were brought together to develop a preliminary model of student engagement. This model was explored via an online survey and early statistical results are reported. The study’s limitations are noted, as well as possible future research directions. The paper concludes with implications for the School of Business.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Two aspects of the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) findings (Kuh, 2001) that appear highly salient to teaching the marketing curricula are: (1) active and collaborative learning, and (2) enriching educational experiences. Businesses want to employ people who have the ability to manage rather than merely having knowledge about management concepts (Cunningham, 1995). As a consequence, business schools should “design a curriculum to assist students” to achieve identifiable outcomes (Wee, Kek, & Kelley, 2003, p.150). Wee et al. believe that problem-based learning (PBL) goes some of the way to achieving the outcomes. They also acknowledge that “The PBL approach is only one way to transform the curriculum…. To produce graduates with the skills required by the business world, marketing educators must first be able to produce self-directed learners” (2003, p.160).

In their study of what constitutes a master teacher, Smart, Kelley, and Conant (2003, p. 77) concurred with earlier studies that teaching success requires, “strong communication skills, a real-world perspective, caring/empathy, an involvement orientation, and organization/preparation.” Further, participants in the study indicated a number of other attributes they believed were crucial to effective teaching and student learning, e.g. interactive lecturing, considerable questioning to lift student involvement, and assessment pieces that “require critical, integrative thinking” (Smart, Kelley, & Conant, 2003, p.77).

Peterson (2001) made an interesting observation: participation is more than “taking part” and class participation may not be the central issue. What may really be relevant is “course participation,” i.e. “readily speaking, thinking, reading, role taking, risk taking, and engaging oneself and others, and it may occur inside or outside the classroom confines” (p.187). Peterson (p.188, citing Warren 1997, p.16) stated that active learning is “the process of making students the center of their learning” and that active learning hones the skills sought by employers. Drawing upon Talbot (1997), Peterson pondered whether college instructors have themselves been sufficiently skilled in the active
learning process to be able to engender it amongst their own students (2001, p.188). Active learning should involve open-ended questions rather than just seeking the “right answer.” That is, questions such as “Was there anything in the readings that surprised you?” and “Was there anything with which you disagreed?” are appropriate.

Providing students with more enriching experiences is another route for marketing educators. Students obtain a deeper understanding when an active learning route is adopted in which they apply concepts in “real-world” tasks (Hamer, 2002). Hamer suggests that “experiential learning techniques can be used to increase the definitional knowledge acquired by students of low and moderate overall performances” (2002, p.32). This student profile may be a fair description of the School of Business student cohort that is the research subject of this paper. Such students “need to be encouraged to elaborate on course materials outside of the class” (Hamer, 2002, p.33).

FOCUS GROUP FINDINGS

Two focus groups were held to garner students’ views on a number of issues. The 22 participating students were randomly selected from the School’s database and the groups were generally representative of the major study areas and other categorical factors. Generally, students had taken at least one marketing subject and over half had taken more. The critical issues raised in the groups were students’ perspectives on how engaged they believed they were, what factors drove engagement levels, and what they believed the School could do to improve their engagement.

Students stated that they wanted to be engaged. Generally, students felt that they were engaged and that the following factors engendered an environment that improves engagement in the classroom setting:

- Smaller lecture sizes (less than 100 students) and smaller tutorial numbers (less than 15 students). The belief is that smaller student numbers will result in the lecturer (and tutors) making the effort to learn their names which in turn aids interaction.
- A lecture environment that is informal (the lecturer’s approach is relaxed) and non-judgemental (not embarrassed if a wrong answer was provided) and which therefore, provides students with the opportunity and confidence to ask questions or respond to the lecturer’s requests.
- The lecturer adds value to the lecture notes rather than reads from the notes which are normally available for download, prior to the class. Adding value can be demonstrated by the lecturer relating the theory from the text to a current market event.
- The allocation of time in the lecture to undertake exercises such as a small case study which is then discussed by the entire class.

Students also listed a number of uncontrollable factors, as seen from their point of view, which impinge upon their engagement levels. Many students believe inappropriate timetabling hampers their motivation. For example, whilst the lecture period may be on a Monday, their one-hour tutorial may be on a Thursday morning. If this is the only class they have for that day, many will make the choice to stay home, go to their part-time job, or work on any assignments that are due. Furthermore, the engagement level can also be shaped by the nature of assignments and the nature of the feedback on assignment performance. Students in final year marketing subjects expect assignments to be more practical than theoretical – they want to apply their knowledge and develop skills that they believe they will use in the workforce. With respect to assignment feedback, students noted the variance between the practices of different lecturers – their preference is for specific feedback on what aspects earn marks and those that cost them marks. This “outcomes” orientation is contradictory to Cunningham’s proposition (1995) about the qualities businesses require in staff, e.g. the process for deriving a solution is also important. Finally, group work has a bearing on engagement levels. A well managed group generally attains a higher grade and students seek to form groups with students they trust to contribute their share, in terms of quantity and quality. Groups that suffer from negative aspects, such as poor meeting attendance and language barriers, result in one or two members feeling aggrieved at carrying the group. Consequently, whilst they contribute beyond their fair share for that assignment, they appear to carry some resentment towards future group assignments. Not surprisingly, their level of engagement appears to fall in subjects that have group work as a major part of the overall grading.

STRUCTURE AND DELIVERY OF MARKETING CLASSES

The standard weekly undergraduate marketing class at the author’s university consists of a two-hour lecture plus a one-hour tutorial. In this format the aim of the lecture is to provide information from the prescribed text, whereas the tutorial is used to answer set questions and discuss relevant issues that tend to arise from the lecture. Assignments, be they individual
or group, are undertaken outside of these class times. A significant issue with group assignments is the ability of students to arrange suitable meeting times, be they on-campus or off-campus meetings. This is an outcome of the nature of today’s student cohort where many students hold at least one part-time job and many students travel considerable distances to attend the campus.

At the end of a teaching period, students provide feedback via the university’s Student Evaluation of Teaching and Student Evaluation of the Unit surveys. In response, the author has experimented over the past 24 months with the following class structure for advanced marketing subjects in an endeavour to lift student engagement:

- Lectures include significant opportunities for class interaction, e.g. students form groups to discuss a small case or respond to a set task, and then present to the class to generate discussion. In effect, a tutorial component is embedded in the lecture.

- Tutorials are principally allocated to group assignments (up to 50 percent of the subject’s marks). This provides the lecturer the opportunity to monitor each group’s progress on a weekly basis and respond immediately to their information/clarification requests. Occasionally, an issue from the lecture may be introduced, but generally the focus is on providing students with the direction they need to explore and apply the concepts that satisfy the assignment requirements. The lecturer stresses that the analytical processes the students adopt to tackle the assignment are as important as the final report.

Individual assignments in these subjects consist of a reflection paper where students are required to document their baseline knowledge of the subject prior to undertaking the subject, how they had previously learnt marketing and their prior experiences with group projects in marketing and other business subjects. Added to those elements, students highlight what major aspects they have learnt, but more importantly, they are asked to reflect on various aspects of the learning environment. For example, does the new class structure engage them more effectively than the standard class structure, and does it provide them with the motivation to be more self-directed in their learning.

**FEEDBACK FROM REFLECTION PAPERS**

The vast majority of students’ comments fell into two major categories: (1) the lecture structure; and, (2) group work in tutorials. With respect to describing the lectures, a frequently used word was “interactive” which was then followed by what they saw were the outcomes of this interactivity: (1) it helped their listening and learning, (2) kept them focused, (3) made the lecture more interesting, (4) gave them the opportunity to apply theory, and (5) they learnt from a larger cohort of fellow students. It is best summed up by one marketing student when he wrote: “the more you involve yourself, the more you will actually get out of the subject.” Whilst the move away from a teacher-centric delivery mode is generally welcomed, some students wrote that they initially found the environment “confronting” – they feared not knowing the answer if asked a question.

The favourable aspects of allocating tutorial time to group work were: (1) students felt compelled to make progress on a regular basis, (2) they obtained an immediate response from the lecturer/tutor on various issues, (3) they felt that they were applying the theory that was covered in lectures, and (4) it helped alleviate the difficulties of balancing work-life issues. However, a few students believe that some tutorial time should be allocated to revising major topics covered in lectures as their exposure during the lecture was insufficient for their needs.

**PRELIMINARY MODEL OF STUDENT ENGAGEMENT**

Findings from the literature review, focus group output and feedback from student reflection papers were combined to develop a list of issues which were then sorted into the following major Learning Environment categories: the Instructor’s Approach, Class Structure and Nature of Assignments, Institutional Factors, and Personal Factors. These categories formed the basis of the Preliminary Model of Student Engagement (Figure 1) and then they evolved into the major sections (with some minor word changes), in the online survey.

**FIGURE 1**

**Preliminary Model Of Student Engagement**
ONLINE SURVEY ADMINISTRATION

An online survey was chosen as the best means to encourage student participation. The major sections in the survey were: the Lecturer’s Approach (nine items), Class Structure and Assignments (18 items), Learning Support Issues (12 items), Personal Application (two items), Personal Feelings (seven items) and Background Information (14 items). In addition, at the end of each section students had the opportunity to make further comments. The students were also asked to rate their level of engagement during the current teaching period. On enrollment, students are provided with a university email address and the administration system generated around 400 names and contact details. Researchers were aware that approximately 100 or so names were missing but circumstances were such that there was no opportunity to compile a more complete list. Students were emailed requesting them to visit a designated website to complete the survey. Colleagues were asked to promote the survey during classes and posters were attached to School’s internal and external walls. Incentives were offered for their participation, i.e., students were entered into a number of prize draws depending upon how rapidly they responded. The survey was available for six weeks. Unfortunately, due to factors outside the researchers’ control, these weeks coincided with end-of-term assignments and exam preparation. The aims of the survey were to investigate the suggested relationships indicated in the aforementioned Preliminary Model of Student Engagement. For example, what is the relative importance across the Learning Environment factors, and also what elements within each factor are significant in determining student engagement?

SURVEY FINDINGS

Sixty seven (approximately 17 percent) of students emailed completed the survey. Another 18 students completed the survey but their answers were discarded due to the extent of missing responses. To help better understand the reasons for the low response rate, the author spoke to students from his classes and they indicated that they have personal email addresses with other Internet providers and they never bother to access the university email system. In addition, the end-of-term assignment and exam preparation load resulted in students foregoing what they considered to be ‘non-essential’ activities. The response rate may also simply reflect the engagement levels of many students.

Nevertheless, the author believes that there are some insights that warrant further investigation to enhance the School’s learning and teach program. The major survey sections had the following rating scales.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Sections</th>
<th>Rating Scales</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engagement</td>
<td>Not engaged (1) to Totally engaged (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer’s Approach</td>
<td>Not at all important (1), Only slightly important (2), Generally important (3), Definitely important (4) and Extremely important (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Structure and Assignments</td>
<td>Strongly agree (1), Moderately agree (2), Neither agree nor disagree (3), Moderately disagree (4) and Strongly disagree (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Support</td>
<td>Strongly agree (1), Moderately agree (2), Neither agree nor disagree (3), Moderately disagree (4) and Strongly disagree (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Feelings</td>
<td>Very poor (1), Poor (2), Average (3), Good (4) and Very good (5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean rating for the level of engagement was 3.37 with a standard deviation (SD) of 0.935 – the mean score was not statistically significant (at the 05 level) from the author’s expectations gleaned from the focus groups. Important elements to the Lecturer’s Approach appear to be:

• The lecturer’s ability to deliver the material “without just reading from the slides” (mean = 4.60).
• The lecturer adds value with practical applications (4.33).
• A non-judgemental environment is created (4.31).

T-tests revealed these to be statistically significant (at the 05 level). The last two aspects were specifically mentioned in the focus groups.

With respect to Class Structure and Assignments, students agreed that:

• There is an advantage when the lecturer is also the tutor (1.60).
• Group assignments should be a maximum of 40 percent of a subject’s total marks (1.76).
• Tutorials should be limited to a maximum of 15 students (1.90).
• Group assignments are not necessary in every subject (2.01).

T-tests revealed these to be statistically significant (at the 05 level). Again, the benefits of small tutorial classes were raised in the focus groups and the angst
caused by group assignments was raised in the focus groups and reflection papers.

When asked to indicate their level of agreement to twelve Learning Support Issues, students agreed that:
- The library should carry more copies of the required texts (1.45).
- The library should have the latest texts (1.49).
- The school needs a person dedicated to providing advice about courses and subjects (1.58).

T-tests revealed these to be statistically significant (at the 05 level). Many focus group participants raised the issue of their frustration with obtaining conflicting and/or wrong advice about their courses from administrators within the School.

Students felt positively about:
- Lecture content (4.09).
- Support obtained from lecturers (3.97).
- How lectures were delivered (3.79).

Again, t-tests revealed these to be statistically significant (at the 05 level). These findings are at odds with comments made during the focus groups where students tended to raise negative aspects of their learning experiences. Perhaps this raises questions as to how representative the respondents are to the overall student cohort – it is not unreasonable to speculate that students who responded would be those that are more engaged and, therefore, have had more positive learning experiences.

LIMITATIONS

At the commencement of the research, assumptions were made by the author (and his research colleagues). For instance, it was expected that the researchers would be able to divide the students into their respective areas of specialisations to discover the varying levels of, and drivers of engagement across academic specialisations. The poor response rate undermines the ability to conduct this more in-depth and rigorous analysis and limits the ability to generalise the findings to the total student cohort.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Despite the lower than expected response rate, a more complete statistical analysis is being undertaken and the author is currently investigating the existence of any statistically significant relationships between the students’ level of engagement and the Learning Environment factors and the major elements therein. One-on-one in-depth interviews with students are being considered to follow-up on issues such as the discrepancy between the favourable rating of lectures in the survey and the negative opinions expressed in the focus groups. In addition, the author will attempt to recruit students who did not participate to establish why, and to determine the extent respondents and non-respondents differ.

The intention is to administer the survey again in 2008. Consequently, there is a need to put in place procedures to capture the relevant student email addresses, administer the survey during a period that is more conducive to completion and perhaps use a more traditional research instrument such as a self-administered questionnaire that can be completed within a classroom setting.

CONCLUSIONS

The findings from the focus groups and online survey reveal that the Instructor’s Approach, Class and Assignment Structure, Learning Support and Personal Factors appear to affect student engagement. Critical aspects are, e.g., how the lecturer delivers the lecture, how the lecturer adds value in lectures, the place and importance attached to group assignments and course advice provided to students. The School of Business now has some informed bases upon which to develop and enhance its learning and teaching initiatives across the various disciplines. In addition, these findings, when coupled with the positive student reflections with respect to the changes the author has made to his marketing classes, can be taken into account when considering the structure, content and delivery of other marketing subjects offered by the School.

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SOCIOLOGY, ECONOMICS, POLITICS, AND RELIGION: SUCCESS OF MARKETING STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

As marketing educators, we are facing more challenges than ever as accrediting agencies are increasing the pressure to assess learning outcomes and allegations of dishonest business practices are increasing. Are our students receiving our best efforts to prepare them for the real marketing and ethical challenges they will face on the job? Before we can ensure we are providing the best education possible, we must do our best to understand our students more fully. This study identifies factors related to sociology, economics, politics, and religion/spirituality in a comprehensive model to help explain student performance. The results indicate that sociological factors, such as a student’s charitable involvement, professional ambition, and materialism are significant contributing factors. In addition, the study shows political party affiliation, academic major, and religiosity/spirituality to be contributing factors to a student’s academic performance.

INTRODUCTION

The view that business education needs to be revised and revamped has become more noticeable since the turn of the century, with much attention being focused recently on business education due to the rash of businesses being exposed for engaging in unethical business practices (e.g., Leavitt, 1989). Business schools must adjust their curriculum to deal with an environment that requires employees to ethically maximize profits. In addition, the curriculum must 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.

Marketing professors today must therefore accept the responsibility of providing students with the 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 characteristics of our students that lead to outstanding academic performance is essential for us to have the greatest and most permanent impact on business students during the few short months when we may have an influence upon them.

Various recent studies show the positive impact of a person’s religiosity and/or spirituality on his/her ethical inclination, leadership effectiveness, and success of entire organizations (e.g., George, 2006; Reave, 2005; Sheep, 2006; Steingard, 2005; Terpstra et al., 1993). In fact, employees are reported to have a need for, and even yearn for, spirituality in the workplace (Hart & Brady, 2005; Marques, 2005). Though bringing religious and/or spiritual ideas into the classroom may not be appropriate, it is important to examine these concepts’ impact on the academic performance of our marketing students. In fact, in the face of mounting evidence that business students are among the most unethical of all university students (e.g., Blalock, 1996), understanding the impact of these concepts may even be critical. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to identify factors from sociology, economics, and politics that may impact the level of student religiosity/spirituality, and then to assess the impact of religiosity and spirituality upon academic performance.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is great variation regarding the concepts of religiosity and spirituality in the literature. In fact, many writers urge academic counselors and advisors to recognize the need to assess and ascertain the role these variables have in predicting the future academic success of students (Cook et al., 2000). Also, many studies claim to demonstrate a distinction between religiosity and spirituality, resulting in differences in how they influence people’s behavior. Religion is often defined as an institutionalized system of attitudes, beliefs, and practices through which people manifest their faith and devotion to an ultimate reality or deity (Kelly, 1995). It is expressed in such world religions as Judaism, Christianity, Islam, Hinduism, Buddhism, Confucianism, and Taoism. As an extension, religiosity is defined as a person’s degree of adherence to the beliefs, doctrines, and practices of a particular religion (Jagers & Smith, 1996; Mattis, 1997). The reasons for a person to be devoted to such an organized religion may be social, ambition, etc., and may have nothing to do with a person’s actual spiritual beliefs in a greater power.
On the other hand, spirituality has been defined as a more inclusive concept for describing an individual’s personal relationship with a higher power (George et al., 2000). One’s spirituality may or may not encompass membership in a particular religious organization, but is manifested in truly believing in a higher power and acting spiritually rather than just going through the physical motions of being active in an organized religion (Taylor et al., 1996). One study suggests that religiosity, without spirituality, has a negative influence on a person’s behavior. On the other hand, if a person possesses spirituality, even if they are not active in an organized religion, he/she behaves more ethically and socially responsible (Collins & Kakabadse, 2006). However, most relevant studies treat religiosity and spirituality the same, without attempting to distinguish between them.

Some studies show demographics, or the statistical characteristics of human populations, to be related to a person’s spirituality and/or religiosity. For example, one study found age, gender, and number of children linked to religiosity, with voluntarily childless women between the ages of 35 and 44 demonstrating the lowest level of religiosity compared with other women (Abma & Martinez, 2006). Another study found a person’s perceived level of health to be a predictor of both his/her religiosity and spirituality (Zullig et al., 2006).

An additional study develops a spirituality typology that is applicable to all organizations and includes four organizational types: soulful organizations, holistic organizations, ascetic organizations, and professional organizations (Cunha et al., 2006). An additional study provides a religious perspective by suggesting that God should be considered a managerial stakeholder in any organization whose primary managers believe in God (Schwartz, 2006). Indeed, it is suggested that a program of spirituality be applied to business organizations at various stages and levels (Marques, 2006). Further, research also suggests that higher religiosity or spirituality results in higher ethical standards in the business-related matters (e.g., Bhal & Debnath, 2006; Torger, 2006).

Other studies indicate that the positive effects of spirituality/religiosity among top management of business organizations are not reserved to those believing in Christianity (e.g., Beekun & Badawi, 2005; Rice, 2006). Whether a person is Christian, Muslim, Jewish, Hindu, Buddhist, etc., should not be important, as long as the person is spiritual and/or religious. In general, Americans define themselves as religious or spiritual, regardless of their actual religion. According to a New York Times poll and a Gallup poll, 81 percent believe that some part of themselves survives after death; 80 percent pray, and 30 percent have meditated or practiced yoga; 60 percent say religion is very important in their lives; 86 percent believe in God, and an additional nine percent in a universal spirit or higher power; 54 percent call themselves “religious,” and another 30 percent “spiritual, but not religious;” and 67 percent claim to attend religious services at least once per month (Ball et al., 2001).

Identifying crucial factors outside the actual business education students are receiving may be the key to understanding both business student success while obtaining their education and their ethical behavior in the business world after graduating. Albaum and Peterson (2006) found that business students who reported more religious tendencies received better grades and showed more inclination toward ethical behavior.

**HYPOTHESES**

Following are hypotheses suggesting that factors from sociology, economics, politics, and education have an impact on student religiosity and spirituality. The religiosity and spirituality of a student is then predicted to positively influence student’s performance in the classroom.

- **H1a**: The higher a student’s charitable involvement, the higher will be his/her level of religiosity.
- **H1b**: The higher a student’s charitable involvement, the higher will be his/her level of spirituality.
- **H2a**: The higher a student’s professional ambition, the higher will be his/her level of religiosity.
- **H2b**: The higher a student’s professional ambition, the lower will be his/her level of spirituality.
- **H3a**: The higher a student’s risk aversion, the lower will be his/her level of religiosity.
- **H3b**: The higher a student’s risk aversion, the higher will be his/her level of spirituality.
- **H4a**: The higher a student’s materialism, the higher will be his/her level of religiosity.
- **H4b**: The higher a student’s materialism, the lower will be his/her level of spirituality.
- **H5a**: The higher a student’s level of self sufficiency, the lower will be his/her level of religiosity.
- **H5b**: The higher a student’s level of self sufficiency, the higher will be his/her level of spirituality. 
- **H6a**: The higher a student’s income, the higher will be his/her level of religiosity.
- **H6b**: The higher a student’s income, the lower will be his/her level of spirituality.
- **H7a**: The higher a student’s financial concerns, the lower will be his/her level of religiosity.
- **H7b**: The higher a student’s financial concerns, the higher will be his/her level of spirituality.
- **H8a**: The more a student works while going to school, the lower will be his/her level of religiosity.
H₈b: The more a student works while going to school, the higher will be his/her level of spirituality.

H₉b: A student’s political party affiliation influences his or her level of religiosity, with those affiliated with the Republican Party being more religious than members of other political parties.

H₉a: A student’s political party affiliation does not influence his or her level of spirituality.

H₁₀b: Students in different majors will have different levels of religiosity.

H₁₀a: Students in different majors will have different levels of religiosity.

H₁₁a: The higher the level of a student’s religiosity, the higher will be his or her GPA.

H₁₁b: The higher the level of a student’s spirituality, the higher will be his or her GPA.

**METHODOLOGY**

Data were collected from 116 undergraduate students enrolled in marketing and management classes at a major university located in the southwestern United States. This sample included students who had the following characteristics: they were 39.7 percent male and 60.3 percent female; they were 20-40 years old; they were 60.3 percent Caucasian, 31.0 percent Hispanic, and 8.6 percent other; they had $0-$150,000 in self-reported annual income; they were marketing majors (36.2 percent), management majors (24.1 percent), general business majors (15.5 percent), finance majors (3.4 percent), accounting majors (11.2 percent), and non-business majors (8.6 percent); and they were 50.9 percent Republican, 19.0 percent Democrat, 15.5 percent Independent, and 12.9 percent other.

The questionnaire was administered on a voluntary basis as possible extra credit to students. They were given several days to complete it. The items on the questionnaire included single-item measures for income, financial concerns, political party affiliation, academic major, and GPA.

Charitable involvement, professional ambition, risk aversion, materialism, self sufficiency, working while attending school, religiosity, and spirituality were all measured by multiple item measures. Charitable involvement was measured using seven items with a reliability of α = .72 (Cronbach, 1951). Professional ambition was measured using eight items with a reliability of α = .80. Risk aversion was measured using three items with a reliability of α = .60. Materialism was measured using five items with a reliability of α = .80. Self sufficiency was measured using four items with a reliability of α = .75. Religiosity was measured using three items with a reliability of α = .35. Finally, spirituality was measured using six items with a reliability of α = .87.

The scales used to measure charitable involvement, professional ambition, working while attending school, religiosity, and spirituality were derived from an ongoing study being conducted at UCLA about college students’ beliefs and values (UCLA Study, 2005). The scale used to measure risk aversion was derived from a previously used measure that included nine items (Price & Ridgway, 1983). The scale used to measure materialism was derived from a previously used measure that included six items (Moschis, 1978). Finally, the scale used to measure self sufficiency was derived from a previously used measure that included six items (Raskin & Terry, 1988).

Note that several of the multiple-item measures are reliable (Cronbach’s alpha ≥ .60), making them suitable to be used to test the hypotheses. However, religiosity has a low reliability. Considering the exploratory nature of this study, the analyses of the hypothesized relationships were conducted, despite this weak measure.

**RESULTS**

To examine the hypotheses in this study, both t-tests and logistical regression were used. The results are summarized in Table 1. The first pair of hypotheses assesses the impact of a student’s charitable involvement on his/her religiosity and spirituality. Results show statistical significance for both of these hypothesized relationships. In other words, the higher a student’s charitable involvement the higher will be both his/her religiosity (t = 2.496, p < .05) and spirituality (t = 1.976, p < .10). Thus, H₁ is fully supported.

The second pair of hypotheses predicts that a student’s professional ambition will impact religiosity positively and spirituality negatively. Analysis reveals professional ambition has no influence on religiosity. However, it does influence students’ spirituality, as predicted (t = 2.997, p < .01). Thus, H₂ is partially supported.

The third set of hypotheses suggests that a student’s risk aversion impacts his or her religiosity and spirituality. However, statistical analysis fails to indicate an effect. Thus, H₃ is not supported.

The fourth hypothesis predicts that the materialism of students influences their religiosity and spirituality. Analysis reveals materialism has no influence on religiosity. However, it does influence students’ spirituality, as predicted (t = 1.931, p < .10). Thus, H₄ is partially supported.
The final set of hypotheses predicting the impact of sociological factors on the religiosity and spirituality of students suggests that self-sufficiency has an affect. However, statistical analysis fails to indicate any effects. Thus, H₅ is not supported.

The next three pairs of hypotheses suggest certain economic factors have an impact on student religiosity and spirituality. However, statistical analysis fails to reveal influence from any of the economic factors on a student’s religiosity or spirituality. Thus, H₆, H₇, and H₈ are not supported.

The ninth set of hypotheses predicts that political party affiliation does not influence a person’s spirituality (H₉b). As can be seen in Table 1, this hypothesis was fully supported. However, H₉a predicts that members of the Republican Party are more religious than are members of other political parties. The data collected allowed comparisons of the effects of being a Republican, Democrat, Independent, or others on a person’s religiosity. As predicted, Republicans are more religious than Democrats (F = 2.412, p < .10), but are not more religious than members of the other political groups. Another difference found in these comparisons was that Independents are more religious than are Democrats (F = 3.179, p ≤ .10). Thus H₉a is partially supported.

The tenth set of predictions hypothesize that since different types of students are attracted to different majors, and that a student’s major will impact his/her religiosity and spirituality. H₁₀a is partially supported because the analyses show that marketing majors are more religious than are non-business majors (F = 2.781, p ≤ .10) and non-business majors are more religious than are accounting majors (F = 2.759, p ≤ .10). In addition, marketing majors are more spiritual than are management majors (F = 4.489, p < .05); accounting majors are more spiritual than are management majors (F = 5.628, p < .05); and general business majors are more spiritual than are accounting majors (F = 3.312, p ≤ .10). Thus, H₁₀a is partially supported.

The final set of hypotheses in this study predicts that both a student’s religiosity and spirituality impact that student’s GPA. No support was found for spirituality having an impact (H₁₁b). On the other hand, analysis clearly indicates that students’ religiosity impacts their GPA (t = -2.195, p ≤ .05). However, the finding is opposite of the prediction; thus, H₁₁ is not supported.

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

Among the sociological factors, only charitable involvement impacted a student’s religiosity as predicted. Opportunities for charitable involvement are often available in social settings by being active in organized religions. The t-values on the impact of some of the other sociological factors (professional ambition, materialism, and self-sufficiency) on religiosity were nearly large enough to be significant and a larger sample size may result in more of the hypotheses being significant. One implication for professors of these students is that opportunities for service learning or even requirements for community service may be important in raising student religiosity and thus their academic performance.

Several sociological factors had an influence on student spirituality. These factors include charitable involvement, professional ambition, and materialism. Professional ambition and materialism proved to have a negative impact on spirituality, while charitable involvement has a positive impact. These findings support the notion that spirituality is a deeper human quality that appears to transcend a person’s desire for achievement in other areas, such as professional ambition and materialism. The positive impact of charitable involvement is likely because of a person’s more altruistic desire to be charitable, rather than his/her desire for social involvement, as might be the case in religiosity. The implications for professors of these students and charitable involvement are the same as above in the discussion about religiosity. However, the significant findings about the impact of professional ambition and materialism may help explain the findings on the negative influence of religiosity on a business student’s academic performance. It is conceivable that a majority of students majoring in business are motivated by the possibility of making money, thus coming into colleges of business with professional ambition and some materialism. Since these concepts negatively impact religiosity, it makes sense that religiosity among business students would negatively impact business students’ GPA.

Economic factors did not significantly impact religiosity or spirituality. It is possible that many students have not had enough life experience to integrate religiosity and/or spirituality into their lives. If such is the case, the findings make sense in that the students have not made the connection between their religious or spiritual beliefs to other significant factors in their lives. Many of them will make these connections in later life and research is beginning to indicate the important of religion and spirituality in the performance of businesses.

An individual’s politics do not influence his/her spirituality; however, politics do appear to influence a person’s religiosity. Both of these findings were as predicted by the study’s hypotheses. Republicans
As predicted, majors appear to attract different types of people, or the majors themselves may contribute to a person’s spirituality and religiosity. It appears that the least spiritual students are management majors because both marketing and accounting students are significantly more spiritual than are management majors. Further, it appears that accounting students are less religious than are any of the other majors assessed in this study in that marketing majors are significantly more religious than are non-business majors and accounting students are less spiritual than are non-business majors.

References Available on Request.
ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

The service industry continues to undergo revolutionary change. It incessantly affects the way we exist. As new services are launched, the call to a more creative and responsive way of marketing these services continues to be a challenge to industry practitioners. What is more challenging is for educators to impart a more standard and effective way of teaching Services Marketing.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This special topic explores and integrates two issues relative to marketing education: innovation in the traditional teaching method as applied in the classroom, and measuring student performance using authentic assessment. The study investigates the effectiveness of industry-based academic exchange as an alternative in carrying out the teaching-learning process of Services Marketing. It underscores community participation of well-known key leaders as they share their experiences in industry, highlighting their best practices. The method also highlights academic exchange, building up a firsthand debate that concerns issues within the realm of the foresaid service.

Respondents to this research covered two sets. The first set of respondents included faculty members from the Marketing Department who teach Services Marketing, marketing heads of the university, research professors, and test and measurement professors. They were evaluator-participants in assessing the proposed assessment tool. The second set of respondents were marketing students who evaluated the effectiveness of the industry-based academic exchange as an alternative teaching method in Services Marketing via the proposed assessment tool.

PARTICIPATING ORGANIZATIONS

For the industry-academic exchange, marketing practitioners and business tycoons were invited by the students to bring life to various issues and topics relative to Services Marketing. Twelve renowned organizations from both the public and private sectors based in the Philippines and Southeast Asia delved into real services marketing issues, to wit: Universal Robina Corporation, Philippine National Bank, Rizal Commercial Banking Corporation, Coca Cola Philippines, Unionbank, House of David Group of Companies, Clark Development Corporation, Clark Bureau of Customs, PT Medion Indonesia and Medilea Incorporated Philippines, Department of Trade and Industry Central Luzon, Beyond Essence Creative Group, and Grand Palazzo Royale.

Marketing practitioners, marketing educators, and marketing students provide the vital triangulation that will assess, evaluate, develop and discuss real topics, issues and practices in Services Marketing.

REFERENCES


CROSS-CULTURAL APPROACHES TO SUCCESSFUL FAST FOODS INDUSTRY: THE PHILIPPINE EXPERIENCE

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ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

Three key elements of the marketing mix: (a) satisfying our customers, (b) delighting our customers, and (c) surprising our customers, have their prominent place in the food industry's competitive arena. Economic-social-cultural differences of food customers greatly affect marketing strategies to generate positive responses for greater profitability. Service innovations may have nothing to do with the taste of the food, nor of the satisfaction of the food palates of the customers. And yet sales figures will show that they greatly improved the marketing lot of the Filipino food industries.

New dining concepts, ambience, musical renditions while eating, the use of chopsticks or even bare hands rather than the traditional fork and spoon for dining, service crews donned in their national costumes, greetings in different languages or dialects, dining plates and other utensils, and food presentation or serving sizes do not actually affect the savor of the foods, but they do increase cravings.

The balanced choice for products, price, place, promotions, and place aimed at primarily satisfying customers' needs and wants has gone far beyond that of satisfying the craving palate of food enthusiasts. Surprising food customers with product offerings that go beyond normal expectations can be done beyond just getting market share from a segment.

WHAT'S IN A NAME?

Love of country, or patriotism and nationalism, need not be put at stake while one enjoys the bounty of well-prepared dining offerings and amenities. For behind the success of the food industry is the booming of tourism and other services. Saisaki Japanese Restaurant and Sushi Bar, Kimchi, Tong-Yang, Chowking, Kenny Rogers, Magoo's Pizza, Pho Bac Vietnamese Specialties, Congo Grille, Grappa's Ristorante, Kowloon House, Cowboy Grill, Burgoo American Bar and Restaurant, Gulliver's of San Francisco in Makati, and Sukhothai Authentic Thai Cuisine may put you in an atmosphere beyond your wildest imagination as you partake of the finest cuisine served in the warm oriental hospitality and elegance of the midwest.

POINTS OF SUCCESS

The Filipino food taste has gone beyond enjoying the varied delicacies which are specialty offerings of the different provinces of the Philippines. It is general knowledge that the Philippine food and restaurant business has included varieties not common to the Filipino palate. Surprisingly, one may find in Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, American, and Italian restaurants Filipinos, not just foreigners, lining up to get a taste of international cuisine at premium prices. Filipinos who have traveled a lot for business or pleasure find themselves longing for foods they have tasted. Thus, people crave pasta, noodles, California maki, Peking Duck, Shabu-shabu, Angus beef, America's steaks, Korean Kimchi, and a variety of continental and oriental food array making the Philippine restaurant and fast foods industry a showcase of international foods. Buffet menu selections are more than mere tasty foods. Culinary artistry has gone beyond satisfying just mouth appetite. The Filipino fast foods industry has mastered the skills and artistry of satisfying the connoisseurs' appetites.

CONCLUSION

The success stories of most fast foods chains having attained market leader status in their respective market segments reveal that quality product offerings using premium pricing strategies has not
sacrificed market positioning. In the Philippines they have more than boosted the tourism industry. Increased employment, a renewal of the food production and manufacturing industries, more collegiate program offerings, and continued strengthening of the transportation and communications industries are expectations met in light of the more competitive and demand-driven food industry.

REFERENCES


STRENGTHENING THE MARKETING CURRICULUM AND STUDENTS’ EMPLOYMENT PREPAREDNESS THROUGH THE OJT (ON-THE-JOB-TRAINING) PROGRAM

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ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

The role of the on-the-job-training (OJT) or practicum program in assessing marketing students’ preparedness to meet the challenges of the marketing world cannot be undermined. OJT programs transform marketing principles into actual practice in a business environment. Continuous monitoring of the program through strengthened industry linkages will enhance the marketing program using a strength-weakness-opportunities-threats (SWOT) analysis. A six-unit course, the practicum program is offered only during summer.

THE PROGRAM AND STANDARDS

The marketing program under the College of Business Administration requires that senior marketing students undergo an on-the-job-training program, also known as a practicum program, before they can graduate. Under the program, the student is required to complete 200 hours of actual training in a company of his/her choice upon proper recommendation by the department chair and the dean of the college. A research study about the business organization is also expected to be submitted. Advisers are assigned for each section, usually with the minimum number of enrollees for facility in monitoring the students’ activities. The students are required to wear corporate attire, not the school uniform, to train them in proper grooming and decorum. Reportorial requirements are to be submitted at the end of the term bearing on information about the company profile, organizational set-up, and an analysis of present and future markets of the company. The company department supervisor, or the human resources director, submits performance evaluation sheets to the school for each student at the end of the program.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

At the end of the term, the students are expected to relate marketing management principles with the actual working situation. The students are expected to practice interpersonal skills to enhance human relationships. In addition, they develop skills to act with tact, courtesy, calmness, humility, and responsibility, especially when under pressure, and to appreciate the value of respect for another person’s opinion. Psychomotor objectives of the program include demonstrating technical skill without difficulty as they relate to the marketing job:
file materials for easy retrieval, locate business information, and place and answer telephone calls that give and receive business information that is complete and acceptable.

**FINDINGS BASED ON PAST PERFORMANCE**

Reportorial requirements submitted after the completion of the OJT period showed that the students were tasked to do the following and related jobs: updating of records, filing of documents, surveying for research, encoding, preparing PowerPoint presentations for board meetings, editing product leaflets, mass faxing, mass e-mailing of exhibitors and visitors databases during trade exhibits, and the like. As to how effective the program was, a documentary analysis of the OJT documents and the Graduates Tracer Study of 2007 were conducted to find out how the university’s marketing graduates fared compared with the graduates of the other business administration programs after graduation. Tracer findings showed marketing graduates to be highly employable due to the fact their practicum companies hired them after graduation. The study covered school years 2001 to 2006.

Accommodating the student, from the employer’s end, does not entail much. Needless to say, a practicumer lightens the workload of the office staff under whose supervision the student is assigned. Sad to say, clerical work is assigned on the premise that the practicumer is, and still is, a student with a limited knowledge of practical applications of the marketing concepts learned in the classrooms.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

A marketing graduate is expected to perform tasks related to the marketing aspects of a business when he or she graduates. Corollary to that, the graduate is expected to deliver the marketing principles in actual practice. While performing office or clerical work cannot be neglected as an indicator of skills development, the marketing on-the-job training should go beyond technical practice, except in advertising and publicity activities where the artistic ability of the students are honed. To properly address students’ needs for preparation for actual marketing work, the following are highly recommended:

1. Rigid screening of the company profile to ensure effective industry linkage;
2. Initial dialogue, exit interviews, and constant monitoring of company-participants to the program to ensure that marketing-related jobs are given to the students;
3. Accreditation of company-participants in the program before approval of students’ requests to commence the training;
4. Strict compliance with reportorial requirements, both for the students and for the company-participants.

**References Available on Request.**
SESSION OVERVIEW

The objective of this special session is to generate a critical discussion about various perspectives on and applications of innovation in teaching. The presenters have made their classes "less traveled" by infusing innovation in: (1) required and elective courses; (2) undergraduate and graduate level courses; and (3) traditional and online "virtual" classrooms. The session will cover a number of important themes in the study and application of innovation in teaching. The presenters in this session will address methodological issues including taking an idea forward to successful classroom implementation and student learning assessment.

SPECIFIC TEACHING INNOVATIONS

Claudia Bridges will present a team-based final project she employs in her Advertising course. Over the course of several years, Claudia has fine-tuned this hands-on project to illustrate and incorporate many of the course’s core concepts. This project has several sections and has been applied in numerous contexts in both undergraduate and graduate classes. Actual advertising plans based on the project’s framework have been developed for a high-end audio/video retailer, several non-profits, Sacramento State University, the California State Parks Off-Highway Motor Vehicle Recreation Division, and others. Beginning with the identification of the organizational mission statement and the firm’s position in the marketplace, this project leads students on a journey of discovery which culminates in the development of advertising, direct mail and sales promotion materials.

Tom Boyd will report on his development of a process for integrating Marketing Principles and Intermediate Microeconomics. The six-credit course is currently being collaboratively developed by Tom and a member of the economics faculty at California State University, Fullerton. He will discuss the degrees of collaboration, how to deal with common topics, different vocabulary for similar concepts, and the difference between true integration and simply team teaching two courses simultaneously. Tom will present the development of one example, "Influences on Consumer Decision Making."

Susan Cadwallader will discuss how student teams create marketing plans for actual firms – their own firm, a family business, a current employer, or a local business – in her Marketing Strategies course. Teams prepare either an initial “start-up” plan for a new business or a “reformulated” plan for an established business. Students are to assume that they are presenting their plan to potential investors who might provide them with the funds needed to implement their plan. The graded deliverables include a professionally written report and a formal presentation given in class with the actual firms’ company officers or owners in attendance.

Katrin Harich will discuss her attempts at empowering students in her Buyer Behavior course by allowing them to customize their learning experience. Katrin will present the various options that she presents to her students for midterm and final examinations, group projects, individual projects, and extra credit assignments.

Renee Shaw Hughner will discuss her experiences with teaching large sections of Marketing Management using a hybrid course format. When properly designed, a hybrid course combines the best features of in-class teaching with the best features of online learning to promote active student learning. While hybrid teaching has typically been implemented in graduate programs or for non-traditional students, Arizona State University (ASU) is moving towards adopting the hybrid course format in traditional full-time undergraduate programs. Two issues have motivated ASU to implement the hybrid
format: greater higher-education accessibility for students and maximization of faculty resources. Student and professor expectations, challenges and successes involved in the design and delivery of hybrids, as well as outcomes and assessment involved with teaching a large-enrollment hybrid course will be discussed.
ABSTRACT

This paper connects the creative energies of marketing with product design and development in the discovery and satisfaction of customer needs to create better and faster value for customers than do competitors, and solidify a strong relationship with customers. A vital role of marketing in the product design and development process is to bring in knowledge of consumer behavior, business analysis and marketing research to identify and translate consumer needs into potentially viable product/service concepts which can be shaped into value added products through effective cost-quality tradeoffs.

INTRODUCTION

This paper positions the importance of innovation in product design and development for demonstrating how firms "cross the road" to get from discovering customer needs to satisfying needs. If marketing is centered on the ability of a firm to discover and satisfy customer needs then it becomes imperative to explore the linkage between these two activities. The practice of innovation, design and development is an eclectic mix of structural processes embodied in a creative environment. The challenge in this process is that understanding customers' needs is often a costly and inexact process. Even when customers know what they want, they often cannot verbalize that information clearly or completely (Thomke & von Hippel, 2002). This suggests that the "need" resides with the customer while the "solution" resides with the firm.

The shift towards a more creative economy has been underway for some time. Apple has been the paragon of the creative corporation. Companies throughout the world are deconstructing Apple’s success in design and innovation, and learning the lessons (Nussbaum, 2005). At the core (no pun intended) of Apple’s success are very sound principles that would define many of the leading edge companies that churn out innovative and need-satisfying products. Identifying new product opportunities by successfully translating customer needs into product requirements and developing a product from that concept into mainstream success is the defining mark of an innovative, customer-oriented company like Apple. Marketing is at the center of this process as firms engage in the discovery-satisfaction process to create better and faster value for the customer than do their competitors and solidify a strong relationship with their customers as well as their channel partners.

The reader might muse about the paper’s title, How the Chicken Crossed the Road. While the age-old question of why the chicken crossed the road elicits a multitude of diverse and often amusing answers, I am writing to describe how the chicken crossed the road. In short, I would suggest very fast, with a plan in mind but with enough creativity to adjust the plan as more information is discovered. In today’s competitive environment, a firm’s marketing task is to translate customer needs into need-satisfying products. Like the chicken, firms need to “cross the road” in the same manner: quickly, with a plan, but with enough creativity to capitalize on the information they gain in “crossing the road.”

The interconnectedness between marketing and product design and development is illustrated in FIGURE 1.

--- Marketing-Development Interface ---

Sources: Kerin, Hartley, & Rudelius 2006, Ulrich & Eppinger, 2004
Figure 1. The top half of the interface exemplifies the relationship between the task of discovering consumer needs to creating value through developing products that are priced right and are part of a larger marketing mix to satisfy consumer needs. The bottom half of the interface shows the process of linking the discovery of consumer needs to the development of products, services and ideas that become part of the value package which satisfies consumer needs. The purpose of this paper is to point out the links that exist between marketing practice and product design and development and to encourage marketing educators to consider placing the subject of product design and development in a more prominent role to prepare students for the opportunities that exist in today’s businesses.

On the other hand, this paper is not reporting how a course in Innovation, Design and Development has been conceived. My experience in teaching the course is based on the pioneering efforts of Karl Ulrich and Stephen Eppinger’s book Product Design and Development. For those who want to examine the course structure please visit their excellent website: http://www.ulrich-eppinger.net/index.html; and the MIT Open Courseware for the course in Product Design and Development: http://ocw.mit.edu/OcwWeb/Sloan-School-of-Management/15-783JSpring-2006/CourseHome/index.htm.

Briefly, the course is project-based covering modern tools and methods for product design and discussion, cases, readings and hands-on exercises to reinforce key ideas such as identifying customer needs, concept generation, selection, and testing, product architecture, industrial design, and design-for-manufacturing. The overriding philosophy of the course demands taking a disciplined approach in the process while breaking the rules to find creative solutions. This way of thinking builds confidence in students’ abilities to create a new product or service and to coordinate multiple, interdisciplinary tasks in order to achieve a common objective.

The inspiration for this paper is derived from my research efforts in the customer value paradigm as well as teaching and writing in the area of business creativity and innovation. This preparation has lead to the conclusion that design and development is at the center of competitive advantage in today’s global economy. Specifically, I share my discoveries from a marketer’s perspective in tracing the path from customer needs to customer solutions in a marketing course titled Innovation, Design and Development (IDD). To survive in today’s marketplace, companies need to create and maintain a competitive advantage through the innovation of superior products and services, enhanced customer service and lower prices. Innovative companies drive themselves to deliver extraordinary levels of distinctive value to carefully selected customer groups. Through this strategy they make it impossible for other companies to compete based on previously acceptable strategies (Treacy & Wiersema, 1995). The customer provides a point of balance in the development of new products and services, simultaneously validating market and design decisions, while empowering the satisfaction of unique customer needs, thus differentiating new offerings from their competitors’ (Innovation Genesis, 2004).

INNOVATION, DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT

Innovation, design and development is an imaginative process that uses experiential activities that transform the traditional business school problem solving to a more effective creative problem solving model to challenge students to go beyond the “usual” by developing the skills and ability to generate new and original business-related ideas. This approach in a course entails understanding the symbiotic relationship between breaking the rules to find creative solutions and taking a disciplined approach in the process. In regard to this apparent dichotomy, Stanford University professor Robert Sutton’s opinion is, “… people say they want innovation, yet they can’t depart from their deeply ingrained beliefs about how to … make decisions, and structure work” (LaBarre, 2002). “A common misconception regarding creative problem solving is that it is a freewheeling, unstructured, almost mystical process. In this type of problem solving environment, inhibitions and fear of making mistakes can be the two biggest obstacles students need help in overcoming” (Titus, 2000).

Using the innovation, design and development process in a marketing program is a step forward in meeting the daunting challenge to turn the entrenched thinking of our left-brained approach to business education which often relies on rules, concepts and principles into a more creative application. “The idea of ‘good ole Yankee’ ingenuity may be assumed but unless we actively awaken this creative right brain activity in our students, then we are doomed to ‘in the box’ thinking which ultimately leads to more of the same uninspiring products and services” (Stovall & Dodds, 2002). Emerging business professional students who have applied themselves in a university setting that balances left and right brain thinking should have the knowledge, skills, and discipline to create authentic problem-
solving products and services in the business world. The best employers the world over will be looking for the most competent, most creative, and most innovative people on the face of the earth and will be willing to pay them top dollar for their services. This will be true not just for the top professionals and managers, but up and down the length and breadth of the workforce (NCCE, 2007). There may be limits to the number of good factory jobs in the world but there is no limit to the number of idea-generated jobs in the world (Friedman, 2006). These jobs will be created for those who show skills in:

- developing new ways of looking at problems and opportunities,
- solving problems that are worth solving,
- developing methodologies to discover and articulate the needs in the consumer culture,
- thinking of new and original ideas,
- putting old things together in new ways,
- moving ideas into action and success,
- envisioning entirely new business models, and
- mastering two or more quite different fields of knowledge and using the framework in one to think afresh about the other.

MARKETING’S ROLE IN THE INNOVATION, DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The development process needs cross-functional teams who are mutually accountable to a common set of performance goals. While creative minds are a prerequisite for all team members, the role of marketing brings in the knowledge of consumer behavior and research techniques to identify and translate consumer needs into potentially viable product/service ideas. In addition, marketing insight contributes to effectively trade off the benefits and cost to enhance the overall value in the product or service concept. Three key contributions to the overall development process from the marketer’s perspective are discussed below.

Customer Needs Analysis

To go beyond mediocre improvements, companies need to discover needs that customers may not yet recognize. To accomplish that task, Leonard and Rayport (1997) describe a set of techniques called empathic design. Rather than bring the customers to the company, empathic design calls for researchers to watch customers using products and services in the context of their own environments. This approach can often identify unexpected uses for products, just as the product manager of cooking oil did when he observed a neighbor spraying the oil on the blades of a lawn mower to reduce grass buildup. They can also uncover problems that customers do not mention in surveys, as the president of Nissan Design did when he watched a couple struggling to remove the backseat of a competitor's minivan in order to transport a couch (Leonard & Rayport, 1997). Proctor and Gamble studied the art of cleaning in search of something better than a wet mop which spreads as much dirt as it picks up. They came up with a whole new way to clean, using electrostatic attraction. The new product, a dry mop called the Swiffer, revolutionized cleaning (Nussbaum, 2005). Firms that are proficient at this create meaningful value experiences for the customer faster than their competitors and solidify a strong relationship.

Effective Need Statements

In the Harvard Business School case, Sweetwater, a case about the development of a portable water purifier, a critical exercise is to translate customer statements into effective need statements that lead into the generation of product concepts. The exercise centers around the frustrations backpackers and others away from civilization have in obtaining potable water. Consumer statements obtained through research often do not lead to effective product design, but if properly translated to need statements, the probability of successful product design is enhanced (Table 1).

TABLE 1

| Translation of Consumer Statements about Needs into Effective Need Statements |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| **Wrong**<br>Customer Statement | **Need Statement**<br>**Right**<br>Customer Statement | **Need Statement**<br>**Right**<br>Customer Statement | **Need Statement**<br>**Right**<br>Customer Statement |
| What Not Like | Why don't they put a hook at the end of the outlet hose? | The outlet hose has a hook to connect to water containers | The WF easily transfers water into a variety of different containers |
| Specifically | I often times drop the water filter on rocks. | The WF is rugged. | The WF operates normally after repeated dropping. |
| Positively Not Negative | The WF is difficult to hold. | The WF is not difficult to hold. | The WF is easy to hold. |
| Product Attribute | I need to attach a virus filter to the WF. | A virus filter can be attached to the WF. | The WF accommodates a virus filter. |
| Avoid “Must” & “Should” | The water should taste good. | The water should deliver good tasting water. | The WF delivers good tasting water. |

Source: *Sweetwater*, HBS case

Students who can successfully complete this exercise have placed them in an excellent position to create criteria for generating the ensuing product concepts in the development process.

1 Readers of this paper who find that a course in design and development is not feasible due to university constraints would be encouraged to bring this case into their marketing strategy or consumer behavior course.
Cost-Quality Analysis

Working with designers and manufacturing engineers, marketers contribute to the cost-quality tradeoff needed to shape the superior value needed in a new offering. Quality is ultimately reflected in market share and the price customers are willing to pay. Therefore, the basic set of questions is how good is the offering? Does it satisfy customer needs? Is it robust and reliable? Cost, on the other hand, determines how much profit accrues to the firm for a particular volume and price. This leads to the question, what are the manufacturing costs of the offering, including capital equipment and tooling as well as the incremental costs of producing each unit of the offering?

Innovative companies show the ability to achieve the highest level of quality while controlling costs. They create a structured process to make tradeoffs and decisions that generate a product concept meeting the specific needs of the target customers. The management of this tradeoff is essential in creating value to the consumer. If it is given that product design should be driven by user needs, then understanding that consumer needs will range from essential to insignificant is critical in the design process of delivering on the essential and eliminating or at best satisfying on the insignificant.

Consider the development and launch of the Lexus automobile as described by Lilien, Rangawamy, and DeByen (2007). First, Toyota identified a segment of potential customers who would like to buy a European brand (such as BMW or Mercedes) but thought they were overpriced. If they could build a car to the design standards of a Mercedes and sell it at a significantly lower price, it should appeal to these customers. With this goal in mind, and this “smart buyer” as the target segment, Toyota developed the Lexus. On the benefit level of the value equation, the engineering, safety, style, fit and finish of the Lexus were at least equivalent to that of the Mercedes. On the price level of the equation, the car sold at a major discount relative to the Mercedes. How the development team at Toyota “engineered” out unnecessary costs without compromising quality is typical of the Toyota approach of knowing their customers better than do their competitors. Students need to learn the creative process of understanding value from the customers’ perspective to “shake” out non-value added attributes which lead to lower costs but to do it in a way that overall customer value is enhanced in the process. Creative minds relish this challenge.

SUMMARY

Innovative and customer-oriented firms can be benchmarked by three indicators. They are:

- ability to identify the needs of customers,
- aptitude to quickly create products and services that meet these needs, and
- ability to produce at a cost such that when priced will provide exceptional value to customers and a satisfactorily profit to the firm.

By imbedding creative thinking into organizational thinking rather than trying to append this process into a traditional-thinking firm, successful products and services in the form of innovative design are more likely. The mindset in today’s innovative firms, such as Apple, is “there is nothing that can’t be done.” If something can’t be done yet, it is only because the thinking hasn’t yet been creative and inspired enough. Creative workers never see constraints as the enemy but rather as challenges to solving the task at hand, making the potential solution that much more rewarding (Martin, 2005). This way of thinking should be at the very center of our marketing education.

To this end, business schools need to imbed topics such as innovation, design and development into the business curriculum to cultivate students’ right brained skills to work effectively in the creation of value inherit in successful offerings. Through courses like Innovation, Design and Development, business schools can push business students, more accustomed to financial analysis and bottom line analysis, to think and act more creatively and to discover the basic tools, methods and organizational structures used in creativity, design and development. There needs to be a more imaginative process that uses experiential activities that transform the traditional business school problem solving to a more effective creative problem solving model to challenge students to go beyond the “usual” by developing the skills and ability to generate new and original product and service ideas.

References Available on Request.
CREATING A COURSE TO INSERT CONSUMER DEMAND BACK IN THE VALUE CHAIN: CONSUMER DEMAND AND CHANNEL COLLABORATION

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ABSTRACT

During the 1990s, manufacturers, brokers, distributors, retailers, and trade associations in the grocery and consumer packaged good industries came together in the face of volatile market gyrations to change the paradigm for doing business. The new business paradigm involves creating a seamless supply and demand chain. With the exchange of timely, accurate information, the supply chain will revolve around replenishment of consumer purchases. While this change process began in the grocery and packaged goods industries, it now includes health care, food processing, food service, hardware, and electronics industries among others.

A new course has been developed for undergraduate students at California State University, San Marcos. This course is an elective for students in the marketing option and required for students in the global supply chain option. In this course, students are divided into three groups: one group is a marketing research company, one group is the retailer, and one group is the manufacturer. Students complete the Entry Level Scorecard and identify possible joint projects. The last third of the class focuses on two collaborative discussions. After identifying projects of interest to their own group, the first collaboration session revolves around trying to agree upon a project of interest to all parties. Then each group creates a plan for how the project could be managed and the metrics that will be used for evaluation. The second collaborative discussion revolves around agreeing to a specific plan and set of metrics.

The change of business paradigm to become consumer-centered is no longer a fad. Over a million companies worldwide are involved in creating processes of collaboration to cut costs in the supply chain and provide more value for consumers. Students who have been hired into category management positions have returned to make presentations in class and discuss what was of value in this class. Over time, the course has evolved to focus on the most important concepts that provide students with an opportunity to practice the kinds of skills they will need on their jobs. Developing the ability to work with scanner data is an important requirement, as is developing skills for collaboration.

Two advantages of this class are that, first, students are better prepared for newly created entry-level jobs, and have an advantage over students who are not familiar with this process or who do not have these data analysis skills; and, second, the process of developing this course creates a stronger bond between academics in the business school and business professionals.
ABSTRACT

Business schools are striving to adhere to evolving accreditation standards that stipulate business programs offer students learning experience in discipline-specific knowledge and skills. In addition to such skill areas are the use of information technology, analytic thinking and communication skills (Association for the Advancement of Collegiate Schools of Business, 2006, pp. 15-16).

The same standards also require continuous assessment, review, and revision of curricula to ensure an appropriate set of learning experiences to prepare graduates for their respective professional careers (p. 72). Both recruiters and graduates are looking for real-world knowledge and skills developed from a business education (Barr & McNeilly, 2002; Bruce & Schoenfeld, 2006; Benbunan-Fich et. al., 2001; Leisen, Tippins, & Lilly, 2004; Schibrowsky, Peltier, & Boyt, 2002; Sterngold, Arthur, & Hurlbert, 1998).

This paper reports on the successful implementation of a learning module in which students learned consumer marketing through working with a professional marketing database to develop marketing strategies. The module is designed to enhance students’ information literacy in consumer databases; technological skills in accessing, using and manipulating electronic data; as well as their abilities in analyzing, organizing and interpreting statistical information.

Learning assessment of the module includes demonstrated competence in completing assignments and a test. In addition, a survey is administered to measure students’ self-reported knowledge before and after the module. This study shows the extent of learning gain with respect to students’ abilities to locate, evaluate, and use effectively the required information.

For both the control group and the test group, we measure the change in student knowledge on four aspects related to the database:

1. consumer exposure to media;
2. demographics, social and psychographic characteristics of consumers, and media audience;
3. media rate, costs and circulation; and
4. retrieving and applying the information for problem solving in business marketing.

Comparing the results to those of a control group of students without the learning module, we also adjust for learning gain due to other activities and measurement effects. The findings show statistical significance in perceived as well as objective learning gain. Students exposed to the training module perceived knowledge gain and learning with respect to the intended marketing information.

The professional relevancy of a marketing education has its appeal to students, parents and recruiters alike. To prepare students to be market-ready professionals, the marketing curriculum needs to incorporate both theoretical training and practical professional skills (Schibrowsky, Peltier, & Boyt 2002). The professional database learning module is but one of the links in the curriculum to equip students with professional skills that enable them to experience theoretical concepts and deepen their understanding of the marketing process.

A remarkable achievement of the marketing program at Cal State Fullerton, through strong leadership and faculty commitment, is an official written advisement to instructors that their students should be expected to apply knowledge of this database module in various classes such as marketing communications, research, buyer behavior and strategy. Indeed, effective student learning of professional database depends on the concerted effort of the entire faculty and repeated reinforcement throughout the curriculum. Marketing theories and concepts must be rooted and grounded in real-world information and data.
DEVELOPING CAREER MANAGEMENT COMPETENCY THROUGH ALUMNI MENTORING  
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ABSTRACT

One way for marketing students to learn how marketing is practiced and about possible career opportunities is by interacting with marketing practitioners. This is a report on a formal mentoring assignment in a senior marketing strategy course. Students were assigned marketing department alumni and exchanged a series of e-mails with them during the semester. The students and mentors reported a positive experience with the project.

INTRODUCTION

“… business schools have largely failed in enabling students to prepare for successful careers as marketing professionals. Knowledge transmission is well developed …; skill development and attitude change get far less attention” (Cunningham, 1995, p. 3). Much has changed over the past decade since Cunningham wrote the above quote. Schools of business and marketing departments in particular have implemented a number of program changes to “bring the outside in” for business majors, such as requiring internships for graduation and assigning class projects where students act as consultants to organizations. Another way to help students learn about being business professionals is through mentoring programs.

REVIEW OF MENTORING PROGRAMS

There are three excellent review articles on mentoring (Jacobi, 1991; Allen et. al., 2004; Gibson, 2004).

Mentoring Definitions

As articulated by Jacobi (1991), a mentor is someone older with experience, typically within the mentee’s organization, helping and advising someone younger and with less knowledge. Gibson (2004) relates that the concept of mentoring has been expanded to include peer-to-peer and group mentoring.

Mentoring Functions

There is also general consensus that there are three mentoring functions—career development, psychosocial support, and role modeling, although Kram (1985) included the last function as a psychosocial activity and therefore we will focus on the first two in this report. Career development includes being a coach and sponsor and helping the protégée obtain career advancing responsibilities which would demonstrate the mentee’s abilities and give the person organizational visibility. Psychosocial functions help the mentee emotionally and aid in the development of self confidence in the person’s ability to be successful. This mentoring activity is frequently associated with developing a friendship sometimes separate from the organization (Gibson, 2004).

Types of Programs

Mentoring programs are frequently defined as formal programs sponsored by organizations where mentors are assigned, or as informal relationships that develop on a more ad hoc personal level based on a mutual attraction and free choice (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992). Some researchers found that with informal mentoring relationships protégés had higher satisfaction and more successful career outcomes (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992). This prompted the authors to suggest that in formal programs mentors not be arbitrarily assigned and more care be given to matching mentors to mentees.

Mentoring Outcomes

In a meta-analysis of 43 studies on the outcomes of organizational mentoring programs (educational mentoring programs were excluded) Allen et al. (2004) found there were clear benefits to having a mentor. Mentored people when compared to non-mentored people reported higher compensation, more promotions, greater career and job satisfaction and greater intentions to stay with their current organization. When looking at the two types of mentoring, career development and psychosocial, the same positive benefits previously listed were reported for both types of mentoring. One interesting difference between the two mentoring objectives was there was greater satisfaction with psychosocial than with career mentoring.

Scandura (1998), in an organization setting, however, raises some red flags about mentoring,
especially formal programs. She suggests that mentoring relationships may become dysfunctional when the relationship is not working for one or both of the participants and the needs of the parties are not being met. This dysfunction is more likely to occur in formal programs where not enough thought was given to matching the mentor with the mentee. One interesting issue is, does mentoring “cause” success or do mentors look for people who they view to have high potential and then develop the mentoring relationship (Jacobi, 1991; Scandura, 1998)?

**Mentoring in Colleges of Business**

Schlee (2000) found that nearly half of surveyed business schools offered some type of mentoring experience. Alumni were the mentors about 75 percent of the time, most programs focused on career development and most colleges relied on the mentees selecting their mentors. In follow-up interviews with mentoring program administrators, she found one of the biggest challenges was undergraduate student motivation. Most students did not have clear goals or expectations for the mentoring experience. As a result, mentors found that students were not prepared with questions, lacked enthusiasm for learning and were uncommunicative. This led to the administrators suggesting that the programs help students set goals and require students to put them in writing. Interestingly, only a third of the schools measured student satisfaction. An example of a mentoring program from that era was a report by Barker and Pits (1997) on the use of MBA students as mentors for undergraduate student business policy teams which were developing strategic plans for an assigned company.

Recently, Whiting and de Janasz (2004) reported on a mentoring class assignment required at their university. It had elements of both informal and formal mentoring programs. The informal aspect was students finding their own mentors but the formal portions were the requirements the students needed to meet and the grading of the mentor exercise. Students had to find mentors with at least ten years of experience, who had managed a budget of at least one million dollars and had ten direct reports sometime in their career. The students were required to e-mail three questions to their mentors, write a commentary on the mentors’ responses and be prepared to orally discuss the responses in class. The students’ questions were related to topics in management and international management classes and less directly related to career development. While the authors did provide some student quotes on the value of the mentoring assignment, the professors did not present any quantitative measures of satisfaction, nor do a pre-post analysis of the students’ perceptions of mentoring.

**MENTORING COURSE PROJECT**

Having taught undergraduate marketing majors for a number of years, we found that students benefited from more contacts with marketing practitioners. Students needed to learn more about how marketing concepts were being applied by marketing professionals. The students also needed help with career planning and identification of specific job search tactics. Thus, we thought current students needed to learn firsthand about mentoring.

In the terminology of the mentoring literature we conceived the project as being structured and formal with emphasis on career management. This meant the students would be assigned to mentors, the students would have requirements for their interactions with the mentors, and there were specific things required of the students to complete the mentoring course project.

**Alumni Mentors**

The university alumni association provided a list of alumni and we chose those marketing majors who had at least five years of experience. Approximately 80 alumni were contacted via e-mail that explained the nature and time expectations of the assignment. Forty-five responded expressing interest in participating. Of these, 23 were assigned to students for the project.

**Student Mentees**

All students taking a senior strategic marketing management capstone course taught by one of the coauthors participated in the study.

**Mentoring Assignment Objectives**

The first objective was for students to learn about mentors and how mentors could/would help them with their careers. The second goal was for students to gain perspectives on marketing course content from practitioners. The third objective was for students to gain insights on marketing positions and activities. Finally, we wanted students to treat e-mails as professional correspondence. This meant they needed to use proper grammar, punctuation, spelling and message structure.
Mentoring Assignment Requirements

During the semester, students had to send their mentors five e-mails. The first was an introductory e-mail and the fifth was a thank you message. The middle three messages were to continue a discussion based on the initial and two follow-up replies from the mentor.

In the first e-mail to their mentor, students gave a brief summary of their work experience, professional and personal interests and possible careers they were considering. They then asked for information on the mentors’ careers by asking the mentors to describe their positions, what did they like and dislike about their jobs, their career paths and how they made a contribution to their organizations. The students also listed three or more course topics – examples were given in the course assignment handout – and asked the mentor to select one or two topics which were relevant to their positions.

E-mail Etiquette

All of us have likely received e-mails without paragraphs and capitalization (where appropriate), with incomplete punctuation and frequent misspellings. A sample e-mail was included with the assignment handout and many students closely modeled their draft from this sample. This did reduce the students’ originality but greatly reduced the work needed to revise their drafts. The students were required to e-mail the professor the draft of their first message for a review.

Student “Deliverables”

Students were required to write a two-page, double spaced report based on their interactions with their mentors. The outline for the reports was the first half page was to discuss their mentors’ education and current and previous positions. This section was analogous to the role modeling area of psychosocial mentoring. The next half page of the students’ reports was to present the mentors’ suggestions for the students’ careers. This is an example of the career management area of traditional mentoring relationships. The last page of the report related the mentors’ experiences with and views on the course topics discussed in the e-mails. The students were also required to attach all of their and their mentors’ e-mails to their two page reports.

The assignments were graded based on whether they completed all e-mail cycles, student writing quality, and student development of the issues over the e-mail cycle. These three factors were weighed against mentor responses which were also submitted to the professor. If the mentor provided constrained or cryptic responses, more leniency in grading occurred. Each student’s portfolio took approximately 30 minutes to review, and included reading the two-page report in addition to reading the five student and four mentor e-mails.

EVALUATION OF THE MENTORING PROJECT

We asked the students questions about the roles of mentors, why not to have a mentor, and whether they already had a mentor, before they undertook the assignment. After they had turned in their report they gave their evaluations of the assignment and offered suggestions to improve the assignment.

Role of Mentors

At the start of class, most students thought mentors served as role models, guides and advisors with a combined 73 percent for both responses. Less than 10 percent of the responses were psychosocial reasons like cares about the mentee, a friend or easy to talk to.

Interestingly, there was a substantial change after the assignment on the view of the roles of mentors. Post assignment, 45 percent of the responses related to being a guide versus 27 percent before the assignment. There was a substantial drop in being a role model from one-third of the responses before to seven percent after the assignment. We attribute at least part of this change due to a shift in how mentors were selected. As we will discuss in the next section, two-thirds of the students had a mentor prior to the assignment. They found this mentor on their own in an informal process. Certainly one criterion for selecting an informal mentor is to chose someone the student respected. On the other hand, we assigned mentors to the student. Also, for the assignment, the students had to ask questions of the mentor. This put the mentor in a direct role as a guide and advisor.

As a companion question to the role of a mentor, we also asked if there were reasons not to have a mentor. The most frequent response for pre (53 percent) and post (33 percent) was that potential mentees might be independent thinkers and would want to do things their own way. Somewhat similar to these reasons was some people would be egotistical and stubborn and would just not want advice (32 percent pre and 27 percent post). However for both pre and post assignment, one-third of the students could not think of any reason why a person would not want a mentor.
Two-thirds of the students had a mentor before they took the class. A little over a third of this group used current or former employers as mentors while a quarter had other business professionals serve in this role. Interestingly, current and former professors were as likely to be a mentor as relatives.

Assignment Evaluation

After the students had turned in their mentor assignment report and e-mails, we asked for anonymous evaluations of the assignment. Students performed the evaluation before they received a grade on the assignment.

All of the students thought the assignment was worthwhile although a few (3 of 23) were a bit equivocal on the value. The positive view of the requirement was reflected in a near unanimous agreement that the mentor assignment should continue to be part of the class. Students perceived the assignment was valuable because of the career advice and business information they received. These responses are again a likely reflection of the purposes of the mentoring assignment since students were required to ask their assigned mentor career and course topic-related questions.

When asked for suggestions for improving the assignment, about half of the students had no suggestions. When considering the suggestions given, there was equal interest in selecting rather than being assigned a mentor and an equal number wanted to interact with the mentor on a more personal level with face-to-face meetings or with phone calls. These two suggestions may reflect some students wanting some or more of the psychosocial benefits as well as the career-related value from their mentors.

Mentor Evaluations

All mentors were thanked in an e-mail from the professor for their participation. In this “thank you” e-mail, mentors were also given the option to provide feedback on the assignment workload for them, level of insightfulness of student questions, sufficiency/ adequacy of number of exchanges provided by the assignment, if they learned anything about this generation of students, and if they learned anything about themselves during the process. Eight of the 23 mentors provided detailed feedback.

They stated that they enjoyed the reconnection with their alma mater. The workload requirement was measured on a seven point scale with one being not very high and seven very high. The average for the eight responses was 2.8, which means that the mentors thought that receiving five e-mails and responding four times was an acceptable amount of participation for them.

Perhaps a reason that the mentors found the workload acceptable is they thought the students had insightful questions. The mean on a seven-point scale with seven being very insightful and one being not very insightful was six. This positive evaluation was reflected in what the mentors learned about today’s students. The respondents thought that students were more concerned about their future and had a greater urgency on being prepared than when the mentors were the same age. But, the mentors also thought that the students needed to learn more about the day-to-day activities of specific positions and the value of networking.

What did mentors learn about themselves from the communication with students? The e-mail questions prompted the mentors to reflect on their careers and they realized how much they had learned over the course of their careers. They also had forgotten what it was like to be inexperienced and again this helped them to understand how much they had changed over the course of five to twenty years of working.

Some mentors offered suggestions for improvement. One mentor proposed a combination of e-mail and telephone discussions (probably to reduce the input time). Telephone conversations were not prohibited in this assignment but they did not count toward the students’ number of interactions given that a student was less able to document the conversation and what transpired. One alumnus suggested that the interaction should be all about career (job) issues and not include questions about course content.

References Available on Request.
ACHIEVING A BLACK BELT IN THE MENTORING OF MARKETING FACULTY: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

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ABSTRACT
A growing number of unfilled tenure-track faculty lines have intensified the competition among marketing departments to recruit and retain new faculty members. Peer mentoring programs have taken on greater significance in retaining and developing new and tenured faculty members. This paper reviews the mentoring literature, presents a method for structuring a faculty mentor program, and advances the idea of offering a black belt in faculty mentoring.

INTRODUCTION
Business schools face the challenge of recruiting and retaining a faculty that is responsive to a rapidly changing global economy. The growing gap in the number of tenure-track faculty lines that must be filled due to retiring baby boomers relative to the low number of new business doctorates that are conferred each year has exacerbated the challenge of recruiting, developing, and retaining faculty (Swartz, Swartz, & Liang, 2007). The shortage of doctorates in business is estimated to grow to 1,150 by 2009 and 2,500 by 2014 (Olian, LeClair, & Milano, 2004). The growing number of unfilled tenure-track positions is most acute in accounting, finance, and marketing (AACSB International 2007). In addition to presenting a risk of a business school losing its AACSB accreditation because of a low ratio of academically qualified faculty, the shortage of doctorates in business limits the ability of the business discipline to advance scholarship in the field (Davis & McCarthy, 2005).

The pressure to recruit new faculty members from a small pool of recruits has led to an escalation in starting salaries and the need to offer additional support in the form of reduced teaching loads, summer stipends, and faculty development funds. Differences in the amount of state support for the hiring of faculty can put some university systems at a significant disadvantage. For example, the California State University system was only able to fill 50 percent and 57 percent of its tenure-track lines in business in 2004-2005 and 2005-2006, respectively (Swartz, Swartz, & Liang, 2007).

Peer mentoring programs are used extensively in universities in an effort to retain faculty members. However, there is very little research in the business education literature generally, and marketing education literature specifically, that has investigated the best practices of faculty mentoring programs.

The purpose of this paper is to bridge this gap in the marketing education literature by presenting a method for structuring a faculty mentoring program, advancing a process for achieving a black belt in mentoring of faculty over their careers, and highlighting directions for future research.

REVIEW OF THE MENTORING LITERATURE
Mentoring is the process where an experienced person helps a less experienced person develop in some specified capacity. Gibson (2005) distinguished mentoring from other support provided by a protégé’s colleagues in that mentors act in a way that has the protégé’s best interests as their priority (e.g., willing to share their resources, exercise care in providing advice, and invest in building a mentor-protégé relationship). Conversely, collegial support is offered at a lower level of involvement (e.g., helpful in providing advice and information but don’t initiate transfer of knowledge and opportunities to the protégé).

Mentoring in a university setting is frequently associated with faculty development (Legorreta, Kelley, & Sablynski, 2006). Often faculty development is used synonymously with developing teaching skills (Mills, 1994) and research (Bland & Schmitz, 1990), both of which are a part of faculty mentoring. However, mentoring involves developing a strong interpersonal bond between the mentor and protégé, and may be manifested as coaching, action learning, action learning teams, peer mentoring, or group mentoring (Gibson, 2005). Mentoring provides information, opportunities, psychosocial (i.e., emotional) support, and career and work-related advice (Tang & Chamberlain, 2003). Mentoring may be an informal relationship where the interpersonal bond is relatively weak. Formal mentoring programs attempt to build a stronger interpersonal bond between mentor and protégé, and typically involve the assignment of a mentor to one or more protégés.

Research on the mentor-protégé relationship has investigated several variables that are considered essential to the success of a mentoring program. Greater similarity between mentor and protégé in personality and work styles results in stronger mentor-protégé relationships (Burke, McKeen, &
Evidence suggests female faculty have fewer mentors, slower rates of promotion and an increased likelihood of leaving a university (Wasburn, 2007). Gibson (2005) reports female protégés believe the best mentors are those who really care and act in the protégé’s best interest, while Burke (1984) found female protégés receive more psychosocial support than male protégés. Female protégés are more likely than male protégés to stress caring, nurturing and teaching (Reich, 1986). Female protégés also consider the mentor’s role of providing feedback about the protégé’s strengths and weaknesses to be more important than do male protégés (Reich, 1986). Opposite-sex protégés have been found to use the mentor relationship more effectively than same-sex protégés (Noe, 1989).

Individuals who are extroverts, conscientious, and open to experience tend to be the most effective mentors (Niehoff, 2006). Mentor-protégé relationships are less successful when someone is forced to be a mentor or to accept a mentor. In addition, effective mentoring requires mentors to see personal benefits from investing in building a mentor-protégé relationship. The effectiveness of a mentor-protégé relationship should be measured by the job satisfaction and performance of the mentor and protégé (Niehoff, 2006).

A METHOD FOR STRUCTURING A FACULTY MENTORING PROGRAM

It is common for marketing departments to have mentoring programs for new faculty members as they adjust from being a graduate student to establishing their academic careers. At the same time, a changing academic environment suggests marketing faculty that are at various points in the life cycle of their careers can benefit from mentoring (Helms, Williams, & Nixon, 2001. In fact, Standard 11 of AACSB International requires accredited business schools to provide processes for the “guidance, orientation and mentoring” of faculty.

Four phases of mentoring have been identified in the literature (Kram, 1988). The initiation phase involves building a supporting relationship to provide the protégé with knowledge of the operation of the university and membership in the academy. Building an effective mentor-protégé relationship begins by identifying the dominant values, beliefs, and assumptions within the university culture (Green & Kawaililak, 2006). A key element of the initiation phase is to build trust between the mentor and the protégé. Possible actions that may be taken by the mentor and protégé include discussions about the university culture, professional organizations, teaching and establishing a stream of research. The protégé’s acclimation into the department might involve coffee or lunches with colleagues. In some cases the mentor may need to be an advocate for the protégé to assist their membership in external organizations and internal groups. Various outcomes may be used to measure the success of the initiation phase, including success in securing resources, memberships in professional organizations, and a willingness to acknowledge strengths and weaknesses.

The second phase of mentoring is cultivation. Cultivation refers to boosting the investment in the mentor-protégé relationship to strengthen the interpersonal bond between mentor and protégé. Objectives of this phase may include developing the protégé’s teaching and scholarship, promoting the protégé’s accomplishments, and general growth of the protégé’s professional career. The mentor may take action by presenting opportunities to participate in professional meetings, offering assistance in designing courses and writing grant proposals, and suggesting ways to promote the protégé’s accomplishments. Measures of success in this phase may include expanding the protégé’s involvement in professional organizations, the protégé’s success in establishing a stream of scholarship and classroom performance, and highlighting the protégé’s accomplishments in school or university publications.

The separation phase involves defining a point where the mentor and protégé begin to move apart from one another. The mentor in this phase may encourage the protégé’s independence to pursue new directions in scholarship or teaching. The mentor needs to turn from a “tell” mode to a “listen” mode of communication and be supportive of new ideas for scholarship and course development. Outcomes of this phase may include the protégé’s initiation of new streams of scholarship through contacts with new peers and the teaching of new courses.

The mentor-protégé relationship is usually redefined within two to six years and involves the mentor and protégé defining new roles for the relationship (Perna, Lerner, & Yura, 1995). It is during the redefinition phase that there is the greatest potential for conflict between the mentor and protégé. The mentor may feel that the protégé no longer respects the mentor’s guidance. The protégé may feel the need to gain a status equal to or surpass the mentor.
It is preferred that mentoring occurs at the department level as it is the unit that is closest to teaching, scholarship and professional service in a particular discipline. The department chair should take the lead in overseeing the department’s mentoring program. It is desirable for the department chair to work with senior faculty when designing and implementing a mentoring program so they buy into the program.

The mentoring process begins with establishing a pool of potential mentors. Care needs to be exercised in selecting potential mentors as they will contribute significantly to the success of the program. Faculty mentors need to exhibit a willingness to go beyond sharing to actually putting another faculty member’s interests above their own. Potential faculty mentors should have a track record of excellence in teaching, scholarship, and participation in professional organizations. Potential mentors should be tenured to enhance their creditability with the protégé.

The second step requires those charged with implementing the mentoring program to determine the needs of protégés and mentors. This process can be done informally through conversations with prospective mentors and the protégés. The process can be done formally by developing a questionnaire. However, a formal process may be viewed as too bureaucratic or impractical for smaller departments.

The assignment of a mentor to a protégé occurs in the third step. Mentors may be allowed to select a protégé, protégés may be allowed to select a mentor, or a mentor may be systematically assigned to a protégé. Programs that allow choice tend to be more effective.

A mentoring relationship has a greater chance of success if the mentor is of equal or higher rank to the protégé. However, successful mentoring programs typically hinge on the willingness of the protégé to accept advice and change one’s behavior regardless of the status of the mentor.

The next step involves the setting of objectives for the mentor and protégé. It would be beneficial for the mentor and the protégé to be aware of the four phases of the mentoring relationship so that they understand that the objectives will need to be changed as the mentor and protégé move through the phases.

The last step involves the measurement of the job satisfaction and job performance of the mentor and protégé. The measures may be informal or formal. It would be desirable if there is an open expression of views of the mentor and protégé.

TOWARD A BLACK BELT IN FACULTY MENTORING

Six Sigma is an extension of total quality management and focuses on process improvement to reduce defects. Black belt training in Six Sigma involves developing someone to master all of the techniques associated with a Six Sigma program and allowing them to mentor a Six Sigma project (Mitra, 2004). The logic behind awarding a black belt in faculty mentoring is that it would greatly benefit a marketing department to recruit, retain, and develop faculty members that excel in the common areas of their professional responsibilities; teaching, scholarship, and professional service. The first step in the mentor’s black belt training is to demonstrate the mastery of the professional responsibilities that the protégé is asked to master. The second requirement to receive a black belt in faculty mentoring is to successfully mentor a protégé. The last requirement for a black belt in faculty mentoring is the ability to develop new faculty mentors. The end result of awarding a black belt in faculty mentoring is to develop a cohesive and energized marketing department.

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Although there is a considerable body of literature on mentor-protégé relationships in business organizations, very little research has focused on mentoring marketing faculty. The following list of questions may be used to guide future research on mentoring programs in marketing departments.

- What role does similarity in work styles, personality, and career objectives between mentor and protégé play in the mentoring process?
- What differences exist in the mentor relationship when the mentor is, or is not, the department chair?
- Do certain personality characteristics predict how marketing faculty mentor-protégé relationships will succeed?
- Do marketing departments have mentoring programs? If so, what processes are used to assign mentors?
- Do mentoring programs differ for new faculty members versus tenured faculty members?
- How do mentoring programs benefit faculty mentors?
- How do marketing departments measure the success of their mentoring programs?
• Do certain demographic variables predict a successful mentor-protégé relationship?
• How are mentor-protégé relationships redefined?
• What resources do marketing departments devote to their mentoring programs?

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

This study relates the perceived effectiveness of alternative teaching methods to perceived instructional emphasis areas among both faculty and students. It seeks to determine the congruency between the revealed associations. The results evidence a commonality between faculty and student perceptions as to group projects, cases, and in-class presentations, as each addresses a litany of instructional emphases. Both were also together on the more limiting roles of lectures and exams. However, students when contrasted to faculty denote greater associations with instructional emphasis areas for in-class discussions and in-class exercises, as well as individual projects and computer simulations. Reasons for the discrepancies are developed, as well as the usefulness of the associations in selecting pedagogical approaches and encouraging pedagogical innovation.

RELATING PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHING METHOD EFFECTIVENESS TO PERCEIVED INSTRUCTIONAL EMPHASIS AREAS: A COMPARISON OF FACULTY AND STUDENT ASSOCIATIONS

Perceptions of the effectiveness of alternative teaching methods from either a faculty and/or a student perspective may be related to perceptions of various instructional emphasis areas, thus the teaching methods that are statistically associated with given emphasis areas may be determined. Teaching methods can then be assessed comparatively and/or a given instructional emphasis area can be singled out to reveal the teaching methods that are most associated with it. This approach can serve as a normative base as to what should work for a given instructional emphasis area and faculty contemplating teaching method alternatives can achieve deeper insights.

The use of such an approach negates trying to appease certain student types through the development of an overall modality, or as Chonko (2007) notes, one’s responding to how “this year’s students want to learn.” Basically, an array of factors exists that are beyond the control of the instructor and as Chonko (2007) states, how can an instructor accommodate different student cognitive abilities, student preference for pedagogical styles, socio-economic status, and personality traits in a single modality? It would thus seem that having students assess the perceived effectiveness of each of a number of teaching methods and then relating them to student perceptions of instructional emphasis areas would yield cogent insights and potentially enhance learning outcomes. With regard to the latter, it has long been held that matching student preference with teaching method approaches facilitates student learning (Glazer, Steckel, & Winer, 1987; Gregore, 1979; Okebukola, 1986). In this study setting, the match is based on the covariation between perceived teaching method effectiveness and instructional emphasis areas, thus contextualizing teaching method efficacy. Basically, instructional emphasis areas can be so varied even within a course that alternative pedagogies have to be considered.

To date, much has been made about learning styles and the importance of using teaching methods that support them (Davis, Misra, & Van Auken, 2000; Galvan, 2006; Goodwin, 1996; Karns, 1993; Matthews, 1994; Nulty & Barrett, 1996; Stewart & Felicetti, 1992), yet only one work (Van Auken, Chrysler, & Wells, 2007) has revealed the effectiveness of teaching approaches that were associated with instructional emphasis areas. This work, which was based on MBA alumni, found that group projects and in-class exercises were associated with skill development and that individual student projects were associated with the development of knowledge-based capabilities and understandings. An outgrowth of this research is the need to develop insights into faculty perceptions of the associations and to contrast them with student associations. It is this focus that this study embraces. Additionally, a key research question is whether faculty and students perceive teaching method effectiveness the same way and whether instructional emphasis areas are perceived with the same commonality? And even of greater importance, are the statistical associations between teaching methods and emphasis areas the same when contrasts between faculty and students are conducted? Still, it may be conjectured that student associations will reflect the normative, or the “way things should be,” while faculty associations will reveal the descriptive, or the “way things actually are.” This is because
students do not perceive teaching constraints the same way as faculty.

THE STUDY APPROACH

Faculty

The study proceeds by conducting a census of faculty at an AACSB-I accredited business school located in the southeastern portion of the United States. The survey was administered at a mandatory attendance faculty retreat and encompasses 36 full-time faculty members. The measurement instrument involved two focal parts with the first asking respondents to indicate the extent of emphasis that was individually given to each of 11 instructional areas. In this case, seven-point scales were used with the number one position denoting a “very low emphasis” and the number seven scale position indicating a “very high emphasis.” The 11 areas contained such variables as technical preparation, ability to identify a business problem, quantitative skills, and the development of an understanding of the functional areas of business.

The second focal area encompassed having faculty rate the effectiveness of each of nine teaching methods in their teaching assignments. In this case, seven-point scales were used with the number one scale position being coded Extremely Ineffective and the seven scale position denoting Extremely Effective. Respondents could also indicate those teaching methods that they did not use. Overall, these teaching methods included such areas as case studies, group projects, individual projects, and exams.

Students

The student survey employed a sample of 29 seniors who were taking the capstone course in Business Policy. These students were given an instrument that asked them to indicate the emphasis that their business instructors actually gave to each of the 11 instructional emphasis areas. The emphasis areas were identical to those used by faculty and utilized the same coding scheme.

Next, students were asked to rate the effectiveness of each of nine teaching methods in their respective business courses. Again, the same teaching methods administered to faculty and the same scoring schemes were employed. As in the faculty survey, students could indicate those teaching methods to which they had not been exposed. Such teaching methods were coded as blanks in assessments of perceived effectiveness.

As a supplement to the student survey, students were also asked to indicate the amount of emphasis that their instructors should have given to each of the 11 instructional emphasis areas. This extra section was employed to permit a gap analysis and to facilitate result interpretation.

STUDY RESULTS

Instructional Emphasis Areas

With the development of data sets comprising both faculty and students, mean comparisons were initially made between the two groups as to instructional emphasis areas. The results, utilizing an unequal variance assumption, are presented in Table 1. As can be seen, there is no difference in instructional emphasis areas, thus providing face validity to the study results. Basically, what faculty perceive as their emphasis is matched by student perceptions of instructional area exposure.

Teaching Methods

The same analysis was also employed on perceived teaching method effectiveness between the two groups. The results are presented in Table 2. They reveal only one statistically significant difference between faculty and students and this encompassed group projects. In this regard, faculty perceive a higher effectiveness for group projects than do students (p = .028). Additionally, in the study’s gap analysis, students do not perceive that the ability to work effectively on a team as requiring significantly more emphasis (p = .22), where the actual emphasis equals 6.03 and the desired emphasis 6.17. Outside of the perceived effectiveness of group projects, the study results again suggest a face validation as to the way that faculty and students perceive teaching method efficacy.

Faculty Associations

In an effort to relate the perceived effectiveness of teaching methods to instructional emphasis areas, a Pearson product-moment correlation was employed. The results appear in Table 3. As can be observed, the highest correlations are seen between group projects and the various instructional emphasis areas. Basically, group projects are highly associated with developing an understanding of how the functional areas of business relate to each other (r = .68) and the development of an understanding of the functional areas of business (r = .58). Group projects are also associated with the development of oral/presentation skills (r = .59) and the ability to identify a business problem (r = .55).
Other teaching methods that are associated with instructional emphasis areas are case studies and in-class presentations, with case studies demonstrating an efficacy similar to group projects as to instructional emphasis areas. Noteworthy, is the relative lack of significant associations for individual projects, exams, in-class discussions, computer simulations, and lectures with the various instructional emphasis areas. Overall, group projects, case studies, and in-class presentations dominate the relationships between perceived teaching method effectiveness and the delineated instructional emphasis areas.

**Student Associations**

The same correlation analysis on the student side is presented in Table 4. As can be seen, the results are startling when contrasted to the observed faculty relationships as they reflect more of an ideal. In the case of students, only two teaching methods are perceived as not readily relating to the identified instructional emphasis areas and they encompass exams and lectures. Basically, teaching methods that engage students bear the strongest relationships to instructional emphases, with group projects, in-class discussions, cases, and individual projects, as well as in-class presentations, taking the lead. Students thus reveal an efficacy for in-class work in two areas (discussions and exercises), as well as individual projects and even computer simulations, that are not seen in faculty associations.

**DISCUSSION**

A contrasting of faculty and student associations between perceived teaching method efficacy and perceptions of instructional area emphasis has revealed unique differences. Basically, students perceive a utility for in-class discussions and in-class exercises not revealed in faculty associations. Perhaps the time involvements and/or class size issues have served to influence faculty results. Additionally, the time encroachments associated with individual project grading could be a major factor in influencing faculty results and may positively influence the viability of group projects among faculty. Alternatively, the student associations portray more of an ideal or normative emphasis, as they indicate the teaching approaches that students would like to have associated with the various instructional emphasis areas.

It is clear that faculty and students are together on the efficacy of group projects as well as case studies and in-class presentations. There is also more of a limited support for exams and lectures among both faculty and students. On balance, active engagement is perceived as contributing to teaching method effectiveness among students and this knowledge may influence pedagogical design in various instructional emphasis areas. In other words, can preferred teaching approaches be applied in instructional areas that commonly do not accommodate them?

Although the mean score comparisons between faculty and students showed more faculty support for group projects as to teaching method efficacy, the revealed associations among students denote its promise. Perhaps more effective group project management by faculty would create more of a perception of parity between faculty and students as to group project efficacy. Chapman and Van Auken (2001) provide insights into group project management that may contribute to this end.

**CONCLUSIONS**

The study has shown the viability of student perceptions of teaching method effectiveness when associated with perceived instructional emphasis areas. The approach thus relates the efficacy of teaching methods to an instructional framework versus viewing teaching method approaches in a vacuum and essentially results in ideal norms.

Faculty perceptions of teaching method effectiveness when related to the faculty members’ instructional emphases were somewhat similar to students, yet lacked some of the active engagement depicted by students. This may be due to class size constraints and/or a desire to lessen onerous grading tasks. The student results, however, serve as a reminder of the efficacy of active student engagement through in-class discussions and in-class exercises, as well as individual projects. Overall, contrasts of associations between faculty and students can be revealing and may influence the selection of pedagogical approaches, as well as encourage innovational pedagogies; especially in areas that may seem nonamenable to preferred teaching approaches.

**REFERENCES**


### TABLE 1
Mean Contrast between Faculty and Students as to Instructional Emphasis Areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean Scores</th>
<th></th>
<th>Significance 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Faculty</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>t-values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Technical preparation (ability to use</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>-1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>software such as spreadsheets, statistical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>packages, database packages, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Ability to identify a business problem</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ability to analyze the relationship between</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>1.73</td>
</tr>
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<td>business variables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ability to develop workable solutions</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to business problems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Ability to work effectively on a team</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>6.03</td>
<td>-1.55</td>
</tr>
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<td>6. Oral/presentation skills</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>5.58</td>
<td>-0.87</td>
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<td>7. Written communication skills</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>5.53</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Quantitative skills (ability to work with</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>0.05</td>
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<td>numerical data)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>9. Ability to communicate effectively</td>
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<td>using the language of business</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Understanding of the functional areas of</td>
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<td>5.51</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>business</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Understanding how the functional areas of</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>business relate to each other</td>
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</table>

1 degrees of freedom equal 113.

### TABLE 2
Mean Contrast between Faculty and Students as to Perceived Teaching Method Effectiveness

<table>
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<th>Variables</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Faculty</td>
<td>Students</td>
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<td>1. Case Studies</td>
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<td>2. Lectures</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>1.63</td>
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<td>3. Computer simulation</td>
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<td>-1.65</td>
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<td>4. In-class discussions</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>0.38</td>
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<td>5. Group projects</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>2.27</td>
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<td>6. In-class exercises</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>5.59</td>
<td>0.70</td>
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<td>7. Individual projects</td>
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<td>5.37</td>
<td>0.93</td>
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<td>8. In-class presentations</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>1.19</td>
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<td>9. Exams</td>
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<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case</td>
<td>Lectures</td>
<td>Computer</td>
<td>In-Class Group</td>
</tr>
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<td>.04</td>
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<td>3.</td>
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<td>Ability to work effectively on a team</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>Oral/presentation skills</td>
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<td>.03</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>Written communication skills</td>
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<td>.05</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>Quantitative skills (ability to work with numerical data)</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>Ability to communicate effectively using the language of business</td>
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<td>.16</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>Understanding of the functional areas of business</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>Understanding how the functional areas of business relate to each other</td>
<td>.57*</td>
<td>.40*</td>
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* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
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<td>.37**</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>.28*</td>
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<td>.06</td>
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<td>Ability to develop workable solutions to business problems</td>
<td>.37**</td>
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<td>.35**</td>
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<td>Ability to work effectively on a team</td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.26</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>Written communication skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Quantitative skills (ability to work with numerical data)</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.27*</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Ability to communicate effectively using the language of business</td>
<td>.52**</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.27*</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>.35**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Understanding of the functional areas of business</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>.26*</td>
<td>.29*</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.31**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Understanding how the functional areas of business relate to each other</td>
<td>.39**</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.32*</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
ABSTRACT

OVERVIEW

Online 3D virtual worlds provide new ways to create, socialize, and collaborate, as well as new ways to teach and learn online. Second Life is a virtual world and developing economy that has its own currency, residents, businesses, media, and educational institutions. Created in 2003 by Linden Labs, it has grown rapidly to as many as 6.7 million or more unique residents. Many real-world companies (e.g., Toyota, Reebok) and universities (e.g., Harvard, INSEAD) have established a presence in SL. The purpose of this presentation is to provide marketing educators with a better understanding of what virtual worlds like Second Life are and how marketing educators can use them as a platform for business simulations, new media studies, and student/faculty collaboration.

RELEVANCE TO MARKETING EDUCATION

Many mainstream real-world marketers and IMC agencies have a presence in SL, engaging in traditional marketing activities such as test marketing new products prior to introducing them real-world (Starwood hotels), advertising (on SL television networks or newspapers), holding events to generate product buzz (Sears), and even introducing new products on SL prior to their real-world release. The Electric Sheep Company, a content development firm that builds SL homes, resorts, malls, etc., recently sponsored a business-plan contest whose winner was a plan for an SL marketing research company that would help real-world companies decide whether to invest in an in-world presence.

Virtual worlds such as Second Life offer unique qualities for educators: immersion, shared presence, and shared experience. They are engaging for the Net Gen students who have grown up online and with video games and are accustomed to interacting via avatars in online 3D immersive environments. Net Gen students have become accustomed to, and will expect to be involved in, the creation of their own media content, thanks to the Web 2.0 revolution.

While many universities have established virtual campuses in SL, very few business schools or marketing courses currently have an in-world location. As might be expected, disciplines such as computer science, engineering, and internet/new media studies dominate SL.

SL provides a unique and flexible platform for marketing educators because students can move out into the world-at-large and engage in authentic projects in contexts that have relevance for them. For example, in SL students can:
• build a retail space where they can design and sell clothes, furniture, real estate;
• learn how to organize and run events;
• design and test market new products/services;
• do social and ethnographic research with any of the communities and subcultures within the virtual world;
• study a new language and culture in an environment that reflects the culture, interacting with native speakers; and
• create integrated marketing communications (IMC) plans using in-world media, including SEM, billboards, television, and blogs.

CHALLENGES

Challenges associated with incorporating SL into marketing pedagogy include: high-end technical requirements, cost, accessibility issues, steep learning curves, closed proprietary systems, legal grey areas (e.g., intellectual property, virtual economies, avatar rights), and student validation and control (virtual worlds have a reputation for being addictive).

Assuming these challenges can be overcome, now is the time for marketing educators to be "pioneers," to actively incorporate virtual worlds into marketing pedagogy. Marketing practitioners are rapidly moving into this space, and to remain competitive, our marketing students need to learn how to apply their real-world skills in a virtual world such as Second Life.
VIRTUAL MENTORING FOR A RETAIL MARKETING CLASS: EXPLORING A TECHNOLOGICAL SOLUTION FOR A LEARNING NEED

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ABSTRACT

Student interaction with business professionals is desirable for building student knowledge and skills. While student interactions with business professionals occur through internships, guest speakers, company-based projects, etc., this exploratory research examines a one-to-one student/business professional pedagogical tool known as "virtual mentoring."

Virtual mentoring pairs individual students with experienced professionals. Interactions between mentor and student are primarily by e-mail. While virtual mentoring has many advantages, particularly for students located far from company locations, there are some disadvantages as well. E-mail communications can create disconnects between individuals, and hence monitoring, support, and structure are important to provide a quality experience (Peltier, Schibrowsky, & Drago, 2007).

The virtual mentoring tool used in this research was adapted from a management course model (Tyran & Garcia, 2005) and used in a senior-level retail marketing class. The objectives were to: (1) aid student understanding of how theory was applied in the retail world, (2) better understand the skills used in the retail/business world, and (3) develop communication and networking skills. Virtual mentors were recruited by the instructor and represented a mix of retailers in terms of size, product assortment and job descriptions including owners, merchandise buyers, CMOs, CIOs, sales managers, etc. There was one mentor for each student in the class.

Students initiated a series of four e-mail exchanges followed by a thank you e-mail and a reflective essay on what they had learned. Students were encouraged to go beyond the minimum requirements and many met their mentor, talked on the phone, or exceeded the required exchange number. Ongoing student feedback was solicited in class to reinforce learning objectives and help solve problems.

Student response to an end-of-term survey indicated very strong qualitative student feedback indicated very strong attitudes for enhanced learning through virtual mentoring. Issues to overcome included mentor promptness, fullness of answers to questions, having enough classroom training, and matching of student and mentor. The reflective essay was highly rated as a learning tool by the students.

Virtual mentor feedback was obtained through an electronic survey (69 percent response rate). The virtual mentors felt that the exercise was good for students. A very high number of firms view helping students and education as part of their corporate culture. Virtual mentor attitudes were strongly positive about the experience being worthwhile for them, that the executive’s view of the modern student was enhanced, that it helped the mentors reflect on their own knowledge, and that the virtual mentor felt good about helping a student learn. Areas for improvement included better instructions and schedule clarity.

This study was very experimental which limits generalization. However, it does help to point the way for using technology in a positive manner to further learning through dialogues between business professionals and business students. The study also points out refinements to the tool, careful mentor recruitment and matching of mentors with students. Further analysis is needed to increase perceived learning and better understand the reciprocal nature of the virtual mentoring experience and the implications for that relationship in the long term.

REFERENCES


The advent of computer-based social networking allows people to stay in touch with friends and family, as well as participate in virtual worlds few envisioned ten years ago. The use of social networks as a mechanism to meet potential life partners is another way that digital communications have changed the way that people interact. Social networking sites, such as Facebook and MySpace, have been at the forefront of these technologies. Another recent networking site, Second Life, is an online virtual world, created, modified and governed by the participants. The media has been replete with stories regarding the potential misuse of these sites, including virtual assault on members within the virtual world.

Is it possible that educators, by encouraging the study and utilization of online social networks and virtual realities, risk real-life liabilities for their students’ activities in these arenas? What is the educator’s responsibility if real physical and/or emotional harm befalls a student who uses or experiments with online social dating as a result of a class project or assignment? These issues and others will be discussed in the context of marketing education, with the goal of increasing awareness among marketing faculty.
TOWARD A DEEPER UNDERSTANDING OF CONSUMERS AND MARKETS:
INTEGRATING QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS
INTO EXISTING MARKETING COURSES

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ABSTRACT

Over the past decade, and at an increasing rate, both corporations and scholarly journals have embraced the application of qualitative research methods to explore and understand the complex, inner workings of consumers and markets. During this same time period, however, the Journal of Marketing Research, the flagship scholarly journal in market research, has rarely published articles that provide scholarly or practical insights on qualitative research methodologies. This lack of innovation has contributed largely to the introduction of new journals such as the Qualitative Market Research Journal to address this gap in the academic marketplace. Established in 1998, the Qualitative Market Research Journal serves to further the frontiers of knowledge and understanding of qualitative market research and its applications through the exploration of contemporary issues and developments in marketing. Recent articles in this journal point to the validity and utility of diverse qualitative research methodologies such as videography and ethnography, to name just a few (Agafonoff, 2006; Belk & Kozinets, 2005).

In spite of the promise and insights that qualitative research methods have provided for corporate application and scholarly inquiry, textbooks in marketing research have surprisingly failed to reflect this phenomenon. A review of major textbooks on marketing research, for example, reveals either the complete absence of a discussion on qualitative research methods or a superficial acknowledgement of them in the form of one chapter. When such chapters are included, their content is usually limited to the discussion of the well-established but problematic method of focus group interviews (www.academic.cengage.com, www.mhhe.com, www.atomicdogpublishing.com, www.prenhall.com). The end result, unfortunately, points to a disappointing picture of marketing students who successfully complete courses in marketing research but are ill-equipped to design or implement real world projects that require qualitative research methodologies or even a multiple-method approach.

The comprehensive and diverse toolkit of qualitative research methods includes, but is not limited to, focus group interviews, depth or long interviews, ethnography, participant observation, direct observation, videography, netnography, oral histories, digital storytelling, photographic analysis, and other visual and/or image-based research methods (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Flick, 2007; Madison, 2005; Mariampolski, 2005; Rose, 2001). Such methods allow marketing scholars, educators, and practitioners to gain a deeper understanding of consumers and markets – an understanding that goes above and beyond the superficiality of how much and how many and instead pursues the complex notion of why and how the consumer thinks or the market works. At a time that increasingly urges us to engage critically with marketing ideas and activities, innovations in market research that foster a deeper and more contextualized understanding of consumers and markets is an idea ripe for exploration (Catterall, Maclaran & Stevens, 2002). In this session, the authors will provide an overview of some of the key qualitative research methodologies available to marketing educators who seek to expand their toolkit in marketing and marketing research education. They will also provide examples of projects and experiential learning exercises to facilitate the integration of qualitative research methods into existing marketing courses.

REFERENCES


IMPROV COMEDY: TECHNIQUES AND EXERCISES

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ABSTRACT

The techniques used in improv comedy can improve presentation skills, creativity, collaboration, listening and communication. As such, these techniques can be used to improve the skills of both students and teachers of marketing. In this session, I explained some of the guidelines, practices and philosophies of this art form. Attendees were then asked to actively participate in exercises designed to drive these guidelines, practices and philosophies home. The session ended with a discussion of if and how these techniques can be used in the marketing classroom.

BACKGROUND AND SUMMARY

I have studied improv for several years and performed on stage several times. I believe this experience has improved my presentation and creative skills. I have also noticed much overlap between what I have learned about improv and additional business skills (e.g., teamwork). I have attempted to incorporate some of these skills into the classroom, specifically into case discussions (see Aylesworth, forthcoming), but only at a very shallow level. Others (e.g., Huffaker & West, 2005) have built entire classes around the use of these techniques.

Recently, I have successfully run single sessions with practitioners and alumni introducing and practicing these techniques. These sessions consist of an introduction to the basic guidelines of improv, followed by practice of these guidelines utilizing improv games and exercises. Sessions end with a debriefing in which we discuss applications in the business world in general, and applications to the participants' specific issues. This special session mimicked these sessions with practitioners.

IMPROV TECHNIQUES

The techniques discussed and practiced in this session included “yes,” “build a brick,” “character inspiration,” and others. Participants in the session learned these techniques then participated in the exercises designed to drive them home.

REFERENCES


An research project was conducted across two classrooms using the learning approach known as parallel coursing. Students in Principles of Marketing and Statistics for Business and Economics classes collaborated on a study of customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The goals of the project included illustrating the importance of collaborative research across disciplines, demonstrating the importance of using statistics to solve business problems, and providing students with actual experience in developing a study from the ground up, culminating in the construction of an empirical model to analyze customer satisfaction. Students worked within and between classrooms to conduct literature reviews, create and administer an online survey, load and analyze data using SPSS and other software, and draw conclusions on their focal topics based on their findings. The outcome of this experience suggests that students benefit in terms of understanding customer satisfaction at the conceptual and practical levels. When students participate in an integrated classroom project, they have a stake in seeing the project through from definition and conceptualization to the presentation of their findings.
BUILDING A MARKETING CURRICULUM TO SUPPORT COURSES IN SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND SOCIAL VENTURE COMPETITIONS

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Katrin R. Harich, California State University, Fullerton, College of Business and Economics, Fullerton, CA 92834, kharich@fullerton.edu

ABSTRACT

The term “social entrepreneurship” has gained a great deal of attention in the past few years in universities, business journals, and the popular media. Currently, several universities have programs in social entrepreneurship, offer courses in social entrepreneurship, and/or sponsor social venture competitions.

However, most of the business programs offering social venture programs focus the courses and workshops they offer on management issues such as leading and motivating volunteers, and the financial issues of securing start-up capital and providing for the operations of such an organization. Marketing courses are generally offered as electives and are often indistinguishable from marketing courses offered in most business curricula.

Because of the newness and the diversity of social enterprise programs, the discipline of marketing has not addressed the curricular requirements of students involved in social entrepreneurship programs and/or social ventures. A review of the literature revealed that social entrepreneurship programs include some marketing concepts such as opportunity identification and promotion, but there is very little elaboration as to how the marketing requirements of social ventures differ from those of traditional for-profit enterprises or non-profit organizations.

Our experiences with social enterprise programs, however, have led us to believe that such programs require an additional set of skills to those covered in most marketing curricula. This study examines the implications of the increased popularity of social enterprise programs and social venture competitions for the marketing curriculum.

Most importantly, the populations of interest in social ventures tend to be different than groups traditionally targeted by marketers. Social ventures in the U.S. often target the homeless, migrant populations, or other populations that are not adequately served by social services or charities. There are usually no lists of those individuals that can be used as a sampling frame. Sampling techniques need to be adapted to populations that cannot be reached at a specific address. Additionally, traditional survey collection methods are often ineffective when applied to individuals who may be incapable or unwilling to communicate with interviewers.

This paper outlines a suggested marketing curriculum to meet the needs of students preparing for social entrepreneurship ventures. We recommend that additional emphasis be placed on opportunity identification, ethnographic research methods, branding, and low cost promotions. While most of these areas are covered in current marketing curricula, social entrepreneurship programs require some repackaging of information that is available in various existing courses. Other recommendations, such as the focus on ethnographic research require a different set of research skills than is currently emphasized in marketing research courses.

References Available on Request.
EXTRA CREDIT QUIZZES: HOW THEY AFFECT OTHER GRADED COMPONENTS OF THE CLASS AND STUDENT ATTITUDES

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ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

This paper compares how offering quizzes as a mandatory requirement or as "extra credit" affects students’ performance in a course. It would be reasonable to assume that the incentive of extra credit would have at least some positive effect on the performance of students. But it could also be that students’ expectations of the value of extra credit are disproportionate to the actual effects. This study examines how offering quizzes as "extra credit" affects students’ perceptions of the quizzes as well as their performance on graded components of the class that are related to quiz content.

LITERATURE REVIEW

An extensive literature review found that faculty attitudes on the offering of extra credit range from sympathy for, and hence “special” treatment of "marginal students,” to outright refusal to offer it. In general, faculty reported having mixed feelings on the topic of extra credit. Also, it appears that extra credit is offered for a variety of reasons, ranging from such basic objectives as attending class to such “non-academic” activities as donating blood!

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The main objective of the study was to compare the performance of two similar groups of students in an objective manner using two different quiz strategies.

METHOD

Two large-section classes in an introductory marketing course were given different incentives for taking a set of ten quizzes that were administered throughout the semester. One class was told that the quizzes were “mandatory” while the other class was told that the quizzes were “extra credit.” The rationale for the first group was that the mandatory quizzes would reinforce students’ understanding of the material, and that this would favorably affect their overall performance. The second group was given the opportunity to earn extra credit by taking ten (completely voluntary) quizzes during the semester. This extra credit was added to the final scores earned by the second group in order to compute final grades. It was anticipated that the extra credit offered would lead to improved performance as measured by students’ scores on the various graded components of the class. Each quiz (for both groups) was made available online, using the textbook publisher’s test bank, and consisted of ten questions relating to the work covered that week.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Of the ten quizzes offered, the mandatory quiz group and extra credit group took an average of 7.31 quizzes and 7.52 quizzes, respectively. While there was no difference between the two groups on the course grade, the extra credit group obtained higher average scores on both the quizzes and the project paper. Yet the results showed that the students’ performance on the mandatory quizzes is more closely tied to the other parts of the course than are the extra credit quizzes. The mandatory group scored significantly higher average scores on both midterms and the final examination. These results strongly favor the use of mandatory quizzes over extra credit quizzes. Even though the extra credit group scored higher than the mandatory group on the quizzes, this superior quiz performance did not translate into superior performance on the midterm exams or on the final exam. It appears that, for some students, extra credit is a mechanism they use to compensate for poor performance on the main components of the course. Despite students’ liking for extra credit, this study’s results favor the use of mandatory quizzes.

CONCLUSION

The authors wish to thank the paper reviewers for their helpful comments, and acknowledge that a study comparing the effects of extra credit on marketing students with other student populations would be desirable. The full paper is available from the authors on request.

References Available on Request.
ABSTRACT

In a global world, preparing business students to function well in various cross-cultural contexts has become increasingly relevant. Business education must prepare students for a reality of diversity.

This essay describes a case study of collaboration among students from three different countries. The collaboration took place in the spring of 2007 when students from Germany, Finland and the U.S. worked together on a real-life consulting project for a client based in Germany.

The client for the project was a management consulting firm with a focus on the banking sector. Students were tasked to answer the question of what a regional German bank can learn from banks in other countries when it comes to improving its service quality.

Project challenges included different levels of student involvement, communication difficulties and the time difference. Project benefits were the acquisition of skills (marketing and marketing research knowledge, understanding of the banking industry, interpersonal skills, time management, understanding of customer service, managing a real-life project) and enhanced cross-cultural understanding.

The project provided an innovative way of learning, offering students the opportunity to enhance various skills, cross-cultural understanding and academic knowledge, a combination that could not easily be accomplished in a traditional classroom setting.

References Available on Request.
Cultural awareness and sensitivity is one of the most important topics in international marketing courses. But when students have little or no personal experience in dealing with different cultures, it can be difficult for them to understand deeply the manifold ways in which cultural differences and consequent misunderstandings affect global marketing effectiveness. This paper proposes a pedagogical remedy for students’ lack of experience with cultural differences, misperceptions, and personal growth in cultural understanding – having students read and discuss the novel *Speaker for the Dead*. In reading this intrinsically interesting novel, students vicariously experience both intellectually and emotionally what it means to misunderstand and then, by degrees, better understand another culture. The paper highlights telling details in the novel that graphically illustrate important global marketing concepts such as culture and the self-reference criterion.
LINKING MARKETING STUDENTS TO THE REAL WORLD OF GLOBAL MARKETING: AN EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

Business school educators continue to adopt new experiential learning methods and provide a total educational experience that emphasizes conceptual reasoning, problem solving skills, and preparation for lifelong learning (AACSB, 2007). To meet demands from the international business community, faculty face challenges to provide students with multicultural understanding and critical thinking skills. To assist in these challenges, this paper describes a new experiential learning technique called the business proposal and compares this new technique with the traditional case study. The goal of this study is to measure student preferences and the learning effectiveness of these two learning activities in an International Marketing course, and develop recommendations for marketing educators. The study shows student preferences for the new international business proposal assignment over the traditional case study, especially in improving ability to understand the real world of international business. In addition, the business proposal assignment improved students’ multicultural and critical thinking skills.

INTRODUCTION

Today, multicultural understanding, experiential learning activities, and critical thinking skills are important elements of marketing education. In today’s demanding world of education, the growing variety of educational tools and theories of the effectiveness of teaching have made teaching globally even more difficult for marketing educators. When looking at the extent of the marketing literature, an educator faces the challenge of providing multicultural understanding to students. Mainstream marketing texts give little or sometimes no coverage to multicultural marketing issues. Multicultural marketing pedagogy is so underdeveloped there is significant potential to develop this aspect of discourse (Burton, 2005). With globalization in many countries and industries, multicultural knowledge and cross-cultural experience have become extremely important for marketing students. Only a few years ago, it was hard to find a personal resume with multicultural expertise; now the many multinational corporations have set up multicultural marketing departments or required their personnel to have multicultural skills. Are our marketing students ready for this challenge?

To prepare students for a real world perspective, educators use a wide spectrum of teaching styles and techniques, many falling into the category of experiential learning activities (Frontczak & Kelley, 2000). Existing marketing literature indicates that many marketing programs use a variety of experiential learning activities, such as living case projects (Browne, 1995), in-basket exercises (Pearson et al., 2006), experiential learning exercises (Gremler et al., 2000), student-driven syllabi (Frontczak & Daughtrey, 2004), and many others. And as a result, Karns’ research indicates that experiential learning activities are seen as relatively more effective (Karns, 2005, 2006). This was also concluded by many others (Olsen, 1994; Young, 2005; Clarke & Flanerty, 2002, Li et al., 2007).

Other research discovered that “real world,” personal, practical work experience can be used to establish credibility among marketing students. The most knowledgeable and credible educator offers “real world” cases beyond those offered in the textbook and prepares students for the realities of a marketing career (Faranda & Clark, 2004). Also, since the majority of marketing students do not have international experience, real world exercises (such as living cases, simulations, real business proposals, field trips and the like) in international marketing courses can certainly improve students’ knowledge, and in some cases, give them actual international experience. Karns’ study explores and measures preferences for learning activities rather than effectiveness (Karns, 2006); he also analyzed differences in learning style dimensions by using Kolb’s model (Kolb. 1984). Marketing educators recommend that further research should investigate how specific learning activities influence learning outcomes (Morrison et al., 2006), which directly relates to this research.

The primary thrust of this study is to examine the preparation of students for international marketing careers. This paper presents a new experiential learning project to link marketing students to real world experience. The marketing literature supports the importance of this link (Browne,1995; Forman, 2006). This research investigates the effect of the new teaching technique on
multicultural understanding for international marketing students. Through examination of how marketing students respond to the new teaching technique relative to the effectiveness of their learning, recommendations are offered for marketing educators.

The paper will also seek to understand how critical thinking theory relates to this teaching technique. We believe that assisting students in their critical thinking skills is a crucial element of marketing education and helps prepare students for real world experience. The study proposes a new teaching technique – a business proposal, which encourages student’s critical thinking.

OVERVIEW OF THE BUSINESS PROPOSAL

The business proposal is the primary project assigned in a required International Marketing course at a public four-year college. Each individual student in the class acts as part of a marketing department of an American corporation (the student chooses an actual company) which is developing a product (the student chooses the product) for a foreign market. The particular project was prepared for the Russian market, although in the future this project may apply to any foreign market. Each student is given a particular geographic region of the foreign market, which makes the project more challenging from a real perspective. After marketing research and analysis of the region of the foreign market, each student prepares a synthesized business proposal for the foreign partner. In this case, three foreign partners were selected; one from Moscow, one from Vladivostok and one from St. Petersburg. Each has very unique regional characteristics.

The preliminary stage of the project includes the preparation period by the instructor. The instructor contacts real business partners overseas who are interested in helping with this student project. In addition to selecting several foreign partners, two conditions exist: partners must be experts on the particular region of the foreign market, and partners must be willing to provide student evaluations and offer constructive feedback. The project includes two primary learning objectives. The first objective is to gain a multicultural understanding of the foreign market. The project emphasizes the need to understand the unique environment as an essential step preceding the preparation of a business proposal. The second objective is to provide students with the opportunity to prepare a business proposal for a real partner overseas. The project allows students to reinforce key concepts covered in International Marketing and other courses; and motivates students to expand their critical thinking skills through an international business experience.

There are five functional steps of the project for each student:
1. Conduct a marketing research analysis of the sub-region of the foreign market (for example, an analysis of Moscow, Vladivostok or St. Petersburg).
2. Select and analyze a product of an American company which might be suitable for this sub-region.
3. Complete the business proposal to get the product accepted by the foreign partner.
4. Email the business proposal to both the foreign partner and the instructor. Include an appropriate subject title, such as, “Business Proposal for X Product from [the student’s name].”
5. Receive feedback from the foreign partner and discuss this feedback with the instructor.

Students should consider that the instructor is an expert on the foreign market throughout the preparation period. Students and the instructor use email and class discussion to coordinate activities and strategies. It is critical that the instructor follows and evaluates each stage of the student project.

METHODOLOGY

In order to analyze the effectiveness of this experiential learning technique, student feedback was collected for spring and fall semesters from 2004 through 2006. The sampling frame for the study consisted of 155 students in an International Marketing course. These students were undergraduate level seniors and juniors of the Business School. The majority of the students were marketing majors. Participation was voluntary, although 98 percent of the students completed the survey. The sequence of the course was designed to expose the students to a variety of instructional methods, including a traditional case study and an experiential learning exercise (the business proposal). The survey is based on studies by Olsen (1994) and by Turley and Shannon (1999) and further refined by Frontczak and Daughtrey (2004) and Frontczak (2005).

Students were asked to evaluate both teaching methods on a variety of dimensions. The students responded to a three-page survey including two areas of questions, which are shown in Tables 1 and 2: perceived effectiveness of the business proposal assignment and a measure of critical thinking. The two areas contained twelve and four statements, respectively. Students were required to evaluate each statement on a 5-point scale that
ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

TABLE 1
Perceptual Differences of Traditional Case Study versus an Experiential Learning Project Business Proposal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Traditional Case Study (n=155)</th>
<th>Business Proposal (n=146)</th>
<th>V***</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This project was helpful to me in understanding the international marketing course.</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This project made the course more interesting.</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This project allowed me to apply what I learned to real business situations.</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learned a lot about international marketing from this project.</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe this project is valuable as a measure of my learning.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>-.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This project was helpful to me in understanding cultural differences.</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I used the knowledge received from previous courses.</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>-.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoyed working on this project.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>-.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would recommend this project to other marketing students.</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This project did not seem silly.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This project was not a waste of my time.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>-.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This project was worth the effort.</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Items were measured on a 5-point scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). V*** = Variations

TABLE 2
Measure of Critical Thinking for the Business Proposal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean (n=146)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would like to make a business proposal in the language of foreign partner.</td>
<td>2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to use a translator for writing the business proposal.</td>
<td>2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to communicate to the foreign partner during the project.</td>
<td>3.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to have the business proposal reviewed by the instructor before sending to the foreign partner.</td>
<td>3.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Items were measured on a 5-point scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

RESULTS

The first area of the study measured the effectiveness of the teaching techniques. The 12 items involved a direct comparative evaluation of the experiential learning exercise and the traditional case study technique. As shown in Table 1, all 12 items are greater than 3 on a 5 point scale for both methods, which indicates a positive result from students. The top ratings for the experiential learning exercise (business proposal) are ranked in ascending order as follows:

1. This project allowed me to apply what I learned to real business situations;
2. This project was helpful to me in understanding the international marketing course;
3. This project did not seem silly;
4. This project was worth the effort;
5. I used the knowledge received from previous courses;
6. This project was helpful to me in understanding cultural differences;
7. I would recommend this project to other marketing students.

Since the primary thrust of this study is to examine the preparation of students for an international marketing career, the study focused on effectiveness of the learning experience. Clearly, the business proposal assignment was the most effective in the area of real world experience and satisfaction in career preparation.
As shown in Table 1, the means of the two items related to the real business situation and personal satisfaction are 4.53 and 4.25, respectively. Similar results can be seen in other research (Forman, 2006; Li, Greenberg, & Nicholls 2007), and the results confirm that real world experience and personal satisfaction in career preparation benefit from experiential learning.

**CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS**

The business proposal assignment offers a valuable alternative to the traditional case study for International Marketing courses. Findings reveal that students seem to learn more through this experiential project than from a traditional case study, which of course has great benefits to students too. Also, the results of this study provide empirical support for the inclusion of practical multicultural experiences in the context of the International Marketing classroom.

The study produced five main findings:

1. Analyzing the research and developing an international business proposal are very different than just reading about it. Preparing the research paper to be accepted by both the real business partner overseas and the professor is a double responsibility for students. Students suggested that they get a feel for the reality of international business. Interestingly, the students tended to feel much more comfortable preparing a business proposal for a local market rather than for a general international partner. Narrowing the challenge to a certain sub-region allowed the students to focus on a particular area allowing for a greater sense of accomplishment.

2. A major benefit of this new technique is that the project can complement career interests. Students said that they had great motivation to have real international experience. They preferred to have the business proposal project with the real foreign partner’s response in their personal profile, rather than a traditional case study. Also, the project allowed students the opportunity to work with an international business partner without an expensive study abroad experience.

3. The experiential assignment helped students to understand cultural differences between the U.S. and an area of Russia. The project provided students with an understanding of the breadth and depth of the cultural responsibilities that a marketer needs today to be successful in international business relationships. For example, students discovered that the Russian economic environment is not stable; each sub-region of Russia is unique and differs both economically and socially.

4. The students indicated that this project made the course more interesting and did not seem silly.

5. This is a challenging, rewarding assignment for both the educator and student. In establishing and maintaining an open dialogue with the students and the foreign partners, the educator can face two challenges: (1) they need to carefully organize, coordinate and to create the rules between the students and foreign partner; and (2) they must provide a supportive environment with liberal outside assistance so as to personalize interactions with each student (Mohr, 2007). In addition to having a clear understanding of the project, the educator must introduce the project to the students at the beginning of the term, get the students to focus on particular products, give examples, introduce the Russian market, and prepare the appropriate library resources for the students. The Russian business partners enjoyed working with the U.S. marketing students. One of the other challenges for the educator is to maintain their relationships and develop new contacts. In other words, preparation is the key to the success of the project. The main challenge for the students was to understand the differences of the foreign market and culture. The survey did indicate that the new project was not as enjoyable as compared to a traditional case study. It may have been somewhat less enjoyable because it was much more challenging and time consuming than a traditional case analysis. Sometimes the most challenging project is also the most memorable. Students’ most memorable course experiences are often those where they were challenged in a significant yet meaningful way and where they accomplished a lot through their own hard work and determination, even more than they originally realized they were capable of accomplishing (Mohr, 2007).

**REFERENCES**


ABSTRACT

A content study was conducted of U.S. AACSB Business School websites to evaluate the pervasiveness of Personal Selling and Sales Management classes in the marketing curriculum as well as evaluate the types of sales programs offered. The results show Personal Selling (8 percent) and Sales Management classes (7 percent) are rarely required as part of marketing curricula even though a majority of marketing and business careers start in sales. The purpose of this research was to evaluate sales curriculum offerings and to develop a resource-efficient, academic sales training program beyond the Personal Selling class within the marketing curriculum. Typical sales curriculum configurations are discussed and information on the current state of professional selling curriculum in business schools is presented. Our study suggests the most resource efficient sales program should start with the development of an academic sales certificate program.

THE SALES CERTIFICATE

The sales certificate appears to offer a resource efficient solution to extending the sales curriculum. It is versatile in its compact form (six to nine semester units) serving as a concentration in marketing or as an addition to another functional area of business (for example, finance students pursuing a career in financial services or management students pursuing entrepreneurship). A sales certificate can be a useful addition to a non-business major such as communications, hotel and restaurant management, or music for those that might manage music stores or music careers. The sales certificate should begin as a business college option only and gradually extend to non-business programs as resources are negotiated.

The sales certificate configuration can start as the traditional two classes of Personal Selling and Sales Management. We suggest that the third class be an internship. Many business schools are starting to offer several sales courses as part of their curriculum. Many of these sales courses and certificates do not require sales internships as part of the courses. For new graduates, it is difficult to enter the world of sales without hands-on sales experience.

For those business schools that cannot afford the resources for a third sales class, a reconfiguration of the traditional Personal Selling and Sales Management classes should be considered. If Personal Selling is the first class then the second class would combine sales management with a selling internship.

A second configuration would replace Sales Management with an advanced selling class that includes the internship. Required internships would place sales students with local companies and could include shadowing a sales representative, participating in cold calling and prospecting, managing sales databases, and providing employment opportunities immediately upon graduation.

A third configuration, for those schools that view internships as unmanageable, would coordinate the Personal Selling and Sales Management classes to role play selling and management situations. This would provide more control of the sales process than internships could generally provide.

There are a number of changes that could be made to the marketing curriculum that could enhance the effectiveness of the sales certificate through stronger integrative curriculum efforts: Enhance business-to-business sales relationships and organizational buyer behavior in the Distribution class; expand organizational buyer behavior in the required Consumer Behavior class; develop sales and sales management modules in the Marketing Management class; include sales strategy in the Promotion class as part of a truly integrated marketing communications strategy; and/or develop sales research and forecasting in the Marketing Research class.

Regardless of the cause of the current sales curriculum situation, resource efficient solutions are needed. Our conclusions suggest implementing a sales certificate and starting with a small, six to nine unit commitment. As success emerges, first incrementally within the marketing curriculum and then within the business curriculum, an expansion to this important business tool can be made.
STUDENT PERSONALITY TYPES IN TEAM PROJECTS: A TEAM STYLES BASED PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

Student team projects have been adopted by marketing educators as a way to enhance student learning. Through participation in team projects, students learn to work with others who bring diverse approaches and ideas to the team setting. Researchers have found that team projects help improve motivation and develop communication skills, cooperation and leadership skills. This exploratory research seeks to improve our understanding of student behavior in project teams by developing an inventory of student team personality types.

Although negative team project experiences can contribute to negative attitudes about working in teams, it is our hope that student understanding and acceptance of the diverse personalities that exist in a team can help improve performance. One of the authors some years ago devised an ad hoc set of personality types that has been used in a humorous way to make students aware of different ways in which they may act in team settings. Descriptors of these personality types were used as the basis of a survey designed to query students about their self-perceived attitudes and behaviors regarding their personalities in teams. These questions explored students’ attitudes about team communication, leadership, work styles, division of labor, and goals.

PERSONALITY TYPE FACTOR ANALYSIS

Principles of Marketing students (n = 239) responded to 27 questions about student behaviors when working in teams. Using 7-point Likert-type scales where 1 = describes me very well and 7 = describes me poorly, participants were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with 27 statements that described their beliefs or behaviors when working in a group.

Principle Components analysis was used, extracting factors with Eigenvalues greater than one. The analysis revealed nine factors that were labeled based on the underlying trait summarized by the questions that loaded on them, each representing an approach to, or style of performing, team work. The nine factors appear below. These labels are intentionally irreverent and humorous because we have found such labels disarm students and are thus more likely to be thoughtfully considered than more mundane, academic, or diplomatic labels would be. A brief discussion of each appears below:

**Directors** like to lead and take charge, and find it difficult to give the floor to others or take in ideas without offering their own perspectives.

**Passive-ists** prefer to hand the reigns to someone else. They require hand-holding, and prefer to be given clear assignments that require little initiative to complete.

**Dictators** seek to dominate the substance of team projects. They feel their approach is the best, and take offence at being questioned or monitored.

**Competitors** are driven by a desire to succeed; success is often measured by outperforming other teams rather than via qualitative or comprehensive measures of how much was learned.

**Work-Avoidants** seek to put off work, and seek the least amount of work.

**Loners** may produce good work, but they prefer to do it independently. These students may have the most negative attitudes towards team projects.

**Communists** seek equal work from all, and this goal is often given higher priority than the actual project output; equity assessments take precedence.

**Control-Freaks** are the worriers. They want to be involved with and notified of all decisions, and seek success through hyper-vigilance.

**Freeloader-Avoiders** know their abilities can be taken advantage of, and seek to ensure each person has their own responsibilities from the outset.

DISCUSSION

The types revealed by the factor analysis provide strong support for the broad distinctions in behavior and attitude towards teamwork they are designed to highlight. The factors revealed here can be used as part of in-class exercises to increase awareness of how one’s personality may affect satisfaction with the team experience and its outcomes. Additional avenues for future research include an examination of how these personality and approach types each influence student satisfaction with teams and the success of those teams. Though the results reported here provide important insights on the personality types that exist in student team settings, the underlying mechanisms behind these results remain unclear and provide opportunity for future research that increases the benefits of student team projects.
ABSTRACT

While verbal and written communications in a sales presentation have long been subject to objective measurement and instruction, nonverbal communications have received less empirical scrutiny (Peterson, 2005). This research examines the influence of enthusiasm, confidence, and appropriate nonverbal signals within student National Collegiate Sales Competition (NCSC) role-play presentations (Loe & Chonko, 2000). The NCSC evaluation form arguably contains the theoretical and empirical dimensions of effective and persuasive sales presentations. Our research finds that appropriate nonverbal signals are underweighted in the NCSC scoring system, and by extension, should be a more important component in university and professional sales training classes.

THEORY

Signaling theory suggests that presentations supported by complementary verbal and nonverbal expressions are more readily understood and believable (Heiser, 2005). Belief in yourself and fervor for the product are considered essential antecedents in the adaptive/consultative approach to personal selling; confidence and enthusiasm in a sales presentation are traditional benchmarks of strong interpersonal skills and good salesmanship (Bagozzi, 1978). A salesperson’s use of appropriate nonverbal signals may be more persuasive as nonverbal behaviors that are consistent with the presentation topic are deemed more credible and trustworthy by consumers (Jones & LeBaron, 2002).

A strong effect of nonverbal communications is noted within communication dyads; indeed some researchers believe that nonverbal communications account for more than 50 percent of the communication effectiveness within interpersonal encounters (e.g., Ekman & Friesen, 1997). Controlling emotional responses enhances social functioning (Pallant, 2000), and studies also suggest that communications between people are optimized when the verbal and non-verbal elements are synchronized (Jones & LeBaron, 2002). We believe nonverbal communications may also be a significant factor in the effectiveness of a sales presentation rating, and account for much of the presentation effectiveness variance.

METHOD

Personal selling courses taught by one of the authors were organized in an experiential role-play format consistent with constructive, reflective learning (Kolb, 1984), instructional standards for teaching personal selling (Parker, Pettijohn & Luke, 1996), and enhanced learning from competitive involvement in the sales presentation (Widmeir, Loe & Selden, 2007). Sixty-five students evaluated a final role-play sales call presentation by their classmates with the form utilized in the national sales competition (NCSC).

RESULTS

The NCSC item “appropriate nonverbal communication” uniquely contributes seven percent to the total sales rating. Nonverbal communications were also positively related to the approach sales dimension in which the salesperson gains attention and builds rapport ($r = .173$), and negatively related to handling objections ($r = -.236$) and closing the sale ($r = -.59$) dimensions. Confidence and enthusiasm were found to impact evaluations of some students but had no appreciable effect on mean evaluations overall.

IMPLICATIONS

Our data show that appropriate nonverbal communications significantly and positively impact sales evaluations. Conversely, when these behaviors are lacking or inappropriately delivered, their detriment to evaluations of the presentation exceeds that given in the NSCS rating system. The measure of confidence and enthusiasm negatively affected some student evaluations but was unrelated to overall performance in the sample.

Nonverbal training should be an integral component of sales training programs. Verbal and nonverbal communications can be synthesized so that a strong, consistent sales message effectively solidifies and enhances the exchange relationship.

References Available on Request.
GETTING PUBLISHED IN THE JOURNAL OF MARKETING EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

SESSION PURPOSE

The major purpose of this session was to share and exchange information with potential authors with the goal of increasing their ability to produce and submit manuscripts that have a high likelihood of being accepted and eventually published. Another major purpose was to provide advice on how best to approach revising manuscripts for which the editor has invited a revision. The four session leaders provided examples of “do’s” and “don’ts” by drawing on their experience in dealing with hundreds of manuscripts over the past decade. Audience members were encouraged and expected to ask questions of the session leaders during the session.

SESSION RATIONALE

High quality marketing education research and manuscripts are critically important if we are to advance our role and capabilities as effective marketing educators. Many outstanding marketing faculty members are likely to possess significant knowledge and experience that, if shared with others in the profession, would advance our field. However, it is believed that potential authors need more guidance on how to position their manuscripts before submission as well as how to reposition them once a revision has been invited after the first round of reviews. This faculty development session increased knowledge about the characteristics of authors’ research and manuscripts eventually published by the Journal of Marketing Education.

SESSION OBJECTIVES

(1) Provide current information on the journal such as submission guidelines, upcoming special issues, etc.
(2) Provide advice on positioning original submissions.
(3) Provide insight into the manuscript review process.
(4) Provide knowledge on why manuscripts are rejected versus revisions invited.
(5) Provide knowledge on how to deal with invited revisions.

MAJOR TOPICS COVERED

Five major topics were covered during the session. They included: (1) following submission guidelines, (2) preparing the manuscript’s “front end,” (3) proving your research and analytical skills, (4) developing and making recommendations for marketing educators, and (5) preparing a revised manuscript. The five topics were addressed by the four panelists. An overview of thoughts each shared follow.

Submitting Your Manuscript

Doug Lincoln reviewed the journal’s current submission guidelines and stressed how important it is to follow these guidelines. Failure to follow guidelines can lead to the Editor’s desk rejection or substantially delay the review process. Some common mistakes in not following guidelines that Doug mentioned included: revealing author or institutional affiliation information in the manuscript’s text, not demonstrating (in the cover letter) how the manuscript addresses the journal’s mission, not numbering pages, forgetting to remove editing marks or comments, and not properly preparing responses to reviewer comments when submitting revised manuscripts.
Preparing Your Manuscript’s Front End

Gary Karns discussed the value of establishing the importance of the research question and articulating a compelling thesis in the opening of the manuscript. He then focused upon using the review of existing literature to rationalize and frame the research problem/questions. The literature review establishes the context for the research project portrayed in the manuscript. He indicated that reviewers expect a literature review to connect with prior articles published in the *Journal of Marketing Education* and in other outlets. He further noted that a clear conceptual model of the phenomena at issue was very helpful in developing a strong research project and a strong manuscript.

Proving Your Research and Analytical Skills

Ken Chapman discussed how the middle part of a manuscript (methodology, measures, sample, and results) is where the authors need to prove their research and analytical skills. This middle section of a manuscript is the backbone on which the literature review, discussion and implications rest. Ken also stressed that no matter how good the literature review or compelling the implications, if they are not backed up by strong methodological and result sections, most reviewers will not be convinced the manuscript is publishable. It is often in this section of the manuscript where authors leave out details casting a shadow of doubt about the overall quality of the submission. Lastly, Ken emphasized the importance of discussing the measures used, clearly describing samples and sampling and analyzing data in a thorough and systematic fashion.

Developing and Making Recommendations

Charles Duke stressed that the *Journal of Marketing Education* will not publish any article, regardless of its theoretical and/or empirical strength that does not offer a clear and substantial set of implications for marketing educators. He discussed tying your manuscript to the readers’ needs or how they will benefit from reading the article. The closure of the manuscript positions the classroom approach, curriculum idea, or professional development concept so that other educators can use the information. Charles suggested that all authors should continually ask themselves the question: “What will readers now be able to do that they could not do before reading my article?” as one test of their implications or recommendations section. Rather than being a “tacked-on afterthought,” the final section of the manuscript must flow from the initial framework through the meaty pedagogical details developed in the heart of the paper. Whether obvious or surprising, the recommendations and implications must be logical and well supported. Charles suggested that speculation and jumps in logic or subject matter tend to be less successful than clear applications to the readers’ professional lives.

Preparing Your Revised Manuscript

Doug Lincoln started discussion on this topic by mentioning that only about one-half of those authors invited to prepare and submit a revised manuscript actually do so. Yet, the journal has eventually accepted 80-85 percent of the revised manuscripts it has received in the past several years. He went on to give advice to those who actually do submit their revised manuscripts. Doug stressed the need to think of the editor and the three original reviewers as customers; to think of their needs. The Editor wants to have confidence that if the manuscript were published that it would be both read and valued by the journal’s readers.

When inviting a revision, Doug sends a letter highlighting what he sees as the major issues the author(s) need to address in their revision. When submitting the revision, it is always very wise of the author(s) to explicitly communicate to Doug how they addressed the major issues. Accordingly, if authors are unclear about these major issues or any of the concerns of the reviewers, they should contact Doug for clarification or different guidance. On occasion, an editor may need to communicate with one or more of the reviewers to help with the clarification tasks. Doug suggested that authors identify reviewer comments that require minor revisions versus those requiring a major rewrite of section(s) and to look for commonality within the comments of different reviewers before tackling the actual revision process. Authors should clearly report how they handled all reviewer comments. It is best to use a table format with reviewer comments in the left column and your responses in the right column. If you are not able to handle a comment, use a professional tone to thank the reviewer for the suggestion and explain why you could not do what was asked of you.
STRATEGIC MEMBERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PLAN OF THE MEA: GOING FUBU!

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ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

The Wells Fargo Center for Small Business and Entrepreneurship (WFCSBE) is the Small Business Administration consulting branch of the College of Business and Economics at California State University, Northridge.

This center offers business consulting services to organizations. For the past 30 years, the WFCSBE has served more than 100 clients ranging from start-ups, nonprofit organizations, and local and international companies, to large firms such as J.D. Power and Associates.

PURPOSE

In Fall 2007, the WFCSBE completed a marketing study for the Marketing Educators’ Association (MEA). The goal was to analyze and propose solutions for shaping the future of MEA.

In the past few years, there have been a number of significant changes for MEA. First, it changed its name from the Western Marketing Educators’ Association to the Marketing Educators’ Association. More recently its objective has been to grow the MEA into “the premiere international organization for faculty development of the marketing professoriate.” However, the numbers of MEA members have been stable for the past few years. To reach this objective of growth, a number of dramatic changes will need to be developed.

A NUMBER OF QUESTIONS ARE LEFT

• Who needs the MEA?
• What are the needs of our members?
• Are there any different needs for different members?
• Who are our competitors?
• What is our just-noticeable-difference?
• What are the short- and long-term opportunities facing MEA?
• What are the opportunities to generate revenues to later improve MEA’s performance?

PROPOSED PRESENTATION PLAN

The presentation will:
(1) introduce the association, its background, mission and past history;
(2) analyze its situation and its environment;
(3) propose solutions, and analyze these solutions;
(4) recommend a short-term practical plan; and finally
(5) provide a long-term strategic direction for sustainable growth.

POTENTIAL PARTICIPANTS

All board members from the MEA are invited to this session. Active members are obviously welcomed to discuss the implications and recommendations that will be presented. At least one student from the consulting team that was engaged on this project through the WFCSBE will be participating and presenting during the session.

We encourage everybody who has an interest in the success of MEA to join this session to discuss ideas for the future of our association.
ABSTRACT

This paper provides a justification and an implementation plan for the establishment of a historical orientation across the marketing curriculum. The justification for the historical perspective addresses three areas: critical and reflective thinking, practical implications, and tapping into the extensive body of knowledge in marketing history. The implementation plan involves the development of two pedagogical approaches: one that addresses the degree to which topical marketing history can be infused into the marketing curriculum, and one that addresses the development of a general historical perspective across marketing topics and courses (i.e., the role of marketing in history) by specifying historical contexts that are relevant to particular courses. The paper also discusses the potential for developing a Marketing History course as part of the marketing curriculum.
ABSTRACT

Of paramount importance for marketing educators today is how to best equip students to succeed in this knowledge-based society. There is a compelling need to articulate a cohesive, collective vision for education through a framework for action that deals with the complex challenges of accelerating technological change, rapidly accumulating knowledge, mounting global competition and expanding workforce capabilities. This paper focuses on e-learning as an innovative means of delivering responsive education to marketers of the future. The possibility of this evolving to mobile learning is likewise envisioned.

INTRODUCTION

Today’s economy places value on broad knowledge and skills, flexibility, cross-training, multi-tasking, teaming, problem solving and project-based work. Successful businesses are looking for employees who can adapt to changing needs, juggle multiple responsibilities and routinely make decisions on their own. Workers must be equipped not only with technical know-how but also with the ability to create, analyze and transform information and interact effectively with others. Learning will increasingly be a lifelong activity.

The explosion of powerful technology has altered traditional practices not only in workplaces but in homes as well. It is not only businesses that demand dramatically different sets of skills. Rapidly evolving technologies have made new skills a requirement for success in everyday life. Effectively managing personal affairs, from shopping for household products to selecting health care providers to making financial decisions, often requires people to acquire new knowledge from a variety of media, use different types of technologies and process complex information.

In a knowledge-based economy, citizens need to be better educated to fill new jobs and more flexible to respond to the changing knowledge and skill requirements of existing jobs. Lifelong skills development must become one of the central pillars of the new economy. A recent study indicated that the narrow job skills that most employees learn today will be obsolete within three to five years. Workers need to become lifelong learners with the capacity to update their knowledge and skills continually and independently.

Technology and advanced communications have transformed the world into a global community, with business associates and competitors as likely to be in Asia as in America (Achenbach, 1999). Also, horizontal organizations in competitive businesses require employees to make business decisions, work productively in teams, and communicate directly with customers. This being the environment, employers value job candidates who can acquire new knowledge, learn new technologies, rapidly process information, make decisions and communicate in a global and diverse society.

Education that prepares students for learning in this digital society will be more meaningful and more effective in preparing students for the future. Students who have access to technology outside of school will find schools without access to and integration of technology into their coursework to be antiquated and irrelevant to their world. Students without access at school or at home may find themselves on the periphery of the knowledge-based society.

The scenario remains that there is a profound gap between the knowledge and skills most students learn in school and the knowledge and skills required in the typical 21st century communities and workplaces. It must be recognized that a country’s vitality, economic viability, business competitiveness, and personal quality of life depend on a well-prepared populace and workforce. Education provides the bedrock from which our national and individual prosperity ascend together.

Thus, of paramount importance for educators today is how to best equip students to succeed in this knowledge-based society. There is a compelling need to articulate a cohesive, collective vision for education through a framework for action that deals with the complex challenges of accelerating technological change, rapidly accumulating knowledge, mounting global competition and expanding workforce capabilities.

Marketing and Marketing Education

Marketing education should be like marketing itself. It should be dynamic, ever-new, and ever-changing. Marketing is currently experiencing a wave of
popularity. This is evident in position announcements in newspapers and on the internet, and career placement services that are swamped by the demand for marketers. Companies who have jobs not distinctly specified as marketing positions often seek people who have marketing skills and attitudes. Studies conducted have projected marketing jobs to have the greatest growth potential.

Marketing’s increased recognition and importance highlights the responsibility marketing must assume for the successful operation of business. Marketers are regularly involved in major decisions affecting an organization’s future. With this greater responsibility and impact comes the need to analyze and prepare for the future, a need that cannot be taken lightly by those currently involved in marketing, those preparing for marketing careers, or those responsible for preparing marketers for the future.

**E-LEARNING ENVIRONMENT**

With a technological revolution stirring higher education today, could marketing education be far behind? Marketing is one field that has adapted very early on and so quite well to technology. Envisaged by advertisements’ palpability in the internet, mobile phones and other forms of communication, it is not too optimistic to cite that e-learning has vast potential for widespread use in marketing education as well.

The growth of this new generation of education is mainly due to the rapid expansion of the internet through the worldwide web. The platform has allowed digital materials to be created, stored and accessed, and has likewise made interaction possible. Broadly defined, e-learning is networked, online learning that takes place in a formal context and uses a range of multimedia technologies (Garrison, 2003). Although the terms e-learning and online learning are often used interchangeably it is imperative to differentiate them. E-learning can encompass any form of telecommunications and computer-based learning, while online learning means using specifically the internet and the web.

The development of e-learning is depicted as explosive, unprecedented, and disruptive. E-learning is not just another add-on, but a technology that is transforming our educational institutions and how teaching and learning is conceptualized and experienced. For marketing educators in this knowledge-based economy, the challenge is to generate a determined community of inquiry that integrates social, cognitive, and teaching presence in a manner that will take full advantage of the distinctive assets of e-learning – those interactive properties that take learning beyond classrooms and information assimilation. These properties of e-learning have the capacity not only to create a community of inquiry that is independent of time and space but also achieve a previously unimaginable blend of interactive and reflective nature that stimulates and facilitates a level of higher-order learning.

Technology in general and e-learning in particular, is a mechanism for community creativity and cognitive independence. However, e-learning’s flexible, versatile, and multidimensional interactivity is founded in a focused and very engaged personal and public search for significance and knowledge. Such a common agenda builds a feasible community of inquiry and the means for individuals to accumulate substantial knowledge. An indispensable factor to form a functional community of inquiry is commitment and clarity of purpose. Even as all the technology may be available to afford the potential of a relevant, responsive and engaging community, this does not immediately occur.

In an educational milieu, it is the teacher who shows the way to delineate goals, set the limits of the inquiry, and provide the presence to regulate interaction and monitor progress. Nevertheless, there is also a great deal of unscripted interaction in an e-learning experience that allows creativity and serendipity. While functional communities have a common purpose, they must also tolerate new meaning and understandings that recognize the uncertainty of knowledge to emerge. Learners also have the potential, through the power of their ideas, or through delegation, to provide teaching presence. Ironically, in a community of inquiry, the spotlight is on the individual assuming responsibility to construct wisdom through the stimulation and dynamic of the group.

The future is for those who are prepared to take control and accountability for their learning; those who have attained the critical thinking and learning abilities required to deal with the “too much information age” (Altbach, 1998). It is for those who have skill to control their learning and create knowledge; those who are keen to take action of their learning and who are equipped to configure change and not be its fatality. The direction of education in general and marketing education in particular is towards e-learning and a vision based on a profound understanding of its potential. Educational institutions cannot afford to ignore the technologies that are revolutionizing society to serve business purposes and personal interests (Daniels, 1999). Why would marketing education be resistant to this?
The future of marketing education begins to see a decreasing reliance on lecture halls and an increase in the integration of on-line discussion groups. There will be more simulations of the real life experiences that enable learners to manage and comprehend their decisions. E-learning must be assembled in such a way that learners can fully engross themselves in the practice. However, this is not achieved with a uni-directional flow of information, regardless of whether it is to or from the individual. It is in the interaction that an extraordinary environment of learning is shaped and where value is collaboratively constructed. It is a domain where the teacher leads, monitors, and directs the dynamic interactions as they unfold, often as expected, resulting in amazingly varied learning outcomes. Likewise, it is where learners can redirect proceedings to their own specific goals. This is the ideal condition of managing and taking responsibility for one’s learning, when the uniqueness of e-learning is thus established.

The swelling demand for both education and training programs is directly linked and attributed to rapid changes in technology, markets, and business processes that all entail relentless learning and retraining. With populations increasing steadily into the 21st century and 50 percent of the world’s population less than 20 years old, there is, expectedly, a steady growth in student numbers, coupled with escalating numbers of adults enrolling in formal educational programs on a part-time basis (Holmberg, 1986). Likewise, there are more adults returning to school be it on compensated or uncompensated sabbaticals or in response to compulsory or voluntary occupational changes. These conditions result to rising enrollment rates and even as most of this demand is being met by traditional campus-based programs, an emergent proportion of courses are currently being delivered via the internet.

There are various reasons for this current climb in enrollment in e-learning courses. For one, some students pursue e-learning courses for the same reasons that have always motivated distance education students – educational programs that are more accessible and that can be time shifted to meet the constraints of busy adult learners. Secondly, and an even stronger motivator, is the growing evidence that certain kinds of e-learning courses can be delivered more cost effectively than can classroom-based instruction. Brandon Hall asserts that “e-learning saves thirty to sixty percent in costs over traditional classroom instruction.” While he presented few details to support the claim, there is a growing sense that it is economically attractive, if only because it significantly reduces the costs of travel, accommodation, and teachers, which account for over 50 percent of the cost of classroom instruction (Panda, 2003).

Educators, trainers, and students are currently being offered viable alternatives to classroom-based instruction in almost every discipline. Although classroom instruction will not completely disappear, both education and training will be increasingly structured to utilize costly classroom instruction for highly intensive interaction that is only possible in face-to-face contexts. A greater volume of information transmission and routine dialogue will be supported both asynchronously and simultaneously via the internet, providing much convenience and accessibility to students and instructors as well (Boggs, 1999). Consequently, the increased demand from lifelong learners and rapidly changing workplaces will combine with increased sophistication and opportunity of internet-based education to drive the volume of e-learning. The focus of e-learning has often been on providing more choices to accommodate differences in learning styles and attitudes coupled with a pursuit to increase the pace of learning. While there is modest definitive evidence that computer-assisted instruction actually reduces student learning time, continuing progress in the capacity of technology to significantly improve a host of educational processes is expected.

The time required to craft and manage e-learning courses is another major concern for educators. The accurate calculation of the cost of developing and effectively delivering e-learning is complex. Nevertheless there is no reservation that the cost of quality education, delivered in any format, is significant (Bates, 2000). Sophisticated authoring packages and web-based learning-management systems are considerably reducing the time requirements demanded by the precursors of computer-assisted learning. However, a major impediment to widespread adoption of e-learning is the time commitment necessary to produce original internet-based education programs. A solution that is foreseen is the setting up of a materials reservoir that will facilitate the access and more effective use of learning materials by larger numbers of teachers.

The production of educational resources and the rapid and cost-effective distribution of these resources to both learners and teachers are essential developments that guarantee to change the mode and speed by which e-learning courses are created. These educational resources are self-determined digitized learning activities that may be easily combined by educators into learning modules and courses. Not as huge as pre-packaged courses, which tend to threaten instructors who want to tailor their courses to the unique needs of their students
and to their own interests and competencies, but enough to serve as self-contained learning activities, these learning objects, of appropriate level and dimension, enable adoption by a large number of educators. They also often contain assessment activities to measure learning outcomes. The future of course development will consist of customizing internationalized sets of educational resources to best meet the distinct localized needs of all students and teachers. However, without a system of effective distribution, peer review and revision, instructor-constructed resources often perish on local servers. Repositories for educational resources are being created to surmount this challenge, so that the creation and distribution of such is a major factor in increasing the rate by which internet-based education is produced and delivered.

A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The significance of context and creation of a community of learners to facilitate reflection and critical discourse has previously been underscored. The assembly of knowledge for an individual is shaped to large extent by the social environment. Thus an environment of diverse perspectives and varied choices will encourage critical thinking and creativity. A community of inquiry is both a requisite for higher-order thinking skills and a core element in the e-learning conceptual framework. The foundational framework is a community of inquiry with an overlapping of three key elements of cognitive, social, and teaching experience. These must be considered when planning and delivering education to ensure a quality e-learning experience.

Cognitive Presence

Education, at its core, is about learning defined by process and outcome. Cognitive presence is, “the extent to which learners are able to construct and confirm meaning through sustained reflection and discourse in a critical community of inquiry” (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001). It means facilitating the analysis, construction, and confirmation of meaning and understanding within a community of learners through sustained deliberation and discussion that is largely supported by text-based communication.

Teaching Presence

The expanded educational opportunities and choices in an e-learning context have rendered an onerous responsibility to teaching. Teaching presence is defined as, “the design, facilitation and direction of cognitive and social processes for the purpose of realizing personally meaningful and educationally worthwhile learning outcomes” (Anderson, et al., 2001). It is concerned with shaping the right transactional balance and, along with the learners, managing and monitoring the achievement of worthwhile learning outcomes within an appropriate timetable. Teaching presence performs an essential service in identifying relevant societal knowledge, designing experiences that will facilitate critical discussion and reflection, and measuring and evaluating learners’ achievements. With e-learning, this is both easier and more difficult. It is easier because the medium supports discussion. It is more difficult because the medium is inherently different and requires new approaches. While e-learning demands greater attention to balancing control and responsibility, the result can be very rewarding.

The role of the teacher in e-learning will change for the better. Teachers’ responsibilities, in any context, traditional or e-learning, include design and organization, facilitating discussion and direct instruction. While complex and multifaceted, the liberating frame of e-learning has significantly altered how these roles are fulfilled.

Social Presence

Social presence is defined as the ability of participants in a community of inquiry to project themselves socially and emotionally through the medium of communication being used (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2000). The creation of a community requires social presence and, when it is a community of inquiry that is formed, social presence becomes even more specific and demanding. Because inquiry involves sustained critical discourse, social presence must be congruent with inquiry and the achievement of specific learning outcomes.

Text-based communication, synchronous or asynchronous, presents a challenge in creating a social environment and a community of inquiry. Communication theorists have drawn considerable attention to the lack of nonverbal communication cues that are considered crucial in forming collaborative relationships. The absence of a visual channel reduces the possibilities for expression of socio-emotional material and decreases the information available about another. The question is whether this is fatal to creating and sustaining a fully collaborative community of inquiry. The simple answer to this complex question is that it has not been shown that students can and do overcome the lack of nonverbal communication by establishing familiarity through the use of greetings, encouragement, paralinguistic emphasis (i.e., capitals, punctuations, emoticons) and self-disclosure (Rourke & Anderson, 2004).
 Even as social presence provides the basis for questioning and critique, it does not guarantee an excellently functioning community of inquiry. There must be an operative cognitive and teaching presence to generate the optimum level of social presence and achieve the educational objective. It is the elements of cognitive and teaching presence that take a community beyond the largely social function to one of inquiry.

**PANORAMA OF POSSIBILITIES**

**From E- to M-Learning**

Education is on the verge of an explosion of media types accessible on the internet. Educators will consequently be afforded the opportunity to choose the communication format that suitably meets their application needs, rather than that which is readily available. This will enable them to opt for video, audio, animated, or text-based interaction. Notwithstanding the fact that the extensive debate regarding the impact of the medium of delivery on educational attainment is yet unresolved, the effect of the internet on all facets of our culture, including education, has been significantly felt. The internet has essentially altered the economics, practice and processes of most socially constructed institutions and it is unlikely that education will be immune from this disruptive technology.

A tremendous variety of ways by which information can be obtained from the internet is currently being experienced. Mobile devices, for example, have encouraged an interest in m-learning – the crossroads of mobile computing and e-learning. M-learning endows an “always on-always available” facility to retrieve information, compute and communicate; thus, be applicable in learning activities “anytime, anywhere.” This will be particularly functional for the mobile worker, the commuter, or anyone who operates from multiple workplaces.

The use of virtual reality simulations, virtual laboratories, and immersive learning environments will allow students to actively engage in complex learning scenarios via the internet. The ensuing response to e-learning will hence effect an expansion in the array of formats and types of learning activities available to teachers and students. Nevertheless, Marshall McLuhan remarked that “each form of transport not only carries, but translates and transforms the sender, the receiver and the message,” thus stressing the need for research in measuring and evaluating these transformations (Garrison, 2003). Such thorough and insightful research will guarantee that not only variety but value is as well added to internet-based education.

**CONCLUSION**

Technological improvement of human processes provided by the internet has directly affected various features of teaching and learning. Foremost is the capacity to find, store, and manipulate information. Education being grounded in the systematic organization, growth and exploitation of information to generate knowledge will certainly use tools that boost the effectiveness of the knowledge management process. Likewise, the accessibility of the internet, with its potential of providing quality education “anytime, anywhere” is also a significant value added to the educational experience. Still, the true boon of the internet for education relates not to ease of acquisition and manipulation of information nor increased access to educational programs of acquisition, but rather to its capacity to support the social construction of new knowledge and its validation and enhancement by participants across temporal space. The real value-added is quality. Access is a given; the issue and challenge is to complement access with quality.

The social context of teaching and learning has adapted to internet-based media in distinctive ways and has changed the nature of communications in the educational environment. It is not argued that internet-based interaction, in any of its formats – from synchronous to asynchronous or from video to text-based discussion – presents the better way to support education. The contention is that no single approach, including the pre-internet standard of campus-based education, affords educational excellence. The internet’s value-added is providing quality resources for independent study as well as the capacity for interactive learning. This is the distinguishing property of e-learning and where it is changing how educators approach teaching and learning. The educator’s toolkit has been augmented and theensible choice of internet-based tools will significantly enhance both distance and campus-based education.

The task of unearthing an innovation that is e-learning and its potential has just begun. Individuals who are inclined to view things in a different way will discover that the medium itself, the “e” factor, will change what is seen and consequently direct the path into this uncharted territory. As educators come across new possibilities, and students demand more than just information or content, e-learning will be used in very diverse and exciting ways. Evidently, innovative practices and practice ways shall emerge while a new community of learning develops. While e-learning represents an innovative means of
delivering marketing education, consciousness to educational ideals must persist.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

The understanding of several key aspects of why and how brains learn has been growing in recent years. Leveraging this understanding is fundamental for improving marketing educators’ instructional practices. This paper describes an attempt to apply several brain science findings to the instructional design and practice employed in a Marketing Principles course.

BACKGROUND

The typical prescriptions for effective instructional design include setting meaningful learning objectives, employing a range of pedagogical strategies appropriate for the learning objectives and crafting learning environments that facilitate learning all in response to the needs and abilities of the learners. Some important brain science insights refine this understanding. Brain science shows that learning is related to the meaningfulness of information, attention management, repetition and elaboration, hierarchical organization, multi-channel input (with emphasis on visual imagery), affective connections, and problem-solving (Figure 1).

APPLICATION

The instructional design of the Marketing Principles course in this study consciously employed many of these insights. The concepts were made as meaningful as possible in terms of their importance for a business career. An intentional pattern of repetition and elaboration was used. Problem solving in discussion questions, ethics issue debates, case studies and a marketing planning project was integrated throughout the course. Information presentations were structured hierarchically both within and across class sessions. Presentations were relatively rich in visual imagery. The visual images were carried over as visual cues that maintained linkages with concepts across presentations. Each session’s topic drilled down from the course’s highest order concept that marketing is about bringing supply and demand together and the strategic marketing management framework.

STUDENT RESPONSE

Student course evaluation feedback has been very positive, showing a noticeable increase in the instructor’s student ratings. The PowerPoint® slides had the most mentions as being helpful to the students’ learning. One constructive criticism was that the number of animations (i.e., builds) per PowerPoint® slide needed to be limited.

CONCLUSION

The course redesign and, especially, the PowerPoint® slides did require a considerable amount of effort. But, the investment will be useful for future iterations of the course, making it a more reasonable expenditure of effort across the longer term. Further refinements of the course design to more completely and intentionally integrate the building of emotional connections and to use of other information processing modalities, such as music, are logical next steps. Further assessments of the value of this approach are also needed.

References Available on Request.
A LOOK AT THE EFFECTS OF ORDERING OF ASSIGNMENT DIFFICULTY ON STUDENT SELF-EFFICACY AND PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

Assignments are an important part of the marketing curriculum in most universities. One of the greatest advantages of assigning difficult assignments for an instructor early in the semester is that they set expectations high for what is expected over the entire course. By contrast, giving a first assignment that is relatively easy may set the expectation that the course will be a “gut course,” one that students can pass with relatively little work. This paper suggests that the ordering of difficulty of assignments can affect student’s self-efficacy about the class. This impact on self-efficacy may affect overall performance in the class.

Student confidence is a big barrier for some segments of the student population, especially first generation students (Cushman, 2007), which are those students whose parents have not had more than a high school education. First generation students tend not only to have lower levels of confidence, their attrition rates are also higher in college, which is to say they are less likely to graduate once they have started (Ishitani, 2006).

This is critical because college study is a more important source of cultural capital for first generation students than for students whose parents have completed a college education (Pascarella et al., 2004). In fact, research has started to identify educational approaches that can increase the confidence of first generation university students in their ability to control their educational progress (James et al., 2006).

ORDER EFFECTS AND SELF-EFFICACY

A look at the order effects literature shows that there can be effects on survey responses of the order of questions, even if the questions are exactly the same. There have been contrast effects and assimilation effects. Contrast effects find greater differences between questions due to their ordering. Assimilation effects occur when responses to a later question are closer to an earlier question than they would otherwise be due to order of placement on a survey. That is, questions need to be structured in such a way that previous response to a question will not influence responses to questions taken later on the questionnaire.

Assignments such as exams and papers can vary in difficulty as well from the near impossible to those in which most students get full credit. Is it possible that the mere placement of assignments by difficulty in a course can influence the outcome even if the assignments are exactly the same? This paper suggests that it may do so by affecting the self-efficacy of students.

METHOD

The assignment of a quiz was used to assess the effects of question order on students’ self-efficacy about and performance on classroom assignments.

Students were given extra credit to fill out an online survey about a type of assignment. They were assigned randomly to one of two conditions, a “difficult assignment” condition and a “regular assignment” condition. Students in both conditions were given exactly the same type of assignment except that the assignment was more difficult in the “difficult assignment” condition. After reading about the assignment, students completed a series of measures assessing their thoughts, perceptions and emotions about the assignment.

RESULTS

Students do not expect to perform as well on difficult assignments and they dislike instructors who give them. Students who faced difficult assignments also expected to spend less time than those who faced the regular assignments. The implications of these findings are that the ordering of assignments needs to be from at least an average level of difficulty to more difficult. In this way, students can have a sense of achievement and control, as well as a sense of self-efficacy over their performance in that course.

References Available on Request.
ABSTRACT

Research has documented the need for effective student writing skills. Our paper chronicles the efforts of a marketing faculty at a leading business school to institute a writing initiative in one course and analyzes the impact of the initiative on student writing skills. Our results suggest that student characteristics such as gender and grade point average in the core writing course have a significant impact on student writing performance in subsequent classes. More importantly, we find empirical evidence supporting the value of multiple written case assignments (practice), as well as revisions and rewriting (repetition), manifest in the student’s ability to clearly mount logical arguments and to provide supportive evidence. Our findings point to a need for a concerted emphasis on three factors: student characteristics, practice and repetition in order to produce a graduate with strong writing skills.

INTRODUCTION

No marketing educator should need to be reminded of the importance of preparing students to write well. Business leaders, faculty members, and students have almost universally recognized effective writing skills and the ability to analyze complex problems as essential for success in business (Bok, 2006; Hansen & Hansen, 1995; Korkki, 2007). A recent survey of business leaders prepared by the National Commission on Writing, affiliated with the Business Roundtable, provocatively titled its report, “Writing: A Ticket to Work...Or a Ticket Out,” underscoring the importance of writing effectively in the world of work (National Commission on Writing, 2004). The chair of the Commission said, “Writing is both a ‘marker’ of high-skill, high-wage, professional work and a ‘gatekeeper’ with clear equity implications.” He continued, “People unable to express themselves clearly in writing limit their opportunities for professional, salaried employment.”

While the ability to write convincingly has always been an important leadership skill, globalization requires employees dispersed around the world to rely more heavily on e-mail, putting a premium on well-written documents (Dillon, 2004; Ellet, 2007). In addition to accuracy, timeliness is increasingly important because written content is more perishable than it was in the past (Mitroff, 1998). In this context Ellet suggests, “Well-written documents can be a hidden source of competitive advantage” (Ellet, 2007, p. 8). In most American colleges, English composition is obligatory, but as Bok (2006, p. 83) has written, “And yet, when it comes to implementing the writing requirement, few institutions have managed to do what is necessary to achieve success.”

If the objective of marketing education is to learn to apply concepts, solve problems, or develop judgment, cases are more appropriate than lectures. Using cases gives students practice in applying concepts to real world situations. The best way to learn marketing is through practice. While class discussions can provide one kind of experience, individual written case analyses give students an opportunity to have their thought processes evaluated by credible experts in both business analysis and writing. A high proportion of business failures are marketing related. In most cases, this does not occur because people do not understand the concepts, but rather it happens because marketers do not apply them in an intelligent and creative way.

Our paper chronicles the efforts of a marketing faculty at a leading business school to institute a writing initiative (WI) in one course and analyzes the impact of the initiative on student writing skills. We assess the effectiveness of the WI by using data collected from participating students. Our results suggest that baseline factors such as gender and grade point average in the core writing course have a significant impact on student writing performance in subsequent classes. More importantly, we find empirical evidence supporting the value of multiple written case assignments (practice), as well as revisions and rewriting (repetition), manifest in the student’s ability to clearly mount logical arguments and to provide supportive evidence.

THE WRITING INITIATIVE AT THE BUSINESS SCHOOL

The impetus for this study had its genesis in 2001. Under the leadership of a new dean, the business school held a goals conference to create a forum for faculty and staff to discuss the objectives of the school, assess progress over the prior year, as well as suggest recommendations for the future. To generate insight, discussions including all
constituents were held to evaluate school goals, followed by focused discussions within school-level committees at the undergraduate, masters and doctoral levels to formulate specific strategies to implement goals. The authors were members of the Undergraduate Curriculum Committee (UGCC). Based on the input from the faculty and staff, the chair of the UGCC charged the Writing Subcommittee (WS) to evaluate the questions: “What is the state of undergraduate writing in the school?” and “What should be done?” The WS used brainstorming to generate a list of issues that might be addressed and eventually decided to focus on three:

• What is the quality of undergraduate writing?
• How are peer schools developing undergraduate writing skills?
• What steps should be taken?

Research by the UGCC identified a general dissatisfaction on the part of the faculty with the level of undergraduate student writing skills. Feedback from school administrators, who assisted with corporate recruiting, indicated that a significant improvement in student skills was necessary to prepare students for employment. Moreover, approximately 50 percent of companies hiring new employees required a writing sample. A review conducted by the committee fueled the sense of urgency as it found credible evidence of unsatisfactory student skills.1 The UGCC’s findings attributed the poor writing skills to two factors: (a) lack of preparation prior to joining the business school, and (b) reinforcement at the business school. The committee found that students enrolling as business majors typically did not have the skills necessary to effectively analyze cases, mount two-sided arguments or argue persuasively for a recommended course of action. This study focuses on the efforts of the committee to address the second issue, the lack of reinforcement.

The committee sought to expand efforts to inculcate writing skills beyond the single required writing course that undergraduate students typically took. This initiative sought to involve faculty from courses in the four departments at the business school and provide students with written feedback on the quality of writing, as well as on the content of assignments in the classes. For the purpose of our study, we focused on the effectiveness of the initiative by examining student learning in one of the courses offered by the Marketing Department.

DATA AND METHODS

We created our sample from undergraduate students registered for a course titled Marketing Management, a course that the department chair had included in the undergraduate WI. This class was case-based and required students to analyze cases (such as Cumberland Metal, Hurricane Island, eBay, Arrow Electronics, Vanguard Group and TiVo), to take a stance and to recommend a course of action based on logical arguments. One of the objectives of this class was to develop students’ capacity to think critically about marketing issues. An excerpt of the class syllabus for the most recent semester is attached (Exhibit 1). Students in this class were asked to submit two written case analyses during the semester. For each of the two written cases, students had two weeks to write a polished draft for evaluation. The writing consultant assigned to the class and the professor then had one week to provide feedback on the quality of the writing and the rigor of the analysis. Students then received one week to revise and resubmit final drafts based on the comments. On the day the final draft was submitted it was discussed in class, providing students with additional insight into the qualities of their arguments. Final feedback was then provided on the writing and analysis of the final drafts. Table 1 details the steps in this process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1</th>
<th>The Writing Revising Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>Polished draft assignment made two weeks before the due date</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>Polished draft is submitted by the student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>Writing consultant grades writing and instructor grades analysis within seven days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>Student receives feedback and revises within seven days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>Final draft is submitted by the student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>Case discussion in class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7)</td>
<td>Writing consultant grades writing and instructor grades analysis within seven days</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We tracked all students enrolled in the class over a period of four semesters, Spring 2005, Fall 2005, Spring 2006 and Fall 2006. The average class enrollment was around 30 students per section. In addition to collecting information on student grades on the polished and final drafts of the case analyses, we collected additional information from the Undergraduate Office regarding student characteristics such as gender, transfer school data and participation and grades in required writing courses previously taken by the students.

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1 A discussion of the full review process can be found in, “Leading change in the business curriculum,” a working paper, available from the authors.
Variable Operationalization

Our variables were constructed from the grades that students received on each of their polished and final analyses. The writing consultant and instructor provided detailed feedback and a score, based on a grade point evaluation scheme. They provided an overall writing score and an analysis score – the maximum a student could receive on each of these was a 4.0 translating to an A. In addition, the writing consultant provided a breakdown of the writing score on the following five components: argument, evidence, format, writing rules and appendices. Each of these components received a grade-based score as well. The construction of the criteria is explained in Exhibit 2. We used only the argument and evidence components since the other components were aimed at writing style rather than toward developing logical thinking. In addition, we collected information on the students’ gender, with a binary variable, 1 if female, 0 if male; the number of transfer hours; their earned GPA on required university writing classes (prior to business major admission); and on the business required writing class (subsequent to admission to the business major).

Sample Description

In general, we had fewer female students, 20 percent, which was representative of the population at the Business School. Our students joined the university with an average of 34 transfer hours and tended to transfer from a variety of institutions, two- and four-year colleges as well as nationally recognized research universities. The student grade point average (GPA) in the required university writing class taken prior to admission as a business major, as well as the required Business Writing class, was 3.61 and 3.79, respectively. Although this seemed to indicate that our students were prepared for writing and had done well in their writing classes, receiving grades of B+ to A-, our assessment was that the high GPAs represented grade inflation rather than a representation of student ability to write. This was further confirmed by the lower averages on the writing and analysis scores, as well as the components of argument and evidence received on the cases that ranged from 2.39 to 3.16, suggesting that student writing ability was in the C to B range. Our statistics did indicate an improvement due to the feedback provided on the polished draft; all final draft scores, writing, analysis, argument and evidence, were consistently higher than the respective polished draft scores.

Findings

We ran three sets of regressions to explore the key influences on student writing ability. The lack of consistent records across students and across semesters led to samples of different sizes across the three regressions. Our first set of regressions explored the effect of student characteristics of gender, transfer hours and GPA on prior writing courses. The second set of regressions examined the effects of student learning by regressing the scores received on the first case analyses on the scores received on the second case analyses. The third set determined the value of revision and rewriting a case analysis by comparing the polished draft and final draft scores. We first discuss the effects of student characteristics on writing ability (Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 2</th>
<th>Effect of Student Characteristics on Writing Scores and Analysis Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dependent Variable</td>
<td>Writing Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 1</td>
<td>Model 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.2720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.1365)</td>
<td>(0.1592)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer hours</td>
<td>0.0015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.0016)</td>
<td>(0.0018)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPA in required university writing course</td>
<td>0.4904**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.1505)</td>
<td>(0.1756)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPA in required business school writing course</td>
<td>0.0234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.2057)</td>
<td>(0.24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F statistic</td>
<td>3.6327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared</td>
<td>0.1679</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 77
Standard errors in parentheses
@ p <0.10, * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

In order to determine if there were significant persistent effects of particular student characteristics, we regressed these variables on the final scores that students received both on the writing and analysis dimensions of their case analyses. Our results demonstrated that both gender and the grade received on the required university writing course were important predictors of student ability to effectively analyze and write case-based essays. Model 1 demonstrates the marginal significance of gender and the significant impact of the grade on the university writing course on the writing score received. Model 2 points to the significant effects of both variables on the ability to analyze a case.
These factors suggest that female writers may have an inherent advantage particularly in their ability to analyze a case and to the value of adequate preparation and participation in a writing class prior to becoming a business major. The effect of this course appears to endure for many years after and students who devoted time and effort, excelling in the class, are likely to reap significant benefits in their ability to analyze and write in the future.

The next set of regressions evaluated the effects of learning on student ability to write (Table 3). Do students demonstrate improvement in their writing and analysis scores in the second case analysis compared to the first case analysis?

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
<th>Model 4</th>
<th>Model 5</th>
<th>Model 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing Score on Case 2</td>
<td>0.1542 (0.1444)</td>
<td>Omitted</td>
<td>-0.0441 (0.1716)</td>
<td>Omitted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis Score on Case 2</td>
<td>Omitted</td>
<td>-0.0445 (0.1370)</td>
<td>Omitted</td>
<td>-0.2180 (0.1590)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argument Score on Case 1</td>
<td>0.3693 (0.3622)</td>
<td>0.6512* (0.3225)</td>
<td>0.3610 (0.4305)</td>
<td>0.5194 (0.3743)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence Score on Case 1</td>
<td>0.4370 (0.2780)</td>
<td>0.5634@ (0.3058)</td>
<td>1.1450** (0.3304)</td>
<td>1.3503*** (0.3548)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F statistic</td>
<td>14.7329</td>
<td>14.1416</td>
<td>17.6135</td>
<td>18.7591</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared</td>
<td>0.4283</td>
<td>0.4183</td>
<td>0.4725</td>
<td>0.4882</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 63
Standard errors in parentheses
@ p <0.10, * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, ***p<0.001

We first regressed the writing and analysis scores and the component scores of argument and evidence received on the first case on the writing scores of the second case (Models 3 and 4). We used the writing score on Case 1 in Model 3 and the analysis score on Case 1 in Model 4 since the two are highly correlated with each other. Our results indicate that the argument score received by the student on Case 1 has a positive and significant influence on the writing score received on Case 2. The ability to formulate a logical and convincing argument extends across case analyses and leads to higher writing scores. We also found a marginal effect for the evidence component, indicating that the presentation of evidence to support arguments also leads to higher subsequent writing scores, although to a lesser extent than the argument component. We then ran the models with the same independent variables but changed our dependent variable to the analysis score on Case 2. In Models 5 and 6 we found that evidence has a strong effect on the analysis score. Therefore, while writing scores appear to be influenced mainly by argument and marginally by evidence, in contrast, analysis scores are determined by ability to use evidence. This may suggest that the ability to observe relationships in data sets is a critical analytical skill.

In addition to writing two different case analyses, students in the class had the opportunity and were required to revise and resubmit their analyses as well. So for each of the two case assignments, students submitted a polished draft and then based on the feedback from the consultant and professor, revised it and submitted a final draft. Our final set of regressions presents the effects of revision on writing and analysis scores (Table 4).

Models 7 and 8 present the effects of revision on writing scores and Models 9 and 10 on analysis scores. Since writing and analysis scores on Case 1 are highly correlated, we included only one of them in each run. Our results substantiate the effects of argument in Models 7 and 8, and are similar to those in Table 3. Revision of cases is useful in improving scores, particularly for the argument component. A well laid out argument leads to higher scores on the final draft. The findings for analysis are not as consistent across Models 9 and 10. Model 9 suggests strong and significant effects of argument and evidence on the revised draft analysis score. However the writing score on the initial draft is marginally significant and negative, partly due to the high correlations between this variable and the component and evidence score. These effects dissipate in model 10 when the analysis score on the initial draft is included – this is possibly due to the high correlations between the variables, indeed the R-squared for the model (0.52) is similar to that of Model 9 (0.56).

---

2 Our analysis primarily relies on the argument and evidence components of the writing score since the other components measured writing style rather than the ability to think logically. However, we did try regressions that included the other components but did not find significance for the effects of those components.
TABLE 4
Effect of Revision and Rewriting on Writing Scores and Analysis Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Model 7</th>
<th>Model 8</th>
<th>Model 9</th>
<th>Model 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing Score on polished draft of Case 2</td>
<td>0.1389</td>
<td>Omitted</td>
<td>-0.3317@</td>
<td>Omitted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.1453)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.1744)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis Score on polished draft of Case 2</td>
<td>Omitted</td>
<td>0.1128</td>
<td>Omitted</td>
<td>0.1653</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.1494)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.1871)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argument Score on polished draft of Case 2</td>
<td>0.9340**</td>
<td>0.9551**</td>
<td>0.9801*</td>
<td>0.3480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.3056)</td>
<td>(0.3190)</td>
<td>(0.3668)</td>
<td>(0.3995)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence Score on polished draft of Case 2</td>
<td>-0.1052</td>
<td>-0.1793</td>
<td>1.1621**</td>
<td>0.5725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.3256)</td>
<td>(0.3994)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.3909)</td>
<td>(0.5002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F statistic</td>
<td>13.7561</td>
<td>13.4756</td>
<td>11.7223</td>
<td>9.8034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared</td>
<td>0.6045</td>
<td>0.5996</td>
<td>0.5657</td>
<td>0.5214</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 31
Standard errors in parentheses
@ p <0.10, * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, ***p<0.001

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Our study presents an interesting snapshot of factors that influence student writing skills, particularly the ability to present logical arguments supported by appropriate evidence. The findings point to the effects of three distinct factors. First, the role of student characteristics – gender and the grades received by students on required university writing classes are important predictors of the ability to write well throughout the years at the university. The gender findings suggest a need for better training of male students in writing skills. The findings regarding the university writing class grade points to the utility of a strong foundation established early in the student learning experience. Second, our study establishes the importance of learning from prior cases, indicating that writing skills are developed cumulatively. The implication for universities and business schools is that writing must be demanded of students and reinforced throughout the university experience. It may not be enough to have a couple of required writing courses. These courses must necessarily be followed up by reinforcement and feedback throughout the curriculum. Thirdly, the results point to the value of revision and rewriting. Student skills improved with reiteration and revision of the same case analyses. Opportunities for revision provide for closure of the feedback loop and facilitate student improvement of writing skills. Together, the three findings make a strong case for the importance of making writing pervasive in the business school and university curriculum. While each of these factors spur student ability to write, a concerted emphasis on all three aspects would enable the production of a graduate with strong writing skills, a widely sought after asset in the modern competitive world.

***

Before the Writing Initiative, the missing link was the lack of repetition between learning and doing.

***

REFERENCES


EXHIBIT 1
Excerpted Portions of the Syllabus for Marketing Management

Course Objectives

Roll up your sleeves and see the results of your decision-making. This course is a hands-on analysis and actual decision-making journey in marketing strategy. Experience the power of strategy tools such as differentiation and positioning. We additionally study actual case histories and decisions made by real managers and executives—and see how they did. The conclusion of the course provides an opportunity to apply your knowledge of marketing strategy and marketing management via a computer simulation. Major marketing concepts, principles, and strategy are directly applied. Prerequisite: MKTG 3010.

The course will focus on the following topics:
(1) The role of marketing in an organization
(2) The strategic principles of marketing
(3) The relationship between product/market strategy and marketing mix decisions

Pedagogy

Marketing management is not a lecture class, although I will provide structure and give lectures. Three major teaching vehicles are employed: case discussion, readings, and simulation. Marketing cases provide the opportunity to make marketing decisions in a wide variety of circumstances. We will work through the process of making decisions given limited data by involving colleagues and objectively evaluating ideas before reaching conclusions. This process requires your participation and thought. Often, a single right answer does not exist, but consistent strategies that have distinctive merits can be explored. Depth of analysis is more valuable than consensus on all issues.

EXHIBIT 2
Components of Writing Evaluation Criteria

(1) Argument: Writing a clear and consistent argument. Is your argument logical so that the reader follows your points easily?
(2) Evidence: Using and explaining evidence. Have you used detailed evidence and have you explained your evidence so that the reader understands it as you intended?
(3) Format: Organizing and formatting your report. Did you follow the format and organization style expected (including a clear introduction, analysis and recommendation)?
(4) Writing rules: Following grammar punctuation and style rules. Have you followed writing rules consistently?
(5) Appendices: Using and citing appendices correctly. Have you included appendices and properly used and noted them for the reader?

Each of these components was rated on a 5-point scale of Poor, Below Average, Average, Above Average and Good.

We converted these ratings to a GPA with Good translating to an A- or 3.7, Above Average to a B+ (3.3), Average to a B (3.0), Below Average to a C+ (2.3) and Poor to a C (2.0).
A CALL TO ACTION: A RESEARCH AGENDA TO COMBAT DECLINING READING PROFICIENCY OF MARKETING COLLEGE STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The "alarm bell" has been rung by policymakers and employers who are calling for educators to address the two-decade decline in reading proficiency of college graduates, but re-establishing appropriate reading skills for an entire generation is a daunting task. For instance, past research has largely been done by groups with extensive resources (e.g., government agencies). Hence, for individual marketing educators with limited resources to play a meaningful role in combating this problem there is a need for a coordinated effort. This paper attempts to establish a research agenda to help prioritize the objectives and to orchestrate a grassroots effort to mount a timely and effective response.

A CALL TO ACTION

Marketing educators need to address two conflicting trends. First, the reading skills of college students are projected to continue to decline as they have for the past two decades. Second, marketing graduates need to increase their reading proficiency to cope with the explosion of information in the modern workplace. The extent of this conflict was recently made clear by the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA) in its comprehensive and sobering 2007 report, To Read or Not to Read: A Question of National Consequence. The NEA concluded:

- Reading skills are in decline for college-bound young adults produced by the U.S. educational system.
- The poor reading skills of college students adversely affect their ability to perform in the classroom and render them unprepared for professional careers.
- The lack of reading skills and general disinterest in reading by college students will cause economic hardships for individual graduates and threaten the viability of the U.S. economy to compete globally.

For marketing educators the decline in the reading proficiency of their students has an immediate negative impact on the effectiveness of traditional teaching methods that rely heavily on students’ ability to read and comprehend educational materials. Perhaps even more dangerous to marketing educators, both graduates and employers question the value of a college education when degrees are awarded to students with insufficient skills to complete their basic job tasks. The decline in reading proficiency of college students comes at a time when these skills are of critical importance. Modern marketing professionals need to remain competitive through greater self-directed learning, and research suggests that a person’s avidity for reading and greater reading proficiency promote more extensive and effective self-directed learning (Artis & Harris, 2007).

In addition, business professionals need a variety of reading skills just to manage properly the extensive amount of pertinent information available online and in print. For example, approximately 65 million books are currently in existence (The Economist, 2007) and over 100,000 new books are published annually in the U.S. alone (Howard, 2007). For marketing educators this suggests that their students need to learn a variety of skills to enable them to first identify what reading materials are important to their professional success and then to consume effectively diverse types of practitioner-based literature.

ESTABLISHING A RESEARCH AGENDA

A research agenda is needed so that marketing scholars – educators and researchers – can effectively combine their limited resources to efficiently identify the most relevant problems and develop effective solutions. Five central research questions can help organize the information and focus the attention of marketing scholars.
One: What are the actual reading-related skills, habits and attitudes of current and potential marketing students?

We need a clear assessment of our students to establish where to begin and to create a baseline to measure our progress. Perhaps we can glean a basic understanding of the skills and habits of marketing students by considering data on college students in general. Approximately 10 percent of entering college students require remedial reading training necessary to complete college coursework (Caverly, Nicholson, & Radcliffe, 2004). In addition, a large percentage of students enrolled in both two- and four-year programs are considered deficient readers. For example, according to the National Center for Educational Statistics (2005) an estimated 75 percent of college students enrolled in two-year schools and 50 percent in four-year schools are not proficient readers (unable to decipher and understand complex text). Finally, it does not appear that a college education guarantees a graduate will leave with the necessary reading skills; only 31 percent of college graduates were rated as proficient readers in 2003 (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2005).

There also appears to be a change in attitudes toward reading by college-age adults. For example, young adults tend to be more “aliterate” as opposed to being illiterate: they can read but neither value reading books nor choose to read printed materials unless required (Weeks, 2001). The NEA (2007) reports that young adults spend less time reading than any other segment of the population. Industry research by book sellers suggests that young adults do not hold the same “reverence” as previous generations for books or their authors. Traditional outlets for reading materials are also viewed differently by young adults. For example, coffee shops in bookstores were rated as the second most popular place to meet a blind date (restaurants were first) for young adults (Publishers Weekly, 2006).

Many of the general observations made of young adults as a whole also appear to apply to marketing students. For example, in research conducted by the author, 300 college students enrolled in marketing courses were asked where they were most likely to locate material to read and 95 percent reported they were highly unlikely to use the campus library. Also, in-depth interviews with college marketing students revealed that most only read materials assigned for courses, and even then they admitted they did not read to comprehend the authors’ ideas, but only scanned the material long enough to use their short-term memories to defeat the multiple-choice questions used in quizzes and exams.

While a general understanding of the larger college student population is beneficial, it may be inappropriate to apply general student traits to marketing students. It has long been speculated that business college students who lack adequate quantitative skills tend to gravitate to majors like marketing, advertising, and public relations where these skills are less emphasized. If this is accurate, then do these students also tend to lack reading skills? College entrance exams like the ACT and SAT suggest this may in fact be the case; students with higher math scores also tend to have higher verbal scores (NEA, 2007). The author is not suggesting that all marketing students pursue marketing careers to avoid their personal shortcomings, but marketing educators need to be sure their students graduate with all the appropriate skills necessary to excel in the workforce. Hence, there is a need to study the specific reading skills, habits and attitudes of marketing students.

- What reading skills, behaviors and attitudes do marketing students actually possess prior to being admitted to upper-division coursework, and how do these skills compare to the general student population and to other business majors?
- How much reading is actually done (for entertainment, learning, etc.), and what promotes or prevents proficient reading skills and positive reading habits for marketing students?

Two: What are the current reading skills, behaviors, and attitudes of proficient marketing professionals and what are the expectations of their employers?

We need to clearly understand how to best serve our students and their future employers. To minimize disagreement over what it means to be a "proficient reader,” marketing educators need to focus first on the reading skills and habits professionals use at work – where approximately 40 percent of all adult reading takes place (Smith, 1998). This approach places reading’s utilitarian benefits of gathering information for better work-related decisions above the aesthetics of leisure reading used largely for entertainment and mental stimulation. Clearly, leisure reading benefits students, but as marketing educators we are uniquely qualified to prepare our graduates for tasks that await them within their professions. In support of the utilitarian approach, the National Center for Educational Statistics (2007) estimates that 90 percent of business professionals...
have proficient reading skills, and there is a positive correlation between higher life-time earnings and greater reading proficiency (NEA, 2007).

An abridged summation of adult reading research suggests that working adults who are highly proficient readers – higher comprehension, larger vocabularies, and faster reading speeds – can better regulate their cognitive, emotive and behavioral responses when reading. For example, Smith (1998) conducted extensive observational research on 159 adults and concluded that proficient adult readers knew how information from reading fit into their existing knowledge base (cognitive), maintained a positive attitude towards reading (affect), and used different reading strategies to achieve desired ends (behavioral). In support of Smith’s conclusions, an analysis of the existing research on adult reading behavior by the author suggests that proficient readers in work environments share four characteristics: (1) they read to achieve a predetermined goal; (2) they self-regulate their cognitive processing and motivation; (3) they actively monitor their ability to comprehend what they read; and, (4) they use different reading strategies and techniques to fit their explicit goals and the complexity of the materials in use.

As helpful as it is to have a general understanding of workplace reading behaviors, we do not know the specific reading skills or habits of modern marketing professionals. In fact, what it actually means to be a “proficient” reader in the modern digital world may be different than traditional ways of thinking about effective reading. For instance, “information literacy” – the ability to manage, search and locate information in large data bases and collections of texts – is a relatively new and highly desirable skill for professionals. Yet we do not know how information-literate marketing professionals are. Hence, we need research that explores how modern marketing professionals manage the vast amount of print mediums available to them, and how they use reading to remain informed and to self direct their learning.

Employers and recruiters have a stake in how well their future employees are prepared, and they expect college graduates to have mastered basic reading skills. In a study conducted by the Conference Board to determine how prepared college graduates are to join the U.S. workforce, 87 percent of business representatives surveyed reported it was very important that first-time job holders have sufficient reading comprehension to understand job-related materials (Casner-Lotto & Barrington, 2006).

Students also have a vested interest in acquiring the skills necessary to succeed as marketing professionals, but do students even know what reading skills they need for their careers, and do they know that most students are considered to be deficient readers by industry standards? Apparently, not all do. In a study conducted by the author, both students with strong and weak reading skills reported those skills were sufficient for them to succeed in their future professions. Hence, we need to study the actual reading behaviors of marketing practitioners to answer a number of questions:

- What are the actual reading demands placed on modern marketing professionals? For example, what drives which material is read and how it is used? How much time and effort is devoted to work-related reading and why?
- What are the “best practices” applied in the field by marketing professionals to manage the avalanche of industry information published online and in traditional mediums (nonfiction books, industry journals, etc.)?
- How aware are marketing students of the reading skills expected of them by future employers, and do they have an accurate assessment of their existing reading proficiency?

Three: What pedagogical methods are most likely to achieve the objectives of marketing educators?

We need a set of reliable methods to move marketing students who lack the necessary reading skills to a minimum proficiency level. Reading specialists appear to disagree on which methods are most effective. For practitioners, speed reading techniques like those promoted by Evelyn Wood in the ‘60s, ‘70s and ‘80s havefallen out of favor because while reading speed can be increased it often comes at the expense of comprehension. Without a high level of discipline and continual practice, reading speeds typically revert to their original levels. Furthermore, highly proficient readers vary their reading speeds depending on their objectives and the material.

In educational settings, various self-regulation reading methods have been used by instructors to improve students’ reading comprehension. The most well-known self-regulation method is the SQ3R (survey, question, read, recall, and review) developed by Robinson in 1946 (Williams, 2005). Self-regulation methods are popular because they give students a quick and easy-to-follow set of steps on how they should read textbooks. College reading instructors who use this approach often feel they are empowering students to take control of their reading
comprehension and habits. There are questions as to how effective methods like SQ3R are when using non-educational materials or if they should be used in work-related settings.

Remedial reading programs have traditionally been used to address the most severe reading problems for college students. To achieve greater efficiencies, colleges typically require these students to meet in groups and take courses exclusively devoted to improving their reading skills with materials unrelated to their content areas. For example, remedial reading courses often use creative fiction regardless of a student's declared area of interest. Despite the good intentions of the college reading specialists assigned to these stand-alone remedial reading training courses, evidence suggests this approach does not improve reading skills needed for more demanding courses in a student's major (Adelman, 1996). In fact, Maxwell (1997) showed that students required to participate in remedial reading training resented being labeled as "dumb" and resisted help from reading specialists.

The most recent trend is the application of reading training for students immersed in a specific content area (Maaka & Ward, 2000). For this type of training a wide range of skills are needed to use properly the various materials employed within each content area. For instance, law students are trained to read legal code to successfully practice law. Marketing educators may lack sufficient instruction to teach remedial reading, but they are better prepared than reading specialists to teach marketing students what marketing professionals read and how best to use business literature. Also, recent research suggests that reading training methods that fail to coincide or meld into the natural behaviors of students will have limited success at being adopted. Therefore, we need methods that capitalize on existing behaviors of marketing students.

Reading training can provide immediate positive results, but reading skills have a tendency to atrophy over time unless reinforced. Once students learn new reading techniques, they need to practice these techniques to prevent deterioration. Hence, in addition to testing the short-term effectiveness of reading training methods, longitudinal research is needed to determine which techniques have the most long-lasting positive influence.

• What existing reading methods can be adapted to fit the needs of marketing students within their content area, and what must marketing educators do to implement these methods effectively?

• What new reading training methods need to be developed within the marketing content area?

Four: How should marketing educators involve those institutions and groups that support our mission: high schools, community colleges, textbook publishers, college libraries, industry journals/magazines, etc.?

The vast extent of the problem before us requires cooperation among all educators from elementary school through college. For example, at the college level there will have to be cooperation among recruiters, reading specialists, and instructors responsible for specific content areas. High schools, community colleges, and even lower-division college educators are not providing the appropriate training necessary to prepare marketing students for upper-division courses. For example, reading training in high school focuses almost exclusively on creative literature while informational reading materials (textbooks, manuals, articles, briefs, etc.) are far more commonly used both in college and in the workplace (Achieve, Inc., 2007).

Before marketing educators can ask high school educators and lower-division college instructors to better prepare matriculating students, college educators have to be very clear what reading skills we expect from upper-division college students. One often-proposed way of doing this is to mandate reading standards and testing for incoming students who apply to upper-division courses. Unfortunately, higher reading standards that limit access to colleges may shut out groups of students that colleges have been given a mandate to include.

Furthermore, for any comprehensive reading training approach to succeed it will require the inclusion of key providers of the reading materials used by marketing students. Publishers are keenly aware that college students appear not to value textbooks assigned by their marketing instructors, as is evident by the low retention of textbooks by marketing students once they finish a course (Unni, 2005). Recent research emphasizes that students want to be challenged with real experiences and modern tools (Karns, 2005). In response, publishers are developing new textbooks with a greater emphasis on “real world” examples and more extensive online materials to better attract the interests of modern, technology-savvy students. Research conducted by the author suggests that while students see the value of traditional textbooks, they actually prefer to use articles from practitioner journals. This finding suggests that a combination of educational and practitioner reading materials may be the most
is a poor use of time. Marketing graduates who have a positive attitude toward reading in general, and who are comfortable using business literature, may be more avid readers of material pertinent to their eventual success at work and in their private lives. Hence, we must weave reading training into the course contents and skills inventories needed by marketing professionals.

In closing, U.S. colleges will continue to strive to provide greater access to more segments of our diverse population. Many of those segments will come to college without reading skills necessary to excel academically or professionally. In the short run, marketing educators want college students to succeed in their course work, but it is the ultimate goal of marketing educators to develop students who succeed as business professionals. Hence, deliberately and purposefully integrating methods to enhance students' reading skills and attitudes toward reading may be the single most meaningful contribution a marketing educator can make to promote the next generation of marketing professionals with appropriate lifelong, self-directed learning skills.

REFERENCES


Testing Client-Based Projects: What Do Undergraduates Learn?

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Abstract

Employers have often stated that graduating marketing majors do not have the requisite skills to be successful entry-level professionals. This is not a new complaint. In the mid-1970s, Mintzberg (1976, p. 53) described how education had to change to meet the needs of business more effectively:

Greater use should be made of the powerful new skill-development techniques which are experiential and creative in nature…. Educators need to put students into situations … where they can practice managerial skills, not only interpersonal but also informational and decisional.

The importance of business relevance in academia (Porter & McKibben, 1988), coupled with an increasingly challenging job market (McCorkle, Alexander, Reardon, & Kling, 2003) magnifies the importance for students to be better prepared for the marketplace. Today, students must not only possess the requisite marketing-related skills but also certain supporting skills such as communications abilities and problem-solving aptitude in order to be successful as an entry-level employee (McCorkle, Alexander, Reardon, & Kling, 2003).

The competitive job market complicates this matter. In recent years, fewer companies have been visiting college campuses than in previous years (Capell, 2002). Perhaps the biggest shock for many marketing undergraduates is that:

“… a marketing degree is not required for many entry-level marketing jobs, meaning that marketing majors must compete for them against college graduates from other fields” (Taylor, 2003, p. 97).

Researchers have focused on a few key supporting skills today's business managers continually state are the most important to an entry-level employee's career success which are, according to employers, missing from the educational landscape. The abilities most commonly valued among employers include communication and interpersonal skills (Floyd & Gordon, 1998; Scott & Frontczak, 1996) and problem solving skills or critical thinking abilities (Floyd & Gordon, 1998; Ray & Stallard, 1994). These supporting skill sets would not typically be thought of as skills that can be enhanced by students' marketing courses. However, the literature shows that students' skills can be enhanced through experiential learning activities, such as the culminating experience found in client-based projects (Bobbitt, Inks, Kemp, & Mayo, 2000).

This paper provides evidence of the benefits a traditional-aged undergraduate marketing student derives from completing a client-based project. Students find benefit and value in completing such a project both in personal satisfaction as well as professional development of the key supporting skills employers indicate are needed in today's graduates. Lastly, completing such an experiential activity not only provides practical experience but reinforces the key marketing concepts covered in marketing classes, thus aiding in learning.

References Available on Request.
THE EMPIRICAL IMPACT OF THE TONE AND VOLUME OF RATEMYPROFESSORS.COM INFORMATION: WHEN SEX MATTERS

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ABSTRACT

A message or set of information about an unfamiliar or neutral target person or product is often presented in a positive or negative tone, sometimes called the evaluative direction of the communication (Toy, 1982). In turn, that tone can be amplified and become more influential as the volume of evidence or information leaning in the same direction or bias as the tone becomes more predominant. In legal settings, volume may sometimes be referred to as “the preponderance of evidence.” Not surprisingly, positively toned information tends to increase the attractiveness of the stimulus and negatively toned information tends to decrease the attractiveness of the stimulus; and this differential impact increases as the biased volume increases (Herr, Kardes, & Kim, 1991; Holmes & Lett, 1977). In addition, there is some evidence which indicates that negatively toned information is even more powerful and persuasive than positively toned information (Wright, 1975).

The primary purpose of this study was to empirically test the application of well-established notions about the impact of tone and volume on the attractiveness of a message target. Our study applied this to the kind of information setting offered by the ever-popular RateMyProfessors.com, an online environment where students can rate professors and, more importantly to the present study, see the ratings and comments written by other students about professors.

This study empirically examines the tone and volume of positive information and negative information on the website, RateMyProfessors.com. Using a straightforward 2 x 2 experiment we hypothesized that tone and volume would have an interactive effect on students’ willingness to recommend a professor: as the volume of positive information increases from 80 to 100%, students will become more willing to recommend that professor; but, as the volume of negative information increases from 80% to 100%, students will become less willing to recommend that professor. Moreover, we expected that the differential impact of tone and volume would be even more potent for negative information than for negatively couched information. Initial findings demonstrate support and highlight differences in tone and/or volume by gender.

REFERENCES


ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS OF SOCIAL NETWORKS AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS:
A CLASS PROJECT IN SOCIAL NETWORKING

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ABSTRACT

The use of the internet to market and retail products is commonplace. Online companies such as Amazon have created a new mode of marketing and retailing using the web. Major brick-and-mortar retailers such as Nordstrom and Sears have added web content to compete with online-exclusive entities. Even former catalog-only stores, such as Lands End, have transitioned to an online business model to reduce costs and remain competitive.

Social networks, such as Facebook and MySpace, are a natural place for recent generations to keep in touch with their friends and families. These online communities also provide a vehicle for information sharing.

The advent of digital music downloads has also had a significant impact on how people obtain music. The reduction in brick-and-mortar music retailers is the direct result of the diminished need to have a physical copy of an album or compact disk to hear one’s favorite music. iTunes is the largest purveyor of legal digital music downloads, and at $0.99 per song, an inexpensive way to purchase music of one’s favorite band. Anyone who is a member of a musical band or has friends that are in a band is aware of the use of MySpace to help musical groups in their marketing efforts. This type of marketing of music and bands online appears to be particularly effective with college-aged individuals, although not necessarily well understood by Baby Boomers.

This paper discusses several findings, based upon a survey of college students, regarding the use of the social network MySpace to market and promote independent bands and their music, as well as its perceived effectiveness. These findings discuss whether MySpace is used to purchase and/or download music, whether it helps the potential customer stay abreast of new musical trends and bands, and whether it is used to assist a customer with the purchase of music at online retail sites. This research can have an effect on how marketing educators discuss the use of online marketing techniques in the classroom, as it relates to MySpace, Facebook and other social networking sites.
THE USE AND ABUSE OF STUDENTS IN RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

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ABSTRACT

After all the years of marketing educators using students as subjects, data collectors, etc., it seems odd to us that almost no one has investigated and developed policies related to the potential ethical issues involved in these practices. For example, should you offer students extra credit for filling out a survey? Should you offer extra credit for your students to go to the mall and collect data?

Most of us know that the human subjects review committees at schools evaluate research proposals in terms of their potential psychological and physical risk to subjects. However, the issues go way beyond these concerns.

This Special Session discusses issues concerning the use of students in research activities. Charles Duke and others will lead a discussion on issues pertaining to human subjects review boards at universities. The discussion will center on the legal issues along with the purposes for their existence compared to what activities they actually undertake. Anyone using student subjects will want to be part of this discussion.

Alexander Nill, James Cross, Micol Maughan, Gail Ball and Lucille Pointer will talk about techniques used to encourage students to participate as research subjects. Ethical issues surrounding those practices will be discussed.

Next, Alexander Nill, James Cross, Micol Maughan, Gail Ball and Lucille Pointer will talk about issues pertaining to the use of students to help in the collection of research. Ethical issues surrounding those practices will be discussed.

Finally, Alexander Nill and Jack Schibrowsky will present their research findings pertaining to ethical issues pertaining to the use of students to help in the collection of research data.

This is an important topic for all marketing educators who get involved with human subjects review committees and those who have or are considering using students to help in their research activities.
ASSURANCE OF LEARNING AND ASSESSMENT ISSUES

Session Chairs

James Cross and John A. Schibrowsky, University of Nevada, Las Vegas; john.schibrowsky@unlv.edu

Panelists

Steven Hartley, University of Denver, Denver, CO
Gail Ball, Management Consultant
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ABSTRACT

AACSB has developed a new set of standards regarding students’ learning experiences. The new buzzword is “AOL,” Assurance of Learning. This session will present an overview of the AOL process, how it ties in with assessment activities, and various experiences students will have with these activities.

Professor Cross will introduce the topic. He and Professor Hartley will then give an overview of AOL. The process emphasizes accountability and continuous improvement. Assessment programs at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas and the University of Denver and how they tie in with AOL will be featured.

Next, Professors Pointer, Maughan, Nill and Schibrowsky will describe some of the student activities which fall under this banner at UNLV. They will discuss specific assignments that they use in their senior-level marketing classes.

AOL suggests broad expectations for each degree program. Professor Lapidus (who is also Associate Dean at UNLV) will wrap up the session with an administrator’s perspective on AOL, AACSB standards, and college assessment.

The session will end with a roundtable discussion of the topic and comments from the audience.
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