2005

Marketing Educators' Association Conference Proceedings

Marketing Education:

Navigating the Ocean of Change

La Jolla, California

Richard S. Lapidus & Kenneth J. Chapman, Editors

Marketing Education:
Navigating the Ocean of Change

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Marketing Educators' Association (MEA), est. 1978.

PREFACE

This volume contains the proceedings of the 29th Annual Conference of the Marketing Educators' Association (MEA) held in La Jolla, California, April 14-16, 2005.

The conference theme, **Marketing Education: Navigating the Ocean of Change,** reflects the association's desire to continuously seek new and better ways of teaching and practicing marketing. This program includes both competitive papers and session 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 board evaluated special sessions. Chairs of special sessions were invited to include up to a two-page abstract.

The papers and abstracts are presented here in the same chronological order as their respective sessions in the conference program. The titles on the program included:

- Student Preferences and Participation
- Methodology, Measurement and Analysis
- Understanding Student Learning Styles
- The Numbers Crunch Three Years Hence: Enrollment Peaks in 2008 with Faculty Shortages Forecasted in 2007
- A Review of Important Skill Sets
- Evaluation and Perception of Group Experiences
- MERLOT: The Integration of Digital Scholarship with Teaching
- High Tech/Low Tech: Ways to Administer Undergraduate University Marketing Classes
- Getting Published in Marketing Education Journals
- Faculty and Student Issues
- Issues Associated with Teaching Retailing
- Development Issues
- The State of Marketing Curriculum: Who's Teaching What?
- The Pervasiveness of Marketing and Ethical Concerns
- Issues in Testing
- Using Technology to Enhance Learning Outcomes
- Nurturing the Special Student: Understanding the Needs of Students with Challenges
- Teaching Marketing Overseas To Foreign MBA Students in Compressed Time: Do You Just Talk Faster?
- Understanding Diversity
- Issues in Experiential Learning
- Assessing the Value of Real-World Experiences
- The High Price of Textbooks and Other Content Delivery Issues: Why is the Price of Textbooks so high? What Can You Do to Lower the Cost of Content Delivery to Your Students?
- Student Characteristics
- Pedagogical Issues
- Renewing the Emphasis of Ethics in the Business School Curriculum: Classroom Experiences to Build Students' Awareness of Ethical Issues
- Rateyourstudentsethics.com: piracy, plagiarism or cheating?
- Balancing Acts: Faculty Perceptions of Changing Career Expectations

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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

Special acknowledgement goes to our President, Beverlee Anderson, who kept us on track and selected the great location for the conference. Her professionalism and commitment to MEA can be seen throughout the conference. We would also like to recognize our secretary-treasurer, Robert (Bob) Lupton. Although his behind-the-scenes efforts often go unnoticed by attendees, they are critical to the success of this conference. Additionally, we would like to thank our immediate past-president, Jack Schibrowsky, for his support and insight.

We would also like to thank the many sponsors that help MEA to provide the high level of quality found at the conference. We gratefully acknowledge the support of California State University, San Marcos College of Business Administration and Office of the President, Direct Selling Education Foundation, San Diego State University, Department of Marketing, McGraw-Hill/Irwin, South-Western/Thomson, Prentice Hall, Atomic Dog, Houghton-Mifflin, The Journal of Marketing Education and Sage Publishing.

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

The names of those that served as manuscript reviewers and session chairs are listed below:

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LEARNING STYLE PREFERENCES OF SELECTED STUDENTS OF MEMBER SCHOOLS OF THE ASSOCIATION OF MARKETING EDUCATORS (AME) IN THE PHILIPPINES, 2004-2005

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ABSTRACT

Excellence in education starts with the understanding that it is not teaching but learning that is important. Since the dawn of education, the delivery of knowledge has always been confined to the four walls of the classroom. The concentration has always been on the delivery of knowledge; lecture, the facts, competence, and ideals that we seek to impart to our students; on the curriculum that we create and subsequently follow; on the textbooks that we prescribe; the methods that we use to inspire our classes to keep their interest on the subject and profession. Education students preferentially take in and process information in different ways: by seeing and hearing, reflecting and acting, reasoning, logically and intuitively, analyzing and visualizing knowledge and information.

Teaching methods also vary; some instructors deliver lectures, others demonstrate or lead students to self-discovery, some focus on principle and others on applications, some emphasize memory and others understanding.

Hence, the study concerned about the learning channel preferences or modality styles of marketing students in the Association of Marketing Educators (AME- Phils.) from member schools.

Based on the findings derived from the study, the following conclusions can be drawn:

The data showed that 18 or 64.28 percent of the Association of Marketing Educators in the Philippines (AME) member schools were Visual. However, 10 or 35.71 percent were Kinesthetic. It is interesting to note that there were no Auditory school or student-respondents identified in this study.

The data showed that 10 or 83 percent of the sectarian schools were visual. While 8 or 44.00 percent of the non-sectarian/private/public schools were kinesthetic. On location, provincial and Metro Manila, out of 15 Metro Manila schools, 8 or 53 percent were visual, and 7 or 47 percent were kinesthetic. In provincial schools, 4 or 23 percent were kinesthetic, while 10 or 77 percent were visual.

The identification of learning channel preference of student-respondents from different colleges and universities in the country is vital in the formulation of proper teaching methodologies. However, there are factors, which must be taken into consideration to improve the delivery of learning to marketing students.

From the profiles and scores shown, student modality should be identified prior to the delivery of instruction. These, however, need a crucial thorough evaluation of student learning style to improve quality of learning in marketing courses.

The following are some of the suggested methodologies in the identification and design of teaching:

Identification of learning channel preference of students per class so that teaching methodology could be designed according to it.

The results showed that there were more schools (18) with Visual students comprising 814 students. Meanwhile, there were 10 schools composed of 537 who were kinesthetic. For visual students it would be best for them the read and see the information. Rewriting can help them recall the lesson. For kinesthetic a learning by doing method of teaching is a suggested to further enhance the learning process.

Furthermore, it can be concluded that 18 non-sectarian private or public schools were Kinesthetic, while 10 sectarian schools were Visual. Based on location/area, 9 or 60 percent of Metro Manila schools were Kinesthetic and 6 or 40 percent Visual. However, 10 or 76.92 percent of provincial schools were Visual and 3 or 23.07 percent Kinesthetic.

Meanwhile, based on affiliation, 7 sectarian schools or 58.33 percent were Visual, while 4 or 33.33 percent were Kinesthetic. However, 8 or 53.33

percent of the non-sectarian schools were Kinesthetic, while 7 or 46.66 percent were Visual.

In terms of ways to further build the effectiveness of marketing education from AME member schools in the Philippines, the following are hereby recommended.

The AME member schools/universities should identify learning channel preference of their students to improve the delivery of subjects by their respective professors.

Marketing educators should observe the identified learning styles of students so as to make learning more effective.

Schools should conduct annual modality evaluation in all levels and in-house.

STUDENT PREFERENCES AND PERCEPTION OF USAGE REGARDING DIFFERENT TEACHING METHODS

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ABSTRACT

Debates about the effectiveness of different teaching methods have been going on for decades. More recent research seems to favor experiential learning over the more traditional, passive method of lecture. While research in cognition suggests that active processing and not just passive reception of information leads to greater learning (Lake 2001), recent research comparing learning outcomes between groups using lecture versus experiential learning did not show significant differences (Daughtrey 2003). This study compared the student expressed preference for different teaching methods with the student perceived actual use of these methods in their classes. Marketing education continues to move more toward the interactive, experiential approach and away from the more teacher centered, traditional, lecture based approach. A recent special issue of the Journal of Marketing Education (April 2000) was devoted to experiential learning in the marketing education field. Continued research develops varied approaches to experiential learning and the benefits of these varied learning approaches are well documented in the marketing education literature (Frontczak 1998; 2000). While there is no doubt that different teaching styles can provide benefits for students and instructors, from some of these studies it can be seen that sometimes students do not always prefer the active learning aspect of courses. This study was designed to explore student perceptions of different teaching methods in general. A survey on teaching methods and the estimated usage was collected from a sample of 224 Juniors and Seniors taking marketing classes.

Students were asked to rate different teaching methods according to their personal preference for them. The choices were lecture, discussion, cases, applied work, group work, and research participation. Lecture was overall the preferred method of instruction for these students. It was followed closely by discussion.

In the students' reports of their perceived actual use of these teaching methods in their business classes, the mean percentage for lecture was 35.8% of the time, followed by 18.68% of the time spent on group learning, 16.95% on applied work, 13.86% on discussion, 13.2% on case work, and finally 8.73% on research participation.

This research is strictly limited to students' perception of time spent in the classroom and not any objective measurement of that time, these results can only be interpreted as students' estimates of how their time is spent.

Many faculty members seem to view the use of more active learning as a positive development in marketing education and most research into teaching methods seems to advocate use of these methods over lecture. This research showed that from the students' perspective at least, lecture is still a very highly valued teaching method, especially when combined with other means of teaching and student involvement.

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USING TECHNOLOGY TO INCREASE STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN THE MARKETING PRINCIPLES COURSE: THE RANDOM SELECTOR MODEL

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ABSTRACT

"The only privilege a student had that was worth his claiming was that of talking to the professor and the professor was bound to encourage it. His only difficulty on that side was to get them to talk at all. He had to devise schemes to find what they were thinking about and induce them to risk criticism from their fellows." (The Education of Henry Adams)

Because of the growing interest in interactive learning, educators are increasingly aware of the need to identify methods and techniques that engage students in their learning. Extant research demonstrates how technology can support and augment traditional classroom teaching and improve learning. In 1999 the Kellogg Commission on the Future of State and Land-Grant Universities released a report urging universities to "teach students critical thinking skills using collaborative, interactive teaching methods." The use of technology in undergraduate marketing courses has been acknowledged by scholars and educators as both inevitable and beneficial. Indeed, the antiquated model of the sage on the stage—teacher at the blackboard—with students in their seats is being replaced by the guide on the side using interactive technology.

Research across a variety of disciplines has identified techniques that encourage students to prepare for and participate in classroom discussion. Techniques that encourage participation include the following: call on students when they volunteer, call on students by name, show signs of approval and interest, repeat, highlight, and amplify students' responses, praise students, pose questions, ask for elaboration, accept students' answers, repeat students' answers, and correct wrong answers.

Given the extant research on interactive learning and student participation, we created the Random Selector Model to encourage preparation for and participation in class discussions. Students frequently participate in team projects, case analyses, and other class activities. Often it is impractical to give every team or every student an opportunity to share their results and experiences in class. The Random Selector Model enables the instructor to select individual students or teams of students to participate in class discussion. Because the method is random, students view this approach as an interesting probability problem rather than a situation where the instructor "picks on" or "favors" particular students. The Random Selector Model motivates students to prepare in anticipation of being selected.

The Random Selector Model is a configurable, multi-media software application written in the C# programming language. The application can be configured to select up to twenty teams. Each team can have up to ten members. There are three panels available for selecting teams, individual students within teams, and individual students. The application contains three additional configuration panels that are used to locate images, sounds and text, and add them to the application.

Feedback from students in the marketing principles course has been positive. Verbatim comments from students provide support for the usefulness and value of the Random Selector Model to increase preparation for and participation in class discussions:

"Not only was it fun, but it did give me an extra incentive to be prepared for class. I didn't want to be called on unprepared."

"I enjoyed the random selector and thought that it added value to the class. It was fun to be chosen to participate in a non-traditional way. The music added to the enjoyment as well. I don't think that it was a distraction in any way. If I were you, I'd keep using the selector."

"The random selector tool was a fun and exciting way to keep oneself alert and ready to answer questions when selected."

"I really enjoyed the random selector. I think it helped me prepare more thoroughly for class and it kept my attention in the learning process. I enjoyed the little sounds and they were perfect indicators of how I felt sometimes. I think it is a very effective way to get students to participate."

THE PRICE-VOLUME-COST CYCLE: USING BASIC TOOLS OF ANALYSIS TO UNDERSTAND CURRENT MARKET PRACTICE

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ABSTRACT

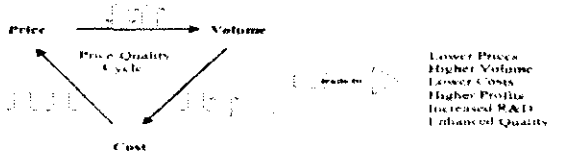
This paper extends the use of basic tools of analysis such as break-even and stay-even analysis in exploring current business practices. An example demonstrates how these tools are utilized to assist companies in revamping their cost structure, investing in R&D and managing the experience effect to better compete in a global environment that is biased toward lower cost and lower prices.

OVERVIEW OF ISSUES

A revolution has been under way over the last two decades in the way consumers shop, companies manufacturer, and marketers sell. The key is price. Consumers won't pay higher prices, retailers can't charge higher prices, and manufacturers have to cut costs to keep prices low. Manufacturers no longer automatically raise prices every year but slash operating costs by investing in research and development and technology to make their firms more efficient Dodds (2003).

The new way of doing business relies on basic tools of analysis that need to be reinvented in ways that they are applied. Break-even and stay-even analysis is moved beyond their customary role to track the price-quantity-cost-quality cycle shown in figure 1. This cycle, so prevalent in our global marketplace, places an emphasis on lower prices, better quality and increased profits. Companies cut price to pursue additional volume leading to lower costs to attain stronger and more profitable positions in the marketplace. These companies wisely invest their additional profits in R&D to further enhance quality and reduce costs, thus enhancing value for the consumer and strengthening prospects for long-term profitability.

FIGURE 1
The Price – Volume – Cost Cycle



QUALITY AND PRODUCTIVITY

Savvy marketers like Rubbermaid have anticipated the fundamental change in the marketplace by spending more on product development and on capital expenditures designed to improve quality and productivity. Rubbermaid slashed prices three times over three years and offset all three price cuts with improvements in productivity (Dodds 2003). Across a wide spectrum, companies that have managed to keep a tight rein on their prices have offset the resulting drag on profits by finding ways to improve productivity. Sara Lee's Hanes underwear division was able to cut costs and prices by bringing yarn production in-house, training workers to sew and package in teams, and switching to higher-tech sewing equipment (USA Today 1993).

COST AND PRODUCTIVITY

Break-even analysis is useful for evaluating alternative prices - especially when prices being considered are fairly realistic from a demand point of view. A realistic appraisal of the likelihood of achieving the break-even point associated with each alternative price might show that some prices are clearly unacceptable. Rather than pricing at an unacceptable level, companies look toward productivity gains to reduce costs.

Value engineering concentrates on improving the relationship between value to the customer. Managers at Ford use the equation value = function over cost) trying to provide a better quality car for less cost. The idea is to either enhance the function of the car part for the same cost or reduce the cost for that same function and achieve a higher value. The function of the part and the cost could also be lowered proportionately and achieve the same value for the customer, yet result in a lower priced product (Dodds 2003).

EXPERIENCE EFFECTS AND PRODUCTIVITY

The experience effect[1] is defined as a decline in costs by a certain percentage every time cumulative

[1] BCG consultant Bruce Henderson first described the Experience Curve Effects in 1960. Henderson found that there is a consistent relationship between the cost of production and the cumulative production quantity. Simply put it states that the more often a task is performed, the lower will be the cost of performing it. The

volume doubles. These cost reductions are not automatic, so management must seek ways to force down costs as volume expands. Production costs are most likely to go down, but all cost elements should be subject to management pressure. The sources of this cost reduction are found in three areas:

Learning.

- Assembling the product better over time
- Becoming more proficient in carrying out marketing strategy
- Improving design features and performance while at the same time reducing costs.

Technological improvement.

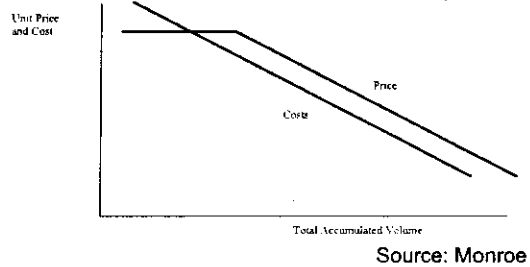
- Improving the manufacturing process
- Changing the resource mix of labor and capital
- Utilizing less costly material

Economies of scale

- Decreasing cost per unit decreases as production volume increases.

In the formative years of the computer chip industry, Texas Instruments (TI) was able to build a significant share of market by reducing prices to build volume. Indeed, they may have entered the market with a price that was below their costs. This strategy was justified by the forecast of a cost reduction in the experience curve as shown in figure 2. The outcome for TI was a significant market share consequently placing them in a position to gain substantial cost reductions. After a period of time, TI's price was above cost and they were then able to decrease price over time in accordance to the gain in cost reductions.

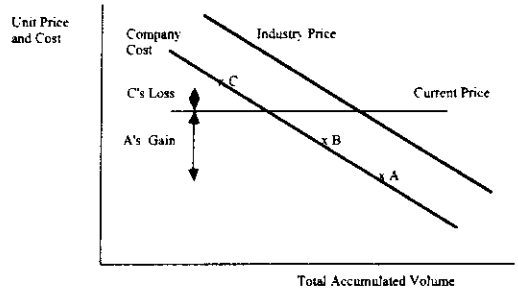
FIGURE 2 –
A Stable Price-Cost Relationship



Source: Monroe 1990

Competition will produce survivors who attain this cost reduction potential. Figure 3 illustrates the profitability advantages of the experience curve. If cost per unit decreases predictably with cumulative output, then the largest competitor (Company A) in the market place has the potential for the lowest unit cost and highest profits. Smaller companies (Company B) must continue to grow at least as fast as the leading competitor and pursue cost reductions effectively. Otherwise, profits will dwindle and eventually vanish. The dominant position is best seized early when the experience effect doubles quickly. Gains in experience curves are most easily achieved in fast growing markets by capturing a disproportionate share of sales. Company C has lost out in the competition and will probably leave the industry.

FIGURE 3
Profitability Advantages of the Experience Effect



Source: Monroe 1990

In recent times, research and development has spawned huge advances in productivity so as to dramatically reduce the price for computers and other technology products while providing tremendous increases in quality. Table 1 illustrates these advances. Over the past 20 years, price has decreased by 71.2% while quality in terms of processing speed and hard drive capacity has increased by 27,153% and 124,999% respectively. These are pretty astounding numbers! Put in another context, the price per MHz of processing speed has gone from $691 to $0.73 while the price per KB on hard drive space has decreased from $20.65 to $0.00005.

TABLE 1
Technology's Effect on the Price – Quality Relationship

Year	Brand	Processor	Hard Drive	Price
1981	IBM PC	4.77 MHz	160 KB	$3,300
1991	Compaq 486	33 MHz	120 MB	$2,300
2001	Dell Dimension	1.3 GHz	20 GB	$950

Data: Business Week

While the computer industry may be a leader in redefining the price-quality relationship, any industry must believe that there is potential to reduce price while simultaneously increasing quality. When a firm can do what the computer industry has done to reduce costs without decreasing product/service quality or enhance quality without significantly increasing costs, then the firm has pursued strategies that enhance value for the consumer. Active management of costs and productivity produces a potential for better quality and lower prices for the consumer while solidifying a strong base for long-term profitability.

subject is treated as common knowledge in most business texts today.

A TEACHING PROBLEM

The Animas Manufacturing Company (AMC) introduced the Itsy Bitsy Stereo Receiver with its incredibly small size but tremendous sound quality into the market one year ago. AMC sells directly to large electronics retail outlets such as Best Buy and Circuit City. The current retail price is $289. Retailers take a 25% markup based on retail. Cost information follows:

Variable costs		Fixed costs	
Material	$98.40	Overhead	$5,260,000
Labor	24.10	Administrative	1,430,000
Supplies	2.17	Advertising	1,250,000
Misc. mfg costs	7.84	Sales	300,000
Commissions (10%)	21.68		$8,240,000
	$154.19		

Unit sales: 158,500

AMC is ready to launch the "second generation" model that is the same size but a tremendous sound quality made even better. Executives of AMC searched for ways to increase quality and reduce production costs in order to remain competitive in world markets. Increasingly they substituted robots, automation, and computer-controlled manufacturing systems for workers. Quality improvements were found through acquisition of new equipment that is reflected in a $200,000 increase in factory overhead and $150,000 invested in research and development. The following variable costs savings were gained in manufacturing experience:

Material	$24.40
Labor	9.30
Supplies	.98
Misc. mfg costs	3.58
	$38.26

AMC plans to drop the retail price by $30 while still offering their sales people the same dollar commission of $21.68 per unit sold. They will also support the retailers with a $10.00 allowance for cooperative advertising on each unit. National advertising was increased by $250,000 and an additional salesperson was added at a salary of $30,000.

As a starting point, the lead manager for this project wants to compare the break-even points for the first and second-generation receivers as well as the stay-even point for the second-generation receiver?

The Typical Analysis

Break-Even Analysis. Operating leverage is a financial concept closely akin to breakeven analysis. Operating leverage refers to the extent to which fixed costs and variable costs are used in the production and marketing of products and services. Firms that have high total fixed costs relative to total variable costs are defined as having high operating leverage. The higher a firm's operating leverage, the faster its total profits will increase once sales exceed break-even volume (Kerin and Peterson 2004).

To understand the implications of AMC's investment to move towards a higher operating leverage, consider the situation:

	Low Leveraged Situation 1st Generation	High Leveraged Situation 2nd Generation
Price (P)	$216.75[2]/unit	$194.25[3]/ unit
Variable Cost (VC)	$154.19	$125.93
Fixed Costs (FC)	$8,240,000	$8,870,000
BEQ[4]	131,714[5] units	129,830[6] units

While the high leveraged situation has more fixed costs, its lower break-even quantity provides a cushion if annual sales fall within the range of 129,830 to 131,714 units. For example, if demand is 129,950 units, the high leveraged situation will provide a profit while the low leveraged situation will not. But what about profit potential if sales exceed 131,714 units? 150,000 units? 200,000 units? Profits in the high leverage situation will increase at a faster rate than the low leveraged situation.

Stay-Even Analysis. When price changes are being considered, there is an expectation that demand will also change. If a price decrease is considered, the logical question becomes "how much must volume increase before a more profitable situation is attained?" When considering price and cost changes simultaneously, the problem becomes even more interesting.

Using the profit function [Profit = (Price - Variable costs) * Quantity - Fixed Costs] the "stay-even" profit position can be described as:

$$\underline{\text{Current Situation}} = \underline{\text{Proposed Situation}}$$
$$(P_1\text{-}VC_1)*Q_1\text{-}FC_1 = (P_2\text{-}VC_2)*Q_2\text{-}FC_2$$

Consequently, the stay even quantity would be Q_2, derived by solving for Q_2 in the equation above.

$$(SE)Q_2 = \frac{(P_1\text{-}VC_1)*Q_1\text{-}FC_1+FC_2}{P_2\text{-}VC_2}$$

[2] A $289 price at retail where the retailer takes a 25% markup would necessitate a manufacturer's price of $216.75. ($289)*(1-.25) = $216.75

[3] ($289-$30)*(1-.25) = $194.25

[4] Break Even Quantity = FC/(P-VC)

[5] $8,240,000/ ($216.75 -$154.19)

[6] $8,870,000 / ($194.25 -$125.93)

AMC is considering a price decrease of $22.50 coupled with increased leverage where decreased variable costs is traded-off against an increase in fixed costs. The crucial question for AMC is whether they will be able to maintain or increase profit. At what point does increased profitability occur? In the 1st year, the firm enjoyed a profit of $1,675,760. SEQ indicates how many units will have to sold at $194.25 (10.38% price decrease) to maintain this profit?

$$SEQ = \frac{(216.75-154.19)*158,500-8,240,000+8,870,000}{(194.25-125.93)}$$
$$= 154,358 \text{ units}$$

The "new" costs in year 2 leads to a situation where volume could actually decrease to 154,358 units and still reach year 1 profit of $1,675,760. If AMC had not restructured their costs, then the 10.38% decrease in price would necessitate an increase in demand to 247,523 units, an increase of 56.2% to reach year 1 profits. This determination will help immensely in understanding whether or not to change price and the ability of the competitor to match that change.

An Enhanced Analysis

A firm's ability to understand the price-quality-value relationship is key to reaching long-term organizational objectives such as profitability through strong customer loyalty. This loyalty is a result of strong value in the company's offering.

When AMC introduced its first generation receiver at $216.75, it might only be perceived as a fair value at that price. The financial structure looked like this:

Volume	158,500 units
Price per unit	$216.75
Cost per unit	154.19
Contribution margin per unit	62.56
Contribution margin %	28.9%
BEQ = 131,714 units	
Total contribution margin:	$9,915,760
Less fixed costs	8,240,000
Profit contribution	$1,675,760

However, if AMC pursues the strategies of cost, productivity and value management, they might find a better position in the eyes of the customer and in their bottom line. AMC's strategy plays out, as shown in figure 1, like this:

- Cutting price increases volume.
- Increasing volume hastens the reduction of cost through the experience effect.
- Reducing costs spur further lowering of price that will increase demand.

This process adds to profits that makes more money available for research and development which leads to higher levels of quality and/or lower costs. AMC is managing the price, volume, cost cycle so as to compete successfully in the "super deal" market with high volume and high quality at a low price. If demand in year 2 was 186,690 units, then the financial structure looks like this:

Volume	186,690 units
Price per unit	$194.25
Cost per unit	125.93[7]
Contribution margin per unit	$68.32
Contribution margin %	28.9%
BEQ = 129,830 units	
SEQ = 154,358 units	
Total contribution margin:	$12,754,660
Less fixed costs	8,870,000
Profit contribution	$3,884,660

AMC's strategy lowered their BEQ from 131,714 units to 129,830 units, while having a SEQ of 154,358 units which is below the 1st generation's demand of 158,500 units. AMC developed an advantageous scenario for price-cutting. As the price, volume and cost cycle continues, AMC might use a portion of their increased profits in R&D to spur further quality gains while investing in equipment to shift cost structure in gaining leverage in producing the third generation receiver. A future scenario for this receiver might be where the financial structure is:

Volume	204,000 units
Price per unit	$176.50
Cost per unit	103.75
Contribution margin per unit	$72.75
Contribution margin %	41.2%
BEQ = 126,460 units	
SEQ = 179,858 units	
Total contribution margin:	$14,841,000
Less fixed costs	9,200,000
Profit contribution	$5,641,000

Again, as the price, volume and cost cycle revolves, AMC is finding lower breakeven points and profit goals to meet the previous generation's profit. To complete the scenario, the additional profit would be used to continue the cycle of lowering the price further, investing in R&D and further modernization of the manufacturing process.

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-Available upon request

[7] The new variable cost of $125.93 is computed as $154.19 - $38.26 + $10.

DATA DATA EVERYWHERE AND NOT A DROP TO THINK: A CASE STUDY IN DEVELOPING AN EFFECTIVE RESEARCH METHODS COURSE

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ABSTRACT

This paper chronicles the development of a new business research methods course. The primary focus was on training MBA students to develop their own research problem definitions in preparation for the Masters Projects

INTRODUCTION

After several decades of combined teaching and Masters' project supervision, the authors concluded that something is fundamentally wrong with the way research methods are taught to MBA students. The problem was not that students didn't have the quantitative or statistical horsepower to analyze data (although that was a problem too). The problems seemed more fundamental than that. It seemed that students did not understand the research process itself. While they might have interesting subjects to study, related either to their current or future businesses, they seemed unable to adequately formulate research questions, choose appropriate research designs, or even understand what it means to analyze data.

That led us to rethink the way business research methods should be taught to graduate students in semesters preceding the Masters' thesis course. Rather than having the students actually carry out a research study, for which previous cohorts of students had proven to be ill equipped, the authors decided to teach a course that would simulate the trials and tribulations of the research process that all academics are familiar with. We decided to pool our resources, in terms of our own research work, to create a new type of research methods course. Rather than to totally pre-package the course from the beginning, we decided to use the creation of the course itself to demonstrate the research process. Our story is akin to a Wagnerian Opera: the chorus spends six hours building a gallows on stage in front of the audience before the actual hanging. We wanted to test our hunches about why we had been getting such poor research projects by using the current crop of Masters' students as test subjects. Thus, the goal of our course was not to have the students conduct or execute a research project: rather, the goal was to help the students DESIGN a research project from the ground up and identify the stages at which problems might occur.

IN THE BEGINNING

Research is often best performed as a collaborative effort. Students were told on the first day of class that they would be working in teams of two throughout the semester. To model the benefits of collaboration, we decided that the course would be team taught by two individuals with very different teaching styles and personalities. The students were at first skeptical about having to please two different graders. They feared that each faculty member would demand different things and it would be difficult to please two masters. Indeed, the authors are very different individuals, which the students quickly noticed. One of us is detail oriented, the other a big picture thinker. One of us is very structured while the other has a very free-wheeling style. One of us is male, the other female. One is older, the other is younger. One is a republican, the other a democrat. One is yin, the other yang. Most of these differences, however, were not necessarily in the direction that the students might have anticipated.

Right from the start, the students were impressed at how well coordinated a joint lecture we could give. One commented "you really must have rehearsed this lecture." We didn't. Rather, we explained, after years of coordination, our differing styles complement each other so well that we have a natural rhythm that coordinates our joint efforts. We explained that the best research partnerships are composed of equally strong oppositely talented individuals.

The two instructors graded all student assignments separately. They met weekly to compare graded assignments. The students began to see that while the grades might be different across instructors, they were fairly close. In most cases, both instructors noticed the more obvious deficiencies of each assignment. Occasionally one instructor noticed a flaw that was un-caught by the other. As the semester progressed, the students noticed that despite our obvious personality and stylistic differences, one of us was not necessarily an easier

grader than the other and that on balance our grades were fairly close and consistent. This helped us impress upon the students of assessing inter-rater reliability when qualitatively analyzing data.

PROBLEM DEFINITION

As any research course and text states, the first step in the research process is to define the problem being researched. Too often, students dismiss this as an obvious step commenting "duh, of course you have to know what it is you're researching." The problem is, even if the student researchers know what it is they are trying to study, they most often have a very difficult time succinctly stating their research questions.

Rather than open the field of inquiry too broadly, the instructors decided to frame the entire course around one research topic with which they were very familiar: social time and management. The instructors have published numerous articles on time and management, time and marketing, cross cultural attitudes toward time, and academic time. Several of their articles were made available electronically for students to reference.

Since this is a business research methods course, and not a marketing research course, it seemed reasonable that students focusing in any area of business – human resources, operations management, or accounting, could find some type of time-related management question worth studying. The first assignment given to the students, working in teams of two was as follows:

> Provide a one-page statement of a research problem involving some aspect of time and management (or business).

Based upon Leedy & Ormrod's (2005) text, which included numerous examples, students were asked to succinctly state the problem, two or three sub-problems, operational definitions of any constructs or terminology, and delimitations of the research.

The students had a very difficult time accomplishing this task the first time around. They proposed hypotheses, told us about how they were going to test correlations in the data, and told us what they expected to find. Clearly, they were disappointed in their initial grades. Although they were given the opportunity to redo the assignments, they complained that the instructors were not explicit about what was expected. Several of them assumed that the problem was that they had chosen the research topic and were considering changing their topics altogether to something more 'researchable.' The problem, as the instructors explained in the text of email in Exhibit 1, not that the topic was not researchable, but rather, the research question was poorly stated.

Exhibit 1:
e-mail to a Distressed Student

I would certainly not discard the topic. While I was not in class last week, from reading the assignments, I would disagree that yours was the most specific. More than one dealt with just one organization. We never meant to mislead you in any way. In the syllabus, which we sent ahead of time we tried to be very explicit about the assignments. In your Masters Project course, you will actually conduct a research project; this course is designed to give you the tools to do well on that project. But our emphasis is on process, not the topic content.

Your research problem was not well defined, which has contributed to the difficulties you are having. You already indicated the methodology and analytical tools, which are further down the line. While there was much background information given, there was not a clear statement of what you planned to research. The closet you came was in the "how" section, where you suggested you would conduct an analysis of the time commitment of the Board. This could be converted into a problem statement, with some editing, but I am not sure that is really what you want to do.

Don't abandon this ship because you have not as yet learned how to sail. You may find the next one poses very similar problems, so I encourage you to work on what you have. Just about anything CAN be researched, but you must learn the process of developing the research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In general, the students seemed quite eager to jump right into the research process and get right down the business of collecting data by 'doing surveys' and 'crunching numbers.' Few of our students have strong statistical analysis skills beyond basic descriptive statistics and fewer still have any experience designing survey instruments. At this point in the course, the focus turned to preliminary research including literature reviews and other secondary research. Students were asked to prepare a literature review of articles relevant to answering their particular research questions.

As a starting point, students were encouraged to use our online articles in their attempts to create a

bibliography. They were shown various ways of creating literature reviews, including the effective use of tables to organize the literature by date, topic, or methodology used. The Leedy & Ormrod (2005) text assignment also covers how to perform a review of the related literature and gives examples. The students were told to prepare a 2-3 page literature review justifying their choices of the eight articles they had selected, a proper bibliography correctly cited, and, if they wanted, a table.

Several students found themselves at a loss. They worried that since they were only studying the practices of one organization and studying their particular issue for the first time, they would not be able to find any published studies. They needed to be shown that looking at industry-sponsored studies or best practices might be useful ways to benchmark their organization's problem with others. The challenge was to get them to generalize their problem and think of it in broader terms.

RESEARCH DESIGN

After several weeks of struggling with the problem definition stage and some measured success with the literature reviews, it was time for the students to choose a methodology. This issue was framed for them in terms of choosing a design appropriate to their research question. As mentioned previously, by their own admission, few of the students considered themselves to have particularly strong quantitative skills and almost none of them had any experience with primary data collection using surveys.

It was around this time of the semester that we introduced the students to qualitative research methods, including observation, structured in-depth interviews, and focus group interview techniques. Further, we had already begun to emphasize the importance of conducting secondary data collection as a vital step in the research process. Since many of the problems had been stated in such a way as to suggest that the students were interested in studying phenomena about which they knew little, we expected them to choose some sort of qualitative or secondary research design.

Instead, they jumped directly to the conclusion that it would be necessary to write surveys, collect a lot of data, and do some correlation analysis. One team stated that first they would collect and analyze their data quantitatively so that they could then propose some hypotheses. This frightened us. A lot.

After a few revisions of the research design, the students began to see the value in research techniques that might precede the collection of survey data. This is because most of them had concluded that they had not decided exactly which questions they might ask respondents and had been made to realize that it might just be easier to look at secondary sources. However, it became clear to us that, in spite of well-written textbooks, students were still confused about the nature of different types of research approaches to take. They were mixing up the qualitative/quantitative with the primary/ secondary dimensions of research data.

QUALITATIVE DATA ASSIGNMENT

Both authors have extensive experience conducting qualitative analysis. Indeed, both had completed numerous projects for the university related to year-round operations, scheduling, and academic time. Several of these time-related studies and papers were among those posted electronically for the students to read early in the semester.

Rather than training the students to collect qualitative data by conducting their own focus groups, the instructors decided to save time by letting the students analyze some existing raw qualitative data. The student teams were given copies of a sixty-two-page transcript of a focus group conducted among university faculty and staff about meeting the challenges of moving to year round operations. The following assignment was printed on the syllabus:

> **Analyze and present the data from the transcript in a paper no longer than 3 pages.**

The students were not pleased. They wondered what the instructors expected of them. How would they organize their discussion? Should they analyze the data, or merely summarize it? The instructor clarified: "In three pages, summarize the data and explain what it means. I don't think you can summarize that which you haven't analyzed."

The students handed in fairly well written assignments. Some spent a good deal of time mentioning the names of the participants, their titles, and what they each said and commented about how Sandy (the moderator) conducted the focus group. These got the lowest grades. Others merely restated the interview questions as headings and provided synopses of how each question was answered without extracting meaning. Another group organized their discussions around the major themes that emerged through the discussion and interpreted the meanings of them. These received the highest grades.

By this time in the semester, the natives had begun to get restless. They were totally frustrated by the seemingly intentional vagueness of assignment instructions. One student commented that it would have been much easier to analyze and summarize the focus group transcript if they had been provided with a rubric to organize their papers in a way that the instructors would have found acceptable. Indeed, one of the instructors, facing a bit of a mutiny, explained that the papers that received high grades were not all organized the same way. What they all had in common, rather, is they had all extracted meaning. To stave off a revolution, the other instructor crafted another long email message to simultaneously assuage the students' fears while admonishing them to *analyze and extract meaning from,* rather than summarize the data.

Indeed, we had isolated one of the major problems with student research projects. Despite having given them numerous explanations and definitions of analyzing data, many of them were still having trouble moving beyond simply reporting data and learning to extract information and meaning from it.

SECONDARY RESEARCH

The preceding email missive alluded to an easier, more direct assignment that the students had been given. In fact, according to the Business Librarian, the day before the assignment was due several panicked MBA students had approached her for help. The assignment, taken from the Zagorsky (2003) text, was something of a secondary data scavenger hunt. Sample questions asked the students to find the five busiest US airports, and to report how many people in the Houston, Texas, earned between $50,000 and $75,000 annually.

The assignment was emailed to the students a few days before the secondary data lecture was given and lists of typical useful sources, such as Census.gov were explained. On a positive note, many of the students found their information using sources beyond or other than the ones presented in class, although some of the sources they chose proved to be less than accurate and up to date. Nonetheless, the students had almost two weeks to complete the assignment. While most of them ultimately completed the assignment successfully, most waited until the last minute and made minimal effort. This supported another of our informal research hypotheses.

While the students completed the secondary research assignment, the results were mixed. For example, when asked how many households in Houston earned between $50,000 and $75,000, several student teams indicated 1,112 as an answer. They neglected to report (or perhaps notice) that results were in 100's, which would indicate that there are 111,200 households in that income bracket, which, *prima facie* is a more reasonable number.

Others simply answered the questions by copying tables and charts directly from the internet onto their papers without so much as highlighting those numbers that actually answered the question

Thus, while they might have been able to locate relevant sources, many of the students had difficulty organizing the sources and extracting information from the data sources they had located.

Thus, with a world awash in data, data, data, many MBA students still lack the ability to find, process, interpret, and report what is already available to them. It is no wonder, then, that they have such difficulty completing meaningful research projects.

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

While many research courses, which cover techniques (Anderson 1997) spend a large amount of time on writing questionnaires, collecting data, and running statistical analyses, this may not be the best allocation of effort. The students in these courses may perform well on the individual assignments, but can they develop a coherent research plan, analyze data or interpret findings on their own?

Our approach has been frustrating for both the students and the instructors. We have found trying to teach student to think beyond the box, to recognize patterns, and to interpret what they have is truly a learning experience for both them and us.

Selected References

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Leedy, Paul D. and Jeanne Ellis Ormrod (2005) *Practical Research: Planning and Design, 8th ed.* (Columbus, OH: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall)

Zagorsky, Jay L. (2003) *Business Information: Finding and Using Data in the Digital Age.* (Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin)

> marketing, and especially direct mail – 'three things: testing, testing and testing.' ... It is rare to encounter a program that would not be enhanced by testing *some* of the items (if not many of them). When more than one item is tested, the prospect of *interaction effects* (i.e. "synergy") among the items must be considered." (p. 203)

These books, many of which are "professional" books rather than academic textbooks, discuss experimental design in more detail than the typical marketing research textbook. For example, Roberts and Berger (1999) have greater discussion of factorial designs and interactions than was found in any of the marketing research textbooks discussed above. They also include the vignette of Exhibit 1, which provides an example of the superiority of factorial designs in testing.

Costs of Testing: An Example

One of the major drawbacks to traditional experimental design has been the cost involved. Marketing experimentation has its roots in the social sciences, particularly the field of psychology, where testing "one subject at a time" can be time consuming and expensive. As Christensen (1994) states (p. 87):

> "It is not unusual for the experimenter to have to go to extreme lengths to set the stage for, motivate, and occasionally deceive the subject.Then, when the experiment is actually conducted, the experimenter and perhaps one or two assistants are often required to spend quite some time with each subject."

With this type of effort, the number of subjects is typically few, resulting in testing which is limited to a few factors and levels of factors. Experiments utilizing databases, however, having hundreds of thousands of names on a computer list represents an entirely different situation, and one that may easily allow more complex experimental designs. An example derived from that provided by McDonald (1998, p. 182-183) illustrates a rough estimate of what a direct mail test may cost. The following fixed and variable costs apply:

- Consultants (research design and creative art) $20,000 (lump sum)
- Printing (brochures, inserts and return envelopes) $230 per thousand
- Mailing (list purchase, mail preparation and postage) $345 per thousand

Direct mail tests typically measure the responses to each mail offer. Typically an average response (offer acceptance) of 100 would yield the desirable accuracy (e.g. Roberts and Berger 1999). If the response rate averaged 5%, a commonly used figure, there would have to be 2000 mailings sent out to customers in each of the four treatment cells. Thus the cost for a minimum factorial design of two factors at two levels (resulting in four individual mailing categories or treatment cells) would be $24,600 (= $20,000 + $230 X 8 + $345 X 8). If the average response rate was only 2%, the number of mailings for each treatment cell would rise to 5,000 and the cost would increase to $31,500.

Full Factorial Design of Experiments

Simple factorial designs, even if not covered in many textbooks, are relatively easy to cover in class. The usual illustration is a matrix-type format showing the unique testing "cells", or combinations of factors. A four-cell cooking appliance example, with two levels of material and two levels of the timer feature is illustrated in Exhibit 1.

Each cell, numbered from 1 through 4, represents a unique combination of material and timer. While the usual method of analysis would be a two-way ANOVA, a regression approach to analysis would also be feasible, and be based on a regression model as follows, including the interaction term:

Purchase Willingness =
Timer + Material + Timer x Material + Error

Another format for illustrating experimental designs may be found in the engineering-science discipline, and is especially useful for more complex experimental designs. Termed an "extended design matrix" (e.g. Moen, et al 1991), its columns follow the regression model and its rows form the unique test conditions, or "cells" of the traditional marketing format. The two levels of each factor are traditionally indicated by a "-" and a "+". The extended design matrix format for our kitchen appliance example would be as follows

Cell/Test	Timer	Material	Timer x Material
1	-	-	+
2	+	-	-
3	-	+	-
4	+	+	+

In this matrix, the factor columns (Timer and Material) constitute the "design" portion of the matrix, and the interaction column (Timer x Material) represents the "extension". While the signs in the factor columns symbolize the levels of the factors, the signs in the interaction columns are just computations, obtained by multiplying the signs of the factors which make up

the interaction. For example, the sign of Test 1's interaction is the "-" of Timer multiplied by the "-" of the Material. These signs are used in the hand computation of the effects of each factor and interaction, and in the selection of the fraction (portion) of the full factorial design, discussed below.

A design with three factors could be illustrated in a similar way. The top illustration of Appendix 1 has three fictitious variables, #1, #2 and #3. Using the "extended design matrix" format, it indicates the three main effects of the variables, the three two-way interactions, and the three-way interaction. As usual, there are 8 "cells" or "tests" of the factors involved (i.e. 2 x 2 x 2), with unique combinations of the two levels of the three factors making up each test, as indicated in the "main effects" columns for variables #1, 2 and 3 (the design portion of the matrix).

It will further be noted that each of the main effects and interactions (the columns) has a unique combination of signs and each of the eight tests (the rows) has a unique combination of signs. Also, each column has an equal number of plusses and minuses, necessary for balance in the testing process. Analytically, the first three columns are used for the factorial design and would represent data in an ANOVA or regression analysis. A similar extended matrix approach may be used for efficiently illustrating experimental designs for any number of factors.

Another convention commonly used in the engineering-science field is that of indicating the number of factors and levels of each factor in an "x^k" notation format (e.g. Montgomery 1994), where the "x" is the number of levels and the superscript "k" is the number of factors. For example, the experiment discussed above, consisting of 3 factors of 2 levels each, would be indicated by the notation "2^3". The notation is not readily applicable to mixed-level experiments (e.g. two factors with 2 levels and one factor with 4 levels), but it does allow a convenient shorthand notation of fractions of uniform full factorial experiments.

With the possible exception of the "extended design matrix" format and notation, all of the above has been familiar to marketing educators since their grad school days. The following discussion may not be quite so familiar.

Fractional Factorial Design of Experiments

The purpose of using fractional factorial designs is to retain the important (useful) information contained in a full factorial experimental design, while reducing the costs. In the testing cost illustration discussed above, for example, there would a marginal cost of $1150 for each test performed (2000 mailings per test at $230+$345 per thousand). As usual, the experimenter would have to make the tradeoff decision regarding cost vs. information.

As marketing educators are aware, one of the problems with multiple factors in design of experiments is the difficulty of interpreting significant higher order interactions. While two-way interactions frequently yield very useful information, and three-way interactions are reasonably easy to interpret and may provide useful information, four-way and higher interactions are quite difficult to clearly interpret even when they are statistically significant. Thus, the fundamental thrust of the fractional factorial design philosophy is to select portions, or fractions, of the full extended design matrix using the higher order interactions as the basis for selection. While the information on these higher order interactions is lost, sufficient information remains to be useful, at substantial cost savings.

Appendix I illustrates an example of this process. The full three factor extended design matrix, discussed above, is shown in the top matrix. The middle matrix shows a half factorial design consisting only of tests which have a "+" in the three-way interaction column of the full factorial matrix. However, while all tests have equal numbers of plusses and minuses in each column, and each design matrix test is unique in its signs, the three-way interaction is now a constant, thus there is no information available on its significance. If selection of the "+" tests is arbitrary, then the "–" tests could just as well have been selected; however, researcher knowledge may indicate a preference for the selection of one of the two signs over the other. The notation for this design is "2^{3-1}".

Unfortunately, the three-way interaction is not all the information that is lost. Inspection of this half factorial extended design matrix will reveal that the two middle columns, the "Factor 3" and the "Interaction Factor 1&2", (indicated by an "x" under each column) are identical in their signs. Thus, the analysis of "Factor 3" is actually an analysis of "Factor 3 + Interaction Factors1&2". Similarly, common column sign identity results in the analysis of "Factor 2" actually being an analysis of "Factor 2 + Interaction Factors1&3", and the analysis of "Factor 1" actually being the analysis of "Factor 1 + Interaction Factors 2&3"; that is, in this design each Factor is confounded with a second

order interaction. Clearly this also is a loss of information, which may or may not be important in any given research project. That is, if the interaction is not significant, then a main effect will show little difference in results from what it would if it was not confounded with the interaction.

Fortunately there is additional information available in this half factorial design, as indicated by the three bottom matrices of Appendix I. The data in the "2^{3-1}" design allows us to easily perform three separate full factorial "2^2" design analyses, which will provide much of the information lost by not utilizing a full "2^3" design. Using the same cost data as discussed above, the savings of the half fraction over the full factorial would be $4604 ($1150 x 4 tests). The researcher would have to determine the tradeoff of cost vs. information prior to undertaking the research.

One of the advantages of the fractional factorial approach is that designs with more than three factors do not lose as much useful information, while maintaining their cost savings. Appendix II presents two design matrices: the top is the full factorial "2^4" extended design (having 16 cells or "tests"), while the bottom matrix is the half-factorial "2^{4-1}" extended design, with 8 "tests". While we again observe the existence of confounding of column signs, we note that in this case each two way interaction is confounded with another two way interaction, and the main effects factors are only confounded with three way interactions. Thus, the researcher may have some confidence that any significant main effects found are significant in themselves and probably not as a result of the confounding third order interaction. The reader may verify that, as with the three factor half factorial extended designs, individual analysis may be made of full factorials, in this case full factorials with three factors (i.e. "2^3" designs using Factors 1, 2 & 3; 1, 3 & 4; and 2, 3 & 4). The half factorial savings in this case would be $9200 over the full factorial design ($1150 x 8).

Experimental designs with more factors also increase in usefulness, with concomitant savings. For example, the "2^{5-1}" design is so useful that Moen, et al (1991) note that "Because this design is so powerful, it is rare that a full '2^5' design would be used " (p. 177). This is because each main effect is only confounded with one four way interaction, and any four factors form a full "2^4" factorial design for further detailed analysis. Similarly, quarter or other fractional factorial designs for research using more than 5 factors would result in greater savings, with small declines in the provision of useful information. For example, a "2^{16-11}" design would allow the analysis of any "2^3" design, some "2^4" or "2^5" designs, and "2^{4-1}" or "2^{5-1}" designs for the other four or five factors not allowing the full "2^4" or "2^5" designs (Moen, et al, 1991, p. 181). The cost of this rather complicated "2^{16-11}" design would be $55,200 (for 32 tests) compared to the $24,600 cost of a simple two factor "2^2" design, such as that of the Timer and Material example discussed above.

Summary information on complex design is typically provided in engineering-science books on experimental design, e.g. Montgomery (1994), noting that a series of experimental designs would typically be undertaken. In that regard, Moen, et al (1991) suggest various fractional factorial designs based on level of researcher knowledge of the system being tested. The tables listed in Appendix III are based on their recommendations.

CONCLUSIONS

While the marketing discipline seems to have used true experimental design largely for hypothesis testing in theory development, the engineering-science discipline routinely uses experimental design in an applications context, especially for process optimization. The development of large customer and operations databases allows a similar application of large factorial and fractional factorial designs in marketing, especially in direct marketing applications.

However, while the past decade has seen increasing use of such designs in database marketing applications, marketing research textbooks, and presumably most classes that use those textbooks, have not seemingly changed from their traditional discussions of experimental designs. While all textbooks reviewed have a section on causal/experimental design, they rarely consider full factorial designs, usually confining their discussions to single factor designs; none even mention fractional factorial designs. Thus, as in other aspects of the expanding use of databases in marketing applications, the academe is not keeping abreast of the changes their students will encounter in the workplace.

Countering this industry-based need for a more complete coverage of experimentation in marketing research textbooks is a pedagogical problem: how will this complex topic be covered, and to what extent. In the author's experience, most students have a "full plate" with a thorough coverage of existing material in a one-semester marketing research class. Developing student skills in full factorial designs, including interactions, then going further into fractional factorial designs would probably be more than most undergraduate students could

handle. Even Master's students could probably not do much more than have guided hands-on experience with a simple application.
The answer might be, at least for undergraduate classes, to deal with the material in a lecture context, demonstrating the concepts of full and fractional factorial designs, their usefulness to industry, and the methodology of analysis. Some of the information in this paper may be of use in that regard, but a fully developed case application would be the ideal. Hopefully such an application for demonstration will be developed.

References, additional Appendices, and Exhibit are available from the author upon request.

Appendix I – Three Factor Designs

Full Factorial Extended Design With Three Factors (#1, #2, #3): 2^3

	Variable						
Test	1	2	3	12	13	23	123
1	-	-	-	+	+	+	-
2	+	-	-	-	-	+	+
3	-	+	-	-	+	-	+
4	+	+	-	+	-	-	-
5	-	-	+	+	-	-	+
6	+	-	+	-	+	-	-
7	-	+	+	-	-	+	-
8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Half Factorial Extended Design with Three Factors (#1, #2, & #3): 2^{3-1}

	Variable						
Test	1	2	3	12	13	23	123
2	+	-	-	-	-	+	+
3	-	+	-	-	+	-	+
5	-	-	+	+	-	-	+
8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
			x	x			

Three Full Factorial Extended Designs with Two Factors: 2^2

Variable			
Test	1	2	12
2	+	-	-
3	-	+	-
5	-	-	+
8	+	+	+

Variable			
Test	1	3	13
2	+	-	-
3	-	-	+
5	-	+	-
8	+	+	+

Variable			
Test	2	3	23
2	-	-	+
3	+	-	-
5	-	+	-
8	+	+	+

LEARNING STYLE AND THE PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF LEARNING ACTIVITIES

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ABSTRACT

Recently it was suggested that learning opportunities should be targeted to different types of student learning styles (Morris, Sweeney, and Heffernan, 2003). Marketing educators were also encouraged to develop students' facility in learning through various modalities by systematically exposing them to various types of learning activities.

The relationship between learning style preferences and learning effectiveness is a crucial link in the argument that marketing educators should be mindful of students' learning styles when designing courses. Whether this presumption that differences in preference equate with differences in effectiveness of learning activities is valid is explored in this study.

BACKGROUND

The concept of learning styles grows out of Jungian personality typologies based on individual differences in decision-making and perceiving. Individual differences in learning are cast in terms of a person's preferred perceptual mode and information attributes (intuition vs. sensing - visual, auditory, and touch; abstraction vs. concrete-realism), and their preferred information processing modalities (active vs. reflective; sequential vs. random ordering of information) (Frontczak, 1990).

Kolb (1984) depicts learning style types using a four-quadrant model: Accommodators (active-concrete) who prefer trial-and-error experiences and people; Convergers (active-abstract) who prefer problem-solving; Divergers (reflective-concrete) who prefer people, feelings, and harmony, and; Assimilators (reflective-abstract) who prefer ideas and theories (Frontczak, 1990).

Solomon and Felder's Learning Style Index (2004) adds verbal-visual and sequential-global dimensions to the active-reflective dimension, and replaces the concrete-abstract dimension with intuitive-sensing. This four-dimensional approach provides a richer conceptualization of individual learning differences. Both models propose that matching learning activities with student learning styles improves learning outcomes.

Diverse learning styles have been found among marketing students, but active, sensing, visual, and sequential dimensions (Kolb's Accommodators and Assimilators) appear to be somewhat more prevalent (Frontczak and Rivale, 1991). Morris, Sweeney, and Heffernan (2003) found three learning style types: active-intuitive-visual; reflective-verbal; and sensate-visual-sequential.

METHODOLOGY

As part of a broader cross-sectional survey, a convenience sample of 227 students in ten advanced marketing courses at eight universities indicated their perceived effectiveness of 21 learning activities and their learning style preferences. The hypothesized effects of learning style on the perceived effectiveness of the activities were extrapolated from learning style preferences noted in prior research.

RESULTS

Relatively few significant differences in perceived effectiveness were found across each of the learning style dimensions. Learning style clusters were also examined. The clusters were: Cluster 1- Visual Accommodators (80.44% of the sample); Cluster 2-Verbal Accommodators (2.69% of the sample); Cluster 3- Divergers; and Cluster 4- Assimilators. There was no analog for Kolb's Converger learning style among these clusters. Very few significant differences in perceived effectiveness ratings across these more nuanced learning style clusters were found

CONCLUSION

This study leads to a potentially controversial conclusion. The paucity of effects and some reversed effects generally do not support the prevailing presumption that student learning style based preferences correspond to learning more effectively from those preferred learning activities. Therefore, marketing educators may not expect greater payoff for the added investment required to customize course design in response to learning style preferences. Marketing educators would do just as well to employ a variety of learning activities in classes drawing on multiple learning modalities.

References & Exhibits Available on Request

AN EXAMINATION OF THE INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION COMPETENCY AS AN INTEGRAL PART OF THE CURRICULUM IN SELECT COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN BATANGAS PROVINCE, PHILIPPINES

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ABSTRACT

The study centered on defining the issues related to interpersonal communication. Insights on the subject were gotten from both the students and faculty members of selected colleges and universities in the province of Batangas.

Likewise, their perceptions about the present situation related to interpersonal communication were gathered to find out if there really is a need for change. Apparently, the study is an action research project done to assess existing practices.

A combination of different research designs: grounded theory, exploratory and descriptive, was used for this purpose.

Results of the study revealed that students find said competency very relevant to their business courses. Faculty members opined that said skill is important in their teaching and classroom instruction.

The students also perceived that said skill is more important than any other skills: computer skill; general business skill and problem-solving skill. They moderately agree that such is being given enough emphasis in class and in their curricula. On the other hand, faculty members strongly agree that it is being given sufficient emphasis in class and they disagree that students exhibit enough interpersonal communication in class. Students, likewise, have the same view.

The above situation would trigger an in-depth study in the future to find out the cause and effect of this abnormal condition and to thresh out the problem.

CHAPTER 1

Problem & Significance

The global arena appears to be seething as each one prepares to unleash its weapon to fight off the seemingly unending tag race. The barrage of attacks which continuously hounds and pounds the environment of a firm serves as a wake-up call for those that merely attempt to preserve the comfortable features of the present.

An organization which has slid into a rut, should seek ways to revitalize its turf to avoid being locked and pushed to stagnation.

Educational institutions in different countries are all gearing up to surmount the attacks mounted by the growing forces of the government, the business sector and the studentry.

In the Philippines, the deteriorating quality of education with the big percentage of Grade VI students failing miserably in the national test had caused alarm for the Department of Education to initiate fundamental changes. Likewise, the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) is taking drastic steps to curb the growing numbers of college graduates who could not find jobs after graduation or those who work in jobs not related to their courses. The severe unemployment problem (and underemployment) is manifested in the quality of life that we have right now. This is essentially attributed to the kind of skills that educational institutions are providing their graduates which apparently are not the ones required by the business sector. The same worry was echoed by businesses in the Batangas/Laguna area in the study conducted by the researcher in 2001. They professed their concern about the quality of graduated produced by the Higher Educational Institutions (HEI's) which has attenuated tremendously. In said study, practically all firms in various industries in the above-mentioned area articulated their desire to employ only individuals

astute in interpersonal communication: verbal and non-verbal communication; conversation and relationships. Said characteristic contributes largely to productivity (Torres 1981).

Indeed, one competency of value to the students is the interpersonal communication. In the United States, a new attention was given to this skill and such attention was primarily brought about by a societal shift that empowered individuals and placed a new found emphasis on relationships (Knapp & Dally 2002). In addition, interpersonal communication course in various schools in the U.S. was examined to determine if it is meeting national standards (Nesmith 2003). Suffice it to say, the skill is that important evidenced by the amount of weight put into it.

The aforementioned situation raised the researcher's concern and made a decision to find out whether students (are aware of the relevance) of this competency to their business courses and their employment chances. Students will also be asked about the importance of interpersonal communication skill vis-à-vis other skills; what they feel about the amount of emphasis being given in their classes and curricula. Faculty members will also be asked of its importance to their profession and if said competency is being given adequate emphasis in the student's curriculum.

Research Questions

Students:

1. To what extent do they feel the relevance of interpersonal communication skill?

2. How important is interpersonal communication skill to them compared to other skills?

3. What do they feel of the amount of emphasis being given to interpersonal communication in the class and in their curricula?

Faculty Members:

1. To what extent do they use interpersonal communication in their teaching methods?

2. What do they think of the amount of emphasis being given to interpersonal communication in the student's curriculum?

CHAPTER 2

Review of Literature

Interpersonal communication courses offered by schools in the United States were examined to find out if they are meeting national standards (Nesmith 2003). The general education requirement in communication has transcended to become an interpersonal communication course that dwells not only in public speaking (verbal communication) but also on other subjects as well, which include non-verbal communication, conversation, relationship, and awareness of self. It was brought about by a societal shift that empowered individuals and placed a new found emphasis on relationships (Knapp & Dally 2002).

Workers in the Philippines placed high premium on Smooth Interpersonal Relations (SIR) since they are known for their high affiliation and personalism needs. Further, interpersonal communication, e.g., good relationships with workers, is what drives the Filipino work force to work harder than they already do (Torres 1981; Lanuza 1983).

Interpersonal communication is important because of the function it achieves (Borchers __). One reason we engage in interpersonal communication is to enable us to gain information about another individual. We can better predict how they will think, feel, and act if we know who they are. We also engage in interpersonal communication to help us better understand what someone says in a given context. Finally, we engage in interpersonal communication because we need to express and receive interpersonal needs: inclusion – the need to establish identity with others; control – the need to exercise leadership and prove one's abilities; and affection – the need to develop relationships with people. All these needs are vital to doing work effectively and efficiently (Borchers __).

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

Research Design

Since the study is basically an action research, the researcher made use of the combination of grounded theory, exploratory and descriptive research designs to effect the necessary change in response to an immediate need. Grounded theory was utilized to understand the research situation. Exploratory research design was used to gain insights from the respondents about the issue. Whereas, descriptive research design was employed to get the respondents' perceptions of the situation.

Method of Data Collection

Survey questionnaire was used to know how the students and faculty members perceive the prevailing conditions related to interpersonal communication. The questionnaire had both close-end and open-end questions. The close-end questions were designed to get the perceptions of the respondents on the issue, while open-end questions were used to gather insights from them:

Example:

Student

1. How relevant is interpersonal communication to you?

( ) Very relevant ( ) Relevant ( ) Not so relevant ( ) Not at all relevant

Explain why:

Faculty

1. Students in the department exhibit enough interpersonal communication skill.

( ) Strongly agree ( ) Agree ( ) Disagree ( ) Strongly Disagree

Explain why:

After the respondents had filled up the questionnaire, focus group discussion ensued.

Sampling Design and Procedure

Five (5) schools situated in the province of Batangas were selected based on the following criteria: number of enrollees and the number of years (at least 5 years) business courses (including marketing) are offered.

Since in focus group discussion (FGD) limited number of respondents is required, the same number (15 students per group) was utilized in the survey,

Method of Data Analysis

Weighted Arithmetic Mean was used to get the means of the two samples:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{f_1 x_1 + f_2 x_2 + \ldots f_k x_k}{f_1 + f_2 \ldots f_k}$$

Where $\bar{X}$ = Weighted arithmetic mean

Σfx = Sum of all the products of **f** and **x**; where **f** is the frequency of each option and **x** is the weight of each option

CHAPTER 4

Results and Findings

TABLE 1
Mean Values and Descriptive Interpretation on the Relevance of Interpersonal Communication and whether it is being given emphasis in Class and Curriculum as Perceived by Students in 5 Colleges and Universities in Batangas Province

Survey Question	$\bar{X}$	Descriptive Interpretation
1	3.76	Very relevant
2	3.66	More important
3	3.29	Moderately agree
4	3.05	Moderately agree

Scale: #1 # 2

4 - Very relevant - More impt.
3 - Relevant - As important
2 - Not so relevant - Not as impt.
1 – Not at all relevant - Less impt.

#s 3 & 4

4 – Strongly agree
3 – Moderately agree
2 – Disagree
1 – Strongly disagree

Interpretation:

Based on the foregoing results as shown in Table 1, students find the skill to be very relevant since they are taking business courses and would be of help to them not just when they market the products they will be selling but when they "sell" themselves as well to their would-be-employers, knowing that nowadays competition is very stiff. They also find this skill more important than the other skills since, according to them, without this competency no matter how good you are in say, problem-solving skill, you would not be effective unless you have the ability to express yourself and the ability to relate yourself to others. With regard to whether said skill is being given emphasis in class (with the teachers demonstrating the skill in their teaching and classroom instruction) and in their curriculum (the subjects that focus on this are enough to acquire the skill), the students moderately agree. Some teachers could not fully express themselves, according to them, and some make use of antiquated techniques which they find it boring. Regarding the latter, they said that there are enough subjects that focus on interpersonal communication skill but according to them acquiring the skill largely depend on the ability of their mentors and the school's capability to provide the necessary trainings for the teachers and the acquisition of facilities which would be useful for both the students and the faculty members. Also, majority of the students were honest enough to admit that they still lack this skill and they attribute it to several factors: teachers, policies of the school, family background, their foundation (pre-college education); and some said that the they were not that interested since the course that they are presently taking is not their first choice.

TABLE 2
Mean Values and Descriptive Interpretation on the Importance of Interpersonal Communication; Students Proficiency in Interpersonal Communication; the Emphasis being given in Class and Curriculum as Perceived by the Faculty Members of 5 Selected Colleges and Universities in the Province of Batangas

Survey Question	$\bar{X}$	Descriptive Interpretation
1	2.54	Disagree
2	3.88	Very Important
3	3.70	Strongly agree
4	3.25	Moderately agree

Scale #s 1, 3, 4 # 2

4 - Strongly agree - Very impt.
3 - Moderately agree - Important
2 - Disagree - Not so impt
1 - Strongly disagree - Not at all important

Interpretation:

Based on the foregoing results as shown in Table 2, teachers disagree that students possess enough interpersonal skill. Although some faculty members interviewed were saying that students in their school are trying to make extra effort and taking the cudgel of conversing without fear of being rejected which then result to students being able to express their opinions, generally, teachers are saying that their students are passive and could not express themselves well in class. Despite making extra effort, by taking a backstep to adjust to their level and intellect and establishing anxiety free atmosphere and treating them not just student learners but giving value to emotional quotient (EQ); notwithstanding the change in classroom environment they have initiated

- shifting strategies from the traditional lecture-type of instruction to mentor–learner relationship wherein one gives value to what one thinks and how he feels; and despite giving them various activities and other techniques like panel discussions, debate, brainstorming, dramatizations and the like, still students could hardly communicate and relate themselves especially in class.

Faculty members also saw the relevance of interpersonal communication. They said that possessing this skill would enable them to reach out to their students and can boost one's confidence especially when in contact with their students. According to the faculty members interviewed during the focus group discussion, having good interpersonal communication would make the students believe on what the teacher is saying in class. They further said that without it, it would be very hard to have a successful transfer of knowledge. They also conveyed that if you are adept in this skill, it will enable you develop harmonious relationship, understanding and cohesiveness which are considered vital for effective performance and in the attainment of goals.

Lastly, they moderately agree that the student's curriculum provides enough space for them to learn the skill. They said that their institution encourages teachers to focus on classroom activities where students
would have the chance to converse and relate to each other. Others said that although the number of subjects that focus on interpersonal communication is adequate, the problem, according to them is with the students. They said that students are not very receptive and it ends up that only the teachers are the ones who develop the skill. Some said that adequacy of the subjects is not enough for the students to acquire the skill if the school lacks the facilities, e.g. speech laboratory that could enhance group interaction and communication.

CHAPTER 5

Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the above findings, there is indeed a clash in the perceptions of the students and faculty members about the issue.

The study was able to dig up the alleged causes of the problem and somehow clear the situation.

This study could serve as starting point for a more in-depth investigation of the problem. Looking into whether the teacher factor, the student's educational foundation, school policies and educational system, the student's family background, etc. has something to do with the level of interpersonal communication that they presently have.

In future study, teachers will be evaluated using tested tool to assess whether interpersonal communication is applied and given emphasis in their teaching method and classroom instruction.

CALL FOR RESEARCH: PERCEPTUAL LEARNING STYLES AND PERFORMANCE IN INTERNET-DELIVERED LEARNING (IDL) MARKETING CLASSES

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ABSTRACT

The rapid increase in the number of marketing classes offered via the Internet has created both opportunities and challenges for universities and marketing educators. Universities have benefited from the cost advantages of offering classes online while meeting the flexibility needs of the growing adult student population. Marketing educators at the forefront of integrating the latest communication techniques and technology have found the "net" equally challenging and filled with promise. This first generation of Internet-Delivered Learning (IDL) has been built on traditional classroom content, methods, and assessment tools. Some educators continue to question the efficacy of IDL as a "static" medium that may not address different perceptual learning styles. This exploratory paper examines two of the primary issues under question in distance learning: the effects of perception and interaction on IDL.

The authors propose a study using the VARK (Visual, Auditory, Reading, Kinesthetic) model of learning styles to assess the efficacy of IDL compared to the traditional classroom. Implications of the study may be used by marketing educators to improve their course design, web-site, and content, and, possibly, to screen new students whose perceptual orientations may warrant additional training to improve their performance in the IDL environment.

BACKGROUND

Business institutions in the 21st century are challenged to prepare an effective, competent, and high-performing workforce for the global economy. In response to this challenge, institutions are rapidly increasing IDL. While other means of distance learning (e.g. mail courses, video teaching) have been used for over 40 years, IDL is less than 15 years old, and widely available for less than five years. International Data Corporation projected the number of college students enrolled in IDL programs would exceed 2.2 million in 2003, up from 710,000 in 1998 (McGee, 2001). IDC also estimated that more than 3,300 colleges and universities would offer online courses by 2004. Additionally, Merril Lynch estimated that the post-secondary IDL market had expanded from $1.2 billion in 2000 to $7 billion in 2003 (Gandhi, 2003). As a result of this growth, IDL has created substantial opportunities, along with speculation, about learning quality in the IDL environment.

Because of the rapid increase in the number of IDL classes offered, the importance of pedagogical constructs as they apply to IDL has reached a state of critical need. Questions remain on the effectiveness of transferring traditional classroom methods via computer-delivered media (Morrison, Sweeney & Hefferman, 2003). On a fundamental level, many educators continue to question whether the online classroom can even come close to replicating the perceptual richness of the traditional classroom, including the benefits of direct interaction. This is particularly true for marketing educators (Felder, 1996), where "the delivery of marketing education seems to be rapidly shifting toward pedagogy ...strongly supported by educational technology" (Young, Klemz & Murphy, 2003, p 130). Answering this question will become increasingly important, as demand for IDL goes beyond university-driven initiatives (Eastmond, 1998). Currently, the majority of distance learners is over 25 years old and has full-time careers while shouldering family and civic responsibilities (Tonkin, 2003).

One hundred sixty-five of 300 executives surveyed in a 1997 USA Today/CNN Gallup poll ranked IDL as a key business priority for the 21st Century (Koresdoski, 2001). Many of these professionals have turned to online education to meet this need. There are several explanations for this recent trend. Technological advancements have reduced the cost of transmitting and sharing knowledge at the rate of 50 percent every 18 months (Knight, 2000). Additionally, adult learners possess different learning preferences, lesser amounts of time, and greater educational expectations (Gallo, 2001). IDL provides the ability to learn, while transcending the limitations of time and distance (Koresdoski, 2001). Its unique environment allows time and location flexibility, cost savings and self-paced learning within a collaborative learning environment (Zhang & Zhou, 2003).

Characteristics of successful distance learners include active listening, effective time management, diligence, a positive attitude, the ability to

concentrate, and independence. Student online learners are likely to be adults who exhibit a high degree of personal self-efficacy, feel in control of their life outcomes, and are independent, highly motivated, and comfortable having less personal contact with their instructors, (Riddle, 1994).

Between the years 2000 and 2013, the NCES (National Center for Educational Statistics) projects an increase of 18 percent in enrollment in public institutions and a 20 percent increase at private institutions (NCES, 2004). According to the same report, the number of people earning post-secondary degrees will improve dramatically. The potential effect of this expansion to online education in undergraduate, graduate, and corporate populations suggests that not only will the trend continue, but that growth will compound, as delivery quality and student familiarity develop. "In order to meet the increased demands for access, colleges and universities need to increase their use of information technology tools via online learning, which will allow them to teach more students without building more classrooms" (Mack, 2000, p. 24).

Business schools in particular will need to respond to their adult student demands by offering online versions of their existing programs while struggling to navigate technology, pedagogy, staff, and financial challenges. "Without question, the marketing education community is well-suited to be a leader in online education. Not only have marketing departments in U. S. universities and colleges been at the forefront in developing curricula on Internet Marketing, E-marketing courses, Interactive Marketing, and similar programs, marketing academics have been leaders in conducting research on how Web-based interactions create mutually beneficial buyer-seller relationships" (Peltier, Drago & Schibrowsky, 2003). As this medium becomes more mainstream (Herther 1997), substantial debate continues on the validity and practices that enhance the online classroom experience (Frand and Broesamie, 1996), as well as the merits of its delivery (Dumont, 1996; Rahm and Reed, 1997).

THE IMPORTANCE OF LEARNING STYLES

The increased trend towards IDL poses significant questions. Universities are offering it, businesses are requiring it, growth is demanding it, but is it efficacious? Little empirical research exists that identifies which student groups and what learning styles benefit most from this environment (Buell, 2000). Some studies suggest that students tend to learn better with visual images compared to reading or hearing information (Shorter & Dean, 1994)

One frequently accepted definition of "learning styles" is the set of cognitive, affective, and physiological factors that affect how learners perceive, interact and respond to the learning environment (Keefe, 1979). Numerous learning style typologies have been developed to conceptually understand how differences in the way students learn might affect classroom performance. Four categories have received widespread attention and use as they apply to the classroom, each with many models (www.brevard.edu). They are as follows:

1. Sensory Models (visual-auditory-kinesthetic)
2. Multiple Intelligences (eight intelligences: logical/mathematical, visual/spatial, bodily/kinesthetic, musical, linguistic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalist)
3. Social Interaction Models (collaborative or cooperative learners, competitive learners, and individualist learners)
4. Jungian Models (extraversion-introversion, sensing-intuition, thinking-feeling and judging-perceiving)

Most educators through training, practice, and feedback have learned the importance of the perceptual and interaction variances in students, as well as the benefits of mixing perceptual and interaction elements to enrich learning. To a large degree, this has been accepted as common knowledge. This "perceptual richness" of the classroom is what we believe is still one of the fundamental questions for the IDL environment. Therefore, we suggest that addressing, comparing and evaluating the perceptual elements of the IDL space is paramount to evaluating its ability to satisfy the diverse learning styles of our students.

For instance, we know that visual learners prefer to learn through stimuli such as graphs and charts, while auditory or aural learners prefer to learn by listening, and tactile, haptic, or kinesthetic learners prefer to learn through hands-on experiences involving touch or bodily movement (www.brevard.edu). Additionally, many educators have learned to mix perceptual approaches to enrich the learning experience regardless of student preference, as practice has proven that learning through multiple senses reinforces comprehension and retention.

While there are many learning style models beyond those that examine the importance of sensory differences, a sensory evaluation of learning styles is best aligned to determine if the rapidly growing IDL classroom is addressing perceptual and interaction-related differences of students and to determine if certain types of sensory learners do better or worse in an IDL classroom compared to the traditional classroom environment. Ultimately, we may answer

the question of how the IDL class compares with the traditional classroom in addressing perceptual differences, and if there are perceptually-driven learning differences that need to be better understood, addressed, and improved.

SENSORY LEARNING MODELS

Some of the sensory models include the Personal Learning Style Inventory (Wyman, 1999), Self-Administered Inventory of Learning Styles (Siegel & Lester, 1994), DVC Learning Style (Jester, 2000), and VARK (Fleming, 1998). Of these models, the VARK model parallels the perceptual and interaction elements we have discussed. The VARK model evaluates how students absorb information through their senses and which sense students tend to employ most often. These include:

visual (sight);
auditory (hearing);
reading (writing); and
kinesthetic (movement & interaction).

This might be best understood by how students characterize their learning. Some students may say "I like hearing explanations" or; "I like practical classes and hands-on activities", rather than reading books and listening to lectures. Others may say; "Show me a table or chart" rather than listening. While everyone uses all available senses to absorb information, the model identifies the perceptual ability the students rely on most. As educators, many of us not only understand these differences but actively monitor and adjust our classrooms to address differences in our students' perceptual preferences, as well as to integrate sensory variation that enriches learning. Traditional educators continue to wonder how these perceptual elements are addressed online. Several questions come to mind. Does computer-based, IDL content address the different perceptual and interaction needs of our students? How does this medium (in its current state) compare to the classroom? And, do specific learning styles benefit or suffer in current IDL environments? This work complements the work done by Morrison, Sweeney, and Hefferman (2003) and extends the work of other studies where learning styles have been evaluated within marketing classes such as Tom & Calvert (1984).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to provide an exploratory next step in the evolving research on learning styles by utilizing the VARK Learning Style Inventory to determine if learning styles make a difference in grades for IDL marketing students and traditional classroom students. Specifically, we examine the interaction of delivery methods and learning styles. The questions are:

1. How do Visual Style learners perform in an Internet Delivered Learning environment, as measured by grades, compared to students in traditional classes?

2. How do Auditory Style learners perform in an Internet Delivered Learning environment, as measured by grades, compared to students in traditional classes?

3. How do Reading Style learners perform in an Internet Delivered Learning environment, as measured by grades, compared to students in traditional classes?

4. How do Kinesthetic Style learners perform in an Internet Delivered Learning environment, as measured by grades, compared to students in traditional classes?

5. How do Multi-Modal Style learners (e.g. V/R styles) perform in an Internet Delivered Learning environment, as measured by grades, compared to students in traditional classes?

6. How do covariates AGE, SAT Verbal, and SAT Mathematical affect grade in an individual class and GPA?

7. What variables distinguish best among learning styles: gender, age, major, GPA, class discipline, evaluation of the instructor, class level, SAT Verbal, SAT Mathematical, and delivery method.

STUDY DESIGN

Population: The study will survey both classroom and IDL students at a private southeastern university. The university is the largest Catholic business school in the U.S., with more than 8,000 enrollments offered online and more than 3,000 in the traditional classroom in a given term. This school was selected because of its size. The online classes are hosted on a Web CT-based platform, which is one of the top two global IDL environments. The combination of having one of the largest IDL universities with one of the predominant tools (Web CT) offers a reasonable sampling environment for this study. Classes will include traditional classrooms and online classes taught by the same professors. Students will be issued the VARK Questionnaire to determine their learning style at the beginning of the semester. Data in this study will be collected using the VARK

Questionnaire, as surveys are the most popular method used in education for the collection of data (Isaac and Michael, 1995).

Pre-test: Our pre-test is to determine whether asking respondents to provide personal information (e.g., identification number which is used to access additional information, for example, GPA, and class grade) influences response rates, and whether response rates differ by delivery method. This will be done in the classes different from those of the actual experiment. The survey will include questions on evaluating the professor and on whether they enjoy the subject matter.

Within the delivery method (i.e., traditional classroom and online), we compare two groups: asking respondents for an identification number and not asking. Within the class, students are randomly assigned to the identification or no identification condition. Because we want to compare the within delivery method, we need an even number of classes for both: six online and six traditional. This number was chosen because it provides three sections each of: online with the identification number; online without the identification number; traditional classroom with the identification number; and traditional classroom without the identification number. In the event the groups are of different sizes, we will randomly choose an equal number of subjects from all groups. Classes are randomly assigned to condition. Our research questions here are whether responses rates will differ when personal information is required and whether they differ by delivery method. Using a proportion test for response rate, we will test: i) the two online groups (with and without identification) against each other; ii) the two traditional classroom groups (with and without identification); and both online and traditional classroom groups with an identification number against both online and traditional classroom groups without an identification number. In the event any of the tests are statistically significant, we will focus on improving response rates prior to the main study in those areas that with low response rates. Assuming no differences, we will proceed to the main experiment: comparing learning styles by delivery method. In comparing actual answers, a t-test for comparing means of two independent samples is used, with the same comparisons as the proportion test.

Data Collection: To minimize instructor differences, we will choose classes where instructors are teaching the same class, at the same time, both online and in the traditional classroom. Our assumption is: instructors will try to adapt the delivery method to fit their style, although the delivery method may limit some adaptations. Although we believe learning styles are inherent in a person and not contingent upon the class they are administered in, we do believe certain learning styles are better for specific disciplines. Thus, we will examine different disciplines and two different levels per discipline: introductory and upper-level. For each discipline, we will examine four different classes per level (i.e., four different upper-level marketing classes). Our disciplines will include marketing, mathematics, and English. The list of classes is as follows:

i) four upper-level marketing classes: two online and two traditional;
ii) four principles of marketing classes: two online and two traditional;
iii) four upper-level Applied Decision Making for Managers (includes forecasting, linear programming): two online and two traditional;
iv) four introduction to statistics classes: two online and two traditional;
v) four business communication classes: two online and two traditional;
vi) four introductory writing classes: two online and two traditional.

The survey will include questions on learning styles, whether they enjoy the discipline in which they are taking the class (four-item scale), evaluation of the instructor (four-item scale), number of classes they have taken in the online and traditional classroom environment, and their student identification number. From the identification number, we will access the students' gender, GPA, SAT (Verbal and Mathematical), age, major, class grade, class subject, and academic level.

Scale Validity: In our analysis, coefficient alpha and item-to-total scores will be examined for reliability for the VARK questions. After determining the data's appropriateness for factor analysis, the VARK questions, it will be submitted to a confirmatory factor analyzed to see if the questions load on the predetermined dimensions. The three different questions per learning style (four learning styles) should load together. This will be done for all 24 classes, or over 400 students.

ANCOVA: We attempt to determine how learning styles and delivery method affect grades. Grades within a class are caused by a measure of basic intelligence (SAT is used as a proxy), experiential learning (age is used as a proxy), learning style, delivery method (two levels), and discipline (three levels). Grades are contingent on a myriad of factors. We have attempted to capture the most important factors for our environment. "The reality of most

classroom environments is that there is a multitude of instructional factors that produce a joint effect on learning" (Young, Klemz & Murphy, 2003, p 130). The two dependent variables should be correlated, so individual ANCOVAs are estimated instead of a single MANCOVA; otherwise the MANCOVA is tapping into the same construct instead of different constructs.

SAT is used as a proxy for basic intellect. Those scoring higher are assumed to have more cognitive ability, although this must be coupled with motivation and time for success, as well as other areas too difficult to measure. In general, greater intellect should enhance grade score. Life itself provides many lessons, so we may expect that this experiential learning may also enhance grades; age is our proxy here. The delivery method itself may influence grades. This begins to address the differences in learning styles; thus, an interaction may exist between delivery method and dominant learning style. The delivery method may exclude a person's dominant learning style. In a broad sense, students may be more comfortable with one delivery method over another, which may enhance learning, thus, influencing grades. The subject matter also plays an important role in grades. In an area the student enjoys, one would expect better grades, when compared to a class a student is taking because it is required. Here too, interaction may occur between discipline and learning style.

Under the VARK model, respondents can have multiple learning styles. The respondents dominant learning style will be used for analysis. In the event a respondent has two dominant learning styles, both will be used for analysis. Before undertaking the analysis, the model's basic assumptions are tested (e.g., homogeneity of variance). Our model is as follows:

Class grade = delivery method + learning style + discipline + interaction of delivery method and learning style + interaction of learning style and discipline + SAT Verbal + SAT Mathematical + age

GPA = delivery method + learning style + interaction of delivery method and learning style + SAT Verbal + SAT Mathematical + age

CHAID: To identify variables that correlate with learning styles, we will use CHAID (Chi-squared Automatic Interaction Detector), CR&T (Classification and Regression Trees), and Discriminant Analysis. Each variable is compared by examining its individual ability to predict membership in one of the four learning styles. We will distinguish between learning styles based on gender, age, major (categories), GPA, class discipline (categorical), evaluation of the instructor (four-item scale), class level (categorical); questions on whether they enjoy the discipline in which they are taking the class (summed scale), SAT Verbal score, SAT Mathematical score, and delivery method (categorical).

C&RT is "a binary tree-growing algorithm" while CHAID creates non-binary classification trees. C&RT usually results in more levels than CHAID, but it is also not as efficient in its solution as CHAID. Solutions usually center on variables that can be subdivided. CHAID creates classification trees by selecting the best predictors (classification variables) for the target or dependent variable (cluster membership), so that sub nodes become smaller (fewer members) and more homogenous than previous nodes. Within a branch, each node is mutually exclusive (SPSS Answer Tree 3.0). Stopping rules are established for the solution: parent nodes must have a minimum of 15 members and sub nodes a minimum of five. Since we have a small dataset, the model is cross validated by separating the respondents into 10 sub nodes. "For each tree, misclassification risk is estimated by applying the tree to the sub nodes excluded in generating it. The cross-validated risk estimate for the overall tree is calculated as the average of the risks for all of these trees" (SPSS Answer Tree 3.0, p. 29). A 95 percent confidence level was chosen. One cautionary note: "CHAID is analogous to a forward stepwise regression analysis and has all the possible attendant difficulties of such stepwise regression" (Measurement Group 2003).

LIMITATIONS

The use of a convenience sample from one university limits the generalizability of the results. The university's IDL population is adult-centered (large portion over 25 years old), and the results may differ if the research is conducted with a more typical-age under-graduate IDL population. Only three disciplines are examined, although each is different from the others.

CONCLUSIONS

According to Gallo (2001), the fact that limited attention is being paid to individual learning styles of IDL students poses a significant concern regarding this educational trend. IDL designed for all does not account for each individual's learning style and unique learning needs. By assuming one system will meet the needs for everyone, a designer of an IDL program could exclude individual learners. The ability to develop a profile of each learner is critical to

addressing learning-style diversity and designing programs to capitalize on it (Gibson, 1998). Addressing the perceptual learning differences is a first-step in determining if IDL is serving the needs of different students, and whether or not learning styles play a significant role in the success of IDL marketing students. *The study will be significant* for marketing instructors seeking to design more effective IDL courses and students seeking successful learning environments.

REFERENCES

Furnished upon request

THE NUMBERS CRUNCH THREE YEARS HENCE: ENROLLMENT PEAKS IN 2008 WITH FACULTY SHORTAGES FORECASTED IN 2007

Debra A. Haley, Southeastern Oklahoma State University (Session Chair)
Helena Czepiec, California State University, Pomona,
David Kurtz, University of Arkansas
Linda Morris, University of Idaho
Juanita Roxas, California State University
Dennis Vredenburg, Southern Utah University

ABSTRACT

To examine the opportunities and challenges that will arise within the next three to five years in dealing with simultaneous enrollment peaks and faculty retirements.

- H.S. Dent has forecasted that student enrollments will peak in 2008 while simultaneously forecasting that faculty shortages will be most acute in 2007 and 2012. If he is correct, both a challenge and opportunity will soon be upon us.

- AACSB has forecasted a similar concern regarding doctorally qualified business faculty. They have forecast shortages of 1,142 in 2008 and 2,419 in 2013.

DISCUSSION

The panel is comprised of several faculty representing the diversity within the colleges and universities that make up the Marketing Educators' Association membership. They will shared their insights into the challenges facing all schools of business in higher education and their ideas in dealing with the coming crisis. Each spoke approximately for five to seven minutes before opening up the session to a general discussion between panel members and those in attendance.

Helena Czepiec and Juanita Roxas will consider issues including regional challenges in recruiting faculty as well as institutions facing increasing student enrollments accompanied by major budget-cuts. These result in FTE targets either not being met or being met with considerable difficulty.

David Kurtz, the Walton Endowed Chair at the University of Arkansas and author of numerous textbooks will provide a voice for those members outside the western region.

Dennis Vredenburg, represents the southwest constituency, and as a resident of a state with a very youthful population, will share his perceptions of the impact of the coming demographic surge in higher education.

Linda Morris, Provost of the University of Idaho, will share her views as administrators strive to deal with constrained budgets and burgeoning enrollments in the schools of business in the mountain states.

We hope that the discussion of this issue might result in schools of business taking a proactive stance in addressing the crisis looming on the horizon. Where there is a crisis, there too, resides opportunity.

CHANGING SOCIAL NORMS AND DEMOGRAPHICS WITH THE CHANGING GENDER WORKFORCE: A STUDY OF FORTUNE 100 EXECUTIVE ATTITUDES

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ABSTRACT

By measuring self-actualization as a test of equality, this study uses the workplace as a laboratory to study both genders attitudes towards traditional roles of caregiver and breadwinner. Such attitudes could be considered as Social Norms in Fishbein's theory of Reasoned Behavior or as an impact on a consumer's behavior. The results of this study may provide possible strategic impacts for marketers in terms of better understandings of homogeneous clusters and target marketing.

SEGMENTATION BASED ON EXPECTATIONS

Marketers search for the homogeneous cluster of consumers as a segment to target most effectively both in terms of message and profit. People of the same age group, or gender might be in the same homogeneous cluster simply based on age and gender issues such as going bald or getting pregnant. But lifestyle experiences also affect how people can be clustered such as people who work in the same industry or people who raise children. We rely not only on demographics but also on psychographics driven by cognitive and affective processes often determined by the consumer's reference groups. Fishbein's Theory of Reasoned Behavior is clear in that the element of Social Norm is critical in determining a part of the motivation in a consumer's behavior. Personal values and goals, lifestyle and demographics make up what and how people are influenced by others, or their subjective norm. Normative beliefs about what others expect of them and their motivation to comply combine to form the Social Norm. Fishbein says Social Norms impact the consumer's behavioral intentions at varying levels depending on their attitude and salient beliefs of engaging in a behavior, such as purchasing a certain product (Peter 2004).

This study specifically looks at possible homogeneous attitudes among corporate executives. First, by determining their levels of self-actualization and if there are significant variances based on gender, whether their spouse works away from the home, and whether there are children at home. It then tries to determine if there is a difference in traditional attitudes of gender roles at work and at home and if there is a significant difference based on gender, whether their spouse works away from the home and whether there are children at home. If there are homogeneous attitude clusters, these clusters may provide us some insight into both the subjective norms and the normative beliefs, as associated with Fishbein's theory, and if these variables have a high level of impact on consumer behavior.

GENDERS AT WORK

Only recently have men and women participated at an equal level of achievement in the workplace, providing us with a laboratory of study of attitudes for both genders. Charles Stangor found that "women and men are perceived similarly if they have the same occupational role, that is if both are homemakers or both are employees (Stangor 2000)." He emphasized that gender roles were changing and the experience of the individuals is the key to removing stereotypes. "Daily life provides abundant direct experience with women and men. Therefore, efforts to remove gender stereotypes educationally may have relatively little impact, compared with actual changes in the distribution of sexes into social roles (Stangor 2000)." It is thus more difficult to really understand the impact of gender as a part of Social Norms in the Fishbein equation of consumer behavior. As a result, it is becoming harder for marketers to place gender correctly as a homogeneous demographic in segments.

> The view that gender roles are rooted in the division of labor and gender hierarchy implies that these roles should change if these features in social structure change . . . Attitudinal changes congruent with actual changes in the roles of men and women have been documented in the form of increasingly less approval of the traditional system of divergent roles and responsibilities for women and men (R.J. Harris & Firestone 1998; Loo & Thorpe 1998; Sherman & Spence 1997) (Eckes 2000).

A focus of this study is to measure attitudes toward traditional gender roles in the workplace. However, it

is important to first understand if our workplace laboratory of study is producing a condition of equality or at least near equality.

> Regardless of the status of scientific evidence on the convergence of the sexes, perceivers believe that men and women are becoming more similar . . . Path analyses suggested that perceivers function like implicit role theorists by assuming that, because of the roles of women and men have become more similar, their attributes converge. The demise of most sex differences with increasing gender equality, a proposition that thus fits popular beliefs about the characteristics of women and men, is a prediction of social role theory that will be more adequately tested as more societies produce conditions of equality or near equality (Eckes 2000).

In this study, we look at both Maslow's self-actualization as a measurement for reaching equality for both genders. Yet, we hypothesize that there will be a variance in our sample based on other attributes, primarily the presence of deficit needs. Maslow's theory considers deficit needs of love and recognition from others that have to be satisfied before they can reach the need of self-actualization, and we believe that our sample will be affected if they have children at home or if their spouse does not work outside the home, making them the sole provider.

EQUAL OPPORTUNITY FOR SELF-ACTUALIZATION

Each gender's satisfaction may be related to the pressures of the expectations of Social Norms. Quoting a study by Reed Larson, "Fathers reported more 'positive emotional states' at home while mothers more positive emotional states at work (Baruch 1987)." Larson reported that both genders were more at ease when involved in doing tasks requiring less obligation-- for men, work, for women, family.

Hochschild said that often "working parents feel more at home at work because they come to expect that emotional support will be more readily available there (Hochschild 1997). When employees were asked, "where do you have the most friends?" Forty-seven percent answered "at work"; 15 percent, "in the neighborhood"; and 6 percent, "at my church". Women were far more likely than men to have the most friends at work.

The above mentioned type of social interaction is a way of providing for love and esteem from others. This type of satisfaction is a deficit-need and in the middle of Maslow's pyramid. Self-actualization is above that or the being-need. The difference between these deficit-needs and the being-need is explained as follows. Deficit-needs ask the question "what do other's think of me?" or similar to Fishbein's normative belief. The being-need asks the question "what do I think of myself"? It is possible that by being very self-actualized, consumer's are less motivated to comply with the expectations of others, minimizing the level of impact of Social Norms on consumer behavior. However, this study is more interested in self-actualization as a measurement of the laboratory's state of equality among genders. In Habits of the Heart, (Bellali 1989) regarded work as an avenue to find such meaning.

> Though the idea of a calling is closely tied to the biblical and republican strands in our tradition, it has become harder and harder to understand as our society has become more complex and utilitarian and expressive individualism more dominant . . . With the coming of a large-scale industrial society, it became more difficult to see work as a contribution to the whole and easier to view it as a segmental, self-interested activity . . . however we define work, it is very close to our sense of self. What we "do" often translates to what we "are".

Maslow described self-actualizers as needing self-sufficiency, meaningfulness, completion, necessity, and uniqueness. He also described them as problem-centered or solution oriented. These self-actualizer needs are consistent with what is found in the work environment at the executive level. (Maslow 1998). Thus, it seems one contemporary opportunity to become self-actualized is in part linked to the opportunity to become an executive, an achievement that is relatively new to women.

TRADITIONAL ATTITUDES OF GENDER ROLES

These executives probably still have very different lifestyles and values even though they have reached equality in the workplace. Some have children at home, some are divorced, some are older, younger, any many are working couples. A few have a spouse that doesn't work outside the home. These elements could be critical in making up their values and attitudes towards traditional subjective norms that should have some impact on their behavior. We at least want to know how these elements cluster into homogeneous segments, if they do. Marketers have traditionally used gender as an essential demographic in clustering target audiences. As

genders reach equality in the workplace and begin to share roles across environments, it will be more and more interesting to see if marketers should find clusters based on other dimensions such as liberal or conservative attitudes toward traditional roles of caregiver and breadwinner. Our hypotheses attempt to find dimensions that determine these attitudes other than just gender. Dimensions such as marriage, or working spouse, or the presence of children may play a more critical role in the development of attitudes leading to Social Norms.

HYPOTHESES

To test if the workplace is a good place to measure equality of genders, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: Individuals with no children at home will be more self-actualized than those with children at home.

Hypothesis 1b: Individuals whose spouse works outside the home will be more self-actualized than those whose spouse does not work outside the home.

Hypothesis 1c: Both genders will be self-actualized.

To look for clusters of traditional attitudes of gender roles for caregiver and breadwinner, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2a: Individuals with no children at home will have more liberal attitudes toward traditional gender roles than those with children at home.

Hypothesis 2b: Individuals with spouses that work will have more liberal attitudes toward traditional gender roles than those with spouses that do not work outside the home.

Hypothesis 2c: Both genders have will have more liberal attitudes toward traditional gender roles.

To look for changing attitudes towards traditional attitudes of gender roles for caregiver and breadwinner, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a: Individuals with no children at home will have changed attitudes toward traditional gender roles more than those with children at home.

Hypothesis 3b: Individuals with spouses that work will have changed attitudes toward traditional gender roles more than those with spouses that do not work outside the home.

Hypothesis 3c: Both genders will have changed attitudes toward traditional gender roles about traditional gender roles in terms of caregiver and breadwinner.

RESEARCH METHODS

SAMPLE

A quantifiable survey was distributed via intranet to the entire population of 394 executives of a Fortune 100 company, of whom 86 are Vice Presidents or higher. Of the entire group, 23.6 percent were women. The total number of respondents was 142 resulting in a response rate of 36 percent. Twenty-six percent of the participants were women or only a slightly higher percentage than in the executive population (23.6 percent of 394), and thus it was not necessary to do a weighted adjustment based on gender.

Forty-four women and 98 men responded to the survey. Thirty-four percent of the women were single/divorced/widowed, and 11 percent had home spouses. Eleven percent of the men were single/divorced/widowed, 35 percent had working spouses and 43 percent had spouses at home. Women had a relatively higher experience of being on their own as 20 percent of women were divorced versus seven percent of men. This could mean that the women of the study were working more out of necessity than choice, much like a married man with a family. Working out of necessity would imply the need to satisfy deficit-needs and thus limit the opportunity to satisfy being-needs.

The overall spouse demographics included six percent single, 43 percent with a working spouse, 33 percent with a spouse at home, and 12 percent widowed or divorced. Fifty-five percent of married men versus 11 percent of married women had home spouses indicating that relatively more of the men in the study had responsibilities for family. The women had relatively less responsibility in terms of children as 43 percent of women versus 19 percent of men had no children at home. In general, the women in the survey had higher rates of having working spouses or no children. Thus, the women had relatively less home or children responsibilities. This could mean that it is easier for these women to satisfy the being-need of self-actualization, than it is for men with families to support. Overall, 27 percent had no children at home and 74 percent had children at home.

Ages ranged from 50 percent of respondents being younger than age 40, 44 percent respondents between the ages of 40 and 50, to 4 percent respondents over 50. The over 50 years of age, and the single groups, were the smallest sub-groups and thus present some difficulties in analysis for the variables of older age and single status.

MEASURES

Demographic data. Several self-report demographic data items were collected from respondents. The existence of children at home (coded 1=children at home, 2=no children at home), spouse work status (coded 1=spouse is homemaker, 2=spouse works outside home), and gender (coded 1=female, 2=male)

Self-actualization. Respondents were asked to indicate on a seven-point Likert scale the degree to which they agreed (1=strongly agree 7=strongly disagree) with nine statements used to translate a measured state of self-actualization (e.g., I generally feel fulfilled and satisfied with my job; At work I am able to find meaningful solutions to important problems; etc.) (α = .73). The scale included statements utilizing Maslow's own words defining being needs, such as "complete" and "self-sufficient" in contrast to the importance of money and family responsibilities, or deficit-needs.

Liberal attitudes toward gender roles. Liberal attitudes were measured via four variables (conservative attitudes, company family policy attitudes, liberal work attitudes, liberal family attitudes) using a seven-point Likert scale on which respondents indicated the degree to which they agreed (1= strongly agree 7=strongly disagree) with statements. Conservative attitudes (α = .68) was measured with three statements assessing traditional attitudes toward gender and work (e.g., I would prefer if my souse stayed home with the family while I worked; Women would still rather be at home than work; etc). Family policy attitudes (α = .66) was measured with three statements assessing attitudes toward company family policy and its effect on women (e.g., Unlike men, women have familial responsibilities that inhibit their ability to advance in the workplace; Taking advantage of family policies tends to hold people back in their careers; etc). Liberal work attitudes (α = .65) was measured with three statements assessing attitudes toward women's opportunities at work (e.g., I think there is now greater equality between men and women than 30 years ago; Changes are still needed in corporate America to enable more women to become executives – reversed scored; etc.). Liberal family attitudes (α = .96) was measured with two statements assessing attitudes toward gender duties in the home (Once women entered the workplace, their spouses should have picked up the slack at home; Once women became executives, their spouses should have picked up the slack at home).

Attitude change. Respondents were asked to indicate on a seven-point Likert scale the degree to which they agreed (1=strongly agree 7=strongly disagree) with two statements assessing attitude change toward traditional gender roles (α = .79) (My attitudes about gender roles at home have changed dramatically in the last twenty years; My attitudes gender roles in the workplace have changed dramatically in the last twenty years).

RESULTS

CORRELATIONS

Table 1 (available upon request) shows the zero-order correlations between the variables in this study.

T-TESTS

The hypotheses were tested using paired t-tests (see Table 2 for a summary of results). Support was found for hypothesis 1a and 1c. Executives with no children at home indicated being slightly more self-actualized at work than those with children at home (see Table 2). As shown in Table 2 below, there is not a significant difference based on gender or based on whether a spouse stays at home or works. In terms of absolute differences, 43% of the women in the sample do not have children at home and thus women in the sample are slightly skewed to be more self-actualized. Also in absolute values, twice as many divorced or widowed people seemed more highly self actualized, again because of a lack of family. Nineteen percent of men with a home spouse versus three percent of men with a working spouse strongly disagree that "without their career, they would feel incomplete." Also, over 40 percent of the overall sample, sometimes as many as 80 percent, agreed with most of the self-actualization statements in general.

Some support was found for hypothesis 2a, hypothesis 2b, and hypothesis 2c (see Table 2). Regarding hypothesis 2a, those with children at home appear to agree women have more opportunity at work. Concerning hypothesis 2b, executives with spouses as homemakers appear to have more conservative attitudes about traditional gender roles at home and agree that women have more opportunity at work, more than do those with spouses who work outside the home. Regarding hypothesis 2c, differences were found between genders on conservative attitudes, family policies and liberal work attitudes.

Overall, the sample was split pretty much in the middle on Conservative Attitudes with a mean of 4.1. There was a significant difference between gender and those with working and non-working spouses for conservative attitudes in Table 2 below. Men and those with non-working spouses agreed much more with conservative attitudes towards traditional roles at home. When looking at absolute values, men with spouses at home are five times more likely than men with working spouses to believe that women should be the primary caregiver and the male should be the primary breadwinner. Men with children are 23 percent more likely to believe this than men without children. This possibly supports a new hypothesis that married men with home spouses and children have the most conservative attitudes of all the respondents. Women without children were three times as likely to have conservative attitudes as women with children. Though these results seem like an anomaly, they might indicate that working women's attitudes are based on their experience. Those without children assume children need a home parent, whereas those with children may well come to conclude through experience that children are fine without a home parent.

The overall results for Family Policy are slightly on the agreement side with a mean of 3.8. There was a significant difference in attitudes towards family policies at work based on gender and spouse employment in Table 2 below. Women and those with working spouses agreed more with the need for family policies at work.

Overall there was slightly more agreement for Liberal Work Attitudes with a mean of 3.4. There was a significant difference based on gender, working spouse and children at home in terms of liberal attitudes at work in Table 2 below. Women, those with working spouses, and those with children had the most liberal attitudes at work. There were no significant differences in liberal attitudes at home base on our measured demographics, using our Liberal Attitude Variables but there was overall agreement with a mean of 2.9.
Overall, there was no real support for hypotheses 3a through 3c. In Table 2, there are no significant differences based on our measured demographics. When looking at absolute values of statements not included in the correlated variable, there was a 40 percent change with attitudes for men (65 and 61 percent to 19 and 18 percent) compared to just over 10 percent for women (19 and 16 percent to two and five percent). The overall mean was 3.5 agreement with change.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Overall, there was basic agreement with self-actualization, with the need for family policies, with a liberal attitude toward work and somewhat with a change in attitudes towards traditional roles. Using self-actualization as a measurement, our hypothesis that executives offer a laboratory of study for gender equality is at least valid in that there is not a significant difference for genders. We also were able to confirm our hypothesis that those with more deficit needs, those with children at home agreed slightly less with self-actualization than those without. However, the lack of a working spouse was not confirmed in terms of measuring self-actualization.

Gender and a non-working spouse were significant variables when it came to having conservative attitudes towards traditional gender roles. Our hypothesis about working spouse is confirmed but our hypothesis about children is not confirmed. In fact, the reverse seems to be true. A Social Norm cluster could be developing in two distinct areas for marketers. One is for men with non-working wives. This cluster tends to have very traditional values. The other would be for working women and men with working spouses and for those with children at home. This group seems to have more liberal attitudes and values at home and at work.

Overall our hypothesis that both genders attitudes are changing is somewhat confirmed, but men with non-working spouses seem to be changing less than men with working spouses. What is not understood from this study is the *level* of impact of Social Norms on this sample's consumer behavior as described in Fishbein's theory. Self-actualization may minimize the affect of Social Norms, as this group may care less about other's expectations, and much more about their own.

References available upon request.

TABLE 2: T-TEST RESULTS

Variable	Grouping	n	Mean	S.D.	t-score
Self actualization	no children at home [a]	38	2.39	0.80	* -2.05
	children at home	104	2.68	0.73	
	spouse at home [c]	46	2.69	0.66	0.67
	spouse employed	60	2.59	0.82	
	female [b]	44	2.51	0.78	-1.03
	male	98	2.65	0.76	
Conservative attitude	no children at home	37	4.33	1.18	1.311
	children at home	103	4.02	1.28	
	spouse at home	45	3.42	1.02	*** -5.56
	spouse employed	60	4.67	1.23	
	female	44	5.06	1.14	*** 7.13
	male	96	3.66	1.06	
Family policy	no children at home	38	3.74	1.06	-0.71
	children at home	104	3.91	1.33	
	spouse at home	46	4.24	1.33	* 2.23
	spouse employed	60	3.68	1.25	
	female	44	3.53	1.28	* -2.07
	male	98	4.01	1.24	
Liberal family attitude	no children at home	37	2.75	1.13	-0.958
	children at home	103	2.97	1.22	
	spouse at home	45	3.00	1.25	0.51
	spouse employed	60	2.87	1.29	
	female	44	2.73	1.13	-1.17
	male	96	2.99	1.23	
Liberal work attitude	no children at home	38	3.78	0.98	* 2.24
	children at home	104	3.34	1.05	
	spouse at home	46	3.12	0.97	* -2.38
	spouse employed	60	3.59	1.04	
	female	44	4.09	1.05	*** 5.24
	male	98	3.18	0.92	
Attitude change	no children at home	35	3.57	1.57	0.23
	children at home	103	3.50	1.73	
	spouse at home	45	3.73	1.77	1.12
	spouse employed	59	3.34	1.80	
	female	42	3.86	1.94	1.59
	male	96	3.36	1.57	

[a] sex coded as 1 = female, 2 = male
[b] children coded as 1 = no children at home, 2 = children at home
[c] spouse employed coded as 1= work at home, 2 = work outside home
* $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$

THE IMPORTANCE OF PROFESSIONAL OR 'SOFT' SKILLS IN MARKETING EDUCATION: THE DESIGN AND EVOLUTION OF A HIGH PERFORMANCE MARKETING SKILLS COURSE

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ABSTRACT

According to Kelly and Bridges (2004) and Porter and McKibbin (1988), a major criticism leveled at business schools by corporate recruiters is the failure to adequately prepare graduates for the 'real world' of business. While failing to reach a general consensus as to how 'soft' skills should be defined or which 'soft' skills are most salient to career success in marketing, these and a growing number of other studies nevertheless agree to the importance of 'soft' skills such as oral and written communication, teamwork, critical thinking, creativity, leadership, and managing diverse workplaces. The purpose of this paper is to discuss the impetus, history, design, and evolution of a professional skills course that was specifically and successfully created to address this concern in the marketing curriculum of a large, public university.

Initially, the course was designed to incorporate and integrate the following professional skills: creativity, critical thinking, negotiating, understanding different cultures, selling an idea/product/service, managing conflict, serving customers, team building, leadership, listening, providing and receiving feedback, and managing time and stress. Since its inception, the course has undergone several iterations and significant growing pains. The four, primary stages of evolution for this course can be defined as follows: the introduction stage, the ten topics stage, the adjustment stage, and the reassessment and integration stage. During the introduction stage, the course exhibited a very flexible, free-flow process in which students selected the topics of discussion. Utilizing the information from the introduction stage, the second stage identified and incorporated ten specific soft skills into the course content. During the adjustment stage, new topics deemed relevant for marketing managers were gradually introduced into the course to reflect a more 'real world' perspective. During the current reassessment and integration stage, the soft skills covered in the High Performance Marketing Skills Course continue to undergo reassessment, integration, fine-tuning, and modification.

The High Performance Marketing Skills Course has resulted in considerable success via a process of trial and error coupled with continual refinement and adjustment. As the reassessment and integration stage continues, the authors anticipate the full-scale integration of all of the professional marketing skills originally proposed for this course. While additional challenges are expected, we are optimistic that the external validity of ongoing studies in management education in general, as well as continuing direct feedback from students and potential employers of marketing students will provide an enduring catalyst for change (Smart et. al 1999). Accordingly, this paper suggests important areas for future research to address employer perspectives, faculty perspectives, and student perspectives on a more comprehensive basis.

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THE RELATIVE VALUE OF SKILLS, KNOWLEDGE, AND TEACHING METHODS IN EXPLAINING MBA PROGRAM RETURN ON INVESTMENT

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ABSTRACT

With the increasing use of ROI metrics throughout enterprises, it is not surprising that the ROI concept is amenable to student evaluations of academic programs and may be captured through the use of outcome assessment measures, especially those involving alumni. To illustrate, alumni may be asked to compare their total MBA program expenses to the quality of their MBA education. Based on this comparison, they can rate the return of their MBA educational investment. This assessment is a surrogate type measure of MBA program satisfaction, yet it is quite explicit in its focus. In essence, was one's MBA education a worthwhile investment?

Since MBA program ROI can be measured, an interesting question is whether it can be explained by variables that are under the control of the academic institution. If this is the case, student evaluations of MBA program ROI can be influenced. This study therefore seeks to measure MBA program ROI among MBA alumni and it seeks to assess the relative efficacy of skills, knowledge, and teaching methods in influencing ROI. It thus denotes an outcome assessment orientation that can be used for outcome improvement.

STUDENT EVALUATION OF INSTRUCTION: THE THEORETICAL EFFECTS OF LENIENCY AND RECIPROCITY

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ABSTRACT

This paper looks at the controversy generated by a possible grade/evaluation association found in the student evaluation of teaching. It develops a theoretical framework to understand the contributions to the effect by both leniency and reciprocity, and shows that the two are confounded when looking only at leniency. The findings suggest that reciprocity is the appropriate starting point for a study of the association.

INTRODUCTION

The student evaluation of teaching (SET) has come under close scrutiny. One finding that continues to reappear is an association between grades that an instructor gives and the evaluations students give to the instructor. This relationship has been studied closely because of its implication for the validity of the SET process. The present study expands this discussion of the association by looking at the theoretical relationship between two proposed effects.

What is currently known?

Instructors and students believe that there is a grades/evaluation association. A vigorous debate has developed about the accuracy of this belief. Early studies found the relationship (Feldman 1976, and Stumpf and Freedman 1979), but it was explained as a statistical artifact (Seiver 1983). More recent research has shown that the association may exist outside of a simple least squared (SLS) relationship (Braskamp and Ory 1994; Marsh and Dunkin 1992), but a true grade/evaluation relationship was still denied (Cashin 1995; Marsh and Dunkin 1992; Kaplan, Mets and Cook 2000; Marsh and Roche 2000). Marsh and Roche (1999) referred to the idea that lower grades would result in lower student teacher evaluations as only a "presumption." Other research, however, claims to have found a relationship (Bacon and Novotny 2002; Bharadwaj, Futrell, and Kantak 1993;

Gillmore and Greenwald 1999; Goldberg and Callahan 1991). Marsh, Hau, Chung, and Siu (1997) found a significant difference between the grades students indicated they received from those instructors chosen as "good" and "poor" teachers. Wilhelm (2004) compared course evaluations, course worth, grading leniency, and course workload as factors of business students choosing classes. A conjoint analysis showed that, "... students are 10 times more likely to choose a course with a lenient grader, all else being equal" (p. 24). Studies, mostly from colleges of education, continue to claim that the grade/evaluation effect does not exist independent of confounding variables (see Marsh and Roche 2000 for a review).

Grade/Evaluation Hypotheses

Several hypotheses have been proposed to explain the apparent grade/evaluation relationship.

1. Leniency: The essence of the leniency hypothesis is "... that students will reward teachers who grade leniently with higher teacher and course evaluations" (Bacon and Novotny 2002, p. 5). It is important to this hypothesis to recognize that, "... it is not the grades per se that influence SETs, but the leniency with which grades are assigned" (March and Roche 2000, p. 204).

2. *Reciprocity:* Students reward the instructor who gives them good grades and withhold higher evaluations from an instructor who gives them a lower grade. This hypothesis states that students have a tendency to modify evaluations based on the grades they individually receive. It states that a student given an A will generally give an instructor a higher evaluation than a student receiving a C, irrespective of the general leniency of the instructor. It does not deny that the class effect may also be in play.

3. *Other hypotheses*: It has also be proposed that the relationship could be due to prior characteristics like the rigor of the instructor's grading policies, class workloads, motivation, and prior student interest in the class. Another hypothesis simply assumes that both the grades and the evaluations measure teaching effectiveness, and therefore reflect a valid association. Attribution has also been advance as a cause of the associations. Since learning and achievement are difficult for students to evaluate, they may infer the ability of the instructor to teach from the grade they receive.

Greenwald and Gillmore (1997) found evidence that contradicted all these hypotheses except the leniency explanation. Marsh and Roche (2000) countered most of their claims and indicated that they found little support for the leniency hypothesis. Since the reciprocity is a new concept, it was not considered by either set of researchers.

PROBLEMS

Greenwald and Gillmore (1997) did not differentiate clearly between leniency and reciprocity. Marsh and Roche's (2000) work is clearly aimed at leniency. The literature review of both papers indicates that leniency and reciprocity are either confounded by methodology, or that reciprocity was not considered. Part of this problem is methodological. As Marsh and Roche point out, the appropriate case for a study of leniency is a class. The appropriate case to study reciprocity is the student. These are statistically distinct concepts.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

This study looks at the hypothetical relationship between leniency and reciprocity in the grade/evaluation effect. Outside of education colleges, researchers claim that leniency exist, but only two sources (Clayson 2004; Stumpf and Freedman 1979) have identified the possible confounding effects of reciprocity. The study sets the foundation for future research by looking at the theoretical relationship that could exist between the two effects and some of the implications of these interactions.

Development

It is possible for leniency and reciprocity effects to exist independently or in conjuncture with each other. It is also possible for a leniency effect to appear to exist falsely. Consequently, it is important when looking at these combinations to distinguish between theoretical and observed conditions. The theoretical leniency relationship is given by:

$$Eval_m = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} Grade_m + e_j .$$

The theoretical reciprocity relationship is:

$$Eval_{ij} = \beta_{0ij} + \beta_{1ij} Grade_{ij} + e_{ij} .$$

It may appear as if a leniency effect exists even when it does not; consequently the observed value is summarized as:

$$Eval_m = B_{0j} + B_{1j} Grade_m + e_j .$$

The relationship between leniency and reciprocity effects can be seen in six possible combinations.

Condition 1: Both leniency and reciprocity exist. The theoretical pure leniency relationship is assumed to be:

$$Eval_m = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} Grade_m + e_j .$$

Within a class each student is also reacting as:

$$Eval_{ij} = \beta_{0ij} + \beta_{1ij} Grade_{IJ} + e_{ij} .$$

It may be perceptually easier to deal with covariance in terms of the much-used correlation coefficient, hence the observed leniency effect would include both conditions so that the apparent association would be:

$$r_{1j} > \rho_{1ij} \text{ and } r_{1j} > \rho_{1j} .$$

Condition 2: Leniency does not exist, but reciprocity does. The theoretical relationship is now: $\beta_{1j} = 0 : Eval_{ij} = \beta_{0ij} + \beta_{1ij} Grade + e_{ij}$. Under these conditions $Cov(Eval_m, Grade_m) < Cov(Eval_{ij}, Grade_{ij})$, consequently the observed leniency effect would be that $r_{1j} >> \rho_{1ij}$.

Condition 3: Leniency exists, but reciprocity does not exist. The theoretical relationship is now $Eval_m = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} Grade_m + e_j$ while $\beta_{1ij} = 0$. If $e_j \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$, then $r_{1j} = \rho_{1j}$ with large n's. The problem with this condition is not mathematical, but logical. The condition could only be true if each student responded to the overall grading average (or perhaps to some real or imagined standard) of the class, but not to their own grade. How students could obtain such a group mind is conceptually difficult, especially if their own grade deviated significantly from the norm. It would be interesting to see if instructors who publish a grade average, which they attempt to confirm with grading practices, would demonstrate more or less of a leniency effect.

Condition 4: Neither leniency or reciprocity exist. In this case, both $\beta_{1j} = 0$ and $\beta_{1ij} = 0$. There should be no observed leniency effect with large samples.

Condition 5: Leniency exists, but reciprocity is either a function of other variables or only one of many variables that influences the evaluations. A simplified example would be: $Eval_{ij} = \beta_{0ij} + \beta_{1ij} Grade + \beta_{2ij} x_1 + ... \beta_{nij} x_{n-1} + e_{ij}$ where x_1 through x_{n-1} are student, instructor, or class variables that could also modify the evaluations. It is also possible that both $Eval_{ij}$ and $Grade_{ij} = f(x_1, ... x_{n-1})$. The observed value of r_{1ij} from

$$Eval_{ij} = B_{0ij} + B_{1ij}Grade + e_{ij},$$

without taking the other variables into account, could be almost anything. Without proof, the measured r_{1j} could be either increased or decreased by the influence of r_{1ij}.

Condition 6: Leniency does not exist, but reciprocity is either a function of other variables or only one of many variables that influences the evaluations. Under this condition, the observed leniency effect (r_{1j}) would simply be a function of the apparent r_{1ij}, which in turn is being modified by variables x_1 to x_{n-1}. Depending upon the selection of classes, almost any outcome is possible. For example, if a significant, but unknown *x* variable was the age of the student, it is possible that a sample of classes from a business school, in which the average student is older, may find an apparent positive r_{1j}, while classes selected from educational colleges, which may have a lower average student age, could have an average $r_{1j} = 0$. In this case, it would appear to a researcher from educational colleges that leniency did not exist, and a business researcher would conclude the leniency did exist. In both cases only the age effect actually existed.

Simulation

To test these conditions, a large random sample of classes would be needed. Consequently, it is difficult to investigate the predictions of Conditions 1 through 6. There have been several such studies, but they have been interpreted in different ways. Johnson found both leniency and reciprocity as did Stumpf and Freedman, but Johnson did not consider reciprocity and Stumpf and Freedman did not identify it as such. Marsh and Roche found a grade/evaluation effect but denied that it was a leniency effect. Therefore, a simulation was created to give some guidance on what would be expected under each condition. Each run simulated the effect of a given condition on 20,000 classes, with 30 students in each class.

Condition 1 (*Leniency yes, Reciprocity yes*): The program assumed that Evaluation Means = *f*(Grade Means). A student grade (n = 600,000) was selected at random with a given class leniency, target mean grade (M) that could range from 0.5 to 3.5, and such that grades ~ N(M, 0.68). The standard deviation of 0.68 was calculated from actual grades from a sample of 600 business students at the writer's university. The student evaluation in the reciprocity condition was Eval = b(grade) + a, where b was calculated from a correlation r ~ N(0.21, .07). The leniency class effect was calculated as: $Eval_j$ = b_j(class mean) + a_j, where b_j was derived from r_j ~ N(0.31, 10). Both the mean of r and r_j are from the large study at Duke (Johnson 2003). It is not known how reciprocity and leniency interact. The simulation simply assumed, therefore, that each made an equal contribution so that $Eval_{if}$ = .5 (Eval) + .5($Eval_j$). The initial simulation did not consider other possible influences. At almost all leniency targets, theapparent leniency correlation was larger than the starting values of r and r_j.

Condition 2 (*Leniency no, Reciprocity yes*): The program was the same as that above except there was no contribution made by leniency. As predicted, a very strong apparent leniency effect was found, although none actually existed.

Condition 3 (*Leniency yes, Reciprocity no*): The program was the same as Condition 1 except that no reciprocity effect was inputted. Leniency appears to exist and is roughly equal to the inputted leniency association. It also appears to decrease as the leniency of the instructor increases.

Condition 4 (*Leniency no, Reciprocity no*): All levels are randomly assigned. As would be expected, all associations are essentially zero.

Condition 5 (*Leniency yes, Reciprocity mixed*): The program was essentially the same except that a second variable called X_2 was added on the class level. As an illustration, X_2 was selected as an actual variable from an existing data set at the writer's university. It had r = .07 with evaluations and r = .73 with grades. The apparent leniency effect was greatly reduced from the pure Condition 1 example, and follows a different pattern. It is interesting in this condition to run simulations of a small number of classes, in this case ten (300 students). Seven average leniency target grades were selected (ranging from 0.5 to 3.5 on a scale from 0 to 4), and ten simulations of each was run (70 total). The apparent leniency correlation ranged from -0.480 to 0.815. Although leniency was actually present, 84% of the samples showed no significant ($p < .05$) leniency effect.

Condition 6 (*Leniency no, Reciprocity mix*): The program was the same as Condition 5, but leniency was removed. There still appears to be a leniency effect (although none exists). In mid-ranges of leniency targets, this condition could not be differentiated from Condition 5. Again simulations of a small number of classes (10 classes) were run. The apparent leniency correlation ranged from -0.417 to 0.821. Although leniency was not present, 17% of the samples showed a significant leniency effect.

DISCUSSION

The apparent leniency effect can be seen as resulting from actual leniency, from reciprocity, or from a combination of the two. Each condition suggests a slightly different pattern of apparent leniency results. For example, when leniency actually exists there seems to be a general negative relationship between the leniency target of the instructor and the apparent leniency effect. Reciprocity, when predominant, does not show this pattern. Leniency effects create an interesting prediction. The average grade in the writer's business college is 2.58, while a corresponding average in one department of the education college is 3.72. The simulation suggests that an apparent leniency effect would be shown to be stronger in a business college sample than in an education college, with no change whatsoever in actual student or instructor behavior between the two. For example in Condition 1, the simulation estimated that $r = 0.59$ in business and $r = 0.37$ in education. In Condition 3, the apparent leniency in business classes would be $r = 0.40$ and $r = 0.25$ in education classes.

Classrooms are obviously more complex than these initial simulations. The effects of other intervening variables would generally be to lower the associations. The analysis does demonstrate the complexity of the problem. Leniency can appear to exist falsely, and is severely confounded by reciprocity. The largest associations predicted and found in the study were from classes that did not have any contribution by leniency. It would appear that researchers have been attacking this problem from the wrong perspective. As long as the studies continue to emphasize leniency, the results will continue to be highly variable. From both methodological and theoretical perspectives, a firm foundation and understanding of reciprocity is needed before a leniency effect can be fully studied.

References available upon request from the author.

THE GREAT DIVIDE: STUDENT VERSUS FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF GROUP DYNAMICS

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ABSTRACT

The ability to work efficiently and effectively with others in a group is a critical determinant of student success in the workplace. In fact, employers now commonly rank teamwork skills as one of the most important attributes they look for when interviewing graduates. Therefore, instructors should be familiar with the factors that influence group dynamics and outcomes in order to facilitate more effective group experiences. Previous research has explored some of these issues. The goal of this study is to add to the existing knowledge of group dynamics by examining how student views regarding group work compare to those of their instructors. Armed with this information, faculty will be in a better position to understand the group process within their classrooms from a student perspective and to more effectively manage the group experience for their students.

To explore the issue of how students view group work as compared with their instructors, we collected survey data from both faculty and students. We used 31 different measures to assess a range of group dynamic factors. These measures included group cohesion, conflict and conflict resolution, communication, attitudes and trust. Faculty data were collected through an online questionnaire on ELMAR, a marketing newsgroup. One hundred thirty-four instructors returned a completed survey. Student data were gathered from a variety of different marketing courses, including Consumer Behavior, Marketing Research, Sales Force Management and Strategic Marketing Management. Each of these classes included a significant, semester long group project with primary and secondary data collection, data analysis, a substantial written component and an oral presentation. At the end of the semester, students were instructed to consider their group project experience for that specific class in completing the survey. Five hundred thirty three completed student surveys were collected.

Our findings show that there are significant gaps between student opinions and perceptions of their group experiences and the perceptions held by faculty. In fact, all but 3 of the 31 comparisons indicated significant differences between student and instructor perceptions. The 3 non significant differences were related to whether students made new friends in the group experience (mean of 5.2 for students and 5.2 for faculty), if the group achieved harmony by avoiding conflict (mean of 5.1 for students and 4.9 for faculty) and the percentage of groups that experience conflict (26% in the student sample and 29% in the faculty sample). Some of the more substantial differences between faculty versus students perceptions indicated that faculty thought that: (a) groups argued quite a bit more, (b) groups could have worked together better, (c) group members worried about their grades, and (d) group members did the work of other team members.

Even more intriguing than the strong differences in perceptions is the fact that faculty were consistently more pessimistic about the group experience than were the students. Instructors had more positive attitudes than the students in only 2 out of 31 comparisons.

The gap between the perceptions of faculty and those of students is very wide. It appears that instructors are overly pessimistic and, perhaps, should adjust their attitudes toward the student perceived value of group activities. This may lead to more group project activity, and hopefully, more teamwork skills training provided to students to increase the value of these group experiences.

PEER OBSERVATION REPORTS AND STUDENT EVALUATIONS OF TEACHING: WHO ARE THE EXPERTS?

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ABSTRACT

Teaching, research, and service constitute the three primary factors considered in retention, tenure, and promotion (RTP) decisions. Teaching is typically assessed using student evaluations of teaching (SET), sometimes accompanied by embedded learning measures and/or teaching portfolios, and increasingly, by classroom observations by faculty peers resulting in peer observation reports (POR). This is a qualitative study to examine faculty views on both SET and POR. We also look at who are perceived to be the experts in evaluating teaching.

Many instructors have concerns about SET, largely centering around two factors. The first is the validity of SET. As educational institutions increasingly view students as consumers of education, they are more influenced by student satisfaction (Share 1997). The second is faculty members are apprehensive about the emphasis given SET in the RTP process. SET often reflect perceptions and impressions based on instructor likeability and on course workload and difficulty, more than on actual learning (Marks 2000). Some view SET as little more than measures of popularity based on personality, or even as an opportunity for students to exact revenge on rigorous instructors.

For these and other reasons, a growing number of institutions now require peer observation of teaching. Seldin (1999) reported that the use of faculty peer evaluation nearly tripled between 1978 and 1998. This increase is partially in response to legislative action and/or the requirements of accrediting agencies demanding accountability for academic performance. POR offer the advantage of including another perspective to complement SET.

This study is an exploratory inquiry into the perceptions of faculty regarding SET versus POR. Depth interviews were conducted with eight marketing and other business professors. Informants include both junior and senior faculty, and instructors teaching in both undergraduate and graduate programs. The informants have held positions at both research- and teaching-oriented institutions, at large public and private universities, and at smaller private colleges.

Our study indicates against reliance on a single source of information as evidence of teaching effectiveness. In essence, SET and POR provide complementary information. The responses of our informants suggest that POR might best provide feedback for faculty development and for assessing course content. On the other hand, most felt that SET provides the best assessment of what actually goes on in the classroom. Those interviewed for this study clearly thought that faculty peers are the experts, especially for content. On the other hand, it was also suggested that the number of observers and quantity of observations offset the disadvantages of individual student evaluations.

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MERLOT (MULTIMEDIA EDUCATION RESOURCE FOR LEARNING AND ONLINE TEACHING) FOR MARKETING PROFESSORS

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ABSTRACT

MERLOT is a free and open resource in which faculty can share learning materials. The modules in MERLOT are peer-reviewed by the Business Editorial Board and its Peer Reviewers. Faculty can gain recognition for their scholarship of teaching and can also provide service to the discipline by participating in the peer review process. There are approximately 400 modules in the Marketing discipline and the Editorial Board currently works with 20 Marketing peer reviewers. Faculty members are encouraged to participate in MERLOT by adding materials, using the materials of others, and being peer reviewers.

INTRODUCTION

In the early 1990s the Internet was unveiled to the public making the technical, economic, and operational feasibility of distance education plausible. Using the Internet to locate and make digital learning objects accessible became yet another instructional strategy to enhance teaching and learning. However, creating one's own web based multimedia applications as well as searching the Internet to find existing teaching materials is without a doubt time consuming, especially when using some of the available search engines such as Google and Yahoo.

The solution is the free and open resource known as the MERLOT (Multimedia Education Resources for Learning and Online Teaching) repository, which is located at http://www.merlot.org. The mission of MERLOT is to improve the effectiveness of teaching and learning by expanding the quantity and quality of peer-reviewed learning materials that can be easily located and incorporated into functioning courses. Goals include making existing learning materials more accessible, providing recognition for the scholarship of teaching, and supplying a mechanism to validate and share high quality work.

SITE CONTENTS

MERLOT consists of thousands of digital learning objects with links to approximately 400 marketing-related teaching and learning modules. What makes MERLOT unique is the learning profile created for each module catalogued in the repository. The learning profile contains a brief description the digital object, identifies the type of material, and provides a link to the actual module, member comments, peer reviews, and assignments, if applicable. In addition, each learning profile identifies the author and his or her affiliation, the Intended audience for the teaching materials, and any technical requirements necessary for using the module.

To facilitate locating useful teaching and learning materials, the MERLOT repository is searchable by discipline, sub-discipline, title, author, date, rating, item type or key word. Within the broad discipline of business, marketing materials are categorized as applicable to: business marketing, consumer behavior, advertising, sales, international, market research, and general marketing. Some of the Management modules can also be used in classes such as Sales Management.

Modules are identified as simulations, animations, tutorials, collections, quiz/tests, drill/practices, lecture/presentations, or reference materials and are cross-listed should they be relevant for more than one area. In addition, search results are ordered by quality based on peer reviews and member comments.

From the MERLOT home page, marketing faculty can browse materials, visit the Tasting Room, and become a member. Membership benefits include the opportunity to contribute teaching and learning materials that become eligible for peer review, as well as, add member comments or assignments to other modules.

In order to become a member, minimal information is required; one's last name and email address. Requiring membership to participate as a MERLOT contributor is designed to give other members a sense of each participant's role and subject interests in the educational community. In addition, a profile is created for each member that provides a record by date of an individual's contributions to MERLOT. Learning modules, member comments, and assignments contributed are catalogued. As a result, a member's MERLOT profile can be printed and included in an individual's portfolio as evidence of the scholarship of teaching for an annual performance review.

THE PEER REVIEW PROCESS

MERLOT provides an opportunity for marketing faculty to be recognized for their contributions to the "scholarship of teaching." Once someone contributes a digital object to MERLOT, it becomes eligible for review. No less than two university professors who have met MERLOT standards and have been designated as external reviewers are assigned to examine a module.

Reviews are conducted by applying established evaluation standards and procedures. Each reviewer's write-up is posted online in a review workspace. The Assistant Editor of Marketing (currently, Theresa Flaherty at James Madison University) compiles a consolidated final review based on the input from the external reviewers. Notable discrepancies are discussed until a compromise is reached. When the peer review is finalized, the Editor sends a copy of the final review to the author(s) prior to it being posted publicly in MERLOT. Authors are given the opportunity to modify materials and have them reassessed as well as remove them from the repository.

A five star rating system is used to evaluate a digital learning object. Features of excellence and concern are identified for the following three criteria: quality of content, potential effectiveness as a teaching tool, and ease of use. A "one star" rating indicates the materials are not worth using at all. A "two star" rating indicates the materials do not meet minimal standards, but might have some limited value. Materials meeting or exceeding standards but having some significant concerns have a "three star" rating. A "four star" rating indicates materials are very good overall with a few minor concerns. Finally, learning materials judged excellent all around are given a "five star" rating.

Quality of content involves evaluating the accuracy and validity of the concepts being taught. Content receiving a "five star" rating should be clear, concise, accurate, current and relevant; completely demonstrate or explain concepts, models or skills; and include an adequate amount of material that effectively integrates and summarizes theories, assumptions and constraints. A high quality module is self-contained and can be used without requiring context or an assignment to make it useful.

Potential effectiveness as a teaching tool looks at whether prerequisite knowledge and learning objectives are identified, relationships between concepts demonstrated, and concepts progressively reinforced. Reviewers ascertain the extent to which it would be easy to develop an assignment as a result of incorporating the module. They determine the module's efficiency with respect to whether much could be learned in a short time. Overall, assessing effectiveness means determining whether the media-rich materials are likely to improve a marketing instructor's ability to teach concepts and students' abilities to learn them.

Ease of use involves evaluating the extent to which the module is of a high design quality from a technical and instructional design standpoint given the type of material (simulation, tutorial, quiz/test, presentation, collection, etc.). Visual appeal, clarity of instructions, extent of participant interaction, and active engagement are among some of the other the ease of use characteristics reviewed. Are instructions clear and easy to follow? Does the module function as intended? As a result, the MERLOT ratings for quality of content, potential effective as a teaching tool, and ease of use, provide valuable guidance in helping others determine whether or not a specific module is worth considering for use with one's own marketing course.

CONCLUSION

Clearly, MERLOT is a viable resource for marketing instructors who wish to enhance instruction with technology. At the same time MERLOT champions the scholarship of teaching by providing an opportunity for those who design digital learning objects to receive recognition for their contributions. The quality of content expected by ERLOT indicates that a high level of discipline-related expertise is generally required to develop the materials. In many cases the resulting work is likely to break new ground and be innovative. As a result of being contributed to MERLOT, the teaching and learning materials become documented, are publicly available and have the potential to be peer reviewed. Furthermore, member comments and peer reviews lend credibility to the quality of the instructional pieces. As a result of providing access to the materials through MERLOT, teaching and learning modules can be replicated and improved
on by other individuals. MERLOT enables marketing professors to make their pedagogical knowledge "community property" for peer review and commentary. As a result MERLOT is an electronic infrastructure that truly supports and sustains the scholarship of teaching.

HIGH TECH/LOW TECH: WAYS TO ADMINISTER UNDERGRADUATE UNIVERSITY MARKETING CLASSES

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ABSTRACT

Marketing educators have been deluged in recent years with offers from publishers and related businesses to buy into a growing number of ancillary materials in order to enhance classroom performance. From the days of crude black and white overhead transparencies and spiral backed grade books only two decades ago, marketing educators have been asked to decide among web-based, software-based, hardware-based, and other materials in order to insure that a publisher's main textbook is the one of choice.

This session offers the perspectives of four marketing educators in varying stages of their professional careers about these publisher's add-ons, evaluates many of the offerings, and then gets to the bottom line of what educators really need to enhance the teaching-learning experience.

Dr. Bob Collins in particular discusses a number of high tech initiatives he employs at the University of Nevada-Las Vegas, and he evaluates ones he feels lack the requisite requirements to be useful for students assigned to him.

Dr. Beverlee Anderson of the California State University at San Marcos and Dr. Melissa St. James of the California State University at Dominguez Hills examine various mid tech tools they employ at their respective institutions, offering insights into how these tools are useful to them and their students when combined with traditional teaching and administrative methods.

Finally, Dr. James Swartz of the California State Polytechnic University presents some insights and arguments against the majority of tech based tools and offers a low tech alternative that has served him well in more than twenty years of university teaching.

GETTING PUBLISHED IN MARKETING EDUCATION JOURNALS

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SPECIAL SESSION RATIONALE

High quality marketing education 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 many such faculty members are not aware of the refereed journal outlets available to them. This faculty development session increased their awareness of the three major refereed journal outlets and helped them prepare and/or revise manuscripts that will have a high chance of advancing our field as well as their own research productivity.

SPECIAL SESSION OVERVIEW

Doug Lincoln spoke as editor of the *Journal of Marketing Education*. Susan Petroshius spoke as current editor of the *Journal for Advancement of Marketing Education*. Elise "Pookie" Sautter spoke as editor of the *Marketing Education Review*.

Each editor first described their journal's mission or scope, submission and review processes, and reasons for previously submitted manuscripts being rejected. Each editor provided checklists of "dos and don'ts" and gave selected examples of reviewer comments on manuscript flaws. Audience members were encouraged and expected to ask questions of the editors during the session.

SESSION OUTCOMES

This special session provided the following five benefits for its attendees: increased awareness of the three leading (based on submission levels and acceptance rates) marketing education journals, training on or refreshing of submission guidelines, insight into the review process for manuscript, knowledge on why manuscripts are rejected, and knowledge on how to deal with invited revisions.

JOURNAL INFORMATION AND GUIDELINES

Journal of Marketing Education

http://jmd.sagepub.com/

Journal for Advancement of Marketing Education

http://www.mmaglobal.org/jamepolicies.htm

Marketing Education Review

http://www.marketingeducationreview.com/

FACULTY-DEPARTMENT CHAIR TRANSITIONS: A CONCEPTUALIZATION OF STRESS EFFECTS

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ABSTRACT

Given that 80% of university decisions are made at the department level, the role of department chairs is extremely critical and important for the success of an educational institution. However, the chair position has frequently been described as stressful, demanding, challenging, and ridden with conflict and ambiguity. Faculty, who are primarily academics and not trained as administrators, face unique challenges as they move (or are forced) into department chair positions. Transitioning *into* the role often involves reframing relationships with long-time colleagues. Transitioning *out* of the role also impacts not just relationships with colleagues but readjusting to the primary focus of the faculty position – teaching and research. The objective of this paper is to come up with a set of testable propositions pertaining to stress experienced by faculty as they transition into and out of the department head position. Drawing upon existing research we posit that the stress could be of two kinds, administrative and academic, depending upon the source of such stress. We argue that faculty will experience different levels of these two types of stress depending on the career path they plan on following.

We propose that compared to full professors, associate professors who serve as department chairs will experience higher levels of administrative and academic stress. Also, compared to chairs who plan to stay in administrative positions indefinitely, chairs who plan to revert back to full-time academic appointments will experience higher levels of administrative and academic stress. Finally, for limited-duration chairs, there will be a positive correlation between tenure (as chair) and academic stress and a negative correlation between tenure (as chair) and administrative stress. Implications of these propositions and directions for future research are discussed.

HOW FAST DO STUDENTS FORGET WHAT THEY LEARN IN CONSUMER BEHAVIOR?

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ABSTRACT

The memory decay curve for knowledge acquired in an undergraduate consumer behavior course is explored using Rasch measurement of longitudinal data. The final exam in consumer behavior was used as the original learning measure and a subset of the final, administered later in a capstone course, was used as the retention measure. The retention intervals studied ranged from 8 to 101 weeks. Rasch measurement, a member of the item response theory (IRT) family of models, offered two advantages in the present research: interval measurement and the ability to easily equate tests.

The findings indicate that the gains in knowledge achieved by the higher performing students diminish faster than the gains achieved by the lower performing students, such that the variance in retention scores is lower than the variance original learning. Most of the knowledge gained in the course was found to be lost within two years. The findings can also be summarized with the heuristic that the half-life of the consumer behavior knowledge learned in the course is approximately 21 weeks.

WHAT THE SNEETCHES TEACHES: DR. SEUSS AS A MARKETING TEACHING TOOL

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ABSTRACT

This essay presents a discussion of how the genius of Dr. Seuss can be used as an effective teaching tool in many contexts. It specifically addresses how "The Sneetches" can be used to help students understand the dynamics of cross cultural marketing.

Long before I began to consider an academic career as a marketing academic, and in what seems like a former life, I was a teacher of English as a Second Language (ESL). I taught conversational English in language training schools in Taiwan, where the students were native Mandarin speakers, in New York City where the student body represented several continents and languages. My biggest frustration was that the ESL texts were contrived, uninteresting, irrelevant, and just plain boring.

Instead of having students memorize meaningless drills, I began to experiment by having students sing children's songs. While all of my English speaking peers were able to sing the alphabet or 'I'm a Little Teapot' by heart, none of us could easily recite periodic table of elements. This would seem surprising, since we had learned the elements far more recently than the alphabet. Thus, I reasoned, these musical ditties might just have some staying power as learning devices. You can imagine my glee when conducting a round of "Row-Row-Row Your Boat" among a classroom of adult, 'r-' and 'l'-challenged Japanese students. Suddenly, the accents seemed to vanish as the rhythm and rhyme took over.

Knowing that I was onto something, I began to examine my past to find appropriate and useful reading materials to help my students learn English naturally, the way children do. As a tail end member of the Baby Boom generation, I grew up not only on Sesame Street (I remember the FIRST broadcast) but was nourished on the real classics of my time: Dr. Seuss stories. Pretty soon, I was leading groups of Malaysian, Japanese, Korean, and Brazilian students through a litany of 'would-not could-nots' as we debated the culinary merits of Green Eggs and Ham. Certainly, Dr. Seuss was a linguistic and poetic genius.

My faith and fervor for the (Zeus-like) Seuss was re-awakened more than a decade later while teaching global and cross cultural marketing. Like most disciplines, marketing textbooks have become fairly uniform in content and pretty consistent in their ho-hum presentation style. I had been teaching global marketing for eight years and was bored with the same tired examples. Then, one day, I was discussing issues of standardization and adaptation with my students. We were discussing the countervailing, simultaneous needs for people to assimilate while maintaining individual identity. I was using all of the classical examples articles like Levitt's (1983) "The Globalization of Markets" and Douglas and Wind's (1987) "The Myth of Globalization.'.

In their seminal paper, 'The Myth of Globalization', Douglas and Wind (1987) assert that cultures are at once becoming more similar to one another, while at the same people living within a single culture were becoming more heterogeneous. The example I usually give is as follows. If I had visited Italy 100 years ago, my food choices would most likely be limited to different regional Italian Cuisines. However, in present day Italy, it is fairly easy to find Sushi, Chinese Food, and Big Macs. This is an example of the increase of variety within a particular culture – namely Italy. It also illustrates the cross cultural convergence between, say the US, Italy, and Japan. In all three countries, it is easy to find Sushi, Italian Cuisine, and McDonalds.

Nonetheless, I was bemoaning the fact that if you can get the same selection of foods, goods, services and experiences anywhere in the world, what is the point of traveling to get the same stuff you can get at home? While the upside to this standardization is increased access to everything for everybody, the downside seems to be that places and cultures begin to lose their identities – that which makes them special and interesting, and worth visiting in the first place.

Another, more concrete example I use focuses on the introduction of the Euro. While European governments agreed that moving to a common currency would strengthen Europe and make cross-border transactions more efficient, most French believed that the Franc would be the most appropriate currency while the Italians preferred the Lire. Indeed, the British still hang onto their pounds sterling.

Suddenly, I thought of the perfect illustration for this point: the Sneetches. While one of the more obscure Seuss tales, the story of the Sneetches seemed to capture the point I was trying to make. The Star Bellied Sneetches had bellies with Stars. They were the in-crowd that enjoyed all of the finer things in life – like Frankfurter roasts on the beaches. They lorded their superior status over the Plain-Bellied Sneetches – those who had none upon 'thars'. One day, a smart marketer, Sylvester McMonkey McBean came to the beach with his new invention – the Star-on Machine. The hapless Plain-Bellied Sneetches each paid one dollar to go through the machine to have a star placed on their bellies.

When the newly minted (former Plain bellied) Star Bellied Sneetches proudly arrived to take part in the festivities on the beach, the original Star-Bellied Sneetches were horrified. They had lost their distinctive competitive brand advantage. Seeing yet another opportunity, McMonkey McBean offered the original Star-Bellied Sneetches the use of his star-off machine for three dollars per Sneetch. Now, it became fashionable to be plain bellied and the new plain-bellied Sneetches could once again feel superior to their adversaries.

To make a short story shorter, this led to a frenzy of star application and eradication all day long. By the end of the day, there was no telling who was star bellied or plain bellied – the brand(s) had lost of their meaning and the Sneetches had lost all of their money.

Lest you think that I was the first to see the marketing implications of the Sneetches and other Dr. Seuss Stories, a paper by Steven Dann (2000), entitled Green Eggs and Marketing Plans, shows how the Cat in the Hat is illustrative of service Failures, Green Eggs and Ham talks about promotion and product adoption, and the Sneetches illustrates branding, image transference, and social meaning.

While I was thrilled to have found a like-minded marketing scholar who recognized Seuss' inherent marketing genius, I was at once disappointed that someone else had beaten me to the punch. However, although Dann had found some very good lessons in the Sneetch story, he hadn't found all of them. I hadn't really thought too much about the lessons pertaining to branding and the importance of exclusivity in order for the brand to be desirable, although I agree that these are indeed good lessons. Rather, I focused more on the social meaning of branding as it pertains to global marketing and market segmentation.

McMonkey McBean may seem like the villain in the story of the Sneetches. Indeed, he exploits an opportunity and winds up with all of the Sneetches' money in the end. Some might think of this as unethical behavior. I present a different take on McMonkey McBean for my students to consider. McMonkey McBean is an EXCELLENT marketer because he understands the fundamentals of market segmentation. People struggle both to become part of a desirable social in-group while, at the same time, they strive to distinguish themselves from those belonging to other groups. While it makes sense for Italians, Swiss, Germans, and Irish to consider themselves economically European, they also desire to maintain their own national identities. McMonkey McBean merely caters to the needs of his customers. He is neither invested in the importance of the star brand, or his absence, nor with Sneetch society in general. What he recognizes is some very fundamental human behaviors and the profitability of meeting customer needs.

There are plenty of other lessons that the Sneetches teaches us. Certainly, the message that everything old becomes new again is one lesson. This is especially true when thinking of trans-generational market segmentation. As they strive to distinguish their identities as separate from their parents, teenagers and twenty-something consumers eschew the brands, styles, and products favored by their out-dated parents. Instead, they adopt new, trendy, and oftentimes shocking new fashions and products, if for no other reasons, to annoy their parents. However, yesterday's hip-hugger bell-bottomed teenagers are now the grandparents of a whole new generation of hip-hugger, bell-bottomed 'retro' teens. Thus, while Dann (2000) sees the Sneetches as primarily a lesson about the value of brands (and how they can be devalued when they become commonplace) there is another branding lesson to be learned: brands can be reborn, especially if nostalgia is a powerful motivator for buying products that once were in style.

Many students often comment that marketing is just common sense. Indeed, many of the principles underlying the science of marketing are grounded in common sense. Dr. Seuss' wisdom springs from his understanding of the human condition. Consumer behavior and marketing, although they are business disciplines, are merely one type of human behavior. It shouldn't be surprising, then, that Dr. Seuss can teach us much about marketing.

The main point of this essay, however, is not to explore every lesson that Dr. Seuss and the Sneetches have to teach us. The main point is that these classic works of children's literature are

extremely effective teaching tools that we, as marketing educators, can use in our classrooms. Although I would like to think that students will read their texts diligently, internalize, and retain all of the marketing theory and concepts they learn in my class, I know they probably will not. What they will probably remember, though, is the day I pulled out my copy of the Sneetches and READ to them the story that so clearly and elegantly captured one particular marketing concept. The one thing that Seuss perhaps understood best is that serious lessons are often best taught – and remember-- using humor, rhythm, and rhyme. And he didn't even work as a creative for an advertising agency.

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PUNISHMENT OF UNETHICAL RETAIL BEHAVIOR AND THE ROLE OF MACHIAVELLIANISM

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ABSTRACT

In 2003 WalkerInformation conducted a national employee loyalty study that looked at ethics in the workplace. Their report suggested 24% of employees are aware of ethical violations in their workplace. The top five unethical violations included unfair treatment of employees, lying on reports, stealing, lying to supervisors, and conflicts of interest. Of the 24% of employees that were aware of violations only 40% reported the unethical behavior. Reasons for not reporting violations included fear of retaliation, not feeling that the organization would respond to their report, and the lack of anonymity when reporting. The WalkerInformation study also found that the top three industries for best workplace ethics included the insurance, financial services, and health care industries. The retailing industry was rated fourth yet it represents the third largest employing industry after service and government jobs (Center for Retailing Studies, Texas A&M).

Much research has also addressed the ethical behavior of business students. Borkowski and Ugras (1998) performed a meta-analysis of 56 academic studies involving business students. Fifty of the 56 studies simply measured individual's attitudes, and the findings suggest that women and older students were more ethical than males and younger students. While ethics related research continues to measure attitudes (e.g., Burnett, Keith, and Pettijohn 2003, Silver and Valentine 2000: Yoo and Donthu 2002) the question of how students would react to unethical behaviors has received little mention in the literature.

Machiavellianism is a personality trait known to impact ethical decision-making (Christie and Geis, 1970). Machiavellianism has been described as "a person's general strategy for dealing with people, especially the degree to which he feels other people are manipulatable in interpersonal situations" (Robinson and Shaver, 1973, p. 590). Machiavellians ignore the needs and rights of others and employ devious, manipulative tactics to achieve objectives for personal or organizational gain (Calhoon, 1969, p. 211). They use others in the service of accomplishing personal objectives (Christie and Geis, 1970, p. 1) and see nothing wrong with questionable ethical actions (e.g., calling in sick when personal time is needed) that meet their self-interests (Mudrack, 1993). In addition, Machiavellians will cheat (Flynn, Reichard, and Slane., 1987), lie, if there is the potential for personal gain (Fletcher, 1990), behave less ethically and in general are more likely to justify their unethical behavior (Hegarty and Sims 1978, 1979; Giacalone and Knouse, 1992). Disturbingly, research by Robinson and Shaver's (1973) found evidence of increasing Machiavellianism between generations.

Geis and Christie (1970) found that individuals scoring high on the Machiavellianism scale (i.e., high machs) "manipulate more, win more, are persuaded less, persuade others more,..." (p. 312). They theorized that there was an interaction between Machiavellianism and the situation (i.e., "loosely structured" compared with "highly structured"), and that the greatest difference in the tactics used by high and low Machiavellians would be found in loosely structured situations. In marketing a loosely structured situation might be represented by an individual in a sales position. Christie and Geis (1970) suggest that the sales profession might attract those with less moral intentions. It is well known that some job environments can predispose salespeople to unethical behavior (Behrman and Perreault, 1984; Wotruba, 1990), though Hunt and Chonko (1984) have shown that marketing people are not necessarily Machiavellian.

If an instructor knew that his/her class was comprised of high Machiavellians they could make adjustments to the curriculum. For example, online ethics learning modules could be developed to help high Machiavellians better understand how their lack of punishment could lead to problems in the organization. This could be accomplished by having students complete the Machiavellianism questionnaire online and when completed they would be automatically directed to specific readings tailored to their individual scores. In the current study the focus is on retailing related situations. These types of situations are likely to resonate with students as many of them are likely to have worked in retailing at some point in their lives. By discussing the three categories (i.e., customer, work, and peer-related) of retail situations separately the instructor could put greater emphasis on the customer-related behaviors.

OPTIMAL ATTRIBUTES OF MARKETING GRADUATES FOR RETAIL EMPLOYMENT

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ABSTRACT

Marketing educators need to know the retail industry's interest in students' skills and attributes. Therefore, this research sought to determine the optimal combination of a candidate's level of communication skills, quantitative skills, interpersonal skills, critical thinking skills, technology skills and whether or not they had participated in a retail summer internship. Multinomial logit analysis of the choice data revealed that interpersonal skills and completion of a retail internship are the most important determinants of candidate choice.

INTRODUCTION

Through management training positions, internships and on-the-job programs the retailing industry is a major employer of new college graduates. Consequently, it is desirable for colleges and marketing and retailing programs, in particular, to understand the needs of retail firms with respect to these positions. Understanding the needs of the retail managers responsible for hiring should aid the marketing educator in better developing the skills demanded by these managers. While this area of inquiry is not new with respect to retailing (Donnellan 1996; Nicholson and Cushman 2000), or marketing in general (Ackerman, Gross and Perner 2003; Yoo and Donthu 2002), it is one that needs to be constantly updated in this dynamic industry and one that will benefit from a new perspective – in particular from an "optimal combination of attributes" perspective. In general, studies have treated attributes one at a time, asking respondents to rate or rank them according to importance. Ratings often lead to halo effects as many or all attributes are rated as important because respondents think they should be important. Rankings do not account for tradeoffs in compensatory decision models.

In reality, job candidates are likely to be evaluated according to a set of qualities and skills, applying a compensatory or non-compensatory decision criterion across all attributes. We need to understand the evaluation process in a multidimensional context. Therefore, this research identifies and examines those skills that marketing educators can influence and that are important to retail managers, in order to support adjustments in marketing curricula to better meet the needs of students and industry.

The research objective was to identify the optimal composition of attributes and trade-offs among those attributes that retail managers make when choosing among college educated applicants. Therefore, a set of skills and characteristics was developed based on a review of the literature and in-depth interviews with retail executives responsible for hiring decisions. The attribute/skill set was reduced to the six determinant attributes through pre-testing. A conjoint experiment was then designed and implemented with a sample of major U.S. retail hiring executives in order to (1) determine the relative importance of each attribute (e.g., strong interpersonal skills and retail internships weigh most heavily in the choice of the optimal candidate) , (2) determine the ideal combination of attributes, and (3) identify trade-offs among attributes that executives are willing to accept.

HIRING ATTRIBUTES

Some quantitative research has been done that outlines the skills and attributes of new hires desired by retailers (Donnellan 1996; Nicholson and Cushman 2000). Donnellan (1996) found that managerial skills are of the greatest importance to retailers. Nicholson and Cushman (2000) looked at a more broadly based set of skills in more detail. They also compared academic and industry findings and generally found that the industry was more interested in, "affective skills such as leadership and decision making" as opposed to the academics who thought that, "more interpersonal affective competencies" (p.366). Other research has looked at the skills and attributes that are desired of marketing students in general. A review of the literature yielded 32 total skills as shown in column 1 of Table 1.

Some of the skills such as flexibility, critical thinking skills, ability to handle real business problems, and creativity were desirable for marketing students in general (Ackerman, Gross and Perner 2003). Ethics was cited as a desirable attribute, although the research did not present this attribute as a perceived need (Yoo and Donthu 2002). Computer/Internet/E-Commerce skills were also mentioned in the literature as desirable skills for marketing graduates (Mitchell and Strauss 2001). The shortcomings of these studies that the present study is designed to overcome include the failure to determine the relative importance of each skill to retailers, identify the

"ideal" skill set a candidate should possess, or determine the trade-offs retailers are willing to make among these skills.

TABLE 1
LITERATURE SUPPORT FOR SKILL/ATTRIBUTE SET

Applicant Characteristic (Attribute)	Literature Support
Technology Skills[1] (computer; internet; ecommerce)	Mitchell and Strauss 2001, Nicholson and Cushman 2000
Communication Skills (oral and written)	Nicholson and Cushman 2000, Donnellan 1996
Interpersonal Skills	
Conflict Management Skills	Nicholson and Cushman 2000
Teamwork Ability	Nicholson and Cushman 2000
Management Skills	Donnellan 1996
Leadership Skills	Berman and Evans 2001, Nicholson and Cushman 2000
People Orientation	Levy and Weitz 2000
Customer Service Focus	Nicholson and Cushman 2000
Motivational & Developmental Skills	Nicholson and Cushman 2000
Critical Thinking Skills	Ackerman, Gross and Perner 2003
Business Problem handling skills	Ackerman, Gross and Perner 2003
Quantitative Analysis Skills	
Analytical Skills	Berman and Evans 2001
Accounting & Finance Skills (basics)	Nicholson and Cushman 2000
Mathematical Ability	Nicholson and Cushman 2000
Retail background/work experience	Nicholson and Cushman 2000
Product knowledge	Nicholson and Cushman 2000
Personal Traits/Abilities	
Creativity	Ackerman, Gross and Perner 2003, Berman and Evans 2001
Ethics	Yoo and Donthu 2002
Flexibility	Ackerman, Gross and Perner 2003, Berman and Evans 2001
Job stability	
Risk-Taking	Berman and Evans 2001
Self-Confidence	Nicholson and Cushman 2000
Organization	Berman and Evans 2001
Initiative	Berman and Evans 2001, Nicholson and Cushman 2000
Decisiveness/Decision making Ability	Berman and Evans 2001, Nicholson and Cushman 2000
Passion for retailing	Nicholson and Cushman 2000

College graduates that are new hires for retailers usually fill entry level positions that often include Management Training Programs (Levy and Weitz 2004); graduates of these programs typically move into the buying/merchandising or store management career tracks (Rhoads, Swinyard, Geurts and Price 2002). Thus, the present study asks retailers to consider the key skills or applicant attributes they consider when hiring a recent college graduates for their Management Training Program.

METHODOLOGY

Conjoint Research Design

Retailers' stated preferences for applicants with different skill sets were evaluated with choice-based conjoint analysis (CBC), an approach that combines experimental design techniques with models of discrete choice to explore how individuals form preferences for or make choices among different "products," or applicants in the present case (Caroll and Green 1995; Louviere et al. 2000). Respondents were presented with pairs of hypothetical applicants that were described as having different levels of certain attributes or skills, and asked to choose the applicant they would hire, a situation that mimics the choice process many HR managers engage in on a regular basis. Applying a logit model to this choice data allows us to assess the relative influence of each skill on the hiring decision and to determine what trade-offs HR managers are willing to make among skills and skill levels. For example, will they hire the individual with outstanding communication skills even though he/she may have minimally acceptable computer/technology skills?

The growing use of CBC by both marketing research academic and practitioners can be partially attributed to the realism of the choice task and studies validating CBC's ability to accurately predict market shares for new products (Louviere et al. 2000; Orme and Heft 1999), but recent advances in web data collection methods and conjoint statistical techniques have also accelerated usage (Deal 2002; McCullough 2002;). In the present study we use a web survey to collect the choice data, and multinomial logit to generate importance weights, or part-worths, for each skill and skill level.[2]

[1] The items in bold represent category labels that were defined by authors in an attempt to reduce the total number of skills to be included in the conjoint experiment.

[2] For a more in-depth discussion of stated choice methods such as CBC, see Louviere et al. (2000) and the Technical Paper Series published by Rich Johnson and his colleagues at Sawtooth Software, Inc.: http://sawtoothsoftware.com/techpap.shtml. Sawtooth's conjoint and HB software were used to conduct the present study.

Selection of Skills and Skill Levels

Several methods were used in an iterative manner in order to determine the skills or attributes that HR managers consider when hiring individuals for their retail management training programs. A review of the existing literature generated over thirty-two separate skills and traits that employers look for (Table 1, columns 1 and 2). By narrowing our research focus to "teachable skills", i.e., those student skills over which we as business professors have some control and can foster development of, or the offering of a retail internship (an attribute), we were able to pare the list down to six broad categories (see Table 1, third column). We then developed a survey that was sent to HR managers/college recruiters at six large retailers in the Northwest. Each manager ranked the skills/attributes in terms of their importance when making a decision about hiring recent college graduates for their management training programs. The HR personnel also responded to an open-ended question asking them to identify the six most important factors they consider within this particular hiring context. Findings from this exploratory research confirmed the importance of the six skills/attributes identified from the literature review, and led us to design a preliminary web conjoint survey that included these attributes. Another set of HR managers (3), along with academic colleagues in the HR field (3), beta-tested this instrument, and revisions were made to the attributes and attribute level definitions (and other survey design elements) based on this second round of feedback. The final instrument included six key teachable skills/attributes: (1) oral and written communication skills, (2) critical thinking skills, (3) technology/computer skills, (4) interpersonal skills, (5) quantitative analysis skills and (6) experience-based skills such as an internship.

Each skill, or attribute, had three levels: acceptable, good and outstanding. This asymmetric scale was employed because pre-tests showed that an individual with an unacceptable level on any of these skills would be quickly eliminated from the applicant pool by HR managers; this study focuses on how managers select one individual from among a pool of *qualified* applicants, all of whom met the minimum acceptable standards.

TABLE 2
Development of Skill/Attribute Set

Applicant Characteristic (Attribute)	Literature Review/ Exploratory Research N=6	Pretest of Conjoint Tasks w/HR man. & academics (web survey; n= 6)	Final Instrument
Technology Skills[3] (computer; internet; ecommerce)	X	X	X
Communication Skills (oral and written)	X	X	X
Interpersonal Skills		X	X
Conflict Management Skills	X		
Teamwork Ability	X		
Management Skills	X		
Leadership Skills	X		
People Orientation	X		
Customer Service Focus	X		
Motivational & Developmental Skills	X		
Critical Thinking Skills	X	X	X
Business Problem handling skills	X		
Quantitative Analysis Skills		X	X
Analytical Skills	X		
Accounting & Finance Skills (basics)	X		
Mathematical Ability	X		
Retail background/work experience	X	X	X
Product knowledge	X		
Personal Traits/Abilities			
Creativity	X		
Ethics	X		
Flexibility	X		
Job stability	X		
Risk-Taking	X		
Self-Confidence	X		
Organization	X		
Initiative	X		
Decisiveness/Decision making Ability	X		
Passion for retailing	X		

[3] The items in bold represent category labels that were defined by authors in an attempt to reduce the total number of skills to be included in the conjoint experiment.

Three levels were used for five of the six skills in order to realistically capture the range each could encompass (from acceptable to outstanding) and to effect a balanced experimental design.[4] The attributes and attribute levels are displayed and defined more fully in Table 3.

TABLE 3
Skills/Skill Levels in Conjoint Experiment

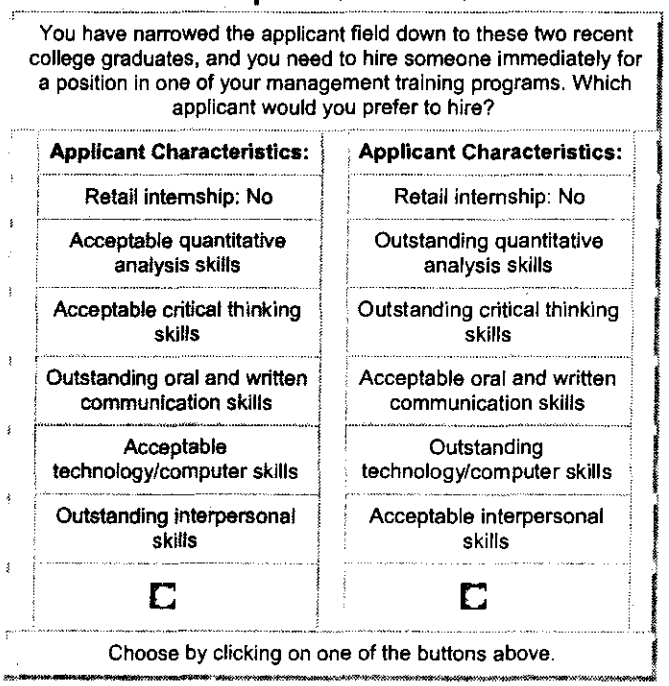
Skills/Attributes	Expanded Definition/Examples (when provided to respondents)	Skill/Attribute Levels
Oral & Written Communication Skills	No other information provided	Acceptable, good, outstanding
Quantitative Skills	Mathematical skills; knowledge of accounting and/or finance	Acceptable, good, outstanding
Interpersonal Skills	People orientation; teamwork and conflict management abilities; customer orientation	Acceptable, good, outstanding
Critical Thinking Skills	Ability to handle real business problems; make reasoned decisions and plans based on available information	Acceptable, good, outstanding
Technology Skills	Competency with key computer software and the Internet	Acceptable, good, outstanding
Experience-based Skills	Summer internship with a major retailer	Yes, No

Experimental Design and Dependent Measure

The descriptions of the hypothetical applicants were developed using a fractional factorial randomized experimental design and allowing for some skill level overlap. For example, a respondent might compare two applicants who both had "good" communication skills, but differed with respect to their ability to undertake quantitative analyses. There were fifty unique sets of choice tasks and all applicants were described on every attribute (a full profile approach).

Each respondent completed twelve paired comparisons or choice tasks (see Figure 1 for an example of a choice task). Two of the choice tasks were fixed (i.e., the skill levels remained unchanged across all respondents), while the remaining ten tasks were randomized. One fixed choice task was placed first in the questionnaire and acted as a practice question; this data was not used in later analyses. The second fixed task was placed sixth in the series of choice tasks and served as a "hold out" task in order to assess the predictive validity of the logit model. As displayed in Figure 1, each pair of hypothetical applicants was presented side by side, and respondents were asked to choose the one they would hire if . . . "you have narrowed the applicant field down to these two recent college graduates, and you need to hire someone immediately for a position in one of your management training programs." The presentation order of the skills was randomized to minimize the effect of any potential confounds due to order effects.

FIGURE 1
Example of Choice Task



Given this randomized experimental design (balanced overlap), the number of questionnaire versions (50), the number of concepts per task (2) and the number of choice tasks (500), a priori estimates of the standard errors associated with each attribute level or main effect were made using ordinary least squares (OLS). These error terms were compared to the standard errors one would expect in an "ideal" situation where the experimental design is precisely orthogonal. This procedure allows us to calculate the precision with which the part-worths for each attribute/skill and level can be estimated, i.e., the efficiency of the design relative to an orthogonal design (where 100% represents orthogonality). The design used in the present study had a statistical efficiency for each attribute level that

[4] An unequal number of attribute levels can result in a "number of levels effect" in which those attributes with fewer levels are spuriously given less importance (Wittink, Huber, Zandan and Johnson 1992). One skill – retail internship experience – could realistically take only two values, yes or no.

ranged from 94% to 99% relative to a generalized orthogonal design. The variability among the standard error terms for each main effect was also low (.07-.10), which indicates that the design is not compromised by any heterogeneity of variance problems.

Other Constructs Measured

After completing the conjoint section of the survey, respondents answered ten questions about their retail employer (revenues, retail type, number of stores), themselves (career path, education) and about the number and type of college students they typically hired for into entry level management training programs (which majors, how many).

Procedure and Sample

The web survey began with a statement of the overall purpose of the study and contained several screens of specific instructions prior to the start of the choice tasks. Respondents were asked to assume that there was a pressing need to hire a college graduate immediately to fill a position in one of their management training programs. They were also told to assume that the applicants they were about to evaluate were all qualified individuals and members of the final candidate pool. The choice tasks came next, followed by the ten non-conjoint questions described above under "Other Constructs Measured." The survey concluded with an open-ended question asking them to list any additional skill requirements not mentioned in the survey and inviting them to contact the researchers with any questions or comments.

RESULTS

Sample Characteristics

All data were collected over ten weeks during the fall of 2003. Of the 122 HR managers that were contacted 62 agreed to take the survey. Of that number, 26 Human Resources Managers or Vice Presidents completed the initial survey. While this response rate is consistent with the levels commonly achieved in studies involving busy executives (Berry 1983; Hall and Williams 1998; McLeod and Rogers 1985; Mentzer, Schuster and Roberts 1987) further efforts were made to increase the sample size. A mailing of 869 letters was sent to the Human Resource Managers of the top national retailers as identified by "Reference USA". Of this mailing 34 letters were returned and 3 firms formally declined participation. A follow-up postcard was sent two weeks after the letters were sent. The sample size increased to 33 respondents each from different firms.

As Table 4 indicates, respondents represent a variety of national and regional retailers with reported annual revenues of anywhere from $500 million or less (50% the firms) to $1,500 billion or more (21%). Thus, the sample appears to capture the heterogeneity that exists within the retail industry as a whole.

TABLE 4
Profile of the Retailer Sample (N=33)

Characteristic	Profile
Retailer Type	Specialty Store (24%) Department Store (21%) Category Specialist (18%) Food Retailer (15%)
Geographic Dispersal	National (31%) Multi-State (28%) One City (17%)
Number of Stores	Mean # of stores = 583 (S.D. = 1408) Range = 1-5,700
Annual Firm Revenue	$500 million or less (48%) $501 million - $1,499 billion (31%) $1,500 billion or more (21%)
# of College Graduates Hired Annually for management training programs	Average = 36 graduates (S.D. = 65) Range = 1-300
College Major of those Hired (check all that apply)	General Business (59%) Marketing (56%) Retailing/Fashion Merchandising (33%) Communications (22%) Liberal Arts (19%) Acctng/Finance (11%)
Career Path of HR Manager (respondent; check all that apply)	HR operational management (41%) Store Management (33%) Merchandising Management (19%) Non-HR operational management (15%)
HR Manager Educational Background (respondent)	College Degree, Business (59%) College Degree, Non-Business (22%) Post-College Degree (15%) No College Degree (4%)

Analysis of Conjoint Data: Logit Model

Multinomial logit analysis (MNL) was used to analyze the choice data. Logit was chosen because the form of the dependent and independent variables is categorical. Like multiple regression and discriminant analysis, logit seeks "weights" for attribute levels (or for combinations of them, if interactions are included in addition to main effects) that maximize the likelihood of the observed pattern of respondent choices, using probabilities derived from these weights.[5] Those weights are analogous to

[5] Sawtooth Software's choice-based conjoint (CBC) software was used to conduct the logit and simulation analyses. The logit analysis of the choice data produced no statistically significant two-way interaction terms, so all

"preference scores" or "part-worth utilities" in conjoint analysis and are computed so that when the weights corresponding to the attribute levels in each concept are added up the sums for each concept are related to respondents' choices among concepts (see Ben-Akiva *et al.* 1985; Johnson 1996).

Relative Attribute Importance

The part worth utilities derived from the logit analysis for each applicant skill attribute were used to calculate the relative importance of each when selecting among applicants (see Table 5). The relative importance of an attribute indicates how much difference a particular attribute can make in the total utility of a "product," such as an applicant; the difference is the range in the attribute's utility values (see note below Table 5). When choosing among applicants for a retail management training program, an applicant's interpersonal skills have the greatest influence on the hiring decision, with a relative importance of 25%, followed by whether or not he/she has had a retail internship (19%) and possesses good communications and critical thinking skills (18% and 17%, respectively). We can also say that information about whether an applicant has had a retail internship is approximately three fourths as important in influencing the hiring decision as information about an applicant's interpersonal skills (importances are ratio data). Finally, skills related to an applicant's competency with quantitative analyses or technology/computers do not have a statistically significant effect on the hiring decision.

TABLE 5
Relative Attribute Importances

Attribute	Relative Importances*	Chi-square (p value)
Interpersonal Skills	25%	27.72 (< .01)
Retail Internship (yes/no)	19%	24.55 (< .01)
Communication Skills	18%	14.32 (< .01)
Critical Thinking Skills	17%	14.34 (< .01)
Quantitative Analysis Skills	12%	5.91 (n.s.)
Technology Skills	9%	3.76 (n.s.)

* NOTE: The relative importance of each attribute was calculated by computing the difference between the largest and smallest part-worth for each attribute, summing the differences, and normalizing to 100.

further analyses were conducted with the main effects model.

Attribute Level Importance and the Ideal Applicant

Table 6 contains the average utility values for each attribute level. The most preferred applicant (the one with the greatest total utility) is, not surprisingly, one that has participated in a retail internship and has outstanding interpersonal skills, communication skills, etc. Trade-offs among attribute levels can be calculated from the average utilities presented in Table 5 (see note below Table 6). A more readily interpretable approach to the question of trade-offs, however, uses these part-worth utilities to simulate specific "market conditions" in which the retail manager chooses from a given set of applicant configurations, or "products." Such simulations produce share of preference data for the set of applicants specified, where share of preference is defined as what percent of HR managers (respondents) would prefer or choose each applicant, given the set of applicants specified. In this study, share of preference data was obtained using Sawtooth Software's Market Simulator with a randomized first choice simulation method.

TABLE 6
Ranking of Attribute Levels Based on Average Utility Values

Course Attribute (average utility value)	Rank		
	1	2	3
Interper-sonal Skills (utility value)	Outstanding (82.26)	Good (-11.09)	Acceptable (-77.17)
Retail Internship (utility value)	Outstanding (82.26)	Good (-11.09)	Acceptable (-77.17)
Retail Internship (utility value)	Outstanding (82.26)	Good (-11.09)	Acceptable (-77.17)
Retail Internship (utility value)	Outstanding (82.26)	Good (-11.09)	Acceptable (-77.17)
Retail Internship (utility value)	Outstanding (82.26)	Good (-11.09)	Acceptable (-77.17)
Retail Internship (utility value)	Outstanding (82.26)	Good (-11.09)	Acceptable (-77.17)

NOTE: Values are arbitrarily scaled to sum to 0 within each attribute, so some utilities must receive a negative value. This does not mean that this level is unattractive; it does mean that attributes with positive utilities are preferred over those with negative utilities. Utilities are interval data; we can say that the increase in preference from an applicant who has acceptable interpersonal skills to one who has outstanding interpersonal skills is *more than* the increase in preference from an applicant who has acceptable communication skills to one who has outstanding skills in this area. However we cannot directly compare values between

attributes to say that two different attribute levels with the same utility value (e.g., outstanding technology skills and internship experience) are equally preferred.

Table 7 presents the shares of preference for three hypothetical applicants with different skill sets. All else being equal, HR managers are about four times as likely (61% versus 14%) to hire an applicant possessing outstanding interpersonal skills, as opposed to one who only has "good" interpersonal skills. Further, managers are about three times as likely (61% versus 20%) to hire an applicant who has participated in a retail internship, versus one who has not, assuming no other attribute level differences among the applicants. Consistent with the relative attribute importance weights displayed in Table 5, an applicant with "outstanding" interpersonal skills, but without a retail internship, is preferred over an individual who has "good" interpersonal skills but has participated in an internship (20% versus 14%, respectively). Finally, all else being equal, HR managers are about twelve times more likely (61% versus 5%) to hire the ideal candidate with "outstanding" interpersonal skills and internship experience, compared to one who has neither an internship nor excellent interpersonal abilities.

TABLE 7
SHARES OF PREFERENCE FOR HYPOTHETICAL APPLICANT "PRODUCTS"

	Applicant "Products"			
Applicant Attributes	Ideal	Ideal But No Internship	Ideal But only "Good" Inter-personal skills	No Internship + "Good" Inter-personal Skills
Interpersonal Skills:	Outstanding	Outstanding	Good	Good
Retail Internship:	Yes	No	Yes	No
Communication Skills:	Outstanding	Outstanding	Outstanding	Outstanding
Critical Thinking Skills:	Outstanding	Outstanding	Outstanding	Outstanding
Quantitative Skills:	Outstanding	Outstanding	Outstanding	Outstanding
Technology Skills:	Outstanding	Outstanding	Outstanding	Outstanding
Share of Preference*	**61%**	**20%**	**14%**	**5%**

* Share of Preference represents that percent of the respondents who would prefer or choose each applicant "product", assuming these are the only three choices available. Shares of preference are ratio data.

DISCUSSION

Conclusions and Implications

There appears to be value in looking at the skills retail managers seek from new college graduate hires in the multidimensional context afforded by conjoint analysis. There seem to be definite tradeoffs among the desire for what would be considered significant skills for the potential hires. Interpersonal skills are important, but they become almost unbeatable when combined with retail internship experience. The degree to which the candidates possessed the skills was also important. Outstanding interpersonal skills seemed to compensate for relative deficiencies in other skill areas, for example. A candidate either had an internship or did not, so there was no relative level advantage, but the internship experience was very important. The real value of the internship showed up more strongly when combined with higher performance in the more important skills. When put into the mix with other skills, quantitative and technology skills become much less important, suggesting a compensatory choice model for some factors. However, it is apparent that both internship experience and interpersonal skills were clear favorites among the respondents with communication and critical thinking skills somewhat less important.

From the perspective of educating students to be more valuable as retail hires, it is apparent that we should focus heavily on encouraging the internship. At our school we have a strong internship program. One instructor has full responsibility for managing all marketing internships and is credited with one course in the teaching load over the academic year. Students may count the internship as one of the four electives they complete in the marketing major. This model may work well for other schools seeking to bolster this aspect of their curricula. Interpersonal and communication skills are also highly valued. These skills are built in our curriculum through class team assignments including the oral and written presentation of Marketing and IMC plans. In addition, all students are required to complete at least one "communication focus" class that emphasizes *individual* communication skill building through role plays, written cases, presentations, and reports.

Limitations and Future Research

The most significant study limitation concerns the small number of retail managers that actually responded to our survey, in spite of the fact that many were contacted more than once via different media. Although we did obtain a fairly representative sample of HR managers in the retail industry, the absolute number of responses was low (33), limiting

the external validity of our study findings. As an exploratory study using a novel approach (conjoint modeling), the research presented here has some merit; however, an important next step is to replicate the study with a larger, and equally representative, sample of HR retail managers from Fortune 500 retail firms. Given the difficulty we had in persuading members of our sample frame to respond to our survey -- in spite of the time and effort we put forth to ensure an adequate response rate -- our initial task will be to explore alternative approaches to sampling and data collection.

Ethical attributes and organizational skills were not specifically covered in the exploratory interviews and subsequently not included in the final survey. It would be helpful in enlarging the study to examine these two variables. Further, while this study focused on teachable attributes, the issue of personal characteristics of the applicant is not included in the attributes. The choice-based model of research used in this study precludes a large number of variables, however further research could explore an enlarged model.

More generally, there is a need for further research that examines the decision process by which our marketing graduates are chosen for entry level marketing positions. Can we make the assumption that the attributes, and the trade-offs between attributes and attribute levels, identified in this research as important for retail management positions are also the determinant attributes for brand management or ad agency entry level positions? Perhaps the desirable attributes or skills themselves are the same, but the trade-offs (elasticities) among attributes/levels are different. Further, there may well be an evolutionary process at work, whereby expectations regarding skills and skill levels change over time. Conjoint analysis, involving as it does a relatively realistic task (full profile choice among hypothetical candidates) and the ability to obtain trade-off data, offers a theoretically sound and externally valid approach to the systematic exploration of these issues.

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AACSB AND THE DIVERSITY ISSUE: A MODEL

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ABSTRACT

Research indicates that a diverse student body is beneficial for education. The AACSB accreditation standards also include a commitment to diversity. In California, as well as some other states, preferential treatment in admissions to bring about a diverse student body is against the law, which may be problematic for some universities. Many schools have struggled with this dilemma of developing diversity in the campus population. This paper examines diversity in the student body, its importance, and how it may be brought about. Related issues are discussed. A conceptual model for successfully enhancing student diversity is proposed, and the implementation of the model developed at a California university is presented. The benefits to the general student body as well as employers are discussed.

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LINKING FACULTY DEVELOPMENT TO COLLEGE GOALS AND STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

Recently adopted standards by AACSB International (AACSB) require accredited institutions to define a set of specific goals and student learning outcomes from their mission statement. In addition, AACSB Participant Standard 11 requires a school to design faculty development programs to fulfill the school's mission. What is missing in the marketing literature is a description of how a school of business and department of marketing can link its faculty development efforts to the achievement of its stated goals and student learning outcomes. The purpose of this paper is to relate the experience of one school of business in its attempt to foster the linkage between mission statement, goals, student learning outcomes and faculty development programs.

WHAT IS FACULTY DEVELOPMENT?

The term 'faculty development' has been used in many ways in the literature. Faculty development has been used synonymously with the enhancement of teaching. However a broader view of faculty development suggests programs may be grouped into four categories: (a) morale, (b) teaching, (c) research and (d) time and developmental growth.

LINKING MISSION, GOALS AND LEARNING OUTCOMES TO FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

The paper details the process used by the faculty in the College of Business Administration at California State University, Sacramento to link its mission statement, college goals and student learning outcomes to its faculty development programs. The basic assumption made by the college's faculty was that faculty development would be limited to programs that further the interests of the college.

The structure of the college's faculty development programs were guided by two basic principles. First, the programs must enhance the educational mission of the college. Second, the programs must bring academic and/or professional recognition to the college and its academic programs. Faculty development programs were then linked to specific student learning outcomes by assessing how the programs facilitated the achievement of student learning outcomes.

The college faculty determined the faculty development programs should be implemented at the department level. The department chairs consult with their respective faculty and make resource allocation recommendations to the dean of the college. The resource allocation recommendations must be consistent with the college's mission. The dean informs the faculty of the college's priorities and resources will be allocated based on the agreed upon priorities.

(References available on request.)

WHY BEING DISTINCT MATTERS: THE ROLE OF BRAND POSITIONING IN MARKETING PART-TIME MBA PROGRAMS

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ABSTRACT

This research proposes that part-time MBA programs must be able to identify and utilize multiple program criteria in order to establish a distinct brand position in a highly competitive marketplace. The brand meaning negotiation process is introduced as a tool to organize the various meanings associated with a part-time program of study that arise from three sources: the marketer, individual, and social environments. Both administrators and faculty are responsible for maintaining the meanings in each environment to insure a distinctive perception of the program.

INTRODUCTION

MBA education has undergone an incredible transformation over the past few decades. In addition to an increase in the number of institutions that offer these programs of study, the programs themselves have become more specialized in order to target customer segments with distinct demands. Many of today's MBA programs not only offer a traditional program (full-time, two year) but also executive and certificate programs, as well as part-time evening and weekend alternatives. With the proliferation of graduate program options, the competitive pressure to attract a sizable cohort of quality students can be quite intense, especially in geographic areas densely populated with institutions of higher learning.

Bush, Ferrell and Thomas (1998) suggest that business schools need to take a more proactive stance in building market demand. The article's "practice-what-you-preach" message calls on B-schools to become more *strategic* in the ways they market programs of study to both actual and potential students. The resources (e.g., course offerings, technologies) are essential for attracting and retaining students; however, the *image* of the program that the institution communicates both internally and externally can also influence the student consumer. Hence, in a competitive marketplace that provides numerous options from competing institutions, as well as variety among types of programs both within and across institutions, creating a distinct position for an MBA program vis-à-vis branding might be an appropriate proactive strategy (Keller 2003).

PART-TIME MBA PROGRAMS

Part-time MBA programs continue to grow, both in terms of number of programs established and number of students enrolling in existing programs. An increase in selectivity, combined with a rise in diversity, have made part-time programs more reputable and enticing to both students and employers (Giacalone 1998). In some instances, part-time student graduates are at an advantage over full-time students, because their staggered completion dates enable them to take positions at times of the year when full-time students would not have completed their degrees. Further, part-timers often take positions that full-time students either do not consider or else turn down (Schneider 2000).

The Student Perspective

A part-time program enables the student to work toward an advanced degree while remaining employed. Although part-time graduates are less likely than their full-time counterparts to see big salary gains, part-time students compensate for this by generating income throughout their courses of study (Coolidge 1997; Schneider 2001). Unfortunately, although some employers at least partially fund or reimburse part-time study, such programs are not cheap. Further, an employee's performance in a particular class often dictates the amount of reimbursement (e.g., 100% reimbursed for an A). Taking into account such funding schemes, it is not surprising that at some institutions full-time, in-state students end up paying significantly less than their part-time counterparts (Lord 2001).

Although many part-time students are younger and single, programs have recently reported an increase of married individuals and/or individuals with family obligations. In fact, for many part-timers, the responsibilities of relationships and parenting co-exist with their academic obligations (Merritt 2001). Combine these responsibilities with the demands of coursework, and some part-timers believe they are at a distinct disadvantage. In addition, these students have less time to interact with each other, an experience deemed essential for the learning process (Coolidge 1997). Based on this information, the personal and social aspects of part-time programs

could have a direct impact on the potential student's consideration to attend.

Identifying Alternatives

One popular source for information on part-time programs is BusinessWeek Online (www.businessweek.com), which currently profiles over 280 programs. These range in size from larger programs (1300 plus students) to small, intimate ones (60-70 students). In addition to geographic location, these programs can differ on everything from tuition/fees to GMAT scores and yield (percent of accepted applicants who actually matriculate). While useful, such information is not always enough to provide a clear distinction among alternatives. Further, though it can be argued that this information bolsters the credibility of each program, the statistics fail to adequately address either the personal or social aspects of a given program, aspects that are deemed increasingly relevant for competing in a customer-oriented marketplace (Fournier, Dobscha and Mick 1998). Although institutions provide a wealth of statistical information about their part-time MBA programs, the customer is left with little information regarding the social context in which the learning occurs.

BRAND POSITIONING

Branding is one of the most useful strategic tools at the marketer's disposal, especially for purposes of distinguishing one's offering from others. Branding is often interwoven through every element of a product's marketing mix, from its design and packaging to its communication and pricing structure, and the most successful brands are easily identifiable via these marketing mix elements (Keller 2003). In today's marketplace, where the consumer is often faced with a myriad of options, the brand serves as a cue, a signal used by the firm to alert consumers that the product or service is not only of a certain quality but also personally relevant and culturally significant (Arnould, Price and Zinkhan 2004). As a result, the brand is able to link together the individual with other individuals or with specific social situations (Ligas and Cotte 1999).

The Brand Meaning Negotiation Process

Ligas and Cotte (1999) present a framework for explaining how a brand's meaning is negotiated and ultimately made sense of in the consumer marketplace. This framework suggests that a brand develops a consistent meaning as a result of information about the product/service that arises from three distinct sources: the marketer, social, and individual environments. In order for the brand to be useful as a communicating device, the information pertaining to the brand from each of these three environments must be negotiated in a way that is amenable to all those who utilize that particular brand. The firm must create a consistent and unique image, based on multiple meanings that arise from the firm (the marketer), the marketplace (the social), and the consumer (the individual).

The marketing environment. When attempting to develop a brand for its part-time MBA program, an institution should begin by asking what information is currently utilized to attract prospective students. Although it is easy to identify similar criteria at a variety of institutions, it is not likely that these institutions can all tout possessing the same mix of "bells and whistles." Thus, one element of a successful part-time MBA brand would be that its positioning relies on a deliberate combination of a number of different criteria (e.g., "We are an AACSB-accredited, wireless technology-oriented, global partnership supporter"), as opposed to only one (e.g., "We are technology-oriented"). In reality, focusing on only one element of a program could be a waste of resources. For example, a number of programs market the notion of developing "excellence." Because of the broad notion of what excellence means, many programs can utilize this descriptor; thus identifying one "key" criterion does little good in distinguishing one program from another (Bisoux 2003b).

The individual environment. Logistics is often a major concern for part-time students. Whether it be commuting from work to class or determining an acceptable distance from campus to one's home, the part-time student must seriously consider travel arrangements when determining an appropriate program to enter. In response to this need for convenience, institutions put forth a variety of initiatives to make the program of study flexible for the student. Such initiatives include scheduling either multiple sections of courses or more periodic offerings of required courses, extended office hours for both administration and faculty, and greater reliance on technology for both communication and coursework. More recent technological and infrastructure initiatives include online course opportunities, providing branch-campus and off-site classes, and devising non-traditional course schedules (e.g., half-semester classes with weekend sessions). The intention of such acts is for the program to provide the personal benefits of convenience and flexibility.

It is also important for part-time programs to tap into other personally-relevant benefits. For example, in addition to signaling physical security (e.g., "This is a safe environment"), it might be the case that the program of study also offers emotional security (e.g., "Although rigorous in coursework demands, our program realizes the student's multiple life commitments and, as a result has put in place a policy on rewriting unsatisfactorily-completed assignments"). In terms of tapping into the individual's esteem and comfort levels, perhaps the program holds regularly scheduled events/seminars (beyond coursework) that deal with issues relevant to career development and/or enhancing study skills. Such factors motivate the student to not only enter and complete the program of study but also to explore how the education relates to his/her goals.

The social environment. Relevant meaning from the social environment might be easily overlooked, because a part-time program of study limits interaction. However, part-time MBA students, like their full-time counterparts, realize the benefits of interacting with their peers. Not only does course learning take place while working with others, but the opportunity also exists to learn useful information from others' experiences. Beyond the collaborative learning and potential networking opportunities, part-time students are likely to appreciate the camaraderie and informal socializing as much as traditional full-time students. The mistake would be to assume that part-timers have so many obligations in their other roles that they are uninterested in social opportunities through the program of study. The fact that a part-timer chooses to juggle yet another role is suggestive of his/her flexibility and willingness to take on more responsibility, including the opportunity to interact.

DISCUSSION

The brand meaning negotiation process provides a framework for administrators and faculty to identify various different, important meanings that could be attributed to a particular part-time program of study. Administrators can incorporate marketer meanings with relevant individual and social meanings, in order to effectively construct and uniquely position a brand in the marketplace. Faculty would be responsible for facilitating student experiences of more individual and social meanings.

Administration's Role

An article in the November/December 2003 issue of *BizEd* suggests that it is not enough for a business school to be a recognized player in the marketplace; in addition, the most successful business schools must develop a brand identity based on being "first" or "the best" with regard to some criterion (Bisoux 2003a). The brand meaning negotiation process provides administrators with a lens to identify distinct criteria from numerous environments. By incorporating a brand positioning strategy into a part-time program's planning process, institutional decision-makers would commit serious effort and resources to establishing a unique perception for their program (Bush, Ferrell, and Thomas 1998). Focusing on only one criterion or core competency is no longer valid, because serious competitors will quickly retaliate by marketing the same or a similar message. Uniqueness comes from creatively combining criteria into a distinct image.

The Faculty's Role

Faculty members are key to the development of a distinctly positioned brand for part-time programs of study. Faculty must actively support and sustain the individual and social meanings associated with the program. They should actively engage the students on what they hope to accomplish with the degree once it is completed. For some, it might be to remain working at the same position; for others completing the degree might mean the opportunity to explore a new career path. Marketers acknowledge that customers are multifaceted, and that the accomplishment of a given goal is often seen as part of a larger "task" in one's life (Cantor and Kihlstrom 1987). In an advising capacity, this could involve something as simple as discussing with the student career and other opportunities for the future. In the classroom, providing the opportunity for more critical and reflective writing on case and model/theoretical analyses enables the student to not only address managerial issues but also comment on how his/her personal objectives relate to the issues.

Concerning the social environment, faculty need to continue developing interactive classrooms, ones in which the students work with and learn from each other. Arnould and Price (1993) explore the notion of "communitas;" group members learn from and ultimately enjoy the experience by living through it with others. From the part-time student's perspective, having the opportunity to engage and work with others who are going through the program for similar reasons/with similar backgrounds might make the experience more worthwhile. Continue to emphasize group work in part-time programs, not only because it enables these life style jugglers to meet the demands of the program, but also because it allows for more engagement and sharing of ideas.

CONCLUSION

Brand positioning is a viable strategy for institutions that are trying to market their part-time MBA programs, and the brand meaning negotiation framework is a useful tool for identifying the various meanings that arise from three environments: marketer, individual, and social. Part-time MBA programs could benefit from identifying and utilizing such meaning information, because these programs could create brands that are unique based on a number of dimensions, as opposed to on only one.

The Distance Learning Option

Although face-to-face instruction is more satisfactory, the need for convenience keeps interest in distance programs strong (Ponzurick, France, and Logar 2000). Unfortunately, issues such as failure to focus on computer and oral communication skills (Dacko 2001) and lack of consistency across different types of programs, i.e., full- versus part-time, online versus in person, often create negative perceptions of this option (Smith 2001). Current perceptions suggest that individual and social needs are not being met, thus work on brand positioning would force the issue of how to deliver both individual- and socially-oriented learning experiences.

This research provides one response to Bush, Ferrell, and Thomas' (1998) call for marketing business school education. Part-time MBA programs continue to gain prominence in the B-school curricula, and an increasing number of returning students demand such programs of study. By creating a distinct brand for the program, the business school not only develops a strategic marketing tool for attracting student consumers but also bolsters the presence of the program in the professional community.

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THE STATE OF THE MARKETING CURRICULUM: WHO'S TEACHING WHAT? HOW WILL WE NEED TO CHANGE OUR CURRICULUMS TO BEST PREPARE STUDENTS FOR FUTURE CAREERS IN MARKETING

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

PANELISTS
Gail Ball, Management Consultant
Paul Hugstad, California State University, Fullerton
Richard S. Lapidus, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
Ruby Lee, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
Alexander Nill, University of Nevada, Las Vegas.
Micol Maughan, Fort Hayes State University

In this special session, we reported the results of an analysis we are conducting pertaining to the current curriculums offered by AACSB accredited marketing departments. In the study, we collected data on the curriculums offered by the marketing departments at the 423 AACSB colleges of business located in the U.S. Issues that we were covered include: degrees offered, concentrations, required courses and elective courses.

This study highlights the trends in the curriculums of the major marketing programs in the country. It provides information on degrees offered including multidiscipline degrees, advertising degrees, etc. We reviewed concentrations offered by the AACSB member schools. With much more emphasis on relating undergraduate training to career paths it will be interesting to identify the number of schools with concentrations.

We review the required courses of the marketing departments. What are the communalities of required courses and what are the differences. Finally, we will inventory the elective courses. This will provide information pertaining to the spectrum of marketing topics being taught across the major marketing programs in the U.S.

It reports on marketing coverage of relatively new and important topics such as services marketing, Internet Marketing, and relationship marketing and more traditional topics such as pricing and retailing.
In addition, we will discuss the future of marketing curriculum issues ranging from topics that will need to be covered such as marketing ethics to the skills our students will need to be successful in the future.

This special session is of particular interest to the attendees interested in curriculum issues and particularly those attendees from schools that are in the process of reviewing, benchmarking, and revising their curriculums along with administrators responsible for providing future direction for curriculum development.

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AN EXPLORATION OF WHERE MARKETING IS TAUGHT ACROSS THE UNIVERSITY CAMPUS

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this research is to better understand where the different academic areas on the typical university campus may include marketing concepts in their undergraduate courses. The researchers examine the course catalogs of several public-supported universities in one state to determine which courses contain a marketing component and then use this information to create a classification scheme of such courses. The classification scheme with discussion may ultimately prove useful to marketing department and business college administrators for accreditation purposes, possible cross-listing of courses, course scheduling, staffing decisions, and in identifying possible elective courses for the marketing major.

INTRODUCTION

Marketing educators have long been interested in the undergraduate marketing curriculum and have published numerous papers concerning curricular issues. However, one area that has received scant research attention in the marketing education literature is that of other academic disciplines, outside of the business school, teaching marketing or marketing-related courses and concepts.

When Smart, Kelley and Conant (1999) investigated marketing education's future they noted several critical areas including decreasing enrollments in marketing programs, resource allocation issues, and a concern with the relevancy of marketing education as a business discipline. Having traditional marketing concepts and courses taught outside of the business school or marketing department has implications for each of these areas of concern. For instance, if marketing educators can reclaim students who may be taking a course that is the equivalent of principles of marketing but disguised as a different course offering in another department on campus, they might increase their enrollments and have justification for keeping their budgets intact. Furthermore, by reclaiming the students for the principles of marketing course, the educator can make the case that marketing is still relevant to not only business school students, but students from other academic disciplines as well.

Having what amounts to marketing or any other business course-of-study taught outside of the traditional college of business also has implications for accreditation by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB). AACSB's 2003 Eligibility Procedures and Standards for Business Accreditation (2004) require that any program at an institution that requires students to take 25 percent or more of their courses in "traditional business subjects" be included in the accreditation review. This requirement can have serious consequences for an institution under review by AACSB. For instance, if a department on campus such as Family and Consumer Sciences requires students to take just a few courses in traditional business subjects, whether taught in the home department or in the business school, that program would come under the Association's review, and could easily impede the accreditation effort. AACSB's requirements are actually more decisive mandating that non-business programs at an institution cannot even have the appearance through presentation in promotional materials as being business programs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Despite the importance of examining the issue of marketing or marketing-related courses or programs taught outside of the traditional marketing department or college of business, we found little published research on the subject. A review of the table of contents and abstracts, when available, for the last nine years (December 1995 to August 2004) of the Journal of Marketing Education revealed that researchers published 190 articles in that time and that 16 or approximately 8.5% of those articles dealt with curriculum issues. Several of the 16 papers dealt with integrating a particular course, topic-area, or pedagogy into the marketing curriculum (e.g., Turley and Shannon 1999, Mohr 2000, Wee, Kek and Kelley 2003), while others covered the integration of technology into the curriculum (e.g., Benbunan-Fich, Lozada, Pirog, Priluck and Wisenblit 2001; Ueltschy 2001). Additional topics covered in the 16 papers include curriculum integration (e.g., Bobbitt, Inks, Kemp and Mayo 2000;, Elam and Spotts 2004), professional training (e.g., Schibrowsky, Peltier and Boyt 2002), and program assessment (e.g., Davis,

Misra and Van Auken 2002). Several similar articles appeared in other publications (e.g., Glynn, Rajendran and Corbin 1993; Kellerman, Gordon and Hekmant 1995). Perhaps the most highly related article found in a scholarly journal concerned implementing an interdisciplinary marketing and engineering course project (McKeage, Skinner, Seymour, Donahue and Christensen 1999).

We did find evidence of the creep of marketing topics outside of traditional marketing courses in a practitioner article from Marketing News, aptly titled "Everybody's Teaching Marketing These Days" (Heckman 1999). Heckman discusses other areas where marketing is being taught within the business school. He attributes the use of marketing content in other areas to a number of factors. These include the use of technology in the marketing profession (e.g., a data mining course taught by the M.I.S. faculty that relies heavily on marketing concepts), the greater focus on customer service in all areas of business, and the fact that marketing education may be outdated in many business schools.

We also reviewed the Marketing Educators' Association (MEA) (previously Western Marketing Educators' Association--WMEA) conference proceedings since 1979 for papers discussing marketing education courses and curriculum. Results of this review were limited, identifying an area of research also lacking in the MEA (WMEA) literature.

In a content analysis of WMEA, Stern and Kelly (2001) identified 28 papers out of 633 competitive conference papers, or approximately 4 percent, which dealt with marketing education curriculum. These papers centered on the relationship with marketing curriculum and schools or colleges of business (e.g. curriculum and AACSB; curriculum and student and employer perceptions; international curriculum; technology and distance education and impact on curriculum). Only two papers broached the question concerning where marketing education undergraduate academic areas are taught on the typical university campus.

Pinney (1979) submitted a paper to the WMEA (now MEA), highlighting his concern that departments other than marketing as well as colleges other than business are offering courses and curriculum similar to those offered in marketing education. His article entitled, "The Mismarketing of Marketing as an Academic Discipline or Encroachment from Without and From Within" discussed the enrollment woes of marketing and the need for marketing educators to "market" their courses campus wide. His paper referenced areas such as hotel marketing, advertising management, and health care marketing.

Again in 1994, Pinney (1994) revisited the "mismarketing" and asked "Where have all the children gone?" This WMEA paper concluded that marketing curriculum is expansive, especially in departments of micro-economists (e.g. price theory, behavior of the firm); communications and promotion (e.g. advertising principles, broadcast sales and sales management, media planning and analysis); transportation (e.g. warehousing, logistics); and production management (inventory control, space management). "These programs appear not only to be moving into business areas in general, their major encroachment has been specifically into the area of marketing." (Pinney, 1994, p 62). Finally, Pinney (1994) hypothesized that the business community has finally recognized the important role of the marketing concept and appropriately have integrated the concept into other non-school of business areas.

Kelley (1996) asked, "What is the future of marketing education? Given the criticism and environment trends taking place, what will marketing education in the year 2005 look like?" (p.51). Reporting on some of the same themes mentioned earlier in his article with Smart and Conant (1999), he states that fewer marketing classes and faculty will be needed in 2005 as university systems reduce redundancies, as well as the requirement of diverse marketing faculty capable of integrating the other business disciplines into marketing curriculum. Perhaps this is one explanation of why many areas of academia outside of the traditional business school are now offering marketing courses. Another is the reality that marketing is so intertwined with business and non-business activities and enterprises, that the traditionally non-business disciplines cannot help but be included in marketing and management related course (e.g. resource management and marketing, fashion merchandising, construction management and marketing, etc.).

STUDY AND RESULTS

In order to investigate which academic disciplines may cover marketing courses or topics outside of traditional marketing departments and business schools, we examined the course catalogs of five publicly-supported universities within a single state. Each of the universities reviewed contains a business school or college. Furthermore, two of the universities are major research institutions, both of which offer Ph.D. degrees in business/marketing, while the other three universities investigated are so-called balanced institutions that emphasize

undergraduate education, but also require scholarly research from their faculty.

Using the university's respective catalogs a researcher reviewed each course description from each institution looking for any connection at all to marketing concepts. If the researcher felt that some connection to marketing did exist, the researcher copied the course description to another database for further review by a second researcher. The second researcher then examined the course descriptions in detail and made a determination of whether or not the course actually does contain marketing content. Table 1 summarizes the courses found which either completely offer marketing content or contain at least some marketing-related content that are taught outside of the traditional business-marketing curriculum at the five universities. Offering departments or disciplines within the university are major headings in the table, while marketing topics covered make up the sub-listings.

Several disciplines and types of courses are not included in the table because their relationship to marketing courses is well known and accepted (these include advertising and public relations courses typically found in schools/departments of journalism or communications). Furthermore, if a discipline teaches subject matter that is utilized in marketing, but is not marketing per se they are also not included (these include computer science courses such as data mining and geographical information systems courses). The exception to these rules is if the course description clearly lists the course as presenting marketing content, then it is included in the table.

Based on the data in Table 1, within the five universities studied there are at least 26 different disciplines, offering 71 different courses that contain at least some marketing content. Furthermore, the five universities offer 22 courses outside the marketing department or business school that exclusively cover marketing concepts based on their course descriptions.

CONCLUSIONS

There are several conclusions to these findings. First, as Pinney (1994) suggests, perhaps marketing is so pervasive that discussion of marketing-related concepts across the university is impossible to avoid. This may indicate that over the years, marketing educators have done their jobs well and have built the field up to an indispensable level. However, it still does not explain why marketing educators are not teaching all the marketing courses on campus.
Further reflection on the findings may indicate that in many of the cases listed in the table, marketing at best receives coverage in only a small portion of any one class and that it would be inefficient for students from other areas to take a complete marketing course to gain the small amount of knowledge they need. This conclusion indicates that marketing educators may do well to consider other forms of pedagogy besides the quarter-long or semester-long course. Perhaps a short 3-4 course-meeting marketing seminar needs offering to students through other academic disciplines.

Another approach is for marketing educators to offer courses tailored to the needs of disciplines outside the business school. For instance, there are several cases listed in the table where students who will eventually find themselves in a professional services setting take courses with marketing content in order to learn how to market service businesses. In this case, the marketing educator may be wise to begin offering a course in professional service marketing that could cut across the various disciplines. However, in some cases the marketing knowledge students need in areas outside the business school may be so specialized that the typical marketing professor would be hard pressed to serve the students' particular needs in a generalized or even specialized marketing course. Team teaching, with the marketing professor forming an alliance with a professor from the specialized area may be a solution in some such cases.

A final possibility is for the marketing educator to better market their own courses so that they become the standard of marketing education on campus and so marketing from the marketing educators becomes an indispensable subject for more students.

However, adding courses or revising curriculums may not be feasible when resource allocation, staffing, class size, and accreditation factors are considered. Based on the pervasiveness of marketing concepts and courses offered outside of the marketing department, marketing educators and department administrators are wise to examine the issue on their own campuses to decide what the best course of action is for their school. Such practices may be a problem at some schools, while at other schools the issue may present an opportunity for growth and program enhancement.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Several avenues present themselves for further research in this area. First, the current study needs expanding to cover a wider range of universities in terms of geographic location, size, and type of school. Furthermore, marketing educators may need a more careful detailing of outside course use of marketing concepts. Perhaps a large-scale analysis of syllabi, instead of the general-level analysis reported here would provide greater information for the marketing educator. In future studies on the topic, it may also be useful to include information about what other disciplines on campus require students to take marketing courses offered through the business school and compare those disciplines to those that offer their own courses with marketing content. An interesting study suggested by a reviewer of this paper is to administer standardized tests covering core-marketing concepts to students across one or more campuses who have taken courses with marketing content both within and outside of the business school to determine if the students are learning the same material and have similar levels of marketing knowledge. Lastly, marketing educators should also look outside of the marketing area to other business disciplines to see if they deal with the same issue and look for possible reactions and outcomes.

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TABLE 1
Marketing Topics Taught Outside the Marketing Curriculum
Shown by Academic Unit Teaching the Class

Administrative Management
Introduction to Business

Agricultural and Resource Economics
*Advanced Marketing
*Agribusiness Management and Marketing
*International Marketing (Food and Fiber)
*Marketing (Agriculture)

American Studies
Exploration of Advertising

Animal Sciences
Marketing (sheep and swine)

Apparel / Fashion Merchandising
*Buying
Consumer Behavior
International Retailing
Marketing (Furniture)
Merchandising
Product Development
Trend Analysis

Art / Graphic Design
Consumer Behavior
Market Analysis
Marketing Strategy

Communications
Marketing (Conferences)

Construction Management
Marketing (Real Estate)
Marketing (Firm Management)

Dental Hygiene
Marketing (Practice Management)

Education Administration
*Marketing of Sports Events and Programs

Engineering
*International Marketing
Market-Driven Strategies
*Marketing (Civil)
*Marketing (Forest Products)
Marketing Research

Family and Consumer Science
Consumer Awareness / Behavior
Marketing (Food Service)

Food Sciences
Marketing (Food Processing)
Marketing (Food Service)

Health Education
Marketing Campaigns

Health Services Administration
Marketing (Managed Care)

Human Development
Consumer Issues
Family and Consumer Behavior

Horticulture
Exploration of Advertising

Leisure Studies, Hospitality, Recreation and Tourism
Consumer Behavior (Gambling)
Consumer Lifestyle (Leisure)
Hospitality Management
Marketing (Camp Administration)
Marketing (Catering)
Marketing (Cruise Lines)
Marketing (Gambling)
*Marketing (Hospitality Services)
Marketing (Tourism)
Marketing (Wine)
*Marketing Strategy and Development
*Promotion

Leisure Studies, Hospitality, Recreation and Tourism
Restaurant Management and Marketing
Sales and Advertising

Marketing Education
*Advertising
*Advertising and Sales Promotion
*E-Commerce (Retailing)
*Education (Marketing)
Marketing (Music Business)
*Retail Buying
*Retail Management
*Retailing (Principles)
*Selling
*Visual Merchandising

Molecular Biosciences
Marketing (Bio-tech)

Natural Resource Sciences
Marketing (Wood)

Pharmacy
Marketing (Pharmacies)

Public Affairs
Non-Profit Marketing

Soil Sciences
Marketing (Family Farms)
Marketing (Processed Foods)

Theater and Film
Channels of Distribution (TV and Films)
Marketing
*Promotion (Broadcast and Cable)

Physical Education, Health, and Recreation
Consumer Behavior
Channels of Distribution
Selling

* indicates a complete class in the listed area

PLAGIARISM CHECK AS LEARNING EXPERIENCE

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ABSTRACT

Plagiarism detection services, such as turnitin.com, can help professors identify unreferenced copying and, perhaps more important, deter students from even attempting to take credit for the work of another. The services can also help professors teach students about proper acknowledgement practice. The present paper describes one professor's experience with turnitin.com. The service was used as an opportunity to teach students about good scholarship, rather than as a club with which to threaten and punish them.

INTRODUCTION

Speeches of presidents (of the country, of corporations, of universities) are ghost written, as are many books. Professors' names are listed as co-author of scholarly papers though little, if any, actual contribution was made by the person whose name was added. Memos, proposals, and reports are written by subordinates while administrators and managers put their names on the work. Though seldom described using the p-word, Martin (1994, pp. 38-41) dubs this form of taking credit for the work of others "institutionalized plagiarism." Its existence makes it difficult to answer the student who says, "If the president (or professor or boss) can do it, why can't I?" Competitive plagiarism, on the other hand, as Martin calls it, occurs in an academic or intellectual (rather than institutional or bureaucratic) context in which the writer is vying for status and advancement by taking credit for ideas based on individual effort. Thus, the student, who may justifiably not be convinced by this distinction, or by mumblings from the professor about expectations and generally accepted practice, must do more than the president.

Yet moralistic denunciations and punishments do not seem warranted for students who, for example, paraphrase poorly or even copy word for word from the Internet. Students, Martin argues, "simply do not know or understand proper acknowledgement practice . . . [They] are apprentices, and some of them learn the scholarly trade slowly" (p. 37). It would seem to follow, then, that plagiarism checking, say, through an Internet-based plagiarism detection service, such as turnitin.com, should be viewed as a learning experience for the student, rather than as an opportunity to turn students over to an Office of Judicial Affairs for possible probation or expulsion. The author of this paper views plagiarism checking in precisely this manner, as a teaching and learning experience, and for two years has been using turnitin.com to detect competitive plagiarism in his International Marketing course. The present paper describes the results of one professor's ongoing evaluation of turnitin.com as both a detector and preventer of plagiarism and, more importantly, as a vehicle by which to teach students about good acknowledgement practice.

INTERNET PLAGIARISM

Plagiarism of research papers in marketing courses, of course, is not new, but the arrival of the Internet has posed new challenges for maintaining and enforcing academic integrity in the classroom. The most common type of Internet plagiarism, because it is so easy to do, is "cut and paste," that is, the process of selecting a few sentences from a source, then copying and pasting them without quotation marks or citation in the final paper. In a 1999 survey, McCabe (2001a, 2001b) found between 10% and 20% of college students admitting to such behavior, with nearly half not considering the act to be serious cheating. Between 5% and 10% have admitted to downloading papers from the Internet. In a 2003 survey, 38% of students admitted to cut and paste plagiarism with 44% not considering it a serious issue (Rutgers, the State University of New Jersey 2003). The reasons for such cheating are procrastination and a variety of pressures—to pass, for example, or to get good grades, or to succeed, or because of too much work; observation of peer behavior is a major influence on the decision to cheat (McCabe 2001a, 2001b; McCabe, Trevino, and Butterfield 2001).

The amount of plagiarism, however, generated from the Internet apparently is not greater than that generated from printed sources. Scanlon and Neumann (2002, p. 379) found 24.5% of students to have admitted to sometimes, very frequently, or often committing cut and paste plagiarism, whereas 28.6% admitted to doing the same from printed texts. This seems to indicate that the advent of the Internet has not led to an increase in plagiarism. Indeed, McCabe (2001b) asserts that only 6% of Internet plagiarizers are new cheaters. Perception is everything, though: 87.7% of students in the Scanlon and Neumann study think their peers practice cut and paste. McCabe (2001a), who has done extensive work with

both high school and college students on a wide variety of cheating issues, points out that cut and paste plagiarism is more widespread among high school than college students, 52% to 10%, because high school students have not yet fully grasped the meaning and purpose of citation. In fact, "many of them," he says, "are developing an attitude that anything on the Internet is public domain, and they're not seeing copying as cheating" (quoted in Kellogg 2002, p. A44). This attitude also seems to be prevalent among college students who cut and paste (see Labi 2004).

THE PLAGIARISM CHECKING SERVICE

Plagiarism detection services use proprietary algorithms to compare student papers to source documents on the World-Wide Web. A match of phrases, sentences, or paragraphs from an Internet source are then highlighted in the student paper and an originality report is generated by producing a score based on percentage of similarity between the student paper and source documents. The Internet sources are also identified so that the professor may make side-by-side comparisons. Turnitin.com was the first such service to be founded, in 1996. Its direct competitor is MyDropBox.com (formerly plagiserve.com), founded in 1999. The present paper is based on the author's experience with turnitin.com.

Turnitin.com boasts access to three databases: 4.5 billion pages of Internet documents, millions of published works, and millions of previously submitted high school and college papers (Turnitin.com (a)). It creates a digital fingerprint of the student paper, then samples the archives based on a "dimensional reduction" technique that "automatically group[s] papers by categories and specific mathematical relationships" (Turnitin.com (b)). In addition to matching exact text, the service can also detect poor paraphrasing by the student, which usually means that a few words are substituted here and there for the actual content; turnitin.com will highlight the exact text from the source, revealing the substituted words unhighlighted. The same process will reveal what turnitin.com calls sentence substitution, wherein one or two sentences may be written by the student, but the remainder of the paragraph has been cribbed. Custom research papers—original papers especially ghost written for the student—will not be detected. Turnitin.com reports that less than one percent of papers submitted to its service are copied entirely from one source (Turnitin.com (c)).

LEGAL ISSUES

Plagiarism detection services, however, are not without controversy. A student at McGill University in Montreal refused to submit his papers to turnitin.com and a faculty senate committee supported him (Grinberg 2004). Essentially, there are three issues that apply here under U. S. law: the presumption of guilt, that is, submitting, or forcing students to submit, papers without the student's prior consent; the violation of the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA); and the infringement of student copyrights to their papers. Turnitin.com denies all of these criticisms (Turnitin.com (d)).

Concerning the first issue, students, when attending a school or university, agree to an implied license that enables the instructor to evaluate their work, which may include making copies of papers to give to an assistant or librarian to check for authenticity; turnitin.com is just another "assistant." FERPA violations only apply to giving out identifying information from a student's record; however, an ungraded paper, the courts have ruled, is not yet a part of the student's record and only the instructor can identify the author of a paper submitted to turnitin.com. Names are never released by the service even though FERPA allows schools to do so after the grades have been recorded, provided annual notice is given to students. Copyright infringement is probably the most serious charge, because the submitted papers are stored for subsequent plagiarism checking and for making a profit. Turnitin.com responds by saying that only a digital fingerprint, "a digital code, which relays . . . unprotectable factual information," is archived and that the marketable value of the student paper is not in any way diminished by its retention. In fact, its marketability, when shown to be completely original by the service, is likely enhanced (turnitin.com (d), pp. 6-8). Such use of student papers, turnitin.com argues, falls well within the fair-use provision of U. S. Copyright Law.

EVALUATION

Turnitin.com was made available as a test to faculty of the California State University during the spring of 2002. It was adopted system-wide in the fall. At that time, the author began using turnitin.com in his International Marketing course and has used it now for five quarters.

The Assignment

The assignment that students must complete is an adaptation of the country notebook in Cateora and Graham's textbook *International Marketing* (2005, pp. 591-600). The country notebook consists of four parts: cultural analysis, economic analysis, market audit and competitive market analysis, and preliminary marketing plan. Students conduct extensive

secondary data searches in order to describe the cultural, economic, and market conditions of a country they have chosen, then produce a marketing plan for distributing a specific product in that country. The country notebook is a major undertaking for ten-week quarters, especially when the project, as required by the present author, is an individual, rather than group, assignment and the classes usually consist of 40 students. To cope with these requirements, the author combined the third and fourth parts of Cateora and Graham's country notebook and relegated them to extra credit, due on the day of the final exam. The cultural and economic analyses were split into two separate papers with draft, peer review, and final copy required for each.

The rationale for separate papers and for the draft-and-peer-review process comes from the writing-across-the-curriculum movement that began in England in the 1960s and spread throughout the United States in the 1970s and '80s (Boland 1989). The premise of writing across the curriculum is that writing should be at the center of learning in all disciplines. To facilitate the teaching of writing in all disciplines, and to encourage professors to do so, a large number of techniques have been developed and tested. Among the suggestions are assignments that are shorter than normal, but more of them, as well as the draft-and-peer-review process (Odell 1980; Herrington 1981).

The author's assignment is to have the students write two two-and-a-half page papers, the cultural and economic analyses of their chosen country (minimums: one-and-one-half spacing, ten-point type, one-inch margins). The draft of each paper is peer reviewed in class one week before final copy is due. After revisions are made to the draft, students are instructed to submit their papers to turnitin.com for a plagiarism check. Final copy is handed in for grading, along with the draft, peer review, and originality report from turnitin.com. The latter are required to prove that the student complied with the assignment, but they are not graded.

The syllabus and class discussions leading up to the first submission to turnitin.com emphasize that this process should be viewed as a learning experience, not as a punishment or prior assumption of guilt. Indeed, the author admits to the students that he has submitted three of his own papers to the service (and was pleased to receive a 0% similarity score) and stresses that the service essentially is a dumb computer that is looking for matching words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. For example, on one of the author's papers, turnitin.com highlighted the clause "what we would like to achieve in the future," which could appear in any number of papers and not indicate plagiarism. The dumb computer, the author tells his students, will also highlight properly quoted and cited material. Thus, a certain amount of flakiness is to be expected. Additional discussions focus on the nature of proper citation and good acknowledgement practice. The author's goal throughout the course is to help students, not to threaten or punish them.

Turnitin.com's originality report issues a similarity index based on a five-point scale, either numerical or color-coded (the student and professor can choose either). The professor can access all papers online and view the originality reports and highlighted passages. The scale reads as follows: 1 (blue), fewer than 20 matching words; 2 (green), 0 - 24% matching text; 3 (orange), 25 - 49% matching text; 4 (yellow), 50 - 74% matching text; and 5 (red), 75-100% matching text. The author's syllabus states that a score of 3 (orange) or above means the paper should be further reworked. The author also tries to monitor submissions before the due date and email students, especially those with high scores, with suggestions for improvement. (The author does not always succeed in this task, unfortunately.)

Impressions

Because data for the country notebook assignment is almost entirely secondary (occasionally, a student will interview a national) and, today, comes almost entirely from the Internet, the arrival of plagiarism checking services, such as turnitin.com, was viewed by this author as a godsend. Prior to the use of turnitin.com, the author was certain that papers were being recycled and that large chunks of text were taken unacknowledged from the Internet. Lack of a database of past papers and time to submit a sentence or two to a search engine, such as google.com, to look for Internet sources made it impossible to check for plagiarism. After using turnitin.com for two years, the author is now just as certain that paper recycling has almost completely disappeared. The same can be said for the purchased (but not custom written) papers. The use of turnitin.com seems to stop most hard-core cheaters from even trying to pass off the work of others as their own. (However, see below.)

What comes across to the author after five quarters' use of turnitin.com is that a significant minority of upper-division college students do not understand how to do good research, especially what needs to be referenced and how to do so. Perhaps some students are not trying to understand, but when a student innocently asks, "It's just a fact. Why does literacy rate need to be referenced?," or says, "I thought only what

I put in quotation marks had to be referenced," it is difficult to conclude that this is an act. As McCabe said above, it does seem that some students today are viewing information available on the Internet as in the public domain.

The most common errors committed by students and revealed by use of turnitin.com range from no reference to poor paraphrasing to excessive quoting of referenced material. Lack of reference in some cases means the student provided only a bibliography. Poor paraphrasing usually includes word and sentence substitution. And excessive quoting is properly referenced, but little or no original writing by the student is present.

Data

Turnitin.com makes available modest statistics for each assignment, based on a similarity index received on the originality reports. Table 1 summarizes these findings for the five quarters in which the service was used. It should be pointed out immediately

TABLE 4

The draft-and-peer-review process used for the Country Notebook papers was a valuable learning experience. Why?	Count	Pct
It helped me correct mistakes, see what was overlooked, gave me a chance to edit	14	41.2
Good to get a different point of view	11	32.4
I enjoyed my peers' papers	4	11.8
Good to get ideas for new material	1	2.9
It showed me that people do different kinds of research	1	2.9
I could learn what others found interesting about my country	1	2.9
It kept me from procrastinating	1	2.9
It helped somewhat	1	2.9
	34	100.0

TABLE 5

The draft-and-peer-review process used for the Country Notebook papers was not a valuable learning experience. Why not?	Count	Pct
I knew what I was missing, didn't need someone to tell me that	4	44.4
Professor's evaluation and criticisms are more effective	2	22.2
No help, the reviewer wanted to change my paper to the way he or she would write it	1	11.1
Didn't help me	1	11.1
Not taken seriously if done by a friend	1	11.1
	9	100.0

that turnitin.com upgraded its software in 2003 to provide more rigorous matches of text. Table 1 shows a dramatic shift between the winter and spring quarters of 2003 in the number of students who had similarity indexes of fewer than 20 words and those who had 0-24% matching text. This does not indicate a sudden decline in academic integrity on the part of international marketing students; rather, it reflects the software upgrade. In the author's opinion, the criterion of fewer than 20 matching words is extreme, considering the "flakiness" of the "dumb computer" to highlight isolated words and phrases, as well as references, especially URL codes, that may be sufficient to push the student's score into the second (green) category.

Papers in the highest two categories (50-74% and 75-100% matching text) typically had several large chunks of unacknowledged cut-and-paste text. One student in particular, after an email from the author, did quite a good rewrite. Two papers in the red zone (75-100%) were recycled from the author's previous classes. This last usually drew a stern email threatening failure of the course unless an original paper was submitted by some specified date (four or five days from the date of the email). One student produced a reasonably good paper that passed the turnitin.com test; she was also a good (3.00) student. The other had submitted his paper to turnitin.com under a bogus email address and disappeared from class.

Because the similarity index is based on word count—number of highlighted words divided by the total in the paper—turnitin.com provides a word count for each student's paper on the originality report. For the winter quarter of 2003, the author calculated a Pearson correlation coefficient between word count of the cultural analysis paper and student grade. Letter grades are assigned to the papers, and for purposes of this calculation, the letter grades were converted to the 4.00 system (A = 4.000, A- = 3.667, etc.). The Pearson correlation coefficient was a positive .67 (n = 35). It must be emphasized, of course, that number of words in, or length of, many kinds of papers is not the proper criterion for grading. In the country notebook, however, thoroughness of research is what students are told will be the standard. The correlation coefficient seems to uphold this relationship. Indeed, "A" papers include a remarkable amount of information—as many as 1500 words—in two-and-one-half pages.

After completing the final exam during the spring quarter of 2004, students were asked to respond to a brief, anonymous questionnaire (n = 42) that was analyzed well after the final grades were recorded. Two questions compared student perceptions of their understanding of the nature of plagiarism before and at the conclusion of the author's course. A five-point scale ranging from "High" (5) to "Low" (1) understanding was used. The mean score for the "before" meas-

ure was 4.50 and the "after" was 4.81. A paired samples t-test was significant at p = .005 (t = -2.949, s = 0.690). While many limitations to this finding can be mentioned, the most interesting interpretation is that despite the likelihood that some students, upon entering the course, already understood the nature of plagiarism, the test found a significant difference between the two measures. It seems to confirm the author's suspicion of need to teach good acknowledgement practice.

Two additional questions, using a five-point Likert-type agree-disagree scale (with "strongly agree" being 5), were asked. The first asked students to indicate extent of agreement or disagreement with a statement that said submitting papers to turnitin.com was a valuable learning experience. The second asserted that the draft-and-peer-review process was a valuable learning experience. Both questions asked the follow-up, open-ended questions: why or why not? The mean of the first was 3.69 and of the second 3.81. A paired samples t-test was not significant—there was no reason to expect it to be. A moderate inverse correlation, though, was found between the first question and the before measure of understanding of the nature of plagiarism. It was -.31. The interpretation would be: the lower the understanding of the nature of plagiarism before taking the author's course, the greater the use of turnitin.com was a learning experience (p = .001).

The most valuable and enriching findings, as usually occurs when asking open-ended questions, are to be found in answers to the "why or why not?" questions. Tables 2, 3, 3A, 4, and 5 summarize these findings. (Counts do not add to sample size because of multiple responses.) Corresponding with the difference in mean scores between use of turnitin.com and the draft-and-peer-review process, students by a slight margin seem to have had a better experience with the latter than the former. Especially pleasing to the author are the comments in Table 2 about the value of turnitin.com: "made me do better research," "put in my own words," "fix problems," "teaches honesty," etc. A significant number of students, in other words, found the use of turnitin.com to be valuable. On the negative side, in Table 3, some students who know how to cite properly were indignant about having to go through the process.

Table 3A lists the comments of three students that are quite similar and, at the same time, disturbing. They possibly capture the essence of what the significant minority, who do not understand what good research and acknowledgement practice are, think. "It's just facts. It can't be original. Of course it's going to look like plagiarism." An unstated premise here is

TABLE 2

Submitting my Country Notebook papers to turnitin.com was a valuable learning experience. Why?	Count	Pct
It helped, gave me valuable information, was good to see 3rd party evaluation	8	25.0
It made me do better research, cite sources, put in my own words	8	25.0
It helped me to avoid plagiarism, enabled me to fix problems	5	15.6
It teaches honesty, it let me know how well I paraphrased	3	9.4
I learned how much came from other sources, wondered if I was citing too little or too much	3	9.4
It made clear how easily plagiarism is done and noticed	2	6.3
It was okay	2	6.3
It was fair	1	3.1
	32	100.0

TABLE 3

Submitting my Country Notebook papers to turnitin.com was not a valuable learning experience. Why not?	Count	Pct
Just data and facts were highlighted, common phrases; should do the whole paper	3	27.3
Didn't help, didn't learn anything; it's just for professors	2	18.2
I don't plagiarize	2	18.2
Why do it? Should know how to cite	1	9.1
Learned only that it exists; how could it have been a learning experience?	1	9.1
Everything in quotes came back in red	1	9.1
Database not yet large or strong enough	1	9.1
	11	100.0

TABLE 3A

Comments Requiring Special Comment
Research papers are standard; can't help repeating information clearly an concisely
Information from other sources, never my idea - good for English cl
Notebook all facts from somewhere, so naturally it's going to look like pla

that facts on the Internet are public domain. The fundamental error in this way of thinking is to believe that the process of reporting facts, by its very nature, because someone else has identified the facts first, cannot be original. The challenge to instructors, though, is to correct this thinking by pointing out, for example, that even newspaper reporters, who often report facts identified by others, must still write their own stories, in their own words.

Tables 4 and 5 indicate a general appreciation of the peer review process. The author, who has used this technique for improving papers for many years, has found it to be successful in producing better papers than when the technique is not used. Turnitin.com now provides an electronic version of peer review, wherein students, as assigned by the instructor, can access other students' papers for constructive comment. The author, however, has not yet explored this form of peer review.

CONCLUSION

Electronic detection services are not a panacea for instructor doubts about the authenticity of student papers. They are, nevertheless, a powerful assistant in helping maintain academic integrity. More importantly, as demonstrated here, they can become valuable tools for teaching the meaning of good acknowl-

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TABLE 5

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No help, the reviewer wanted to change my paper to the way he or she would write it	1	11.1
Didn't help me	1	11.1
Not taken seriously if done by a friend	1	11.1
	9	100.0

edgement practice. Indeed, turnitin.com, at the instructor's option, will now overwrite originality reports until the due date of the paper; this means that students can re-submit their papers after making corrections without receiving a red zone similarity index (because, without this feature, the re-submit would match at nearly 100% the first submission). This feature, not available for the two years of use discussed in this paper, can only enhance the learning experience of students who sincerely want to learn what good research is.

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STUDENT DESIGNED CODES OF ETHICS AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON GROUP DEVELOPMENT AND PROCESSES

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ABSTRACT

This paper evaluates the impact of student-designed codes of ethics on group development and processes. Using a grounded theory approach (Patton 2002), we employ a variety of qualitative and quantitative research techniques in multiple contexts. Based on our results, we theorize that codes of ethics help groups develop at a faster rate. Further, we theorize that norming (Tuckman & Jensen 1977) is completed more effectively and that the storming (Tuckman & Jensen 1977) phase may be shortened or bypassed. Suggestions for future research with group-designed codes of ethics are presented.

INTRODUCTION

Ethics is one of today's important topics, and as such, ethics education appears to be receiving considerable attention as well. As more schools incorporate an ethics component into their curriculum, faculty are faced with the task of integrating ethics education into their curriculum. This can be accomplished in many ways; lecture material, case studies, exercises, video tapes, outside reading, and in-class discussions to name a few. The creation of a classroom or group code of ethics can be used as well (Buff & Yonkers 2004). Originally designed and implemented in courses with the intent of improving ethics education, it was noted that the dynamics of group work appeared to be influenced by both the actual document and the process of creating the document as well. Specifically, these student-designed codes of ethics seem to affect the way that group members interact. Thus, anecdotally, student-designed codes of ethics seemingly influence group processes. As more business schools incorporate group and team projects into the curriculum and more companies rely on functional teams in the workplace, it is important to understand how group work experiences may be improved.

Collaborative work accomplished through the use of group projects can be beneficial to both student and instructor. For the student, a group project affords one the opportunity to collaborate with peers, working together towards a common goal, assigning tasks, and moving the group forward towards successful completion of the task. From an instructor's perspective, a project of significant substance can be assigned, necessitating multitasking, group-decision making, individual decision-making and ongoing communication and interaction. The use of a group project allows for the development or enhancement of small group interaction skills. These skills are especially valuable in a work environment and are an important learning outcome objective of many upper level business courses. Yet, for all its benefits, group work can also present some challenges that may result in the overall group experience not being as positive and rewarding as intended. Personality conflicts between group members may interfere with group communication and performance. There may be differences in the goals that individual team members' hold, especially as the school environment and workplace become more diverse. Additionally, there may be significant differences in ability and motivation. Members need to feel comfortable communicating their ideas and opinions and moving towards identification and completion of common goals. Small group research suggests that there must be consensus on task allocation and a sense of confidence that each member will do their fair share in order for teams to be effective (Barker, Abrams, Tiyaamornwong, Seibold, Duggan, Park, & Sebastian 2000).

We see an opportunity for codes of ethics to be used to improve the development and performance of student work groups. Thus, this study combines previous research in the area of group work and codes of ethics. Specifically, it seeks to assess the usefulness of group-designed codes of ethics for enhancing the development and processes of student work teams. Many associations, organizations, high schools, and universities have developed codes of ethics to guide the behavior of their members or employees. However, these codes usually are developed and implemented from the top down. We will be evaluating codes of ethics, generated by the groups themselves, to determine if these self-designed rules improve the group process needed for productive groups.

BACKGROUND

Williams, Beard, and Rymer (1991) summarize the many benefits of team projects and offer supporting perspectives from educational research. They define comprehensiveness, realism, communication skills, group skills, technical skills, and interest and motivation as conventional benefits, adding that team work also allows for cooperative learning, accommodation of diverse learning styles, peer modeling, multicultural experiences, and acculturation to marketing (Williams, Beard, and Rymer 1991), as some of the benefits of group work.

A vital component to successful group work is individual accountability. In fact, Mesch (1991) cites it as critical to cooperative learning techniques. Individuals must be held accountable to the group. Evaluating individual members facilitates team performance, encourages equal and full participation, and spurs the team to work to capacity with the intent of achieving team goals (Brooks and Ammon 2003; Williams, Beard, and Rymer 1991). Without some type of recognized accountability there may be social loafing, free riding, behaviors to avoid the sucker effect, withdrawing, "ganging up on the task," each of which contribute to potential group process loss (Brooks and Ammons 2003; Houldsworth & Mathews 2000; Bacon, Stewart, and Silver 1999; Bacon, Stewart, and Stewart-Belle 1998; Maranto and Gresham 1998; Strong and Anderson 1990).

Group projects used in an academic setting may better prepare students for the group work they will likely encounter in the workforce. Mello (1993) cites the growing amount of organizational decision-making that is being made within the context of the group. Industry focuses on the attainment of corporate goals (Houldsworth & Mathews 2000), with secondary focus on the attainment of individual goals. Saavedra and Van Dyne (1999) report that "work groups answer to three masters: (1) the organization and its emphasis on outputs, (2) the group and its need for relational development, and (3) group members and their personal interests, as well as the costs and rewards of group membership (p.105)." In their research with work groups, Moreland and Levine (2001) developed a model based on evaluation, commitment and role transition. They identified the factors that the group will develop to evaluate individual members. These include individual contributions and the group's assessment standards for each individual's performance; normative expectations; and the gap between an individual's expected and actual performance. This can be extended to academic work groups. In addition, small groups performing in an academic setting must learn to balance the demands of the professor, the group, and the individual. Importantly, as group members work together to solve an academic project or exercise, they are developing or further refining skills that they will take into the workplace.

Ngeow (1998) presents five attributes of group learning: (1) shared learning goals and outcomes form the basis of a group learning task, (2) behaving cooperatively involves trust-building, joint planning, and an understanding of team support conduct, (3) small group learning occurs in groups of 3-5 members, (4) positive interdependence is formed through mutual goal-setting, and (5) individual accountability, commitment to the task and one's role, are expected of students (p.2). Individual skills and abilities also contribute to group success. Specific social skills required in an effectively functioning group include "the ability to control progress through the tasks, the skills to manage competition and conflict, the ability to modify and use different viewpoints as well as the willingness to give mutual support (Cohen 1994, p.5)." In fact, Bastick (1999) acknowledges that problems associated with assessing an individual's contribution to group work have unfavorably impacted the implementation and use of this method. Inequitable contribution, regardless of the reason, means that members of the group learn less than if they had to do the project on their own (Williams, Beard, & Rymer 1991). Thus for group learning to be successful, a number of conditions associated with the project, the group, and the individual must be met.

Tuckman and Jensen (1977) identified five stages of group development: forming, norming, storming, performing, and adjourning. In his seminal work, Tuckman (as cited in Tuckman and Jensen 1977) developed a four-stage model that he proposed all groups would pass through. His model however did not indicate what triggers a group to pass from one stage to the next, nor how long a group would be in each stage. In the subsequent five-stage model (Tuckman and Jensen 1977), the authors conclude that all stages, especially norming (setting group processes) and storming (conflict phase), may be skipped. It is possible, therefore, that there may be a mechanism to create a trigger to help a group pass from one stage to the next or to skip a stage. A code of ethics for example, where groups are developing their norms, may allow them to go through the norming stage of the process quicker as the code provides a framework to work through that stage. Further, a group that successfully completes the norming stage with a code of ethics may be able to skip the storming stage as lines of communication are

open, and group expectations and recourse are established.

Historically, codes of ethics have been used to outline an institution's or association's expectations for ethical behavior. Honor codes have been implemented in colleges, universities, and high schools (RedEye 2003; Broussard and Golson 2000; McCabe, Trevino, and Butterfield 1999; Carroll 1993). The intent of honor codes is to lower the levels of academic dishonesty by clarifying expectations and definitions of cheating behavior (McCabe, Trevino, and Butterfield 1999). Organizations and professional associations have recognized the importance of codes of ethics to promote the behavior and values that they deem essential for their business (Kidwell 2001; McDonnell 1998; Harrington 1996; Peterson 1996). Like honor codes, corporate codes of ethics are also used to modify behavior "by impacting the decision-making processes of the employee. Corporate codes of ethics clarify responsibility and, in doing so, deter unethical behavior (Harrington 1996, p.258)."

Earlier research (Buff & Yonkers 2004) with group codes of ethics extended Kidwell's (2001) research and focused directly on the classroom experience, with the classroom or group serving as the students' workplace. The results of this initial research, in which we specifically focus on the use of codes of ethics as an ethics teaching tool, suggested that group designed codes of ethics not only effectively reinforced ethics content but, appeared to help in group development and process performance.

THE CURRENT RESEARCH

With this anecdotal evidence, we wanted to explore how the codes of ethics affected group development and performance. Using a grounded theory approach (Patton 2002), we employ a variety of qualitative and quantitative research techniques in multiple contexts, with the understanding that based on these findings, we would then be able to design a more controlled study of the impact of codes of ethics on group development and processes. Thus, the current research deals with developing the grounded theory.

We reviewed the group processes and performance for two upper-level consumer behavior classes, one upper-level retailing class, four lower-level (generally freshmen) business communications classes, and three upper-level international marketing classes, three domestic and one abroad. There were various forms of information, including course evaluations, submitted group projects, group codes of ethics, in-class observation of groups, and informal oral feedback to the professor, that were collected for each class. These were reviewed for common themes that could be used to determine how codes of ethics affect group development and processes.

In each of these classes, there was a major group project assigned. Generally these projects included a written report and oral presentation. There were differences in how students were assigned to groups. In the retailing class, students were able to self select their teammates. In the other classes, students were assigned to a group for completion of a major course project, sometimes randomly, sometimes based on student schedule. With the exception of two international marketing classes, one of the first tasks that each group performed was designing a group code of ethics. The two international marketing classes were assigned the code of ethics class mid-way through the semester, after the group had been functioning for a while. The task was generally completed during one of the groups' first meetings. A short discussion of ethics and group work generally preceded the development of the group codes of ethics.

The goals of this assignment were twofold. They included:

(1) To reinforce concepts that students have been exposed to in previous classes, namely ethics, social responsibility, and code of ethics; and,
(2) To improve group interaction and functioning by allowing students to define group expectations and sanctions themselves.

Student groups designed a code of ethics that they would abide by. As requested by the professor, members signed the code to verify their acceptance of the expectations and sanctions. As this was generally completed fairly early in the semester, groups had no significant experience of working together before completing the code of ethics.

RESULTS

A total of 48 group codes of ethics were collected over a period of two semesters. A review of the content in each code of ethics revealed some consistencies. Most identified the expectations for how work would be assigned, how communication and decision making was expected to occur, expectations regarding meeting attendance and level of preparedness, expectations for task performance, and clear guidelines for recourse and enforcement. All of these are indications of norming and group socialization.

At the completion of the course, students were given an end of semester questionnaire that contained a few questions about the codes of ethics, to assess the students' perceptions on the codes as ethics teaching tools. In the consumer behavior classes, two business communication classes, and two international marketing classes, students were asked a very general question about how helpful the code of ethics was in guiding the performance of their group. Twenty-nine percent indicated it was not helpful, fifty-five percent indicated it was somewhat helpful, and sixteen percent indicated it was extremely helpful. Of the business communication students, 90% indicated that the group functioned well, while international marketing students only had 64% indicate that they functioned well as a team. Students were also given an open-ended question that asked them to comment on the usefulness of the group code of ethics. The results here were very mixed with some groups relying on their codes and others not referring to them. Some students indicated that they did not use the code because the group "did not experience any major problems." One student noted that the group "did not follow it at all...should be reinforced by all groups in future...demand it of students." Yet another student wrote "it was useful because it mandated the rules the group abided by. More useful because the group made up the code of ethics together, so no one could be taken advantage of."

Based on the first semester results, we wondered whether the codes of ethics allowed groups to build a certain level of trust very early on in the group formation process, perhaps a level of trust generally not achieved as early without some formal means of outlining group expectations and sanctions. In the end of semester questionnaire for a second semester class we asked three more focused questions on group trust and the impact of the code of ethics. Each was measured on a five point Likert scale, with "1" indicating "Strongly Disagree" and "5" indicating "Strongly Agree." In terms of whether the codes of ethics improved communications, 32% indicated "Strongly Agree" whereas 14% selected "Strongly Disagree." With regard to the code of ethics resulting in improved trust within the group, 26% of students strongly agreed while 13% strongly disagreed. Finally, when asked it the code of ethics provided direction to the group, 22% strongly agreed whereas 13% strongly disagreed.

One international marketing group and two business communication groups participated in a modified focus group to discuss the usefulness of the code of ethics. Their responses were similar to the open-ended questions and end of semester questionnaire, with those who did not use the codes of ethics not doing so because it was not necessary. Many felt that the codes of ethics helped to avoid conflict and set expectations for the group process.

There was one exception from the focus group. A poorly functioning group indicated that the code of ethics had not been adequately crafted to fit the team's needs. As a result, they did use the code of ethics, but found that they had not defined the responsibilities broadly enough or determined an enforceable repercussion. They had felt that they could not change the code, which was too rigid for their situation.

DISCUSSION

As a result of the analyses described above, our theory is that the codes of ethics help groups to develop at a faster rate. This is due to the necessity of groups having to negotiate values, expectations, and recourse as they develop the group's code of ethics. Further, we theorize that groups using codes of ethics will complete norming more effectively, perhaps resulting in the bypass of the storming phase. This does not necessarily mean however that in the short-term group output, in our case the quality of the final project, will be better, although group processes may function smoother. In other words, each individual may find the group experience to be more favorable.

The initial use of group codes of ethics to reinforce ethics education in the curriculum, led to the realization that these codes might be an effective method for improving the function of student work groups. Allowing students to actually develop a code of ethics that would guide the behavior of the group gave them the opportunity to clearly define group expectations and the sanctions for not abiding by group rules. What we found is that these codes had the added benefit of improving group interaction. Although not explicitly tracked when the codes were used for ethics education, we noted fewer complaints about group members and group performance than we have seen in other semesters using these group projects.

In retailing, student responses suggest that they did find the codes of ethics to be useful in improving communication, improving trust, and providing direction. It is clear that students felt the codes had a favorable impact on group processes. This was further reinforced through our informal discussions with students and our observation of the work groups in class.

Collaborative work should be part of the undergraduate educational experience. Efforts should be made to minimize the problems that are often associated with group work. Of the five attributes of group learning expounded on by Ngeow (1998), we feel the code of ethics can impact at least four, including shared learning goals and outcomes, trust building and an understanding of team support conduct, positive interdependence formed through mutual goal-setting and individual accountability. We believe that the code of ethics is an effective tool for outlining the expectations of the group in terms of work goals and individual behavior. Since the group decides what those expectations are and how they will be enforced, we believe there is the likelihood for an improved work relationship. We believe that the foundation for trusting relationships can be built with the code of ethics.

Cohen (1994) identifies specific social skills that are required in an effectively functioning group. Here again, we see an opportunity for the code of ethics to be useful. Especially in student work groups where students are still acquiring and developing these social skills, the code of ethics provides a written framework for the group to function from. The ability to control progress through tasks (Cohen 1994) might be easier to achieve once the process of task assignment and guidelines for task responsibility are detailed in the code. The skills to manage competition and conflict (Cohen 1994) may be more easily attained when recourse in so clearly stated in the code of ethics. With expectations and recourse clearly defined beforehand, students can focus on managing the conflict itself.

Our research would indicate that codes of ethics should be introduced at the beginning of the group process. Those groups that developed a code of ethics after the group had been functioning for a while had more dysfunctional groups. By introducing the process for developing codes of ethics at the beginning of group work, students are establishing common values and work expectations. The negotiation of a code of ethics establishes beliefs and assumptions which become the common ground and shared knowledge on which to base subsequent conversations (Clark & Brennan as cited in Gay & Lentini 1995).

CONCLUSION

We find sufficient experiential evidence to conclude that the student designed code of ethics is a valuable instructional tool as well as a useful methodology for improving the interaction and performance (process) of student work groups. Subsequent research of our theory is necessary. Currently we are using the codes of ethics in a more structured research design, with control groups. This will allow us to determine the validity of our theory that codes of ethics favorably impact group development and processes. Further, we will be able to compare group performance (output) as measured by final project quality.

Another direction for future research would be to move the research from the classroom to the workplace. The goal would be to see if developing codes of ethics at the team level would improve the individual's experience in the group as well as the development of groups in the workplace. With multiple groups coming together for short periods of time, it is important that companies be able to quickly formulate performing groups. Further research should investigate whether codes of ethics might expedite this process. In addition, with the growing number of distributed groups in the workplace (group members at multiple locations), future research might also look at using codes of ethics to improve virtual group processes. Finally, the processes students go through to develop the codes of ethics (discourse analysis) would give insight on what factors need to be determined in creating an effective code of ethics.

References available to the reader upon request.

AN ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUE: THE *SIX FLAGS* EXAM

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes an empirical study which analyzes a creative method of assessment used in a Consumer Behavior course. The alternative exam implemented in this study is the *Six Flags* exam. If a typical college student was given a choice between taking a traditional exam or going to Six Flags and writing about the experience, they would pick the amusement park nearly every time. This paper presents the methodology and results of such an experience. Overall, students rated the *Six Flags* exam as a more enjoyable and satisfying learning experience than a traditional short essay test. Also, students thought the creative exam experience improved their problem-solving skills, openness to new ideas and other important business/managerial skills. Overall, results provided strong support for this creative new assessment technique.

INTRODUCTION

What better way to "evaluate with compassion," as recommended by Tomkovick (2004), than to take a class of students to a Six Flags amusement park and base an exam on that experience. This study presents a unique alternative to the traditional in-class exam which typically measures students' knowledge of topics covered. Assessment of learning outcomes is certainly an important aspect of all marketing educator's professional careers today. Numerous studies in the marketing education literature have provided excellent discussion of the significance and challenges of assessment (Bacon 2003; Eastman and Allan 1999; Hartley, Cross, and Rudelius 2000; Linrud and Hall 1999; Misra and Morgan 2003). Although assessment is a complex process and there are no easy answers, many educators are offering useful recommendations on how to move ahead in the world of assessment.

Hartley, Cross, and Rudelius (2000) provide a thorough review of the rationale for assessment in marketing education, numerous assessment alternatives, and a paradigm for improving assessment. The motivations for appropriate assessment often include: (1) an educator's personal desire to enhance their teaching, (2) a department's mission to improve the quality of their program, (3)state legislative mandates to assess educational programs at all levels of public education, (4) employer's requirements for qualified graduates, and (5) guidelines for business schools seeking or maintaining AACSB accreditation (Hartley, Cross, and Rudelius 2000; Misra and Morgan 2003). Assessment techniques can range from standard text-generated multiple choice exams to simulations and written projects. Given that no one assessment approach is superior to all others, the study of new techniques is beneficial for educators. In addition, students often appreciate new approaches to traditional examinations.

This paper will: (1) discuss the importance of assessment for marketing departments, (2) review the primary elements of critical thinking theory relevant to assessment, (3) present an alternative assessment technique, the *Six Flags* exam, (4) analyze results of the effectiveness of this type of exam, and (5) offer recommendations for educators who may want to use the technique.

IMPORTANCE OF ASSESSMENT FOR MARKETING DEPARTMENTS

Misra and Morgan (2003) reviewed assessment in marketing education today and offer a clear definition of assessment provided by Thomas Angelo, "an ongoing process aimed at understanding and improving student learning." Eastman and Allen (1999) concur in stating that assessment is used to make judgments about student learning. The key focus of all assessment revolves around student learning. Useful assessment processes then assist marketing departments in improving curriculum and also provide a means to demonstrate the relevancy of its program to numerous stakeholders (Eastman and Allen 1999).

Typically assessment in the field of marketing education involves knowledge / content assessment and skills assessment. Hartley, Cross, and Rudelius (2000) also included the importance of assessing personal characteristics. Responsibility, trustworthiness, dependability, honesty, and motivation are a few of the character traits shown to be important for marketing graduates (Heiser and Frontczak 2002). Although a variety of assessment measures exist, an important starting point for the assessment process is the development of learning outcomes. For example, Baker, Kleine, and Bennion (2003) focus on the learning outcomes of: (1)

information acquisition, management and use, (2) customer analysis, and (3) marketing mix design and strategy development using a variety of assessment activities measuring both knowledge and skills. Traditional exams are typically the preferred assessment method for knowledge / content acquisition, while skills acquisition is more often assessed by performance measures such as presentations, written projects or case studies. Winer (2000) discussed the value of exams based on *authentic learning*, where an exam is not simply what a student has learned, but the exam itself is also a valuable learning experience. In a comparison of types of exams, Bacon (2003) found multiple choice tests and short answer tests to be equivalent in reliability and validity. Student self-evaluation techniques are also mentioned in the literature as a method of assessment (Linrud and Hall 1999; Hartley, Cross, and Rudelius 2000). This study adds another assessment measure to the list of techniques educators may consider.

CRITICAL THINKING THEORY AND ASSESSMENT

In a study of business school education, Chonko (1993) found that practitioners believed that business graduates lack tolerance for ambiguity and critical thinking skills. Another study by Ackerman, Gross, and Perner (2003) also focused on the value of critical thinking/creative assignments given the importance of these skills to employers. They found that employers were more skeptical about student's critical thinking and creativity skills than instructors and students themselves were. In their study of respected marketing educators, Smart, Kelley, and Conant (1999) reported the need for skills development, especially in the area of creative thinking abilities. Problem solving (Cooper and Loe 2000) and critical thinking (Ronchetto and Buckles 1994) skills often rate at the top of the list for important skills. Business schools are now listening to employers and focusing on both knowledge acquisition and skills development.

Frontczak and Daughtrey (2004) outlined the important factors to consider for emphasizing critical thinking in the classroom. Some of these include creating an interactive classroom atmosphere, creating disequilibrium by challenging student thought structures, engaging student interest, and using written assignments for critical thinking. More often than not, traditional exams do not encourage critical thinking, they simply measure student knowledge acquisition. This study proposes a new technique which is a written exam, yet also creatively encourages critical thinking, an important skill for all graduates. Assessment of knowledge content and critical thinking skills along with written communication skills, peer interaction, and reflection are all a part of the assessment measure proposed here. Often instructors wonder how to move toward the recent trend of experiential learning (Frontczak and Kelley 2000) while at the same time retaining exams. Sometimes, the two types of assessment can be combined as is the case in this study.

THE *SIX FLAGS* EXAM, AN ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUE

Summer school classes often seem to provide opportunities for the introduction of new experiential learning activities. Perhaps it is the more concentrated schedule, the more relaxed attitude of both students and professors, or even the warmer summertime weather that opens up the possibility of more creative learning experiences. In any case, the technique described here was first developed and used in the summer of 2003. After the success of the technique from both the students and faculty perspective, it was refined and introduced again in the summer of 2004. Analysis of the technique is based on student feedback for the most recent summer. Interestingly, several students in the 2004 class had heard about the previous summer "exam," and requested that we do that. Here is a description of the *Six Flags* exam.

The typical exams given in this particular Consumer Behavior course consist of approximately ten short essay questions involving student understanding of consumer behavior concepts and theories and then application of such theories to marketing strategy development. These exams tend to focus on the first three levels of Bloom's taxonomy (1956): knowledge, comprehension and application. This is not an unusual method to assess learning outcomes for Consumer Behavior courses (Bacon 2003).

For the summer class mentioned, two of the three required exams followed the standard short essay format described, while the second exam was the *Six Flags* exam. Along the lines of Lincoln's (2004) comments, as educators, "we need to entertain our students." He focused on the educator's enthusiasm, animation, and use of surprise to create an atmosphere of "edutainment." The assessment technique described here certainly uses entertainment as a means to an end.

Although any number of "consumption venues" could be used for this experiential exam, such as a shopping mall, outlet center, water park, state fair, museum, or sporting event, the venue used here is a

Six Flags amusement park. The Consumer Behavior students agreed on a designated date to meet at the local *Six Flags* amusement park. The plan was to meet at 3:00 p.m., class time, and stay until 6:00 p.m., the end of class, although some of the students decided to stay longer. The three-hour time frame was sufficient for the exam assignment. Students were given the written instructions for this exam before the date selected. General instructions for exam 2, the *Six Flags* exam, are as follows:

Using any of the theories or concepts from the lecture or text covered for Exam 2, describe the consumer behavior of customers visiting Six Flags on [date].

For 6 theories/concepts:
(1) Briefly describe the theory /concept.
(2) Explain what you observed at Six Flags and how it relates to the theory. Be specific.
(3) Based on this observation, are there any marketing recommendations you could offer to Six Flags?

Report is to be typed, double-spaced, 4 pages maximum. Organization, spelling, and grammar count.

The exam is due [class period following the day at Six Flags].

Hint: You may want to take a list of theories / concepts to the park with you.

Meet the class at the entrance to the park at 3:00 p.m. on [date].

Although you may elect to go on rides at the park, this is not required for the assignment.

Have fun!

Remember we are all representing [University/College name].

Warning: Your professor may scream on the roller coaster.

Interestingly, some of the students came prepared with a written list of concepts / theories and a small notebook, while others apparently came to have fun and party. Their observations were simply to be kept in memory. Some of the topics covered for this exam time frame included: personal influence, opinion leadership, perception, learning, and involvement. The exam was similar to the traditional exam in that it incorporated Bloom's levels of knowledge, comprehension and application. In addition, according to the recommendations related to critical thinking classes (Frontczak and Daughtrey 2004) the following characteristics were included in the *Six Flags* assignment: creativity in the entire task, critical thinking and reflection, peer interaction, thought-provoking experiences, high student interest, instructor encouragement and support, and the use of written communication skills.

Following the *Six Flags* experience and the completion of the exam, several measures of effectiveness of the *Six Flags* exam were implemented. Students in the class were asked to evaluate the *Six Flags* exam and their first exam, the traditional short essay exam. A three-part questionnaire was prepared and administered following exam 2. Part 1 of the survey included an evaluation of each exam based on a form developed by Sandler and Kamins (1987), similar to one used by Butler and Laumer (1992) and Olsen (1994). Students were asked to respond to 16 statements on a nine-point rating scale (where 1=strongly disagree and 9=strongly agree). The items related to their learning, involvement and enjoyability, and satisfaction with each exam. Part 2 of the evaluation was based on a form developed by Celuch and Slama (2000), where they measured critical thinking. Students were asked to rate 8 items on a 7-point scale (where 1=much worse than other exams and 7=much better than other exams). Finally, Part 3 of the evaluation process included items developed by Frontczak and Daughtrey (2004) related to whether or not a student would recommend this type of exam to other students. A 9-point agreement scale was used in this section of the evaluation. The sample size for analysis of the students using the *Six Flags* exam was 18.

RESULTS

Including all three parts to the evaluation, there were 28 measures of the effectiveness of the *Six Flags* exam. In all but one measure, students rated the creative *Six Flags* exam better than the traditional essay exam. The mean values for all statements are provided in Tables 1, 2, and 3.

The elements of surprise and change frequently make students somewhat apprehensive. However, after a brief discussion of possibly going to Six Flags and having the second exam based on this experience, all the students in class, except one, agreed on this new method of assessment. (The one had previously worked for Six Flags and left on bad terms, which were not explained, so she elected to take a standard essay exam. All the other students

agreed this was fair for everyone.) Students rated their interest, involvement, enjoyability, learning, and satisfaction with the *Six Flags* exam higher than the more traditional essay exam they had taken for the first test. In addition, students believed the creative exam promoted better student / teacher relationships and suggested that the instructor cared about student learning. This finding would also be supported by Tomkovick (2004) who discussed the importance of "caring" as one of ten important anchor points for effective teaching. In Table 2 the students suggested that the *Six Flags* exam improved their problem-solving skills, written communication skills, openness to new ideas, ability to work with others, and confidence in their ability to learn and think for themselves. Table 3 provided further confirmation of the students' enjoyment of the *Six Flags* exam and their belief that it encouraged critical thinking. In addition, students would be likely to recommend this exam to other students. Overall, the results provide strong student support for the alternative assessment technique. In the professor's opinion, general student performance on the *Six Flags* exam demonstrated clear understanding of consumer behavior concepts, creativity in application of theories, critical thinking in suggesting useful marketing recommendations to Six Flags, and thoughtful written communication skills. Further benefits of this type of exam included student camaraderie, sharing of ideas related to the consumer behavior concepts along the way at the park, lots of fun and laughter, and greater enjoyment for the faculty member in reading and grading the exams. The *Six Flags* assessment technique remained an individual exam, yet at the same time encouraged an interactive, active class atmosphere as recommended in the critical thinking literature. Educators who are open to novel ideas such as this exam act as a good role models to the students in terms of the importance of openness to new ideas, a trait valued by employers.

A few disadvantages to the *Six Flags* exam may also exist. For those faculty who want students to recall consumer behavior theories, concepts, and studies based on rote memorization, this may not be their exam of choice, because students did have the opportunity to use their text and notes in writing the exam. Another negative is the fact that students used their own money to purchase a park ticket, although no student complained about this. In terms of liability, the college attorney was consulted and he suggested adding a statement to the instructions, "although you may elect to go on rides in the park, this is not required for this assignment." From the educator's perspective, these exams took more time and consideration in grading. Also, similar to grading for written projects, there is greater subjectivity in the grading process. The trade-off of increased critical thinking and creativity in this assignment seems to balance this possible problem. Grades for the *Six Flags* exam tended to be somewhat higher, yet the students clearly had put more thoughtful effort into this exam. Higher involvement seemed to create better performance. Interestingly, no plagiarism was found. Perhaps this could have been a problem in a larger class. Finally, although not an issue, students must be thoroughly informed on the exact exam process itself and what is expected both at the venue and on the exam.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EDUCATORS

Overall, student evaluations of the *Six Flags* exam were extremely favorable. Among other positive findings, students thought that the creative exam made the course more interesting, allowed them to apply concepts to real life situations, and was a valuable learning experience. Students also suggested that this exam improved their problem-solving, critical thinking, and communication skills.

Educators considering using such an exam should understand the greater time commitment to organize the exercise, visit the park or other consumption venue, and grade the exams. In addition, the college attorney should be consulted to understand any liability issues. This type of exam could be implemented with a larger class, although the instructor might then have more limited time with each of the groups. At the entrance to the park when all of the students met it was decided to form informal groups of 4 to 5 people to visit the park, instead of having everyone stay together. This plan worked well and students were able to get to know others they had not previously known. The professor spent considerable time with each team often listening to their conversations regarding observations at the park and how this related to various course concepts / theories. Seeing the students talking about the theories and creatively relating these to people and experiences at *Six Flags* was extremely rewarding. Clearly, the major factors of critical thinking classes were at work: engaging student interest, creating an interactive atmosphere, challenging student thought structures, and letting students form their own views, especially through writing. Even an article in Psychology Today (Marano 2004) discussed the importance of overhauling the way classes are taught in order to engage students actively and completely in learning. According to the article, "engaged interactive learning" may be effective in altering some of the mental health problems on campuses today.

One of the students in the class wrote, "my experience at the park was a ton of fun. I felt this venue could bring to light all of these topics in Consumer Behavior." Overall, the informal student feedback following the park experience and the exam showed that the students thoroughly enjoyed the experience. Supporting Winer's (2000) idea, this exam was not simply repeating what the students had learned in class, but the exam itself was a valuable learning experience. Students were better able to see the relevance of the course concepts through the *Six Flags* exam. The goal of this assessment had been to improve student understanding of Consumer Behavior knowledge and also to enhance the student's critical thinking, creativity and communication skills. Both formal and informal assessment seemed to support these goals. This type of experiential exam could also be used in other marketing courses as well, such as Retailing, Services Marketing, Sport Marketing, and Promotional Strategy.

Chonko (1993) and Ackerman, Gross and Perner (2003) had found that practitioners believe that business graduates often lack tolerance for ambiguity and critical thinking and creativity skills. Assigning an exam such as the *Six Flags* experience does provide a more ambiguous learning situation and an opportunity for improving critical thinking skills. Ackerman, Gross, and Perner (2003) suggested that students are generally positive toward critical thinking / creative assignments even though these assignments often require more time. They also said that instructors who have taught the longest are the least positive about critical thinking / creative assignments. This finding does not seem to apply in the *Six Flags* study since the author has taught for 30 years. There is greater risk involved in trying out new methods of assessment such as this for the instructor, yet the rewards for students and professor outweighed the problems.

TABLE 1

Overall Evaluation of Exams
(9-point agreement scale: 1=strongly disagree and 9=strongly agree)

	Exam 1 (Essay)	Exam 2 (Six Flags)
This exam was helpful to me in understanding Consumer Behavior.	6.67	7.72
This exam made the course more interesting.	3.67	8.67
This exam allowed me to apply what I learned to real life situations.	4.50	8.61
I was satisfied with my work on this exam.	5.72	7.72
I learned a lot about consumer behavior from this exam.	6.00	7.67
I was highly involved with this exam.	5.50	8.28
This exam was enjoyable.	2.78	7.94
This exam promoted better student / teacher relationships.	3.61	8.22
I believe this exam is valuable as a measure of my learning.	6.11	8.11
This exam was not boring.	4.83	8.50
I enjoyed working on this exam.	3.94	7.78
I would recommend this type of exam to other marketing students.	5.06	8.17
This exam did not seem silly.	8.00	7.71
This exam was not a waste of my time.	6.65	7.94
This exam suggests the instructor cares about me learning consumer behavior.	6.88	8.59
This exam was worth the effort.	5.94	8.41

TABLE 2

Evaluation of Critical Thinking for Each Exam
(7-point scale: 1=much worse than other exams and 7=much better than other exams)

	Exam 1 (Essay)	Exam 2 (Six Flags)
Develops problem-solving skills	5.11	6.22
Improves writing skills	5.22	6.33
Facilitates learning concepts/principles	5.33	6.67
Develops an openness to new ideas	4.28	6.94
Develops ability to work productively with others	2.94	6.72
Cultivates responsibility for one's own learning	5.83	6.50
Improves self confidence in ability to learn	5.00	6.28
Develops capacity to think for one's self	5.72	6.83

TABLE 3

Evaluation of the Exams
9-point scale: 1=strongly disagree and 9=strongly agree)

	Exam 1 (Essay)	Exam 2 (Six Flags)
I enjoyed this exam more than most.	3.83	8.28
I believe this exam met the course objectives.	7.56	8.17
I would recommend this exam to other students.	5.50	8.11
This exam encourages critical thinking.	6.78	8.83

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THE EFFECTS OF TESTING FREQUENCY ON PERFORMANCE IN MARKETING CLASSES

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ABSTRACT

Frequency of testing has long been examined in the social sciences as an antecedent to student performance in the classroom. However, after nearly 70 years of study, the results are inconclusive. Given the developments in computerized testing over the last decade, professors now have the ability to create and conduct frequent tests without severely impinging on other duties. Thus we reexamine the issue in a marketing context for the first time in two decades. The findings suggest that students tend to perform better with more frequent testing, under the condition that the tests are similar in content to the tests given during the semester. In addition, more frequent testing tends to increase student evaluations. Reasons and limitations of these findings are discussed.

A SERVQUAL-BASED INSTRUMENT FOR EVALUATING WEB-BASED DISTANCE LEARNING MATERIALS

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ABSTRACT

Despite their popularity, very little has been written on the evaluation of web-based distance learning materials. The purpose of this article is to present an evaluation instrument for that purpose based on SERVQUAL. Students in a Principles of Marketing course were surveyed on-line and asked to evaluate web-based distance education using SERVQUAL methodology. The authors found four major dimensions: support, empathy, technical reliability, and visual appeal.

(1) Authors are listed in alphabetical order, with equal contribution by all.

USING A VIEWING GUIDE TO IMPROVE COMPREHENSION OF VIDEOS AND DIGITAL MEDIA

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ABSTRACT

On one hand there is the easily accessed video presentation. Supplemental video resources are widely available to augment marketing textbooks. Publishers make these resources available with most marketing principles texts as well as with texts for many other courses. These videos are helpfully correlated with the texts and are sometimes specifically prepared to go with them. In addition, commercial and educational television periodically produce documentary content that can provide relevant video for marketing courses. Videos provide professionally prepared visual segments dealing with major topics in a format that students find relevant and may, in fact, enjoy. Whether the medium is CD-ROM, DVD, VHS or Internet, video presentations can be a real asset to help faculty develop an interesting class with varied formats to hold student attention.

On the other hand, even though many faculty members use these resources, most have at least some doubts as to whether video resources are truly effective. In the author's observation, it has often seemed that discussions following a video don't have the desired results because students too often fail to recognize or grasp the concepts the video was meant to illustrate. This observation led to research on the challenge of using video effectively in class.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

When faculty use video in class, their objectives for the experience are more likely to be *implicit* than explicit (Kreiner, 1997). Implicit objectives require that students draw inferences about concepts based on the information in the video. Using new information to satisfy implicit objectives requires more effort than achieving the explicit objectives of merely learning the facts stated out-right in the video. So it can be said that implicit objectives are more difficult to achieve than explicit objectives.

Research published in 1986 by McKeachie found that video can be superior to lectures in terms of motivating curiosity and interest and achieving motivational outcomes such as building bridges between readings and lectures. More recently, Hart and Stevens (1995) struck a cautious note in observing that while students are receptive to using videos as aids to learning, video use must be "carefully integrated into a coherent system of instruction in order to optimize their effectiveness."

Another consideration is a possible difference in learning style with chronological age. Student age is related to achieving learning goals according to Camp and Pignatiello (1998), who found that older adults under-performed younger adults when dealing with inferences, whereas older and younger adults performed equally well in the retrieval of facts.

INTERACTION: UNLOCKING OBJECTIVES

A key to best using the popular and motivating video presentation may be found in the work of Cennamo, Savenye, and Smith (1991). They found that students perceive it significantly easier to learn from *interactive* video than from instructional television, and easier to learn from instructional television than from commercial television. According to Cennamo, Savenye and Smith, instructional television most closely resembles video segments prepared to accompany marketing texts. An example of commercial television that might be used in a class would be a clip from a news program or a documentary prepared for the general public. This would suggest that we might improve the effectiveness of our use of commercial and instructional video by adding an element of interactivity. This finding is not surprising considering that Slamecka and Graff (1978) noted that actively generating information improves recall over passively receiving the same information.

INTERACTIVE ENHANCEMENT

Several options to assist students in gaining the desired learning from videos have been researched. These range from quite high technology to low technology, and vary in the amount of structure involved. The high technology options are generally highly structured, but the low technology options range in their degree of structure.
Fully interactive video, perhaps the highest technology, refers to the use of computers to control the video presentation, providing opportunities for students to demonstrate their comprehension and receive feedback. As pointed out earlier, Cennamo, Savenye and Smith found (even with the technology

available in 1991) that interactive video was more effective than simply watching videos and that students believe it is easier to learn interactively. A serious problem with computer-controlled interactive video is the limited availability of integrated systems. Developing these systems is time consuming and expensive. Thus the highest technology is generally not accessible to most faculty.

Low technology approaches are numerous, and some lend themselves to being used in combination with others. A simple method of encouraging more active student involvement is pausing the video at key points to ask questions (Kreiner, 1997). Kreiner also suggests that students might receive instruction about key points in the video prior to viewing. Walk (1991) gave students scripts prior to video viewing with blanks to be filled in. Herron (1994) gave students written summaries of important scenes where use of a foreign language in a video made comprehension difficult. Other researchers (Dalton and Hannafin, 1987; Heestand, 1980) gave students practice questions prior to viewing video materials and had them respond to the questions after the video. Students using this interactive method had higher post-test scores than students who watched the same video without the method.

Particularly well researched is the use of structured worksheets *during* a video presentation. In 1997 Kreiner used guided notes, a worksheet with short questions on key concepts, to be completed while watching a video. Green, Klausner and Urquiola (1986) used structured worksheets to be answered during a video. They found that eighty-five percent of the group receiving the worksheets found them helpful while fifteen percent found them distracting. Students in both experimental and control groups were given a post-video quiz, and the experimental group receiving the structured worksheets performed significantly better (77% to 58%).

Research clearly suggests that increasing the level of interaction will increase student involvement in the viewing process. This helps focus students' attention on the important concepts of a video so they will be looking for specific information that may be understood only through inference.

VIEWING GUIDE EFFECTIVENESS

My response to the research on effective video use has been to use Video Viewing Guides customized for each video presentation. The objective is to help make the common video a more interactive experience for students by using a method. From a faculty perspective, it is relatively low technology and easy to implement. The Video Viewing Guides assist students in attaining the desired substance from videos in three ways. First, prior to viewing, students receive the Guide and a short oral summary of the video and of the concepts that the video will present. Second, during the video the students write answers to ten to fifteen brief, open-ended questions about the specific concepts arranged, as closely as possible, in the same order as the video presentation. Third, the Guide is used as a platform for post-video discussion. The result of following these three steps is substantially enhanced class discussions of substantive points and issues.

DEVELOPING VIEWING GUIDES

Preparing a Video Viewing Guide is neither time consuming nor difficult. The Guide should be limited to one page, double-spaced, and organized in such a way that key concepts are in bold or italic lettering for easy identification while viewing. First review the content of the chapter or text segments that the video is meant to amplify, and prepare a list of the key concepts. Then, as you preview the video, write short, open-ended questions about the identified key concepts as they occur in the video format. It is probably best to phrase the questions in the same terms used in the video. Write questions that can be read quickly and answered with just a few words or a short sentence so students can participate interactively without substantially interrupting their attention from viewing. The objective is to have students learn by focusing their attention towards key concepts while they watch.

IMPLEMENTING VIEWING GUIDES

Handed out immediately in advance of viewing, the Guide can serve as a basis for a preparatory discussion so students are aware of the purpose of the video. In some cases it is also helpful to discuss the setting and perhaps the role of the various individuals in the video. Some videos have settings that are so unusual that they divert student attention from class-related content. Clarifying the setting can aid students in looking past the interesting distraction to the relevant underlying content.

Following the video, the Video Viewing Guide becomes a guide to discussion. Having been involved interactively in the viewing, students are often able to discuss substantially beyond the questions in the guide. Their attention has been focused so that they have learned the basic concepts well. Indeed many students are prepared to discuss strategic concepts that have been implied but not specifically stated in

the video. This sort of discussion brings the class as a whole to a higher level of understanding.

Some type of control is probably important to the effective use of a Video Viewing Guide. Collecting the Guides at the end of class helps control student accountability. Depending on the situation, Guides can be either graded or simply reviewed to assure that students are making a good-faith effort to complete them. I find that students complete the Guide satisfactorily almost without exception. Guides appear to lead students through the process of learning through videos by building success on success, as well as by directing their focus towards key concepts.

SUMMARY

Research has shown that students more effectively assimilate beyond the explicit content of video presentations when an interactive teaching method is used. Interactive methods of presentation come in many forms, from high technology to low technology. Video Viewing Guides bring interactivity to videos. These Guides can be prepared efficiently by faculty. Guides effectively assist students with their learning process, as shown by student success in answering guide questions. Guide use can raise the level of post-video class discussion from merely seeking to identify basic concepts to the application of underlying strategic concepts only implicitly presented in the video.

A sample Video Viewing Guide is presented on the following page as an example. This Guide is a companion to the video *Levi's: Not By Jeans Alone*, which I often use at the end of my marketing principles course. The video and Viewing Guide together help students successfully synthesize the complexities and interrelated reality of all of the principles in the marketing principles course. Similar Video Viewing Guides are often used with other videos in my marketing courses.

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Video Viewing Guide: *Levi's: Not By Jeans Alone*
(this video is used at the end of a marketing principles course)

1. Describe the *marketing objective* of Levi Strauss at the start of the case:

2. Describe the jeans market in 1980 in terms of the *product life cycle*:

3. Identify the *four major individuals* in the video and their roles:

a)

b)

c)

d)

4a. *Market Segmentation*: Why did Levi Strauss *segment the market*?

4b. On what *basis* did Levi Strauss *segment the market*?

4c. Describe the *market segments* Levi Strauss' *marketing research* found:

ID	Size %	Label	Descriptive Information
Q1			
Q2			
Q3			
Q4			
Q5			

5a. *Product*: What was Levi Strauss selling?

5b. Were there problems with the *product*?

6a. *Place*: To what type of store did Levi Strauss sell Tailored Classics?

6b. Were there problems with this strategy?

7. *Price*: Were there problems with their *price strategy*?

8. *Promotion*: Were there problems with their *promotion strategy*?

9. What were the *primary factors* involved in the *failure* of Tailored Classics?

10. What did Haggar do *differently* that helped them achieve *success*?

MARKETING EDUCATION—WHEN TEACHING CLICKS

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ABSTRACT

The emerging digital economy and the advent of the Internet connectivity has changed educational processes. One important development in the scope of distance education has been e-learning, where professors and students meet in virtual learning spaces. With more than a decade of increasing experience, there still remains considerable controversy surrounding the value and quality of distance-education methods and e-learning. The authors of this paper have extensive experience with distance-education technologies and heterodox pedagogies as well as with traditional teaching methods. Over the past thirty years, they have been involved in numerous technological experiments in education. In this paper, they report on the outcomes of a continuum of experimental design, where their experiences with e-learning are compared with the outcomes of the traditional classroom-based pedagogy. The studies involved students at the Copenhagen Business School in e-learning as well as blended learning experiences and teaching experiences at other universities in America.

The conclusions are interesting as the analysis of the academic scores shows no differences, but the "end-of-course survey " results show higher evaluations in all categories for e-learning and blended learning classes when compared with traditional learning "on-ground." The findings provide evidence that a problem-oriented and dialogue-based e-learning approach may indeed hold substantial potential for global marketing education. The costs of such programs are considered and the generalized inference has interesting implications for the future of marketing education and institutions of higher education.

NURTURING THE SPECIAL STUDENT: UNDERSTANDING THE NEEDS OF STUDENTS WITH CHALLENGES

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ABSTRACT

Students with various backgrounds and conditions can benefit from special nurturing and support. Discussed are the cases of international students, students on the autistic spectrum, first generation college students, and students with learning disabilities.

INTRODUCTION

A large number of very promising students face conditions or backgrounds that make the college experience especially challenging. This session considers constructive means to encourage, advise, motivate, communicate with, and stimulate students facing cultural, personality, or learning style challenges in reaching their potential within the college environment. Challenges within the context of marketing and other business courses are emphasized.

High rates of immigration and impressive rates of college attendance among many immigrant groups have resulted in a large number of students who struggle with the English language and with cultural expectations in a new country. Beginning in college, this group is likely, at the same time, to experience a considerable increase in reading and writing assignments as well as a novel social environment (Li 2003). Likewise, first generation college students face significant challenges in the college environment.

Students with various learning disabilities similarly face problems in the college environment (Hitchings et al. 2001; Troiano 2003). These students may or may not have a diagnosed condition and may or may not receive special accommodations through disabled student services. Students who have various learning disabilities often have tremendous potential, but face problems when required tasks involve specific areas of challenge (Troiano 2003). Hitchings et al. (2001) found that many students with learning disabilities had difficulty describing their challenges. Thus, it is helpful for instructors to be familiar with the challenges typically faced by specific groups of students.

It is sometimes difficult to "draw the line" as to what accommodations may be reasonable (Vogel et al. 1999). For example, students with some learning challenges may find group projects intensely frustrating, yet exempting a student from a major course component may fundamentally alter the required experience. It is therefore important to understand how the need and/or desire for accommodation arises and how concerns can be most equitably addressed.

STUDENTS ON THE AUTISTIC SPECTRUM

Lars Perner discusses students with Asperger's Syndrome (AS) or other autistic spectrum conditions. These students often excel in certain areas but have

challenges in others (e.g., strong quantitative but poor verbal skills or vice versa). In addition, students with AS often have difficulty understanding certain abstract ideas, organizing tasks, expressing themselves orally or in writing, and understanding subtle, non-verbal communication (Perner 2002). AS is quite common, with an incidence as high as one percent among males, but appears to be greatly under diagnosed. Because many college students with AS are "high functioning" enough to have coped quite well in a high school environment, an instructor familiar with AS may recognize these traits in a student who has not been formally diagnosed, and this insight may help identify suitable pedagogy.

A common characteristic of autistic spectrum conditions is intense preoccupation with certain favored subjects. Thus, a number of students on the spectrum may actually thrive in the college environment. In fact, it is suspected that high functioning autism is quite common in academia. However, performance across disciplines may be highly uneven, with the student showing strong skills in one area (such as verbal ability) and very poor skills in another (e.g., mathematics).

Students on the autistic spectrum will often experience problems working in unstructured environment. This is why group work can be even more frustrating than it will be to ordinary students. Surprises—such as the rescheduling of an exam or a change in project requirements—can cause considerable discomfort. These students may also be highly vulnerable to sensory over-stimulation. Additional information may be found at http://www.ProfessorsAdvice.com .

INTERNATINAL STUDENTS

David Ackerman discusses the issues involved with teaching marketing to international students. International students have traditionally been more attracted to the accounting and finance fields, which are perceived as more quantitative. Recently, however, more have taken up marketing. There are three broad areas of concern that distinguish international students from domestic students (Collingridge 2000). The first is communication. English is often not the primary language of international students. The second is culture, which influences expectations regarding student-instructor interaction. Lastly, the career and legal outlook is different for international students, something that can affect the nature of mentoring relationships.

FIRST GENERATION COLLEGE STUDENTS

Barbara Gross discusses the challenges faced by first-generation college students. As higher percentages of the population seek education beyond high school (U.S. Census Bureau 2004), first-generation college students make up a growing, and typically less prepared, proportion of our classrooms. As compared with the children of college-educated parents, students who are the first in their families to attend college have typically overcome more obstacles to get there, and often must work harder to stay there (Henry 2000; Steel 1997).

Many parents who have attended college communicate both implicitly and overtly to their children the value of higher education. They also frequently take directive action in support of their children's educations, such as in recommending college preparatory classes, in encouraging the development of time-management and study skills, and even in providing educational opportunities to compensate for real or perceived weaknesses in high school programs.

Parents who have had their own college experiences help their children form realistic expectations and can forewarn them of potential pitfalls. Students whose parents have succeeded in college typically have confidence in their own abilities to do the same, and can rely on a ready source of support and advice when encountering difficulties.

These and other advantages are less commonly afforded first-generation students, simply because their parents lack the benefit of first-hand experience. The special session discusses the challenges faced by first-generation college students, their implications, and how we as educators can facilitate the success of this growing population.

STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES

Deborah Heisley is active in the special needs community. Her son has special needs and she serves on the board of two outstanding institutions that serve children with special needs; The Frostig Center in Pasadena California and The CHIME Institute, affiliated with CSUN. She will present some findings based on 20 years of research conducted by the Frostig Center that defines six success attributes of children with learning disabilities. By understanding how students with learning disabilities can be successful, faculty are better prepared to contribute to their success.

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TEACHING MARKETING OVERSEAS TO FOREIGN MBA STUDENTS IN COMPRESSED TIME: DO YOU JUST TALK FASTER?

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ABSTRACT

Increasingly U.S. business schools are establishing MBA programs overseas (Rosenberg, 2004; Duncan, 1996;Buerkle, 1995). They are either partnering with companies, other universities or going it on their own. The trend has taken California State Polytechnic University, Pomona to Vietnam and Siberia; St. Louis University to Madrid; California State University Hayward to St. Petersburg, Singapore, Austria; DePaul University to Poland; California State University, Los Angeles to China.

There are many reasons for schools of business going overseas. According to the William Kooser, associate dean of the University of Chicago's part time MBAA program, "We (University of Chicago) wanted to provide our educational model other parts of the world, and it's a great opportunity for our faculty to interact with business leaders in Asia and Europe (Rosenberg, 2004)." Moreover, Faculty can enhance their credibility on international topics. They can bring their world experiences back into their domestic classrooms. They can also build relationships that will result in international research. International programs also offer travel opportunities for domestic students.

This trend is likely to continue especially as business schools across the country are reporting falling enrollments of foreign MBAs. As a consequence they will most likely increase their efforts abroad. "About 74 percent of master's of business administration programs in the United States reported a significant decline in international applications to their schools in 2004, according to a recent Graduate Management Admission Council survey (Pappa, 2004)." "The number of people taking the Graduate Management Test, the most widely used assessment for graduate management admissions is down on last year's figure by 3.9 percent in the U.S. But for overseas students the decline is 17.5 percent," according to David Wilson, president of the GMAT Admission Council (Murray, 2004).

Foreign students are coming to the U.S. to study in smaller numbers due to visa restrictions, increasing competition from universities in other countries, and more attractive options in their own countries (Murray, 2004).

Many adjustments need to be made when transporting MBA classes overseas. For example, the programs need to take into consideration varying cultural environments, economic development, and language comprehension. A major consideration that is often overlooked, however, is that traditional U.S. programs must often be offered in a highly compressed time format. What do faculty do when they must teach a semester or quarter long course in marketing in a time frame which may be anywhere from two weeks to two days long?

This session will cover a number of issues that must be addressed when teaching a MBA marketing course overseas in a compressed time. It will do so from the perspective of faculty who have taught in a broad range of countries including, Vietnam, China, Russia, Swaziland, Spain, and Poland. These instructors have taught semester or quarter long courses in usually two weeks or less. Some have taught the course in as little as two days.

The issues that will be covered will include:

1) "How To Set Up and Administer the Compressed International MBA – An Example From Vietnam" (Andrew Truong)
   a. How do you pick a partner or do you go it alone?
   b. How do you choose a time format that will work? What are the considerations?
   c. How is the program set up to facilitate learning in an abbreviated time format?
   d. What are some of the problems associated with an abbreviated time format?
2) "Using Cases To Teach MBA Marketing Overseas in Compressed Time" (Susan Peters) Cases have been found to be a successful pedagogical tool in international setting (Clarke and Flaherty, 2002).
   a. How many cases can you use?
   b. What should cases cover – domestic companies or U.S. companies or both?
   c. What length should the cases be?
   d. How comprehensive should the students' analyses be?
3) "Lectures, Readings, Assignments, and Projects – Possible or Impossible in Compressed Time" (Juanita Roxas)
   a. What topics do you keep in? Which do you exclude? Are some too culturally sensitive?

b. How much reading can you expect the students to do?
c. Can you use the same term projects, e.g. marketing plan or must the projects be modified?
d. Marketing Thesis – Are you kidding?

4) "Evaluating Student Performance –What Time for Exams?" (Patricia Hopkins)
   a. Should time be devoted to an in class exam? Are other forms of evaluation preferable?
   b. What type of exams work best?
   c. What are some of other issues to expect regarding grading the performance of foreign MBA students?
5) "Tips For Surviving Teaching An Eight Hour Day and Dealing with Spare Time (If Any)" (Helena Czepiec)
   a. How does an instructor survive teaching an eight hour day in a highly compressed format?
   b. How do you prepare for teaching the program?
   c. How do you find time to network, meet with students, experience the culture?

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STUDENTS AS INNOVATORS AND NEW MAJORS AS INNOVATIONS: IMPACT ON STUDENT RETENTION

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ABSTRACT

As with most businesses, colleges and universities realize the importance of developing new major fields of study to remain viable. In this study a "new major" is defined as a newly-launched, degree-specific area of study consisting of both required and elective courses offered by a degree-granting university that has met state and university requirements. In this study students are considered innovators if they enroll in new majors as matriculating freshmen. A large database of student records is used to specify two logistic regression equations.

The database of student records is a component of the administrative data system at a private university in the Northeast United States. It contains information on matriculating freshmen, including the major area of study chosen. Nearly 95% of freshmen declared their major during matriculation. The portion of the database from 1992 to 2003 is used to develop our models. Part of the database includes matriculating freshmen responses to a 79-item survey measuring general attitudes and opinions, high school experiences and college expectations. Principal axis factor analysis of these self-report survey items reveals twenty two factors for which factors scores are estimated and subsequently employed as predictor variables in the two logistic regression models. In addition to the factor scores, personal information collected from students during application, registration, and other administrative procedures required to process their admission and registration are also included as predictor variables.

The first logistic regression analysis uses choice of new versus old major as the dependent variable. The university introduced ten new majors from 1993 to 2003, including such majors as digital media arts, international business, accounting information systems and bio-informatics. The level of the academic degree that the matriculating freshman ultimately expects to obtain has the strongest relationship with probability of choosing to enroll in a new major. The higher the level of the degree the less likely the student is to choose a new major. Students are more likely to enroll in a new major the greater the effort they devote to high school course work, the higher their SAT verbal test scores, the more musical experience they have in high school and the greater their social goals. On the other hand, students are less likely to enroll in a new major as the number of high school activities in which the student participates increases, as the moral values and work ethic become weaker, and as the SAT math test scores decline.

A second logistic regression analysis uses attrition as the dependent variable. Students who drop out of college at any time during their four-year tenure are classified as dropouts while others are classified as persistors. Choice of new versus old major was added to the predictor variables for this analysis. Family income level is the strongest predictor of attrition followed by high school academic average. Probability of dropping out significantly increases with more deviant behavior in high school, higher quality of faculty at the university, and the higher the degree to which the student aspires. Probability of dropping out significantly decreases with higher family income levels, higher high school academic averages, the decision to enroll in a new major, a greater importance of family and friends, higher quality of the high school attended, devotion of extra effort to success in high school, and higher education levels of the student's father. This study provides a further understanding of the role of launching new majors in attracting higher quality students and improving student retention.

PROMOTING INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITIES OF INTERNATIONAL MARKETING STUDENTS: AN EXPERIMENT

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ABSTRACT

Intercultural sensitivity is a major criterion for success in the global business environment. For students pursuing careers in marketing, this means learning to manage cultural difference on three levels: self, interpersonal, and organizational. This paper describes five related and synergistic exercises that give college students experience in dealing with and solving real-world problems in intercultural sensitivity on all three levels. Anecdotal evidence suggests the exercises are a highly successful method for developing the cross-cultural skills of students. To confirm the efficacy of this process, a pre-test, post-test experiment was conducted with a treatment group and control groups. Results show that the treatment group was the only one to show a significant (at $p<.05$) increase in intercultural sensitivity.

INTRODUCTION

International business managers rate the ability to work with people of other cultures as the most important quality of success, particularly in overseas assignments (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992). Nevertheless, most International Business programs in the United States fail to deal effectively with the role that cultural differences play in the management of the global enterprise. Too often the issue is addressed only at the cognitive level. Students who envisage international careers in marketing must prepare for life in alien cognitive and behavior contexts; cross-cultural considerations must be learned both intellectually and experientially (Serrie, 1992).

For significant growth to occur in intercultural sensitivity, students must be able to manage cultural differences on three distinct levels. First, they must be able to cross-culturally manage themselves: to move personally beyond culture shock and adapt to the alien location to where they have been sent. Second, they must be able to manage cross-cultural differences at the interpersonal level (i.e.: relating effectively to fellow employees, suppliers, customers, and government officials, as well as taxi drivers, store clerks, service people and neighbors). Third they must be able to cross-culturally manage at the organizational or institutional level, possessing enough understanding of both their host culture and their home culture to be able to make correct decisions regarding their organization's work force, its commercial markets, the community in which it operates, and the nation which is its host.

Although the five exercises are separable, when used collectively they are especially effective in building cross-cultural management skills on all three levels–the self, the interpersonal, and the institutional (Serrie, 1992). Anecdotal evidence suggests the effectiveness of these exercises: while most American colleges and universities have foreign students enrolled, many campuses report varying degrees of separation, ignorance, indifference, ambivalence, or even hostility between natives on the one hand and aliens on the other. These exercises have been credited with significantly reducing the number of unpleasant cross-cultural incidents reported to the Dean of Students of one liberal arts college (Serrie, 1992). To empirically test the effectiveness of these exercises to develop intercultural sensitivity (the ability to function effectively in cross-cultural interactions), a pre-test, post-test experimental design was conducted with treatment and control groups. The paper next describes the five cross-cultural exercises, the experiment, the results, and the implications.

CROSS-CULTURAL EXERCISES

Cross-Cultural Interview

In this exercise each student interviews one foreign student on campus, who is from a culture different from his or her own, and whom he or she has never met before. To make the assignment more challenging, the foreign students must be in the English as a Second Language (ESL) program on campus. (ESL is a program of mostly young people who have arrived in America recently and whose English speaking skills are limited.) It is up the college student to figure out some way of introducing himself or herself and of persuading the foreign ESL student to grant an interview.

This exercise provides experience and builds skills at the first two levels of cross-cultural management, self

and personal. It helps students overcome inertia and fear about getting to know strangers from a different culture, and provides them with an opportunity to successfully motivate a foreign stranger to expend a significant effort on their behalf.

On completion of the exercise, each student shares his or her strategy for meeting the foreign students and for getting him or her to agree to do the interview. Many students admit to having felt uncomfortable dealing with foreign stranger, and report that this exercise along with some of the others helped them to overcome it.

Cross-Cultural Incident

This exercise makes use the 110 critical incidents detailed by Cushner and Brislin in their book Intercultural Interactions: A Practical Guide, 2nd edition (1996). Each incident describes a realistic cross-cultural misunderstanding, four plausible explanations for the misunderstanding, and an evaluation of each explanation. The book is a "culture-general assimilator" in that the incidents describe a wide variety of cultural situations and reflect 18 themes that evolved from their research (i.e., anxiety, time and space, ambiguity, prejudice and ethnocentrism, etc.). In this activity students discuss and demonstrate the cross-cultural incidents. The emphasis is on having students experience the cultural conflict rather than simply considering it intellectually (see APPENDIX A for an example critical incident).

This exercise addresses the first two cross-cultural management levels--self and interpersonal--by developing skills of recognizing and correcting a cross-cultural error. Students learn to accept the virtual inevitability of their making some cross-cultural errors in the field, but not to accept repetition of the errors. They also learn that errors in appropriate behavior are far worse than mere inability to speak the host country language. The students further learn to strategically recover in such situations, and soon afterwards seek out explanation of their cross-cultural error from a member of the host culture. In addition, they correct their understanding of the host culture and develop a mastery of appropriate cultural behavior in similar situations in the future.

Cross-Cultural Skit

For this exercise, each student is assigned to one of several "Country Groups" that have been formed in the classroom. Each Country Group is headed by one or more foreign students who are native to a particular culture and who serve as the cultural experts for their group. The group also includes two to four students who are native to the United States. The Country Groups are charged with planning, writing, and performing a skit before the entire class that illustrates a minimum of five cross-cultural blunders that an American person might make in the host culture represented by the Country Group. Groups must organize the blunders into a business-related scenario involving social interaction between one or more individuals representing Americans and one or more individuals representing host country nationals.

This exercise builds skills and emotional commitment at all three levels of cross-cultural management--self, interpersonal, and institutional--in recognizing and in rejecting the ignorance and arrogance that produces many kinds of cross-cultural errors. The true costs of cross-cultural errors are exposed, including harm to self, harm to others at the interpersonal levels, and harm to the host culture or to the work organization at the institutional level.

Because of the leadership role of the foreign students, every class member is immersed in the native view of the Ugly (or Ignorant) American. Often foreign students play the parts of the Americans; this an effective way of eliminating the real-life cultural identities of the actors and focusing even more sharply on the defective cross-cultural behavior.

Cross-Cultural News

Each student finds a newspaper or magazine article that describes an American work organization adapting, or having difficulty in adapting, to the host culture of a foreign country. The students then write an analysis of the cross-cultural differences and explain why the American organization is successful or unsuccessful in resolving its cross-cultural differences. This exercise builds analytical skills at the institutional level of cross-cultural management. Students become acquainted with cases involving well-known organizations confronting cultural differences that result in real and crucial consequences at the institutional level and which offer parallels to the personal and interpersonal levels that they have already experienced.

Cross-Cultural Management

For this exercise each student conceives, plans and carries out a program for improving the cross-cultural relations between the two most culturally separated and alienated groups on campus--the participants in the ESL program and students in the regular college program. At a very minimum, each student must bring together at least two foreign students and two domestic students who have never met before, and

organize pleasant activities and interesting discussions that will foster cross-cultural understanding and friendship. A short proposal must be approved in advance; after the program, a final report must be submitted summarizing the activity, the quality of the interaction, and evidence of improvement in cross-cultural relations among the persons involved.

This exercise builds skills at all three levels of cross-cultural management, for it involves mastery of self, of interpersonal relations, and of the dynamics of small groups. It is the most difficult of all the exercises, and represents the culmination of the four exercises preceding it. In this exercise, each student becomes an *agent of cultural change* within his or her own organization, and is equipped with knowledge and skills to figure out a way to actually make a real improvement in a problematic multicultural institutional situation. Some of the successful cross-cultural management programs have involved getting together to cook a meal, going to the beach, going bowling, or organizing baseball or soccer games.

The quality of cross-cultural relations on most campuses does not yield to official actions, and tends to remain poor or inadequate over decades. The reason why official ministrations have little impact on the quality of cross-cultural relations in campus life is that fundamentally this is a problem routed in interpersonal interaction. No structural changes can force different individuals to meet each other and develop friendly relationships. The solution lies in establishing and multiplying interpersonal connections at the level of the individual.

Although the five exercises may be used separately, when used collectively they are related and synergistic. While the news exercise is academic, the others are experiential and engage the emotions. The incident and news exercises require intellectual analysis of real events that have already happened. The interview, skit, and management exercises require planned personal action. The interview and management exercise also involve interactions in the real world. These five exercises strongly reinforce each student's sense of being empowered to make a positive difference in difficult cultural situations that they will carry into their future interpersonal careers. (Assignment sheets for each exercise are available from the authors at munrota@eckerd.edu.)

METHODOLOGY

A pre-test, post-test research design with a treatment group and control groups was developed to test the effectiveness of the five exercises described above. Participants in the experiment were a convenience sample of incoming freshmen at a liberal arts college in Florida. The students were drawn from the International Business curriculum where Principles of Marketing and International Marketing are part of the core curriculum. These new students participate in an intense three week Autumn Term course which consists of orientation sessions and academic content.

These freshmen were used because they were similar in age and (to a large extent) experience. During this Autumn Term, the freshmen are the only students on campus. Three groups of freshmen participated in the experiment: a group of American freshmen taking "Introduction to International Business" (referred to in this paper as the "U.S. Control" group), a group of foreign freshmen taking a course called "Living in the U.S.A." (labeled the "Non-U.S. Control" group), and a group of American freshmen taking a "Cross-Cultural Primer" course (referred to as the "U.S. Treatment" group). It was this course that employed the five exercises described earlier.

A group of American adult learners taking a Marketing course in the evening also participated in the study (referred to in this research as the "Adult Control" group). During the day, these adults were all full-time employees of businesses in the area, many of which are multinational corporations.

One of the most widely used instruments to measure cross-cultural skills is the Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory (ICSI). Intercultural sensitivity "is sensitivity to the importance of cultural differences and to the points of view of people in other cultures" (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992, p. 414). To measure this attribute, Bhawuk and Brislin developed a 46-item, theory-based instrument that would assess an individual's ability to modify his or her behavior in other cultures. Those who could change their behavior in a culturally appropriate fashion were deemed interculturally sensitive and would be expected to be successful in overseas assignments or in culturally diverse settings.

At the beginning of Autumn Term all four groups completed the ICSI, which included several socio-demographic questions. Although the "Introduction to International Business" and "Living in the U.S.A." courses each contained significant discussions of culture, it was only the "Cross-Cultural Primer" course that employed the five cross-cultural exercises. The evening adult course devoted very little time to culture. After three weeks, all four groups completed another ICSI identical to the earlier questionnaire.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A total of 88 participants completed the pre-test ICSI and 84 completed the post-test version. The participants were distributed as follows:

Groups	Pre-Test	Post-Test
U.S. Treatment	19	18
U.S. Control	23	22
Non-U.S. Control	26	24
Adult Control	20	20
	88	84

In addition to the traditional background questions, this questionnaire asked participants if they lived or worked outside their home countries, if they spoke and wrote foreign languages, and asked what foreign/ethnic foods they had tried. Research has shown that having tried a wide variety of foreign foods can be a predictor of intercultural sensitivity (Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992). Comparisons of background data revealed no significant differences between the U.S. Treatment and U.S. Control groups. The Non-U.S. Control group had obviously spent more time abroad, spoke more languages, and tried more types of food. They were also about a year older than their U.S. counterparts. As for the Adult Control group, average age was the only characteristic in which they differed significantly from the other American groups--35 years vs. 18. And again, the five cross-cultural exercises described earlier were the foundation of the Treatment Group's "Cross-Cultural Primer" course.

Data analysis

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the ICSI means for the four groups. Table 1 (see APPENDIX B) reveals that in the Pre-Test, when the four groups were compared against each other (reading vertically); none had a significantly higher ICSI score. From a starting point, therefore, the groups were fairly comparable in terms of intercultural sensitivity. In the Post-Test, when all groups are compared to each other, only one group had a significantly higher mean: the U.S. Treatment group. And the differences were significant at $p<.01$. None of the other groups were even close to differentiating themselves from their counterparts (the closest was Table 1-C-- U.S. Control vs. Non-U.S. Control at $p=.3163$).

This increase in the U.S. Treatment mean is reflected in a comparison of Pre-Test and Post-Test results (reading horizontally). The U.S. Treatment mean is the only result that is significant at $p<.01$ (actually $p=.0034$). In fact, it was the only result that was even close to showing a significant increase. The other groups produced results of $p=.2966$ for Non-U.S. Control, $p=.7638$ for U.S. Control, and $p=.8432$ for Adult Control.

DISCUSSION

Students in the U.S. Control group had the "typical" pedagogical exposure to cultural differences in international business. They read about it, wrote about it, discussed it, and were tested on it. Their classroom test scores indicate that they intellectually understood many of the causes and consequences of cultural conflict. Yet they showed no significant growth in their ability to deal with cross-cultural problems. The Non-U.S. Control group represents the students who might be expected to be somewhat more interculturally sensitive by virtue of the fact that they have been raised abroad and were widely traveled individuals. They too read, discussed, and wrote about the issue of cultural differences. Yet in the pre-test, their scores were not significantly higher than any of the other groups and they showed no significant growth during their orientation course. And the Adult U.S. Control group represents the group who might be expected to be more interculturally sensitive because of their "life experience." But in this sample, that was not the case.

Surprisingly, the results of this study suggest that intercultural sensitivity does not increase significantly by living in a foreign country, or by gaining life experience, or by taking an introductory course in international business that focuses on cultural issues. Instead, increases in intercultural sensitivity require specific cross-cultural skill training that addresses both the intellectual and experiential aspects of cultural differences. The study also indicates that there is a practical, effective way for educators to improve the intercultural sensitivity of their students.

Still, it is important to recognize that the results of any experiment have to be interpreted with caution. The sample of this study, for example, was very small and selected purely for its convenience. As a consequence, the results cannot be generalized to a larger population. Nevertheless, the potential of the results indicate that this topic deserves further examination. As with any single-study investigation, it would be useful to replicate and extend the research.

This paper provides evidence that intercultural sensitivity is a skill that can be learned as well as measured. Since these skills are reported to be an important criterion of an individual's success in international business, educators should consider using the five exercises to provide their marketing students with this valuable attribute.

APPENDIX A

An Example Critical Incident: "Close Encounter"

Don Robinson was on the "fast track" at his multinational bank in New York City. Only in his late twenties, Don had been asked to represent the bank at a major conference in Buenos Arias, Argentina. New to the bank's Global Business Division, Don was understandably flattered that a senior executive would ask him to participate in the international conference.

His arrival in Buenos Arias had gone smoothly until the preconference cocktail party. Jorge Palencia--about the same age as Don and a rising star at an Argentinean bank--approached Don, introduced himself and immediately struck up a conversation. As he spoke Jorge seemed to be making a physical advance. Every time Jorge would advance, Don would move away and Jorge would again move forward. This went on until Don backed into a table blocking any further retreat. Still, Jorge kept his close distance. Uncomfortable and annoyed by Jorge's boorish and aggressive behavior, Don excused himself and left the party. During the conference, Don made a point of avoiding Jorge, spending most of his time with bankers from North America or Europe.

How can you best explain this situation?

1. Jorge had made a sexual advance.
2. Don was responding to Jorge's inebriated condition and the alcohol on his breath.
3. It is very unusual in a Latin American country for such a young man to represent his firm. Jorge resented the presence of another man his age and wished to make Don feel as uncomfortable as possible, hoping he would leave.
4. The comfortable social distance usually kept between two Latin Americans is much closer than that of Americans. Both Don and Jorge were seeking a comfortable distance.

Discussion

1. While it is not uncommon to see men in Argentina walking arm-in-arm or greeting each other with a kiss on the cheek, Don's assumption that Jorge's physical closeness was sexually motivated is not accurate. It is possible that Don was feeling paranoid. When one confronts new situations and behaviors without a frame of reference, it is common to attach familiar attributions to them. Please select another response.
2. While Argentineans are gregarious and enjoy their domestic wines and spirits, it would be a misconception to think that they regularly drink to excess. There is no indication in the incident that this was the cause of Don's response. Please select a different explanation.
3. There is a phenomenon called the "king of the hill" syndrome in which men who see themselves on their way to the top find ways to keep other men from reaching the top also: The king claims power by pushing competitors away. Although this is a possible explanation for the behavior described, it is doubtful that this fully explains this situation, given that Don and Jorge represented different firms. There is a better response.
4. This is the best response. Latin Americans usually stand closer to one another than do European Americans in the United States. Whereas the comfortable distance Don would keep from others in conversation is about 18 inches, the comfortable distance for Jorge and most Latin Americans is about 10-12 inches. Both Don and Jorge were trying to find their comfortable distance.

APPENDIX B

Table 1-A

Group	Pre-Test Mean/Number	Post-Test Mean/Number	Significance of F-value
U.S. Control	4.183/23	4.217/22	.7638
U.S. Treatment	4.383/19	4.913/18	.0034**
	.1190	.0001**	

**p<.01

Table 1-B

Group	Pre-Test Mean/Number	Post-Test Mean/Number	Significance of F-value
Non-U.S.Control	4.244/26	4.010/24	.2966
U.S. Treatment	4.383/19	4.913/18	.0034**
	.2553	.0024**	

**p<.01

Table 1-C

Group	Pre-Test Mean/Number	Post-Test Mean/Number	Significance of F-value
U.S. Control	4.183/23	4.217/22	.7638
Non-U.S.Control	4.244/26	4.010/24	.2966
	.5495	.3163	

Table 1-D

Group	Pre-Test Mean/Number	Post-Test Mean/Number	Significance of F-value
Adult Control	4.199/20	4.174/20	.8432
U.S. Treat-ment	4.383/19	4.913/18	.0034**
	.1011	.0001**	

**p<.01

Table 1-E

Group	Pre-Test Mean/Number	Post-Test Mean/Number	Significance of F-value
Adult Control	4.199/20	4.174/20	.8432
U.S. Control	4.183/23	4.217/22	.7638
	.9569	.8550	

Table 1-F

Group	Pre-Test Mean/Number	Post-Test Mean/Number	Significance of F-value
Adult Control	4.199/20	4.174/20	.8432
Non-U.S. Control	4.244/26	4.010/24	.2966
	.4950	.5945	

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TEACHING MARKETING IN SAUDI ARABIA: CHALLENGES AND STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT

Cross-cultural education presents many challenges and focuses attention on the significant differences in teaching and learning styles around the world. In 1995, I began the first of two teaching assignments in Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabian culture, strongly rooted in Islam and the teachings of the Qur'an, bears little similarity to most Western cultures. Although this dissimilarity was apparent from the outset, I did not anticipate many of the trials I would face in the coming years, especially in the classroom setting. Although exhausting, the experience proved a rewarding one, allowing me the creativity to develop the strategies best suited to learning across cultures.

INTRODUCTION

The headline seemed to jump off the page, screaming "Fleeing Saudi Arabia: The bombing of Western compounds in Riyadh is driving out American professors" (Castillo 2003). I was shocked to read that the three suicide bombings of compounds where foreigners lived appeared to be creating an exodus of American academics. For many American scholars the benefits of being there were no longer worth the risks. This exodus is especially troubling for me since I had recently spent five years teaching marketing in Saudi Arabia, and I believe it is essential to have Americans who can help explain Saudi Arabian culture to other Americans. The purpose of this paper is to share some of my impressions and experiences as a marketing teacher in Saudi Arabia and, in this way, to help American educators to understand the way another culture shapes the educational experience. To think as a Westerner is not enough for a Western educator to select the most appropriate pedagogy in a non-Western cultural environment. My experiences validate the importance of eliminating the self-reference criterion in international marketing (Lee 1966) in which a decision-maker must break free from an ethnocentric orientation in order to find the best problem-solution. Before focusing upon those aspects of the Saudi Arabian educational experience that posed problems for a Western educator, it is first necessary to provide background on the country's environment and to explore the basic differences between Saudi and American educational practices.

A PORTRAIT OF PROGRESS

Saudi Arabia is geographically the largest country in the Arabian Peninsula. Located in the southwest corner of Asia and occupying four-fifths of the peninsula, it is a land extending from the Red Sea to the Arabian (Persian) Gulf, and a land portrayed by the novelists and poets as a mysterious place of romance and fantasy (Al-Farsy 1986). Most Americans know very little about the real Saudi Arabia. How Saudi Arabia became the wealthy power it is today is a fascinating story of determination and perseverance.

In the early 1900s, Abdul Aziz Bin Saud, who later became the country's first king, used his shrewd negotiating skills to unite the various tribes into one nation (Holden and Johns 1982). Thirty years later, the land achieved statehood and soon after, oil was discovered. During the 1930s, American firms built the Saudi oil industry, creating a complex relationship between the two countries, including close economic ties that were reinforced by concerns about common enemies such as the Soviet Union, and Iran after the 1979 Islamic revolution.

From the time King Abdul Aziz and American leaders established ties in 1933, oil for the United States and protection for the Saudi dynasty have been at the core of their relationship. Crude oil drives the Saudi economy and America's, as well. As the world's largest exporter of oil, Saudi Arabia provides the United Sates with its single largest source of crude oil, a dependence that figured prominently in the U.S. led Persian Gulf War against Iraq in 1991. It was the Gulf War, in fact, that moved the United States even closer to Saudi Arabia, which provided air bases from which American fighter jets launched strikes against Iraq. After the war, the United States left behind about 5,000 troops – a presence that the Saudi ruling class preferred to play down because of the anger it provoked among its residents, as well as the millions of other Muslims throughout the world.

According to the CIA World Factbook (2004), Saudi Arabia's imports and exports for 2003 are approximately $30.4 billion and $86.5 billion, respectively. The per capita GDP is $11,800 with 25% of the population being unemployed. With a

seemingly unlimited supply of revenue, the Royal Family and Council of Ministers have developed an impressive infrastructure to provide social benefits to its citizens. Saudi Arabia operates one of the world's most advanced welfare states. Saudis get free health care and interest-free home and business loans. College education is free within the kingdom and heavily subsidized for those who study abroad. Electricity and telephone service are available at far below cost, as are gasoline and domestic air travel. And, in one of the driest places in the world, water is almost free.

Phenomenal development during the last quarter of the Twentieth Century created a strong demand for personnel to support Saudi Arabia's institutions and facilities. Roughly one-third the size of the United States, this country has an estimated population of 26 million people, which includes approximately 6 million non-nationals (CIA World Factbook 2004). About a quarter of Saudi Arabia's population, and more than a third of all residents aged fifteen to sixty-four, are foreign nationals, known as expatriates. Seventy percent of all jobs in Saudi Arabia--and close to 90 percent of all private-sector jobs--are filled by foreigners.

From an economic point of view, there are difficulties in increasing the number of Saudi citizens in the work force. One difficulty is that potential Saudi workers for low-skilled and other jobs were becoming less competitive with foreigners in the private-sector labor market. Wages of non-Saudi workers had been adjusted downward since the early 1980s, and, with a ready supply of non-Saudis willing to work in low-skilled occupations, the wage gap between Saudis and non-Saudi workers widened. In addition, as the government recognized, Saudi secondary school and university graduates were not always as qualified as foreign workers for employment in the private sector. Although the Riyadh-based Institute of Public Administration (IPA), with which I was affiliated, offered training programs to increase the competitiveness of Saudi nationals, our programs had difficulty attracting participants.

Then there is the demographic problem. Saudi Arabia has one of the highest birth rates in the world, approximately 30 births/1000. Ninety-seven percent of all Saudis are sixty-four or younger, and half the population is under eighteen. The presence of so many working age people places enormous pressure on the economy.

A faltering Saudi economy, which grew rich on high oil prices in the early to mid- 1980s, adds to the problem. Per capita income has dropped by more than two-thirds; there are fewer jobs and a lot less money. The functioning of Saudi Arabia's advanced welfare state is influenced dramatically by oil price fluctuations. In the early 1980s, oil sold for nearly $40 a barrel and the annual per capita income was approximately $29,000. Just prior to the Gulf War, a barrel of oil was selling for $15 and then sky rocketed back to $36 a barrel during the war before quickly falling again. Prices are once again close to $40, but with the combined effects of inflation and the population explosion per capita income has decreased to below $7,000.

MAJOR CULTURAL VARIATIONS

Assimilating the changes brought on by rapid development has been a struggle for Saudi Arabia. Although eager to acquire the benefits of Western technology, the Saudis have been careful not to embrace progress at the expense of their cultural heritage. Several cultural variations help to create barriers to adopting Western educational approaches.

Saudi culture is one of well-established tradition and exceedingly strong family, religious, and social values. These values influence the students' learning styles and their ability to adapt to training and the type of career for which they are being prepared. Among the most evident effects of these values are the severe restrictions placed on interactions between men and women. For example, throughout all levels of education, men and women are separate. Saudi students traditionally attend gender-segregated primary and secondary schools. Even at the college level, where coeducational universities do exist, male-female interaction is strictly limited, and students are generally instructed by teachers of the same gender.

Traditionally, the emphasis on family time has been an additional barrier to educational and professional pursuits in Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabian women and men marry early and do not routinely delay starting a family. Couples place a high value on time spent with the family. Attending classes all day and studying at night is deemed unacceptable to either gender because this interferes with family time.
In addition, the extended family structure also makes it highly unusual for a young person to live independently. The adjustment to independent living was a challenging and independence-building experience for the students. For the majority of them, this educational experience represented the first time they had lived independent of family. Many of the students came from homes where expatriates were hired to do the domestic chores. Now at school, the students had to take care of themselves.

Islam is the dominant religion in Saudi Arabia (100% of the population according to the World Factbook, 2004). It not only influences its followers' values, but it also influences the timing of many of their activities because of the duty to pray. Just as their ancestors before them, strict interpretation of Islam requires all Muslims to bow toward Makkah (Mecca) for prayer five times each day.

A special challenge for me to overcome was my frustration with students who were distressed by the fact that their concerns could not always be addressed immediately. In Muslim culture the concept of *Shura* is the prevalent custom and refers to the practice in which a leader is available to hear the concerns of his subjects directly. In Saudi Arabia the *Majlis Al-Shum* is the government body through which the king hears his subjects' concerns (Saudi Arabia 1996). For example, at the outset I encountered difficulty with the students' methods for contacting me. Initially, I often received multiple calls at home on a given evening from a student seeking an immediate and direct response.

Then, too, the traditional approach to Saudi Arabian education is a didactic one. Memorization is much more important than in Western education and problem solving skills must be developed from a more basic level. The culture's perspective on time also clashes with the linear perception of time in American culture with our deeply-imbedded habits of saving, scheduling, and managing time and of setting and meeting deadlines.

Although the aforementioned factors represent the challenges faced on a grand scale, other more direct challenges presented themselves throughout my 5 year teaching experience. In my work at both the IPA and King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals (KFPUM) faculty taught in English and followed western educational patterns. Since there were considerable differences between Middle Eastern and Western approaches to education all students participated in orientation seminars. No amount of orientation, however, prepared the students or me for the de facto challenges they would have to face.

The environment of Saudi Arabia influences education and poses some special problems for Western educators. Table 1 summarizes the relevant environmental influences, educational problems encountered, and strategies selected.

TABLE 1
ENVIRONMENTAL INFLUENCES ON TEACHING STRATEGIES SELECTED

Environmental Influences	Educational Problem	Strategies Selected
State supported education, high standard of living, and high proportion of foreign workers	Lessened motivation to succeed	
Strong family values	Unwillingness to work or attend classes in the evening	
Extended family structure	Students coping for first time with taking care of themselves as well as studying	Over time, these activities seemed to have helped the students to develop every day problem-solving skills, which appear not to have been previously tested.
Muslim duty to pray five times daily	Hours of prayer differ and interfere with rigid class scheduling	Class schedules had to be designed to accommodate prayer times
Educational emphasis on memorization	Problem solving skills need more basic development	
Custom of leaders holding audiences to hear the concerns of their subjects	Student demands for immediate response and solution to problems	Eventually, the students learned that acceptable organizational methods for contacting me included making appointments or using regularly scheduled office hours.
Perspective on time	Initial difficulties in taking deadlines for assignments seriously	The students learned that large organizations function only when each individual performs correctly and on time. After that, only on occasion were deadlines and punctuality a problem.

FACILITATING KNOWLEDGE ACQUISITION

In addition, there are some basic differences in educational practices between Saudi Arabia and America (gender separation, didactic learning styles, lack of exposure to constructive criticism in front of others, time dedicated to study or work versus family, instructor-student role relationship, test-taking style, level of self-direction, maintenance of good self-esteem, and even expectations for level of accomplishment, to name a few), even though a number of academic factors differentiated the programs I was affiliated with from traditional Saudi Arabian educational programs. In both programs faculty used American teaching and learning methodologies, textbooks and other resource materials.

Since English was a second language for the students, effective communication was the key to resolving curricular, personal, social, cultural, and academic concerns.

In addition to paying close attention to whether students really understood the information some accommodations had to be planned into the didactic learning situations to meet the Saudi students' special academic needs. It was important to review teaching methods and styles on an ongoing basis to make certain they were meeting the learning needs of the students.

I gave considerable time and attention to determining how to effectively teach marketing to students whose English skills were often weaker than I had expected. Language instruction in Saudi Arabia emphasizes conversational English, thus reading comprehension and English writing skills were not always well developed. In addition to a lack of understanding of the meanings and definitions of many words, especially the lexicon of business and marketing, the students often did not understand the nuances of context.

In addition to English language difficulty, many of the Saudi students' lacked traditional Western test-taking skills. For example both multiple choice questions and cumulative examinations were difficult and often perplexed the students; many were unable to recognize either questions grouped by topic or repetitive questions. Inability to recognize contextual references presented a sizable challenge to the students on examinations as well.

Initially, the students performed best on fill-in-the-blank questions and were tested exclusively in this manner. I worried, however, that tailoring tests to the Saudi students' strengths would neither improve their English skills nor adequately test their comprehension. As a first step, I assigned specific pages of text from which test questions would be drawn and encouraged the students to read these in English. Before this, the Saudi students often translated entire chapters into Arabic in order to study them. By emphasizing specific short passages, I helped the students learn to save time by eliminating the translation step in their reading and understanding of English. As the students' English and test-taking skills progressed, I used increasingly complex testing. Daily quizzes encouraged students to prepare for class and learn more material. Care had to be taken through item analysis to ensure that tests showed no cultural bias. Progressively, each student performed better on complex multiple choice and short-answer questions. This performance aided in the assessment of the students' conceptual knowledge.

Lectures and class discussion had to take into account the limited English comprehension skills. Specifically, several presentation techniques were adjusted to accommodate the Saudi students, such as speaking more slowly and using examples they could understand. When it became apparent that textbook assignments presented difficulty in comprehension, detailed study guides or copies of the lecture notes from which students might better identify important points of the reading were provided. Comprehension increased with the use of visual aids and simple, uncluttered lectures. The students gradually learned to take notes on their own. Also, they learned to use the textbook as a resource and a reference, to spell correctly, and to use the pictures and diagrams to reinforce their independent study and learning efforts outside of class. In other words, increased English comprehension paved the way for the students' growth into independent, self-motivated learners.

As time progressed, it became apparent that academic independence was a significant step because in Saudi Arabia's educational system, the students had not been encouraged to be self-directed. They consequently required structure, guidance, and repetition of lessons and objectives throughout each assignment. I learned to start out with firm structure and specific guidance, gradually allowing students independence at a rate which they could handle. This is particularly important given the Saudi students' emphasis on grades and class standing. By outlining course expectations early and often, students were given optimum opportunity to achieve the high grades and standing they desired. Furthermore, when stated expectations were met, students benefited from good self-esteem and the existence of a positive learning environment.

Once established, an integral component of the positive learning environment focused on maintenance of good self-esteem. The Saudi culture is a proud one, and to be embarrassed in front of one's peers would constitute a blow to self-esteem. I quickly learned, therefore, to allow students to raise their hands in response to questions rather than call on one of them by name. In the event that I did call on a student and found the student struggling to answer, it was helpful to quickly comment that "this is a difficult question" and invite the rest of the class to help with the correct answer. Teamwork mitigates the individual self-esteem issue by moving the focus from the individual to the group. Constructive criticism was not a familiar concept to these students. Thus, it was important to keep them apprised of their lack of progress, but in an extremely confidential manner.

CONCLUSION

The keys to overcoming some of the cultural challenges clearly were observation, sensitivity to cultural differences and learning needs, communication and flexibility. For the Saudi Arabian students, effective communication first meant mastering a common language with which to communicate. With this completed, they had a tool with which ongoing dialogue could take place, allowing discussion of difficulties, strategies, and solutions. This flexibility to break with tradition and develop new, culturally sensitive teaching methods appropriate to the program became the hallmark of success. This lesson will be indispensable for future programs. Students the world over are not all alike. To successfully educate them, their special needs must be met with dedication, flexibility, and educational integrity. Keep in mind the need to eliminate the self-reference criterion to educational practices in the educator's home country in adapting teaching strategies.

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USING THE STUDENT-OPERATED BUSINESS TO MAXIMIZE EXPERIENTIAL AND PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING: A CASE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

The need for marketing students to enhance their problem-solving skills in preparation for their careers is addressed. To improve the ability of students to develop their talents in this area, a student-operated business in a marketing curriculum is analyzed. Using Kolb's (1984) Experiential Learning Model and the Problem-based Learning (PBL) Essentials developed by Wee and Kek (2002) as measures of effectiveness, this case study indicates that a student-operated business could be an all-encompassing means by which to train students to solve problems.

INTRODUCTION

The vast majority of marketing students will someday integrate their discipline-specific knowledge in non-academic environs. Therefore, marketing instructors should teach skills that address the needs of employers.

This study examines a method of enhancing the skill of problem-solving, an area in which marketing majors appear to be deficient upon graduation. The marketing literature has identified this shortcoming (Wee and Kek, 2002; Kennedy, Lawton and Walker 2001; Titus 2000; Scott and Frontczak 1996; Arora and Stoner 1992; Deckinger, Brink, Katzenstein and Primavera 1990), which was aptly summarized by Chapman and Sorge (1999): "Students simply do not have enough exposure to making business decisions in uncertain and ambiguous environments." (p. 225)

A common definition of teaching is "to impart knowledge or skill" (The American Heritage College Dictionary, 1997). In other words, the traditional role of teachers is to help students find answers. The paths by which we guide students to these answers vary, but the aim is to provide information of which students were previously unaware.

However, because the marketplace needs future employees to be more adept at finding solutions without pointed parameters under conditions where matters are multiple and unclear, perhaps teachers need to do a better job of helping students diagnose problems. Often, the most difficult part of decision-making is determining the exact nature of the problem, after which one can more easily find the most effective and efficient answers.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

Traditional teaching techniques (e.g., lecture) are well-suited to directing students toward correct answers. These passive methods of instruction, however, are more difficult to administer when concrete outlines are vague or missing altogether, the very character of problems that students will encounter on the job. Accordingly, for students to better understand the intricacies of problems, students may need to first grapple with them, extracting needed information from them and forming outlines and courses of action themselves. Active learning, when students become active participants in knowledge creation, is better suited to generate this behavior. A specific method of active learning, experiential learning, could be the ideal method of producing desired results in problem-solving. According to Checkoway (1996), "It is unrealistic to expect...instructors to facilitate learning when they have not had these experiences themselves" (p. 605). Armed with this reasoning, many experiential learning instructors seek activities that bring the same realities of marketing practice that students will face after graduation to their courses.

In these experiential settings, students become committed to learning when they apply the ideas they study in "real" circumstances, and when they link theory with practice (Gamson 1995; Hirsch 1996). Two of the more common methodologies in this area are simulations and live cases. However, even these experiential techniques cannot help students in every aspect of professional reality.

Simulations are effective introductions to realistic marketing situations, but the artificial and/or post-hoc nature of this exercise does not address "real-time" relationships and consequences. Likewise, in live cases, (e.g., service-learning, client-based projects), "students are exposed to problems in real life, but they act as consultants with only a limited stake in the success or failure of their plans." (Daly, 2001, p. 204)

adopt an educational process that improves and cultivates these abilities" (p. 226). Therefore, one intent of this study was to take the first step towards determining if a particular course format satisfies the essentials of PBL.

The area of pedagogy where PBL is most easily delivered is through experiential learning, a teaching style that encourages active participation by students. In higher education, there is a growing trend toward active-leaning pedagogies (Barr and McNeilly 2002; Bobbit et al. 2000; Gremler et al. 2000; Kennedy, Lawton, and Walker 2001). The primary reason behind this switch is that research indicates that when students become active participants in knowledge creation, they learn more (Cross 1987; Johnson and Johnson 1993). Accordingly, this course was also examined to determine whether it satisfied all of the elements of a successful experiential learning project.

Specifically, a theoretical analysis will be made in one experiential learning tactic—the student-operated business—to determine if this instructional format can serve as an effective method by which teachers can teach students to solve problems.

The Student-operated Business

Over the years, many student-operated businesses have been supervised by academic institutions, but most of these concerns operate outside of the curriculum, most often in student organizations (Daly, 2001). One example of a student-operated business engaged within a marketing curriculum was described in great detail by Shawn Daly (2001), whose insights serve as an excellent primer in the mechanics involved in undertaking such an endeavor. This case study will investigate how a student-operated business within a marketing curriculum addresses the experiential learning cycle and the essential components of PBL.

Class Format

Over a 16-week semester, a senior-level course and marketing minor capstone, entitled, "Seminar in Marketing Management," was transformed into a retail business operated by the 23 students enrolled in it. For organizational purposes, the class was divided into four departments—Research Management, Production Management, Promotion Management and Sales Management—and students were given the opportunity to rank order their preferences for which department they would like to be assigned. The following is a brief description of the responsibilities of each department.

Research Management
Students in this department were responsible for overseeing the collection and analysis of primary and secondary research data during the semester.

Production Management
Students in this department were responsible for overseeing product design and pricing, as well as managing the supply chain.

Promotion Management
Students in this department were responsible for developing and implementing the promotional plan.

Sales Management
Students in this department were responsible for developing and implementing the sales plan, which included training students on personal selling techniques.

After departments were formed, each class (two days a week for an hour and fifteen minutes each session) took the form of a company meeting, where each department gave progress reports and major issues were discussed. On many occasions, students were given time to work within their own departments during class time. As a group, students were required to present and deliver in report form the following assignments: a department plan for the semester; a mid-term plan progress report ; and a final report on the achievement or non-achievement of the goals of their department. Because everyone in the course was also involved in the actual selling of the product, each department also had sales objectives.

What Happened

Within one week of the start of the course, students began the process of deciding which product the organization would offer, ultimately deciding on Nalgene-style, 32-ounce water bottles emblazed with the college logo. Student research findings indicated that the two most popular bottle colors were red and blue, so an initial order of 214 bottles was made in those colors to a supplier who could make delivery at a total per unit cost of $5.30 per bottle. The students decided to set the retail price at $10.00.

After the initial order sold-out ahead of schedule, a second order of 504 was made to keep pace with expected demand. By the end of the semester, and after each student was given one bottle (total of 23), all but 24 were sold, accounting for $6,710.00 in sales. After accounting for volume discounts (many

administrative departments purchased the product in bulk for thank-you gifts or student rewards) and a small promotions budget of $180, the student-operated business made a net profit of $2,484.60. This operating income funded an end-of-semester dinner party for the class at a local restaurant, and a $50 bonus to the top salesperson. The remainder of the proceeds went back into the marketing department foundation for future course use and to contribute toward student scholarships in the future.

DISCUSSION ON ADDRESSING THE ESSENTIALS OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING AND PBL

Since it is posited that the student-operated business can be an effective means of delivering experiential and problem-based learning, we must examine this pedagogic approach as compared to the components of Kolb's (1984) learning cycles and Wee and Kek's (2002) essentials of PBL.

Kolb's Experiential Learning Model

Concrete Experience
The fact that an entire course was centered on student decisions made the activity relevant and encouraged active participation.

Reflective Observation
Students were allowed to address successes and failures throughout the class and in reports at the end of the semester.

Abstract Conceptualization
Instructor served as a sounding board off which students would bounce ideas, which allowed the instructor to associate marketing theories to practical applications.

Active Experimentation
Every step of the course is a new experience, so it was an unstated requirement that students take the knowledge known prior to the beginning of the semester, as well as understanding gained during the process of running the business, and apply it in their future class decisions.

Wee and Kek's PBL Essentials

Problem
By turning the class into a business every semester, students are confronted with multiple problems:

- How to conduct product research;
- What product to sell;
- How to find the best supplier;
- How to manage the supply chain;
- How to promote the product;
- How to manage the personal selling effort.

Additionally, unforeseen problems arose during the semester, much like they do in actual businesses. For example, on the day prior to Spring Break when the second order of water bottles was to be made, it was discovered that the manufacturer in China was out of stock.

Problem-solving Skills
Upon hearing the news, one member of the Production Department called the instructor and both discussed a plan of action. The student took the problem with her on an airplane and upon landing at her vacation destination, contacted a fellow member of her department, whereupon they searched the World Wide Web until new supplier options were found. Upon review of these options with the instructor, a new bottle from a new manufacturer was chosen, ordered and arrived in time for distribution at the next class after Spring Break.

Self-Directed Learning Skills
By operating a business, students were confronted with a series of problems that needed to be solved before the ultimate goal of making a profit could be realized. The instructor stated only that a profit had to be attained and everything required for that objective to be reached was up to the students. Consequently, students took it upon themselves to determine the tools they would need to solve respective problems. Only then would the instructor be asked for guidance on procurement of these tools and upon their receipt, students proceeded to resolve the situation.

Acquiring Integrated Information
Out of necessity, students searched for answers by inquiring of (a) other academic departments (e.g., Graphic Design, English, Technical Communication); (b) college administrative departments (e.g., College Communications, Athletics); on-campus retail outlets (e.g., bookstore); and off-campus retail outlets (E.g., CostCo, Inc., other university bookstores).

Student-Centeredness
Because this pedagogy creates a united cause--making a class-wide profit--a strong sense of class community was developed, as measured by the classroom community scale (Rovai, 2002). This atmosphere inspired students to create their own learning experiences. For example, one student noticed that all of the cashiers at the CostCo where he worked were on their feet all day and must grow thirsty in the process. With the inability to leave

their posts except for breaks, the student solicited these workers about water bottles. Though these workers had no connection to the college, 20 of them purchased water bottles emblazed with the college logo.

Self- and Peer Assessment
As part of their written report requirements, students completed a self and peer evaluation form.

Collaboration in Small Groups
With the class divided into departments of 5-7 students, small group activities were constant throughout the semester.

Reiteration
Since the nature of problem-solving in a business model environment is the constant build-up of information from an original base of information, new solutions are compared to previous dilemmas to help ensure that these problems do not reoccur.

Reflection
The final reports in the student-operated business course are a direct reflection on the successes and failures in respect to the objectives of individual departments that occurred during the semester.

Teacher
Aside from the initial introduction of the concept, the instructor solicited comments from students via question-asking and played a directive role only to decide between options students could not resolve themselves.

CONCLUSION

The observed outcomes extracted from this pilot study supported both the completion of Kolb's (1984) Experiential Learning Model and Wee and Kek's (2002) Problem-based Learning Essentials. Student comments supported this position: "Now I know what it means to actually run a business"; "After this, I have a pretty good idea of what all that stuff in the books really means"; "I never realized how important working in a good group means to the overall success of a business."

Consequently, in this single instance, the student-operated business is a success in the context of marketing education. One case study, however, cannot reliably predict a consistent outcome. This study provides a starting line to conduct more encompassing scientific studies.

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PLEASE DON'T SUE ME:
A POSSIBLE ANSWER TO SOME LIABILITY CONCERNS OF EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Experiential learning in marketing education has exploded over the last twenty years. In many cases students are taken out of the classroom to perform "real world tasks." By doing so, professors are increasing their risk of being involved in a lawsuit. To minimize this risk, a Risk Management Plan should be developed with waivers and agreements to participate being integral parts of that plan. This paper discusses waivers and agreements to participate and how to develop them.

INTRODUCTION

Experiential education in the field of marketing has experienced a dramatic increase in popularity over the last twenty years. During this time period, a paradigm shift has been occurring in higher education from teacher-centered instruction to a student-centered approach. The movement from the passive lecture pedagogy to the active learning method of experiential learning has generated professor and student excitement and has also spawned much research on the topic (Bobbit et al. 2000; Daughtrey 2003; Kennedy et al. 2001), including a special issue of the *Journal of Marketing Education* on experiential education in April of 2000.

The increase in student-centered experiential education has brought with it an increased potential for liability on the part of the student, the professor and the institution. Even though the researchers could find few instances of legal action in the area, there is little doubt that risk increases when students are taken out of the classroom. It seems logical that in the litigious society in which we live a lawsuit will soon occur. An unfortunate accident could result in a lawsuit, which could end up in litigation and financially cripple a quality professor and institution. This risk of financial strain may force a professor to stay away from experiential learning exercises. For those that want to engage in experiential learning exercises, a Risk Management Plan needs to be created.

RISK MANAGEMENT

Experiential learning is an umbrella term for many different teaching pedagogies. Those can include internships, class projects with local businesses, service learning, implementing promotions for companies, selling products, consulting and conducting real world market research, etc. Since all projects are different, each project needs to be evaluated for the possible risk involved to the student, the professor and the institution. Analyzing the risk is essential for developing a Risk Management Plan. A successful risk management plan involves five stages of analyzing risk.

1. Identify the risk associated with the event/project.
2. Assess the risk for severity and frequency.
3. Evaluate strategies to control risk (avoid, modify, transfer, eliminate).
4. Implement strategy, manage claims and keep records.
5. Review and revise periodically or with new projects (King and Schmiesing1998; Servicelearning.org 2004).

The risk management plan should address all individuals and entities involved. In regard to students, the potential harm to students and by students needs to be covered. Assessment of the student population, prerequisite courses, insurance, the developmental age of the students, communication, and proper training all need to be considered. Time spent on quality training can negate future problems by bringing safety issues to the forefront of a student's mind. Students should also have the ability to opt out of a situation if they are not comfortable with specific challenges or dangers (Servicelearning.org 2004). The professor and institution can reduce their risk by: stopping the activity all together, obtaining insurance, providing for proper training of participants and staff, sponsoring safety clinics, maintaining student privacy, inspecting the work site, and using contracts such as agreements to participate and waivers (Malamud and Karayan 1992; Servicelearning.org 2004; Reams 2003). Of all the above Risk Management Plan components, perhaps the easiest and cheapest to implement are waivers and agreements to participate.

WAIVERS

According to Cotten and Wilde (1997), "an exculpatory agreement or waiver of liability is a contract in which the participant or user of a service

agrees to relinquish the right to pursue legal action against the service provider in the event that negligence of the provider results in an injury to the participant" (Cotten and Wilde 1997 p 63). Negligence is described to be an unintentional act which injures a person. The exculpatory agreement can be very broad and cover any and all actions of the issuer or it can be specific according to a certain activity. Typically, waivers are written contracts signed by a person agreeing not to hold the issuing party liable for negligence (Cotten and Cotten 1997). An added benefit to the waiver is that people are less likely to file a lawsuit if they have signed well-crafted forms because they feel the waiver is legal even in cases where it is not (Servicelearning.org 2004).

CONFLICT: TORT LAW V. CONTRACT LAW

A conflict arises between contract law and tort law in the case of waivers. Contract law contends that any competent party has the right to make a contract with another competent party with the only limit being that the contract does not contradict public policy. Tort law maintains that any party should be held liable for committing acts that injure others (Berry and Wong 1993). Waivers release from liability those whose actions cause injury to another party, thus the conflict. This conflict has been resolved in the courts by the general rule that waivers "will be enforceable unless they would frustrate an important public policy or unless the party getting the waiver was unfairly dominant in the bargaining process" (Berry and Wong 1993). This unfairly dominant situation can apply to experiential learning exercises.

WAIVERS IN THE COURTS

Research has shown that the validity of waivers in the court system depends on the particular view of each state. When deciding if waivers are valid many points are considered, including ambiguity. Court rulings as to whether the waiver was clear or ambiguous have been decided on areas such as type size, proper wording, and whether or not the activities or equipment used were mentioned (Malamud and Karayan 1992). Many states require that the word "negligence" be included in the waiver. Another area studied to determine validity is if the waiver goes against public policy. Contracts that break the law cannot be upheld in court. In addition, waivers cannot release from liability acts that are intentional, reckless or grossly negligent because doing so would encourage those acts (Hart and Ritson 2002).

ADULTS AND WAIVERS

Most of the data on waivers come form the sport and physical education area. In the sport setting the purpose of a waiver is to relieve the liability burden from the service provider and place it back with the participants. The same reason for waivers applies to experiential education so the connection is clear. In sporting contests, if an adult signs a waiver it is usually valid. If the activity is dangerous and requires a great amount of skill, the courts are less willing to invalidate the contract because the participant definitely knew what the dangers were. Examples of this include scuba-diving, rock-climbing and sky-diving (Schubert, Smith and Trentadue 1986). Athletic club members and spectators, however, seem to get the benefit of the doubt when they are injured. In these cases, three areas are investigated to determine the agreement's validity: (1) if the participant did not sign a waiver, (2) if the waiver was inconspicuous, (3) or if the language was not clear. Failure to read the waiver was not an excuse (Schubert, Smith and Trentadue 1986).

Courts test for fraud, misrepresentation or duress in waivers by checking the following areas:

- Did the person waiving his/her rights know what they were getting into?
- Were the words clear, detailed, easy to read, and specific?
- Was the bargaining process free and open with no party having power over the other (Malamud and Karayan 1992)?

With careful planning and creation of the waiver document the first two points can be handled fairly easily. The third poses many problems for higher education. According the Servicelearning.org (2004) a waiver would be useless if the experiential learning project/internship was a graduation requirement. The student has no choice but to participate in order to get a degree hence the bargaining process was not free and the institution had power over the student. One method around this would be to offer many experiential learning exercises giving the student a choice.

In the drafting a waiver, make sure to work with the university or college's legal council. The researchers could not find peer-reviewed examples of waivers that were used in the experiential learning for marketing education area. The following is an example of a waiver used in a sports setting from Doyice and Mary Cotton, experts in the field of waivers. This waiver could be a good start in the development of waivers used in marketing education.

"**Waiver of Liability**: In consideration of being permitted to play racquetball, on behalf of myself, my family, my heirs, my assigns, my executors and

administrators, **I hereby release the service provider from liability for injury, loss, or death to myself**, while using the facility, equipment, or in any way associated with participating in the activity of racquetball now or in the future, **resulting from the ordinary negligence of the service provider, its agents, or employees**".

_____ _____

Signature of participant Date (Cotton and Cotton 1997 p. 173)

AGREEMENTS TO PARTICIPATE

Another effective form that can be used to reduce the risk and liability for experiential learning is the agreement to participate. It targets two defenses in the arsenal against negligence claims, assumption of risk and depending on the state contributory or comparative negligence (Cotten and Wilde 1997). According to Van der Smissen, the assumption of risk defense states that one may not recover from an injury when they voluntarily exposed themselves to it and knew the risks involved. Contributory negligence exists "when the conduct of the plaintiff in any way helps to cause or aggravate the plaintiff's injury" (Cotten and Wilde 1997 p. 45). In these cases there is a bar to recovery. Comparative negligence, which is not a true defense, is a method used to divide up the blame for the cause of the injury between the plaintiff and the defendant(s) (Cotten and Wilde 1997). Awards will be split accordingly. The waiver does not address these issues.

The agreement to participate is not a waiver and it fulfills requirements of the assumption of risk defense by proving "that the participant had knowledge of, understanding of and an appreciation for the risks involved" (Cotten 1992 p. 15). In this agreement the student personally affirms an awareness of the behaviors expected and the risks of the activity. The affirmation of the assumption of risk comes with the signature.

The agreement to participate also covers the comparative/contributory negligence defenses. If a professor is proven to be negligent it may be wise to prove if the student was also negligent. A requirement of contributory/comparative negligence is to prove that "the risk was foreseeable to the participant" (Cotten and Cotten 1997). The agreement states what behavioral expectations are acceptable, and the safety rules of the activity. This transfers some of the responsibility for the safety of participants to the participants. If the participant fails to follow rules, they are breaching a duty to themselves to act safely.

The agreement to participate may also be helpful in responding to claims based on a failure to warn. Failure to warn means that the participants did not know that they could be injured doing a certain activity (Cotten and Wilde 1997). To combat this, possible injuries should be listed on the agreement to participate.

The development of an agreement to participate is not difficult. According to Cotten & Wilde (1997), there are five major sections in the agreement to participate.

I. The first section describes general information about the nature of the activity. Specific detail must be given about the activities involved, skills required for safety, the intensity level expected and a general statement regarding the impossibility of preventing all injuries.

II. The second section refers specifically to the types of accidents that can occur and the possible injuries which could result. These include drowning, broken bones, death, etc. The developer of the agreement must be careful to mention that other possible injuries could occur that are not listed. It is impossible to list all possible injuries, but all catastrophic and major injuries should be included.

III. The next section lists expectations about the participants' behavior. Proper adherence to rules and the use of appropriate equipment should be discussed so that the participant would be expected to assume responsibility to prevent injuries.

IV. This section affirms that the participant has the appropriate physical fitness level to participate in the activity. It should also serve as a notification to the professor as to whether a student possesses specific injuries or illnesses (i.e. epilepsy, asthma, etc.), and that the student is able to participate safely.

V. The last section should be signed by the participants to affirm that they understand the risks of the activity. In the wording, it should be made clear that the person understands, has knowledge of and appreciates the risks involved with the activity. In addition, it should affirm that the individual is participating in a voluntary activity, agrees to follow the rules, and agrees to report unsafe practices of other participants to supervisors.

Each institution, program, experiential learning exercise and/or activity is different so each agreement to participate must be specifically written to fit the specific activity. The agreement to

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WHAT A LITIGIOUS WORLD WE LIVE IN!
LEGAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE TREATMENT OF CONFIDENTIALITY IN STUDENTS' MARKETING PROJECTS

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ABSTRACT

A Proquest search of the *The Chronicle of Higher Education* revealed that over 300 articles have been published with the word "litigation" in the abstract in just the last four years. As it has in the rest of our society (the U.S. Chamber of Commerce (2004) reports that the annual cost of lawsuits for U.S. businesses is now $129 billion), the tidal wave of lawsuits has washed up on the shores of U.S. institutions of higher education. In fact, most educators are probably personally familiar with a one or more legal cases involving a faculty member, student, athlete, or student group (Academe 2004: Raftery 2004).

As a result of concerns for avoiding litigation, many schools have implemented specific standards to protect the university, faculty, and students from liability. For example, law schools, medical schools, and most undergraduate programs that require the supervision of students in an applied work setting have developed extensive ethical standards and guidelines to inform the actions of students and supervising faculty (Anderson, Kanter, and Slane 2004: Boon and Turner 2004).

The business education literature, however, includes very few studies of the legal risks associated with the supervision of students working on classroom assignments. In particular, we have located almost no such articles that deal with the increasingly common situation where an outside organization agrees to participate with students in a classroom project and then raises questions of confidentiality and non-disclosure (Katz, Harshman, and Dean 2000). Such as they are, existing studies of ethical and legal issues in the supervision of student projects tend to focus on protection of survey participants and the related use of Institutional Review Boards (Jenson, Machiewicz, and Riley 2003). But, the confidentiality issues that impact student projects involving businesses most often pertain to the protection of trade secrets.

The American Marketing Association's Code of Conduct articulates the importance of maintaining confidentiality by indicating that it is the responsibility of marketing professionals to "Apply confidentiality and anonymity in professional relationships with regard to privileged information." But, do the same constraints with regard to the handling of privileged information also apply to students' marketing projects? This study examines alternative methods of dealing with client information in student projects and the advantages and disadvantages of each. The typical elements of Non-Disclosure (confidentiality) Agreements are discussed together with the implications of such agreements for the students and their faculty supervisor.

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GETTING CLOSER TO REALITY: IMPROVING UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN ACTION-ORIENTED DISCIPLINES BY ENHANCING THE MEASUREMENT OF STUDENTS' PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

This article is based on a research performed looking for ways to improve University education by enhancing students' performance evaluation. Grounded theory was used to analyze videotaped feedbacks 14 managers from 8 companies gave on 37 Strategic Marketing Plans that 182 students developed over 4 months, within the Marketing Policies & Strategies course (2003/2004), 4th year of the Combined Undergraduate & MBA Program at ESADE Business School, Ramon Llull University, Barcelona, Spain.
Lines of work detected: 1) selection of companies, 2) differentiating ends from means, 3) development of abilities parallel to strategic knowledge, 4) time optimization, 5) underlying companies' social function.

INTRODUCTION

This article describes research exploring possibilities to improve learning of University students of action-oriented disciplines such as marketing. Focus was on methods' enhancement for evaluating students' performance in their learning process. Study's environment was the Marketing Policies & Strategies (MPS) course in 4th year of the Combined Undergraduate & MBA Program offered at ESADE Business School, Ramon Llull University, Barcelona, Spain, on academic year 2003/2004.

One challenge of Universities is to adapt our methods and strategies to environment evolution (Manzanares 1998), including students (Ibáñez-Martín 2001), as their profile evolves in time. This adaptive capacity (Ibáñez-Martín 2001) is intrinsic to the scholarship engagement that society demands from University (Rosovsky 2001). Measuring whether students are able to think and act in an independent and articulate way when they leave University (Pérez Cabaní *et al.* 2000; Harvey *et al.* 1993) helps such adaptation.

Exams are crucial in the functioning of universities (Gros and Romañá 1995; Pérez Cabaní *et al.* 2000), but in action-oriented disciplines, evaluation achieved through action (Manzanares 1988), projects and practical exercises (Pérez Cabaní *et al.* 2000) can be better than through the former. In this type of disciplines, knowledge is not an end in itself but rather a means to an end (Larréché 1987). Hence, fundamental knowledge to be assimilated by students is conditional or strategic knowledge – to know when and to know why – (Castelló and Monereo 1999), besides conceptual (to know what) and procedural (to know how) knowledges.

MPS is an action-oriented discipline, and in course of reference students are trained through 4 blocks: Marketing Strategy Theory, Marketing Information Systems Theory, Simulation of Marketing Strategy and Strategic Marketing Plans (SMP) for real companies. The first 3 blocks were developed during 20 sessions of 4 hours from late September 2003 until early March 2004. The 4th block took place from mid-November 2003 until mid-March 2004.

Culmination of this educational process is the elaboration of a SMP for a concrete case proposed by a real company. Level of strategic knowledge professors succeeded that students assimilated in the course is a key success factor for these SMP. Cases selected were very heterogeneous to force knowledge adaptation to each case.

CONCEPTUAL FRAME OF REFERENCE

On one hand, cornerstone of this research is the distinction between conditional or strategic knowledge, conceptual knowledge and procedural knowledge (Castelló and Monereo 1999).

Conditional or strategic knowledge is the ability to decide the usefulness (know why) and appropriateness (know when) of the procedures to resolve open and complex jobs. Conceptual knowledge consists of knowing what certain

techniques consist of, and procedural knowledge consists of knowing how to utilize them (Castelló and Monereo 1999).

A good example of applying those distinctions to marketing is market segmentation. Conceptual knowledge (know what) applied to market segmentation is its own definition; back to basics but with a fresh perspective, we could use the definition of market segmentation of Kotler and Trías de Bes (2003):

> "Segmentation consists of dividing the market (into groups of customers homogeneous among them, heterogeneous to other, *etc.*) to obtain new sales"

Once students know what a market segment is, next step in their learning process is getting to know how to do market segmentation; then procedural knowledge is applied. As an example from leisure industry (Sureda & Valls 2004):

> "A structured survey was administered...to identify...leisure activity preferences (9 aspects) ... and their importance. ... A hierarchical classification algorithm using the Ward method and Euclidean distance was employed. ... The whole process yielded 8 leisure styles ... (hedonists, e-freaks, workaholics, social freaks, committed types, routine types, well-established types, passive types) ..."

Continuing example, strategic knowledge would be to know when and to know why market segmentation applies. From solution life cycle perspective, market segmentation applies from the decelerated growth onwards, but not before ("know when" edge). From that moment on, competition will lead to delivering to the market different offers tailored to different groups of customers, which crossed with expertise gathered by customers is the reason why segmentation is required from that moment onwards ("know why" edge).

In summary, we must get our students to know what a market segment is, and to know how to perform market segmentation, but we also need to train them to identify when they need to use this tool, and also to understand why they have to use it then.

On the other hand, frame of analysis was the educational process based on the 4 stages of the learning cycle according to Kolb's Model: concrete experience, reflexive observation, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation. SMPs correspond to the later stage, and their quality evidence level of strategic knowledge assimilated by students as cases were very different.

Means of research were feedbacks given by managers for whose companies students made the SMPs: since their interests were greater (an economic contribution was asked to companies for filtering out eventual low-interest cases), their feedbacks were to be more significant, and were to evidence work lines for improvement.

Research Objectives

Driving objective was identifying work lines to improve students' strategic learning, and had to be translated into concrete pedagogic strategies and actions during 2004/2005 academic year.

As authors advanced in the execution of the research, we visualized that this could serve as the basis for future research both in the fields of other action-oriented disciplines and of other target students. This was converted into a second objective, and thus the final research plan balanced 1) the concrete case of the MPS course and 2) aspects generalizable to other typologies of action-oriented disciplines and/or profiles of students.

METHODS

Sample

Research was carried out by analyzing the videotaped feedback 14 managers from 8 companies gave on 37 SMP projects, developed by 182 students, organized in 37 groups, in the 4th year of the combined Undergraduate & MBA program of ESADE Business School in academic year 2003/2004.

Companies were very heterogeneous[1], thus motivating the use of qualitative methodology, which not only permits work with a small number of cases. Indeed, it also allows interpretation of managers' perceptions and the discovery of concepts and relationships between the data in such a way that its organization results in a theoretical scheme explaining the perceptual reality (which, in essence, is the definition that Strauss and Corbin, 1998, gave of qualitative methodology).

[1] List is available upon request to josepm.rius@esade.edu.

Instruments

Research was centered on the transcriptions of the videotaped feedback that managers gave after reading the projects, listening to the presentations of the students, and resolving doubts. In order to achieve in managers a mental attitude that would permit them to give sincere feedback, they were provided with an Evaluation Form on which they were asked to evaluate each group. After that, once managers were leveraged of the psychological pressure of having to evaluate students, the interview was started just offering managers precursors of dialogue so their feedback was as spontaneous as possible.

Procedures

Selection of companies began in September 2003. It was decided to ask each company for an economic contribution to participate in the projects. As far as we know, this was the first time in Spain that an economic contribution was requested from companies participating in company-university projects. It was observed that on segmenting companies willing to participate in that way, the projects proposed were more important for companies than before. This greater interest of companies elevated the efforts of students and of the Team of Tutors to achieve excellent projects. In addition, since their interests were greater, their feedback should also be more significant. That was one of the reasons to research them.

Projects were presented to students during the 2nd fortnight of November 2003. All the projects proposed were the result of business uncertainties of a strategic nature. One week before presentation, both a briefing of their case and the concrete calendar they were going to follow throughout the project was provided to each group of students[2].

After formal evaluations, managers were interviewed about their perceptions of the entire experience, their level of satisfaction, the level of usefulness, the following steps that they would take after the ideas and suggestions provided by the SMP, as well as the elements that could be improved in the learning process of students. Interviews were videotaped, then transcribed in MSWord, and then analyzed with program ATLAS-ti 4.1 for Windows 95 (Build 051) for interpretation and management of texts and theory construction.

Results of qualitative textual analysis were gathered in graphic form on a hierarchical map of categories[3], which 74 codes were simplified in a map illustrating the 7 key blocks around the Process carried out (Objectives, Effort, Planning, Methodology, Interaction with company, Results and Presentation)[4].

RESULTS

The detailed qualitative analysis reflected in the hierarchical map of relationships among categories enabled identifying 4 key areas that address research objectives:

a) Selection of companies that participate in the business-university collaboration;
b) Emphasis to the students of the distinction between ends and means;
c) Student development of a series of abilities parallel to strategic knowledge;
d) Optimizing time utilization for all parties.

It was equally recognized that no mention of the social function of the company was detected. In the belief that the directors of the future must clearly understand and accept this social function, this point was incorporated as the fifth key area of work to improve the social function on training the directors of the future.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Selection of companies that participate

This falls within area of "Objectives", which is one of 7 key blocks around the Process carried out. We especially highlight within this paragraph the "Commitment of the company", which is the basis of "Interaction with company", another of the 7 key blocks.

Requiring an economic contribution to companies contributes to elevating the quality of students' learning by making input quality higher, interaction with company easier, and also raises bar for University. It has to be symbolic both for ethical motives (to avoid unfair competition with companies doing this work) and for deontological motives (objective is to increase quality of students' learning).

Finally within this first area of work, it was found "Ability to question one's activities", which is an element to be monitored in the phase of selection interview with managers. A potential field for further research exists to identify elements correlating positively with this ability, as for instance level of

[2] Example of both, and of processing data, also available upon request.

[3] See Annex 1.
[4] See Annex 2.

education, level of seniority, and level of managers' pragmatism.

Emphasis to students of distinction ends *vs.* means

Even though "Methodology", "Effort" and "Planning" are crucial for students' high quality learning, these certainly are not any end in themselves, but rather the means to the end: training them in building a winner solution for each concrete project proposed by companies.

Component standing out most in "Valuation dimensions" was "Immediate utility", related to "Realistic proposals". It is understood that these yearnings for rapid implementation are positively correlated with the interest of the projects proposed by companies, which reaffirms the first area of work already discussed.

This allows clearing out any doubt with respect to whether we need to consider 4 or 5 phases in the Strategic Marketing Process; the need to integrate the 5th phase (Action Plan) became clear after having defined the Frame of Reference, carried out the Analysis, made up the Diagnosis and decided the Strategy. In other words, companies appreciate the integration of operative and strategic marketing.

The second most outstanding element in the "Valuation dimensions" is the "Creative solutions", which leads us straight into the 3rd area of work identified:

Student development of a series of parallel abilities

It came clear that "Creativity" must be a strong ability both for its value and for being one of the components of the "Effort" block, within which "Objectivity" also appears, associated with "Rigor".

Within this 3rd area of work, we also found teamwork capacity, which enables "Group valuation" to be positive. "Ability to convince" is another of the necessary abilities identified, especially since managers found it very hard reading all the "Detailed work" before "Presentation". Under such an approach, "Detailed work" would be left for the students as a tool for compiling the work as it is done, and for the managers as a place in which to go deeper in case of details' interest or need.

Finally, an issue of difficult management appears with "Maturity". Despite the fact that maturity requires time, it was concluded that training students on "Consistency" helps to provide them with the basis for gaining maturity in a more rapid way than usual.

Optimizing time utilization

Even through this 4th area of work could be considered as ability inside previous work area, it is important enough to merit a separate category.

Companies' capacity to dedicate time to interact with "Students", both to settle doubts and to direct efforts, depended a great deal on their "Commitment". As seen in the 1st area of work (Selection of companies), it was greater than before thanks to the system of selection.

As far as "Students" are concerned, it is important to remember that they are in the 4th year of the Combined Undergraduate & MBA Program (their experience in managing time is limited). They have also other courses (their week time has to be divided into 5 or more). For these reasons, this is one of the most important fronts of action within this 4th area of work to improve their learning.

Various possibilities exist for training students on the ability to optimize the use of time, and it is important to use them all. On the one hand, before the presentation of the company to students there are 2 important points that help. First is ensuring that students attend company presentation very well informed about the concrete issues that are going to be posed to them; hence, it is very helpful providing students with company's briefing (including information sources) a week before presentation. This helps to maximize the first interaction with the company. The second point is giving students the concrete calendar of work that they are going to develop, helping them to optimize use of their time by "Planning".

Once company's presentation is made to students, ulterior "Interaction with the company" is required during the process. Time pressure that managers face forces students to learn to be efficient with use of time. Tutors' monitoring work in order to ensure that students apply with "Rigor" the "Methodology" transmitted is an excellent instrument for training students in that efficiency.

Finally, preparation of project oral presentation to managers is an additional source of training in time management, since it demands developing "Capacity of synthesis" to get to the point. Certainly, in the 20' given to each group to present their SMP, no group can explain everything. Experience obtained

evidences that it is correct focusing students on achieving on managers 3 top-of-the-mind:

a) Useful (that the manager sees clearly that the project solves the problem proposed),
b) Thorough (that it is the result of an important effort) and
c) Serious (that it was carried out with rigor).

Social function of the company

The 4 lines of work described above for improving the learning of students of action-oriented disciplines are the result-by-mention of the analysis of the speeches of the 14 managers. Need of companies' orientation to society is the 5th work line but it is a result-by-lack-of-mention. It is evident that in order to be sustainable in the long run, companies must care about society.

Research limitations and next steps

Main limitation of this research is small sample size. Even though methodology utilized permits working with few cases, next step is to triangulate data on hand with quantitative techniques. After a preliminary univariate analysis, an application of multivariate analysis techniques will be done. Factorial analysis of multiple correspondences will permit interrelationships among codes to be analyzed through a quantitative approach.

Paragraph will be unit of analysis and not the interview whenever the interview would represent a too high level of aggregation. The 8 interviews will be revised by cutting them into paragraphs. A table of double entry will be constructed, placing paragraphs in columns, and the 74 codes detected in rows.

This table will be processed with the SPAD program, whose output will be the representation, in a space of reduced dimensions, of the 74 codes in question. This graphic representation will permit the visualization and analysis of the structure of the relationships among the different codes. In accordance with the results obtained, it will be possible to construct, through the utilization of a hierarchical classification technique (Cluster Analysis), the dendogram or decision tree of the different codes. Even though the number of base interviews is small (8), the total frequency climbs to 549 quotations, therefore providing an acceptable level of statistical representation.

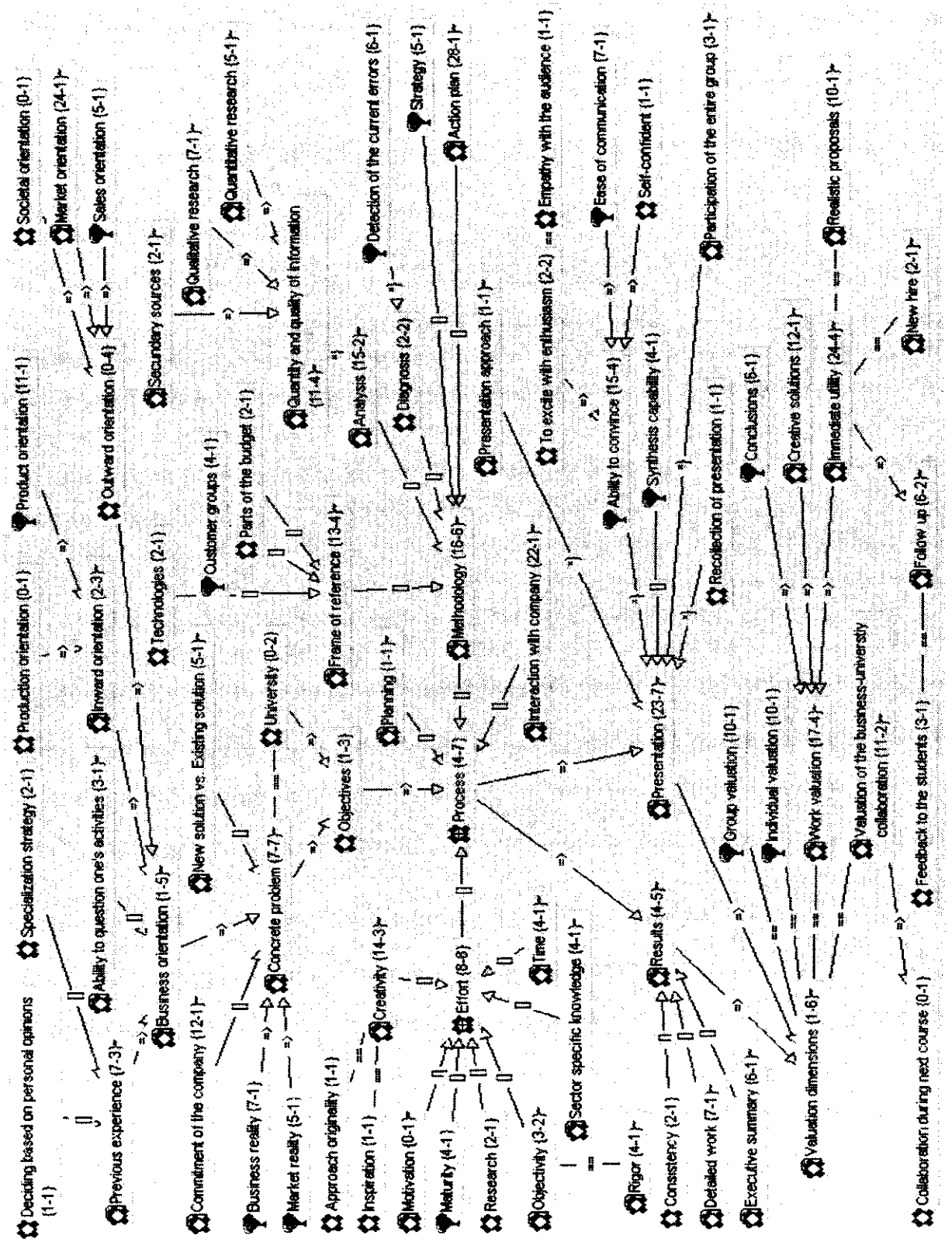
CONCLUSIONS

The principal conclusion of this research confirms the hypothesis that by enhancing the University evaluation systems, new possibilities are found for improving its educational function. This is consistent both with the reality of the fact that the students of today are different from those of the past, and with the increase in the complexity of the environment in which we live.

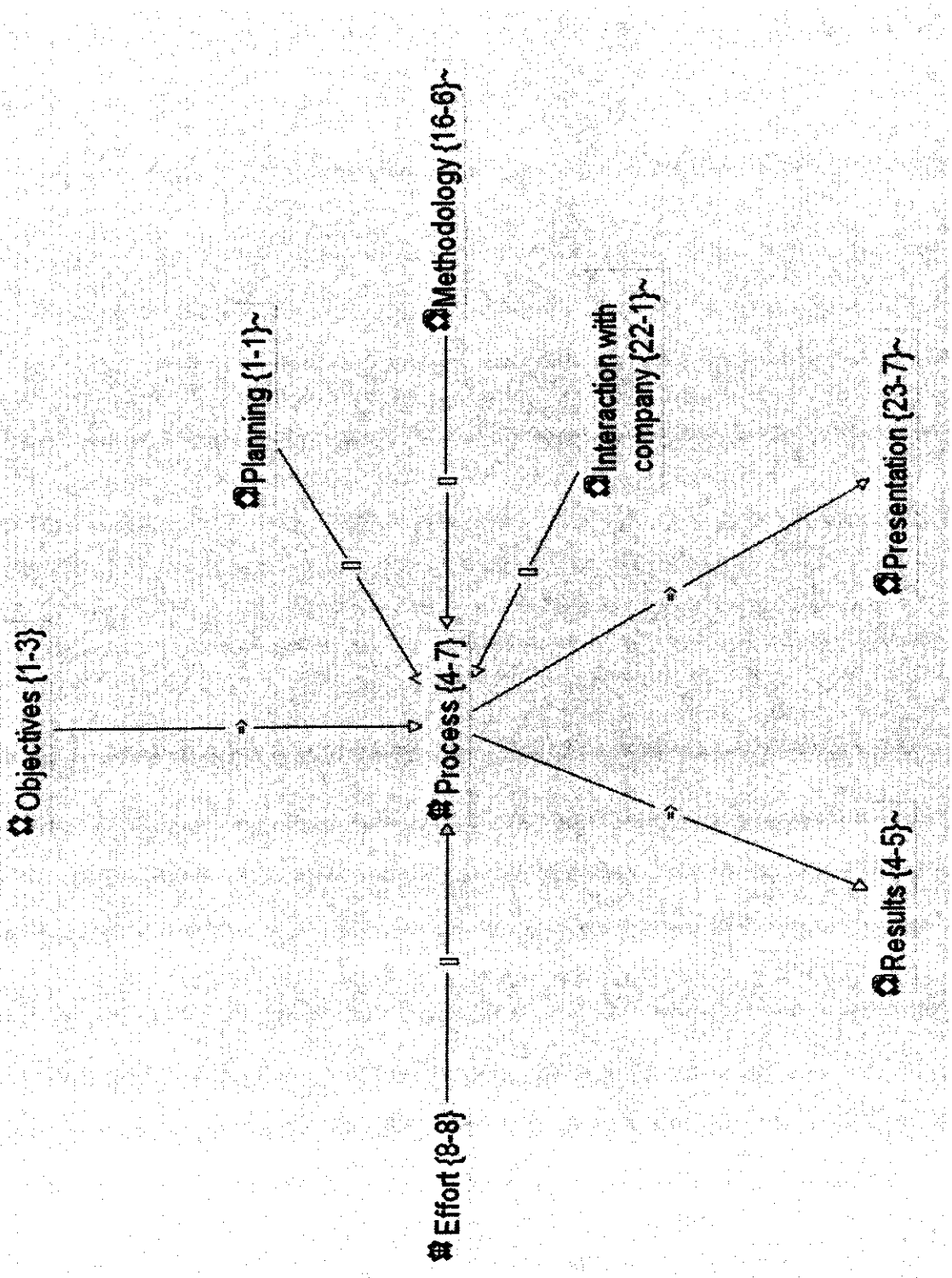
Second conclusion is that in the case of action-oriented disciplines such as Marketing, students' level of strategic knowledge learning can be better evaluated by incorporating into the university evaluation systems the evaluation carried out by the final customer (in this case companies). This is without harming other systems of evaluation both for the learning of strategic knowledge as well as conceptual knowledge and procedural knowledge.

Finally, it is concluded that from the analysis of the feedback from final customers ways can be found for developing strategies and planning concrete pedagogic actions of rapid implementation. The first four work lines are the result of the content of the speeches of the managers, and the fifth is the result of the total lack of mention of something as fundamental as the social function of the company.

Annex 1: Complete hierarchical map of categories



Annex 2: Hiererarchial map of key blocks



CAN UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS LEARN MARKETING MANAGEMENT BY RESEARCHING, WRITING, AND PRESENTING LIVE (MARKETING) CASES?

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes an experiment designed to assess the degree to which the preparation of an original, live-business based marketing case aids student learning in the traditional undergraduate marketing management course. While the experiment suggests that this pedagogy tool does not improve learning, the less than desired impact may be attributed to the experimental design as well as how the pedagogical tool was executed by the instructor. Suggestions and ideas for implementation by other marketing educators are derived from the experiment as it was felt that the pedagogical approach still warrants consideration.

INTRODUCTION

The objectives and nature of the study described in this paper were derived from three basic pedagogical tools that appear very well supported and documented by contemporary marketing education. The three are: (1) the case method instruction and student learning, (2) active and/or experiential learning, and (3) live-case based learning. While discussed relative to the use of financial case learning, the following five key benefits of case based learning offered by Bruner (1999) appear applicable to marketing education: (1) it is effective, (2) it builds capacity for critical thinking, (3) it exercises an administrative point of view, (4) it fosters inductive learning, and (5) it provides a fun learning environment. Due to the realistic nature of case material, discussions and written analyses of cases can deliver on a wide range of learning goals such as the development of application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation, and organizational skills (Karns 1993). Case studies help students discover and develop their own framework for confronting, understanding, and managing realistic organizational problems (Barnes, Christensen, and Hansen 1994; Conant 1996; Valentin 1996). But, there are problems with traditional case learning. Traditional case study based pedagogies rely upon cases already written and published by others. Students are more likely to become fully engaged in case material and encouraged to examine organizational problems more carefully if they are put in a dynamic environment (Henson, Kennett, and Kennedy 2003). Cases that are "fresh" (decision settings happening within the last year) are known to generate relatively more student interest than those not possessing such characteristics.

THE VALUE OF ACTIVE LEARNING VIA CASE RESEARCH AND WRITING

Nearly 30 years ago Minzberg (1976) called for a very different kind of teaching than business educators were providing. "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 skill not only interpersonal but also informational and decisional." (p. 53). Peter November (1993) suggested that students need to develop a "holistic view, a sense of problem 'interconnectedness,' an ability to solve problems in complex, unstructured situations, and to learn communications and negotiation skills" (p. 3). Other than the general active and case learning advantages already acknowledged by our literature, it was felt that a student based live case development course could also enhance student-writing skills. This would be an important accomplishment given that practitioners frequently mention communication skill weakness among our students. It was also hoped that the students would be better able to understand key learning concepts in the class. For example, if the decision setting was about market segmentation they might also: (1) have to know something in depth about this topic before doing their field research (i.e., interviewing their small business), (2) have to think carefully about how to write a segmentation decision setting, and (3) have to build a teaching note based around specific learning objectives. Finally, exposure to their classmate's cases (and critiquing them) will also bolster their competency in marketing decision areas outside of their own case topic.

THE STUDY

The treatment group/section of a marketing management course was expected to research, write,

and present an original, live business based marketing case while another section served as a control group. The same instructor in the same semester taught both sections. An attempt was made to make the two sections (which met back to back for the same amount of time two days per week for the 15 week fall semester) "identical" as possible with the exception of the case research, writing, and presentation component of the course. However, this was very difficult given the fact that considerable class time is spent on classroom discussion of cases. The case approach used in this course relied on the fairly common seven step analysis format: (1) situation analysis, (2) decision problem"- statement, (3) decision criteria, (4) alternative generation, (5) alternative evaluation, (6) recommendation, and (7) implementation issues.

Preparing for the Course: Selection of Live Cases and Student Training

Small business clients (n = 5) were chosen for the study using the assistance of a Small Business Development Center. Clients were aware of their role in the experiment and informed that the main purpose was to benefit the students. The preparation or training of students on how to research and write a marketing case was accomplished through three different means. They were given class presentation of related topics, provided with handouts on key topics, and interacted with the instructor outside of the classroom. Three (75 minute) class periods were used to explain, describe, and demonstrate the process of researching and writing a case. Students in the treatment section were also given a number of handouts during this training period.

STUDY FINDINGS/OUTCOMES

Students in the treatment group earned an overall mean score of 72.9% on the final exam (case analysis) while those in the control group earned a mean of 75.9%. Thus, students with the live case research and writing experience did not perform better on the final exam than those students without the experience. The mean number of total course points earned by the treatment group was 841.9 (out of 1000 possible) whereas the mean for the control group was 817.6. The two scores were not significantly different. While the overall class attendance and classroom participation mean scores were higher for the treatment than the control group (76.9% versus 73.8%), they were not statistically different (90% level). Thus, it is concluded that the two different approaches to learning marketing management did not vary in terms of their ability to help students achieve the course objectives.

Other measures of impact were also used to look for and assess any efficacy differences. Formal student evaluations were reviewed and it was found that scores on specific questions were not statistically different between the two groups. Open-ended comments were too few to draw conclusions. Post-class, informal discussion with six of the treatment group students generated the following positive comments: they liked getting outside of the textbook and working with a real world setting, the project helped their self-confidence, there was dislike for so much end of the semester work or crunch, and some did not like the fact that their case research group membership was not the same as their (earlier in the semester) traditional case analysis group. Some members in two of the five groups expressed dissatisfaction with one or more teammates. These two groups felt that these individuals negatively impacted their case research project's quality.

Overall, the instructor was pleasantly surprised by the quality of the undergraduate work on the cases. The treatment group students did exhibit a sense of commitment to their project and such is attributed to the fact that they were working with a real business. However, this setting is fraught with the same potential problems that have been acknowledged by those working with live clients in other courses such as marketing research. Two of the five businesses, despite efforts by the Small Business Development appeared to believe the students were to act as consultants. These businesses were more interested in what they got out of the process than what the students did. This represented poor execution on the part of business selection and management of the relationship as the semester unfolded. Another problem was engaging the businesses nearly two months before students were to actively begin their research process.

STUDY LIMITATIONS

An obvious concern in this study was the degree to which the experiment was internally and externally valid. There were no controls to ensure that students enrolling in the two course sections were "equal" on all other variables that might have influenced their ability to perform well, or not, on the live case research project. In fact, designing the study as an experiment with two groups was perceived as forcing too much emphasis on making things equal for the two groups except for the live case project. Hindsight

suggests that it might have been better to just teach the two sections the same way and thus expose both groups to the new pedagogy. Additionally, there were no controls to prevent students from either section from talking with each other about what each section was doing for the course. And, as noted in ideas for improvement in the prior section, there was no guarantee that the way the treatment was carried out by the instructor was the "ideal" way to train, motivate, and assist undergraduate students on this particular assignment. Lastly, the measures employed to assess efficacy may not have been those that were needed. For example, whether or not the case research and writing project helped improve communications skills (e.g., talking with business people and/or writing) remains unknown at this point in time.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Overall, it was felt that the failure of the treatment to produce the desired outcomes is mostly attributed to pedagogy execution versus the pedagogy itself. Other than the obvious need to carefully select live case clients is the call for better execution in a number of other areas. Starting the case research and writing process earlier in the semester is advised. As case authors most likely appreciate, it takes quality time to conceive and develop a quality case. Students in this course needed more time to develop skills and to execute them. The other major change would involve a more logically and mutually satisfying manner for assigning students to specific teams and businesses or at least not moving them from existing teams as was done in this experiment. A formal assessment of the process was not sought from the live businesses because it was felt that they were not in the best position to determine the degree to which the assignment had contributed to course objectives. However, it would be wise in the future to periodically contact and communicate with the business so that expectations about student performance can be managed and relevant feedback on their performance gathered in real time.

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DEVELOPING THE MARKETING PROFESSIONAL: COMBINING EDUCATION AND WORKPLACE EXPERIENCE

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ABSTRACT*

As universities need to be more accountable to both students and employers, it is timely to consider what aspects of tertiary education and work experience contribute to the development of the marketing professional. This paper provides findings from a unique research project that interviewed marketing graduates with at least four years work experience and their employers about the development of the marketing professional.

The interviewed pairs (dyads) came from large and small organizations, representing a variety of industries (retail, advertising, manufacturing, consulting, publishing, finance, franchising) and marketing roles (sales, product management). The findings suggest that while there are differences between employers' and employees' perspectives on the essential skills and competencies required of new graduates, there is congruence between their views of what can only be learnt 'on the job'. There is also general recognition that 'on the job' learning is a critical component in the development of the marketing professional.

The key finding of this study is that generic skills coupled with an enthusiasm for marketing is the key to entry-level positions. However, after four years professional work experience, the balance shifts and marketing competencies, usually taught in the later years of a degree, become crucial to the continuing success of the marketing professional. Therefore, the important contribution that this study makes is to clarify the confusion between academic and practitioner views on marketing skills and competencies. We identified that previous research focused on novice professionals and over emphasised the significance of generic skills. While these remain important, this research demonstrates the significance of marketing skill development over time and in situ.

The focus of current marketing education is about developing specific marketing skills and knowledge. Employers are more concerned with general business skills, how quickly the graduate can adapt to the organizational culture and acquire a good understanding of business environment. The gaps between the role of marketing educators and the expectations of business appear to relate to a lack of understanding of each groups' role in the development of the marketing professional.

There is scope therefore for synergistic collaboration between the educators and the employers in the development of the marketing professional. This research has implications for students, graduates, employers and universities.

*The list of references and interview guidelines can be provided upon request.

THE HIGH PRICE OF TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER CONTENT DELIVERY ISSUES: WHY IS THE PRICE OF TEXTBOOKS SO HIGH? WHAT CAN YOU DO TO LOWER THE COST OF CONTENT DELIVERY TO YOUR STUDENTS?

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ABSTRACT

In 1976, the price of a gallon of gasoline was 65 cents per gallon. At the same time, college tuition at a four-year state school was $617*, while the total TFRB (tuition, fees, room and board) was $1936*. My marketing textbook cost me $8. In 1990, gasoline was 99 cents per gallon, college tuition at a four-year state school was $1,908*, while the total TFRB (tuition, fees, room and board) was $5,074*. The textbook for my principles of marketing class cost my students $44.

In 2005, gasoline is $2.20 a gallon, college tuition at a four-year state school is $5,132*, while the total TFRB (tuition, fees, room and board) was $11,354*. The required textbook for my marketing class was $126. Yes Virginia, the price of everything is rising. Over the past 30 years, the price of gas has tripled, tuition has increased by 830 %, and TFRB increased by nearly 600%. However, few items have increased in price faster than business textbooks, which increased by nearly 1,600% during that time. Why is that?

Even when you adjust for inflation, tuition has increased by 250%, TFRB increased by nearly 200%, and textbooks increased by nearly 500%. This is mind-boggling. My full time undergraduate students spent an average of $650 on books this semester. They have developed strategies for dealing with these costs including sharing books, buying old editions, and illegally photocopying chapters, and using alternative channels. We owe to our students to help them deal with this problem.

The issue of the high price of content delivery hit home this fall. Early in the semester, the student government at our University brought the issue of rising textbooks to the Administration and the Board of Regents. Immediately, our bookstore management got involved and provided a blueprint for reducing the price of textbooks. Some of their recommendations included using the same book over and over again, getting book orders in early, refusing to order bundled packages from the publishers, and avoiding customized textbooks.

As marketing faculty members that have researched lectured, and provided executive training in pricing, we were particularly interested in the issue of textbook prices and the bookstore's recommendations (that the administration immediately embraced). While some of the recommendations seemed to make sense, others didn't. However, the one common thread was that all the recommendations resulted in higher profits for the bookstore.

As a result of our investigation, we came to understand that the high price of textbooks is more complicated than simply getting book orders in early. The solution to lowering the price of textbooks to your students is a complicated one.

This special session investigated textbook price issues from a number of marketing perspectives including the distribution channel, the supply chain, monopolistic pricing, the resellers market, perishable products pricing, etc. We ended with a realistic set of recommendations to reduce the price of textbooks and other content delivery products to students. This topic is of interest to marketing educators interested in lowering the cost of textbooks to their students, along with those marketing educators interested in channels issues, supply chain management issues and pricing.

* Source: Trends is College Pricing Report prepared by the College Board, New York New York. 2004.

TOO MUCH TO DO: AN EXAMINATION OF PREDICTION DIFFERENCES AND EXTERNAL CONSEQUENCES RELATED TO TASK COMPLETION

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ABSTRACT

This work provides a preliminary examination of (a) the tasks individuals plan to complete in a four-week time frame, (b) the degree to which they fulfill their goals, and (c) the external consequences related to task completion. Undergraduate students were asked to list tasks unrelated to school and work that they planned to complete in a month. Data analyses reveal that female students created longer to-do lists, but completed the same amount of tasks as males. In addition, the task completion was direc-tionally related to positive exam performance. Dis-cussion focuses on future research.

INTRODUCTION

Two major sources of stress in consumers' lives are how to spend their time (Andrews 2004) and money (Mellan 1994). Although monetary consumption patterns have been examined over the years (e.g., Scott 1976), the issue of time has been given much less attention. Buehler, Griffin, and Ross (1994) found that people underestimate how long it will take them to complete tasks. This occurs because (a) they make plans based upon the time they presently have available, without using relevant past experi-ences as a guide, and (b) they make attributions that diminish external factors (e.g., unexpected occur-rences) that cause delays, and do not learn that such hindrances are likely to arise again in the future.

Much of Buehler, Griffin, and Ross's (1994) work focused on the completion of one task (e.g., writing a thesis). In contrast, this work examines the degree to which individuals complete a variety of chores and tasks within a month-long time frame. What happens to the day-to-day tasks that students plan to complete outside of their school and work responsibilities? Investigating students' planned and actually completed activities may provide additional insights into why they--and consumers in general--are often pressed for time. How many tasks are typically completed? What variables affect the creation of their "to-do" lists?

One factor that may have an influence on list generation is gender. Research findings (Meyers-Levy 1988) suggest that while males process information in a quick, heuristic fashion, females are more inclined to use detailed processing. Meyers-Levy and Sternthal (1991) found that females were more likely than males to note words incongruous with a general description, presumably due to the former's more piecemeal processing. When asked to enu-merate tasks, females' detailed thinking might lead on average to longer to-do lists than those created by males. This prompts us to present the following hypothesis.

H1: Females will list more tasks to complete within four weeks than will males.

Although females might find numerous factors to list, are they more likely to finish those tasks? Research findings suggest that females are more risk averse than are males (Barke, Jenkins-Smith, and Slovic 1997). For example, Hourani and LaFleur (1995) measured sunscreen use among individuals participating in free skin cancer screening clinics. They found that females are likely to take the time to use sunscreen as a precautionary measure. In contrast, males are more likely to need drastic incentives (e.g., a family history of skin cancer) to take the same actions. Not finishing a to-do list task does not normally entail drastic consequences such as contracting a disease. Still, if females are in general more averse to taking chances, to the degree that not meeting deadlines poses risks (e.g., late fees charged for tardy bill paying), it is possible that females may be more prompted than males to complete tasks.

H2: Females will complete more tasks on their lists than will males.

It is worthwhile to note at this point that the inclination to finish tasks may have overall favorable or unfavorable effects. The ability to complete tasks may signal a tendency to be organized and, hence, to

perform well in general outside of the realm of to-do lists. Alternatively, a preoccupation with complet-ing the items might reduce largely the time to focus on other important activities. In this work, we investigate this question by examining if task completion focuses or draws students' attention away from their studies. Specifically, we examine if an ability to finish the tasks correlates negatively or positively with students' school performances. Because productivity generally requires a degree of discipline and organization, it is proposed that the relationship between the two factors is positive.

H3: The propensity to complete tasks will be positively related to student performance.

In short, in this research we examine if there are gender differences in the creation and the completion of to-do lists. We also examine if the ability to complete tasks correlates with students' performances.

METHOD

Fifty-seven undergraduate marketing students (46% male) enrolled in an undergraduate marketing course at a large public university participated in the study. They composed a list in which they wrote all the tasks unrelated to school and work that they planned to complete in four weeks. The lists were returned to them exactly four weeks later. At that time, the students noted tasks they completed with a "+." At about the same time in the term, students' performances on a major course exam were noted.

RESULTS

Analyses were conducted on the length of participants' tasks lists, the extent of task completion, and the relationship of completed tasks to their exam performance.

Length Of Tasks Lists

Across the total sample, the average number of tasks listed is 6.97 (SD = 3.35). Consistent with the notion that females engage in more detailed pro-cessing than males, ANOVA reveals that the aver-age total number of tasks listed is higher for females (M = 7.80, SD = 3.84) than for males (M = 5.87, SD = 2.22), $F_{1, 52}$ = 4.62, p < .04. This supports hy-pothesis one.

Tasks Completed

Across the sample, 51% of the tasks were completed. The average total number of tasks completed is 3.62 (SD = 2.34). Contrary to the notion that females might finish more tasks than males, there is no difference in completion across the genders, (M = 3.73, SD = 2.64, and M = 3.48, SD = 1.93, respectively), $F_{1, 52}$ = 0.15, *ns*. The total number of tasks completed across genders does not support hypothesis two.

Relationship Of Completed Tasks To Exam Performance

As stated previously, it was desirable to examine if task completion signals that an individual is organized, and can perform well in general, or if it distracts from other important activities. Analyses using correlations are inconclusive, but lean slightly toward the former interpretation. Specifically, the relation-ship between the number of tasks completed and exam performance is not significant but is marginally positive, r = .23, p < .10. Hence, hypothesis three is not supported, but is in the predicted direction.

DISCUSSION

The examination of to-do lists reveals some gender differences. As anticipated, female students created longer lists than their male counterparts. The number of tasks completed was similar for both genders. In terms of bottom line consequences, task completion is not heavily related to exam performance.

This research is a preliminary project that investigates the nature of students' to-do lists. Each of the measured variables can be probed further for a better understanding of the consequences of creat-ing and adhering to such lists. For example, given that females create longer lists, it would be worth-while to examine if the type of tasks they list differs from males. To what degree do the two groups list tasks related to their physical appearance (e.g., exercising, or getting a hair cut), to their household activities (e.g., mowing the lawn, or cleaning the kitchen), or to interpersonal tasks (e.g., buying gifts)? Understanding the content, as well as the length, of to-do lists would shed insight into the types of responsibilities undertaken by male and female students.

Given that only 51% of the tasks listed were completed, it would be interesting to note what role the to-do lists play. Do they help to keep students organized? Or, given the fairly low task completion rate, are such lists a source of frustration? Hypoth-esis two in this study was based upon females' proposed higher level of risk aversion. Although they did not complete more tasks as expected, a different way to examine uncertainty would be, again, to note the types of tasks listed. If males noted more tasks that

absolutely had to be completed (e.g., fixing the clog in the kitchen sink) and females men-tioned more maintenance-oriented tasks (e.g., pour-ing drain cleaner down the sink to prevent clogs), there might be support of the hypothesis.

Finally, the directional effect between the number of tasks completed and exam performance suggests that this question may be worth further examination. Perhaps a larger sample size would show a stronger relationship between these two factors. Regardless of the effect of higher statistical power, the influence of task completion on exam performance would provide insights into how students' attempt to balance their lives, and may have applications for how professionals attempt to juggle their responsibilities.

It is important to note limitations to this work. First, the data are all self reported. Although it appears that the students answered honestly (i.e., a 51% completion rate is nothing to brag about), it is impossible to know whether or not they truly completed the tasks that they said they would. Self-presentation effects may have prompted them to want to appear to have strong time management skills.

Another limitation is that we did not ask students if there were extenuating circumstances that made them complete fewer tasks than normal. Although such issues would presumably be randomized across the male and female groups, it is not possible to rule out if this was a factor in their completion rates. Future research efforts should allow respon-dents to note any events that may have impeded their progress.

Nonetheless, it is hoped that this preliminary investigation provides insights into the creation and completion of students' to-do lists, and generates interesting discussions for future research.

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CENTRAL EUROPE: THE IMPACT OF THE COUNTRY OF ORIGIN EFFECTS ON SLOVAK CONSUMERISM

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this exploratory research is to help explain the impact the country of origin effect has on Slovak consumerism. The impact of democracy in Slovakia involves the need to fundamentally evaluate the changes in consumer perceptions as the Slovak retail markets open to foreign investments and products. The researchers sought to examine the implications of country of origin effects on young Slovakian university business, marketing, and English language only students. The researchers modified the Shimp and Sharma (1987) Consumer Ethnocentrism CETSCALE to measure consumer's ethnocentric tendencies related to purchasing foreign versus Slovakian made retail products.

INTRODUCTION

In today's retail market, international trade continues to expand. Many retailers are no longer thinking locally, but globally. To increase profits, many retailers are currently looking toward expanding globally, importing products, and/or manufacturing their products outside of their home country. One issue these retailers must consider is the country of origin effect.

Generally to be successful, retailers must examine and understand consumer buying behavior. Specifically in dealing with international trade, retailers must understand how a product's country of origin can affect consumers' buying behavior, and use this understanding to their advantage in their retail mix. Services can also be affected.

Consumers generally recognize a product's country of origin by a tag or label that says "made in..." . It is indeed difficult to predict a consumer's purchasing behavior based on their perception of a product's country of origin. Although there is no direct correlation between a product's merit and its country of origin, it is suspected that the country of origin can effect a consumer's perception of the quality, prestige, image, or reliability of that product.

RATIONALE FOR RESEARCH

The researchers of this study became interested in country of origin effects in Central Europe while working with university students in the Slovak Republic. Anecdotally, the students would discuss, even complain about the changes in the marketing retail mix, especially product and service offerings. The young adults would share their distain or enjoyment of foreign imported goods, prompting the researchers to ask the question: What is the impact of the country of origin effects on the Slovak consumer in a post communism market society?

A Slovakian university invited the researchers to perform exploratory research to better understand any possible country of origin effects. This is timely research as Slovakia and the other Central European countries are now part of the EU, and presented with many new foreign products and services competing against Slovakian made retail offerings.

METHODOLOGY

The researchers of this study became interested in country of origin effects in Central Europe while working with university students in the Slovak Republic. Anecdotally, the students would discuss, even complain about the changes in the marketing retail mix, especially product and service offerings. The young adults would share their distain or enjoyment of foreign imported goods, prompting the researchers to ask the question: What is the impact of the country of origin effects on the Slovak consumer in a post communism market society?

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To evaluate country of origin effects, the researchers modified the Shimp and Sharma (1987) Consumer Ethnocentrism CETSCALE to measure consumer's ethnocentric tendencies (i.e., disposition to act in a consistent fashion) related to purchasing foreign versus Slovakian made products. Shimp and Sharma (1987) use consumer ethnocentrism to look at the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness of purchasing foreign-made products as they may lead to a bad domestic economy, a loss of jobs, or

show a lack of patriotism. The instrument consists of 17 items scored on 7-point Likert-type scale (strongly agree = 7, strongly disagree = 1). The modified survey was translated into Slovak and back translated to English. The survey included basic demographic questions with major, gender, location, and age as the independent variables.

The survey was exploratory in nature, looking at the results for the possibility and feasibility of more in-depth measurements across Slovakia. Table 1, found in the appendices, reports the descriptive results for each question. Based on mean scores, participants appear committed to buying either Slovakian-made products or imported products that are not available in Slovakia. Participants also appear to support buying Slovakian-made products even if the cost is higher. While the majority of mean scores are 3.0 or higher (on a 5-point scale), the large standard deviations make inferences difficult.

Statistical significant differences were found on major (business versus non business) and gender. There were no statistical differences in location (metropolitan versus small city) and age (See Tables 2 and 3). Several items on the survey showed a statistical difference between business majors and non-business majors: Slovakian products, first, last, and foremost; purchasing foreign-made products is un-Slovakian; it is always best to purchase Slovakian products; there should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity; curbs (restraints) should be put on all imports; it may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Slovakian products; and Slovakian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Slovakians out of work. Not surprisingly, business majors had higher mean scores than non-business majors on all above questions. It appears business majors are more concerned than non-business majors about the economic and financial results of buying, or not buying, Slovakian-made products.

Table 1
Young Slovakian Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies – Descriptive Results

Question	Mean	Std Deviation
Slovakian people should always buy Slovakian-made products instead of imports.	4.25	2.08
Only those products that are unavailable in the Slovakia should be imported.	4.23	2.08
Buy Slovakian -made products. Keep Slovakia Working.	5.00	1.85
Slovakian products, first, last and foremost.	3.90	1.82
Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Slovakian.	2.79	1.67
It is not right to purchase foreign products.	2.46	1.56
A real Slovakian should always buy Slovakian -made products.	2.72	1.77
We should purchase products manufactured in Slovakian instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	3.72	1.88
It is always best to purchase Slovakian products.	3.47	1.87
There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.	3.10	1.66
Slovakian should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Slovakian business and causes unemployment.	3.39	1.81
Curbs (restraints) should be put on all imports.	3.07	1.68
It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Slovakian products.	3.97	1.66
Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	2.51	1.57
Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Slovakia.	2.99	1.72
We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	3.72	1.90
Slovakian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Slovakians out of work.	2.79	1.73
Gender:	1.51	.50
Age	21.77	2.80
Location (small city – large metropolitan)	1.51	.53
What is your major (business – non business)	1.36	.48

Table 3
Young Slovakian Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies – *T*-Tests on Gender

Question	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error
Slovakian people should always buy Slovakian-made products instead of imports.	Male	184	4.37	2.15	.16
	Female	191	4.15	2.03	.15
Only those products that are unavailable in the Slovakia should be imported.	Male	183	4.34	2.11	.16
	Female	190	4.13	2.06	.15
Buy Slovakian -made products. Keep Slovakia Working.	Male	182	5.04	1.90	.14
	Female	191	4.98	1.82	.13
Slovakian products, first, last and foremost.	Male	183	3.95	1.84	.14
	Female	189	3.92	1.81	.13
Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Slovakian.	Male	181	2.71	1.76	.13
	Female	190	2.91	1.60	.12
It is not right to purchase foreign products.	Male	183	2.38	1.61	.12
	Female	190	2.53	1.53	.11
A real Slovakian should always buy Slovakian -made products.	Male	183	2.67	1.81	.13
	Female	191	2.79	1.77	.13
We should purchase products manufactured in Slovakian instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	Male	184	3.73	1.96	.14
	Female	190	3.75	1.80	.13
It is always best to purchase Slovakian products.	Male	184	3.46	1.91	.14
	Female	191	3.53	1.87	.13
There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.	Male	183	2.98	1.69	.13
	Female	191	3.27	1.64	.12
Slovakian should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Slovakian business and causes unemployment.	Male	184	3.32	1.84	.14
	Female	191	3.46	1.81	.13
Curbs (restraints) should be put on all imports.	Male	181	2.85*	1.60	.12
	Female	191	3.29*	1.70	.12
It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Slovakian products.	Male	182	4.07	1.67	.12
	Female	191	3.95	1.67	.12
Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	Male	184	2.39	1.50	.11
	Female	189	2.63	1.63	.12
Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Slovakia.	Male	184	2.78*	1.71	.13
	Female	191	3.17*	1.72	.12
We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	Male	184	3.68	1.97	.15
	Female	191	3.76	1.86	.13
Slovakian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Slovakians out of work.	Male	184	2.76	1.78	.13
	Female	191	2.81	1.68	.12

*Significant at p<.05

Two survey questions have statistically significant differences based on gender: curb (restraints) should be put on all imports; and foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Slovakia. With both questions, females had a higher mean score than the male participants. Again large standard deviation scores make inferences with the data difficult.

CONCLUSIONS

What does this data suggest? Although strong inferences cannot be made concerning this exploratory research, the data does suggest that, just prior to entry into the EU by Slovakia, some consumers believe that "made in Slovakia" is important. Equally important is the demographic makeup of the survey participants – young, educated, and (based on anecdotal information) politically savvy. Retailers and service providers must track this group of consumers, for they represent significant buying power in Slovakia. Retailers and service providers should also study the buying behavior of business versus non-business students. Appropriate marketing strategies should be developed and implemented that reach the important non-business consumer.

Follow-up studies should be conducted to determine any differences in country of origin effect after Slovakia's entry into the EU. The absence of borders, and ease of moving products across countries, could significantly impact consumer perception of country of origin. Additionally, follow-up studies should be conducted with additional groups of consumers – consumers less educated, or older consumers (who lived through communism), for example. Finally, this study should be expanded to other countries bordering Slovakia. Understanding how other "foreign" consumers view Slovak-made products is critically important for Slovakian manufacturers and retailers.

Retailers must be aware of how strong the effect of consumers' perceptions of country of origin can have on their purchasing behavior. To be successful in the global marketplace, international retailers of both products and services must use specific and effective market segmentation in their marketing strategies. Market segmentation is the key to capturing as many target consumers as possible. Retailers must thoroughly analyze their product, research their consumers, and determine marketing strategies that are right for their product and each consumer segment.

As international trade continues to expand, country of origin effects will become more prominent. Successful retailers should consider country of origin effects as seriously as brand name or price when marketing their products to consumers.
Note: Literature Review, References, and Survey are available to the reader upon request.

THE ROLE OF MARKETING STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS IN ENHANCING MARKETING EDUCATION: POTENTIAL AND CHALLENGES

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ABSTRACT

Marketing Student Organizations (MSOs) offer an avenue for marketing students to participate in activities providing a range of benefits. There are also several problems with the functioning of MSOs that limit their usefulness and the realization of their full potential. In this preliminary study of MSOs, the authors delineate the potential of MSOs as a means of enhancing marketing education, discuss some of the problems facing MSOs, and recommend further research into MSOs.

INTRODUCTION

As part of the college experience, students seek and are provided with opportunities to participate in many extra- and co-curricular activities both on and off campus. Available opportunities can provide one or more of several possible benefits such as student governance, recreational activities, social, ethnic and religious association so forth. Additionally, the opportunity for professional growth and development is offered by discipline-based, quasi-professional student organizations. For students in the business disciplines, there are several choices: some general in nature, and others focused on specific disciplines, such as clubs aimed at Accounting, Economics, Management and Marketing majors. Academic understanding of the role, value and potential of student organizations in enhancing student development is seriously limited in general (Conyne 1983); it remains equally limited in the marketing discipline.

The objective of this paper is to increase our understanding of *marketing student organizations* (MSOs) in supplementing and enhancing marketing education. We use the term *marketing student organizations* to refer to co-curricular student organizations focused on the marketing discipline. While some of these organizations may be student chapters of the American Marketing Association (AMA), we include as well those student organizations that are independent of the AMA. We begin with a review of existing research on student organizations, and develop an assessment of the potential of MSOs in enhancing the education of marketing majors. We consider the problems facing MSOs, and offer recommendations for enhancing the value of MSOs. Our assessment is based on inputs from MSO members, and our experience as MSO advisors over several years.

STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

Student organizations are "formally sanctioned opportunities that allow students to associate and work together toward accomplishing common goals" (Conyne 1983). Campus directories at colleges and universities list large numbers of student organizations, with a wide variety in the nature of their activities and purpose of association. In recent years, there has been a growing research interest in student involvement in these organizations (e.g., Baxter 1992; Cooper, Healy and Simpson, 1994; Hoffman 2002; Marcy 1986; Pascarella and Terenzini 1991). While much of this research has focused on the salutary effects of student co-curricular involvement (see Gellin 2003 for a meta-analysis of studies of effects of co-curricular involvement), attention has also been brought to the possibly negative effects of student involvement, such as student stress and dysfunctional distraction from academic effort (e.g., black 1992; Floerchinger 1988; McKinnon-Slaney 1993). While a full review of the literature on student organizations is beyond the scope of this paper, we draw selectively upon the literature to explicate the benefits of student organizations and student participation therein.

What benefits do students expect from their participation in student organizations? Based on earlier work, Conyne (1983) offers a list of possible "member satisfaction factors" for student participation in student organizations. These include career development, personal growth, and social opportunities. Additionally, our preliminary interviews revealed motivations of networking with other students, access to information about the discipline, and the ability to get a better look of potential careers in the student's professional field. Table 1 offers a summarization of benefits that students hope to receive from their involvement in student organizations.

TABLE 1.
Summary of Benefits Expected from Student Organization Involvement

Type of Benefit	Benefits Expected
Personal Growth and Development	• Enjoyment from activities • Expressing feelings • Establishing identity • Developing personal competencies • Developing sense of purpose • Sense of personal reward from participation
Social	• Forming friendships • Social mingling opportunities within campus • Social opportunities off campus
Professional	• Developing competencies in the discipline • Applying classroom learning • Entrée into professional networks

The expectations of benefits differ by student, the nature of the student organization, and individual expectations based on commitment and degree of participation in the organization.

THE POTENTIAL

Marketing Student Organizations offer a range of opportunities for enhancing marketing education. Students, faculty, the institutions, and communities could potentially benefit from well organized and fully functional MSOs at universities. However, from our interviews with faculty advisors at a few institutions, it became apparent that the full potential of MSOs is not being realized due to a variety of reasons. Here, deriving from the literature on student organizations and interviews with MSO faculty advisors and MSO officers, we briefly delineate some of the major benefits of MSOs.

Student Self-selection

Professional student organizations, while offering recreational and social benefits, primarily offer the prospects of career development and the opportunity to improve the student's competencies. In this regard, professional student organizations differ from other campus organizations that may be purely social or recreational in nature. The activities and programs are generally chosen to reflect this orientation. Membership in professional student organizations, therefore, can act as a process of selection wherein those associating with such organizations are more serious about their professional growth and development than those who choose not to associate. This process of self-selection can then allow the institution and faculty to focus extra resources on the development of students exhibiting superior proclivities for professional growth.

Faculty-student Interaction

Students' frequent and personal interactions with faculty members have been found to contribute significantly to student learning (Lundberg and Schreiner 2004). While students are known not to take the initiative in seeking interactions and relationships with faculty members (Lundberg and Schreiner 2004) a professional student organization offers such opportunities beyond the class room. With the increasing prevalence of large sections of classes at most institutions, the opportunity for student-faculty interaction in small groups can prove to be beneficial to both faculty and students. For the motivated student, MSOs give the opportunity to get "face time" with faculty that would otherwise be difficult to achieve in most large settings classes. While a student's motivation to engage in impression management with the faculty in order to influence evaluations in their classes cannot be ruled out, other benefits could include being able to request letters of reference and receiving career and professional counseling from faculty. Lundberg and Schreiner (2004) found that for faculty, the additional interaction with a motivated sub-set of students can be of value in being able to understand student's needs better, and being able to relate to their abilities, outlooks, and concerns. With a greater incidence of students exhibiting disengagement from the academic process and reporting a need to feel like they matter to faculty (Merwin 2002), MSOs offer faculty the opportunity to engage students and build personal relationships. Kleine (2002) states that marketing majors in their earlier stages of their program have limited contact with potential professional role models such as marketing seniors and faculty. The limited contact possibly leads to a lack of adequate role identity as marketing majors and future marketing professionals. MSOs can provide marketing faculty the opportunity to attract students to the marketing major, create clear role identities for marketing majors (Kleine 2002), and to create a passion for marketing among marketing majors in various stages of their degree program.

Exposure to Industry

One of the benefits of professional organizations is the exposure to industry events, happenings, and trends. In a study of recruiter perceptions of marketing majors' preparation for employment, McDaniel and White (1993) found a substantial gap in marketing majors' appreciation of the realities of

employment in the corporate world. Considering that this would seriously handicap marketing majors and reflect negatively on marketing faculty, the opportunity provided for exposure to business and industry through MSO participation cannot be ignored. MSOs can serve to create exposure to business practices through the regular appearance of business professionals as guest speakers, the organization of field trips to businesses, and even opportunities for performing consulting activities for area businesses. It is important, though, that the student's exposure contain variety in terms of marketing in different sectors of the corporate world, marketing in the public and not-for profit sectors, and in the small business sector.

Service Learning Opportunities

While community-based service learning (CBSL) has been adopted as a desirable academic philosophy across wide swathes of academe, it remains little used in the business disciplines (Zlotkowski 1996). CBSL incorporates voluntary service to community organizations into the learning experience, with guided reflection on the learning experience. CBSL has been described as a form of experiential education with a base in cognitive and developmental psychology with a philosophy that stresses pragmatism and democratic involvement (Morton and Troppe 1996). While much of the discussion on CBSL has focused on its usage as a course-based pedagogy, the authors advocate using CBSL-driven projects as a vehicle for MSOs to engage in experiential learning and community service. With guidance from faculty and the training of senior members of MSOs in overseeing projects, the MSOs can become a viable platform for marketing majors to engage in voluntary community service as part of their professional education. With serious introspection about the relevance of the business disciplines (Porter and McKibbin 1998; Sheth 1999), an increasing use of CBSL through marketing student organizations would be timely and appropriate.

Professional Development and Networking

A recurring theme in the authors' discussions with students in MSOs was the benefit of professional development and networking. Students saw opportunities for professional development through participation in activities that required professional interaction and behavior. Students saw their participation in MSO activities as a precursor to what they would be expected to go through in their jobs, and the MSO as a finishing school to supplement their academic learning. Students also saw networking as a major benefit of the MSO. Networking was identified at different levels: peer-to-peer, student-to-professional, and student-to-community. The benefits of peer-to-peer networking were identified as applying to both their current status issues as students and to their future opportunities. Students hoped to gain insights from their peers and seniors about course choices, experiences with courses and professors, and internship experiences. At MSOs with active links with the professional chapters of the AMA, the ability to meet and converse with professional marketers and to make favorable impressions with the hope of future employment were a major draw for students. With competitive job markets, the MSOs were seen as means for gaining an inside track to internships and post-college positions.

Social Interaction and Recreation

MSOs are not all guest speakers and project work – indeed, in competing with other campus groups for membership, MSOs conduct activities that are social and recreational in nature. While not the primary draw, these activities are attractive for those seeking professional benefits but not wishing to miss out on the fun and games part of associating with other college students. The combination of professional goals with social and recreational activities adds a sense of purpose and welcome diversion from academic life to MSOs.

Practicum Experience

At some universities, the MSO is used as a quasi-consulting organization run by students with the guidance of marketing faculty. Razzouk, Seitz and Rizkallah (2003) have identified the benefits, limitations and caveats of offering real-life client projects in marketing classes. One of their concerns is that such projects are not for all situations, classes, or faculty. Indeed, the problems of group dynamics and "free-ridership" have been identified as causes of student dissatisfaction with group projects. The MSO setting provides an alternative setting for providing client-projects that carry the pedagogical benefits of projects with fewer restrictions. MSO based projects are not restricted by semester deadlines and grade equity issues, and are also more likely to have a group of students more committed than those in typical classes.

Resume Enhancement

Students' participation in MSOs and their taking on officer roles are expected to reflect positively on their employability. The MSO experience can be utilized as a resume-enhancing tool for the student approaching

the job market. In addition, MSOs can require or encourage student portfolios, further adding to the recruitment value of the MSO experience.

CHALLENGES FACING MARKETING STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

The potential benefits of MSOs for students, faculty and institutions are many, but so are the challenges facing MSOs. There is a wide variance in the scale, scope and success achieved by MSOs across America – from those that are merely struggling to get by from year to year, to those that have large memberships, activities and consequently, funds. From discussions with MSO officers and advisors, the authors identify several obstacles in the path of realization of the full potential of MSOs.

Competition

Competition between campus organizations seeking recruits can be intense on many college campuses. The range of organizations and the activities, programs or other appeals that they offer is diverse. The presence of better funded and more popular organizations on campus also makes the recruitment of students difficult.

Lack of Student Enthusiasm and Motivation

As with any organization, MSO membership includes students with varying degrees of enthusiasm, motivation, ability, and commitment to the organization. The lack of student participation can be exacerbated in commuter campuses where logistics of participation can be a hindrance to the functioning and growth of the MSO. While the authors do not subscribe to the stereotypical negative view of commuter students reported in some studies, it is necessary to acknowledge that factors such as less time on campus, greater incidence of full-time employment, and family and pre-existing social commitments (Schibrowsky and Peltier 1993) do affect student participation in co-curricular activities.

Academic-social Divide

There exists a divide between the academic and social components at most universities, causing academic and social activities to be seen as distinct, compartmentalized and sometimes competing parts of the college experience. While there is a movement on campuses to bridge this divide in order to provide a more holistic college experience (Jackson and Ebbers 1999), the social side of campus life is not generally supported by faculty, or may even be resented for being a distraction from academic activities. This divide is also apparent in marketing, with MSO advising not being seen by marketing professors as a particularly rewarding activity. Further, with the exception of MSOs with large memberships, lack of funding often limits MSO activity and consequently the value proposition for members.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

MSOs represent a significant set of benefits for enhancing marketing education and the potential to use the MSO as a valuable adjunct to academic instruction has generally not been reached. Our preliminary inquiries, based on interviews reveal numerous potential benefits from and obstacles to realization of this potential. Marketing educators have not paid adequate research attention to the study of MSOs and the maximization of their potential. Considering that there is a developing stream of literature focusing on the functioning and development of student organizations, the investigation of MSOs could serve as an extension of existing work within a marketing setting. We recommend a programmatic study of MSOs from the individual (student) and organizational perspectives, with both exploratory and confirmatory research based on larger samples of the relevant constituencies of MSOs.

CONCLUSION

Marketing student organizations (MSOs) are an underutilized component of marketing education. Due to a combination of factors relating to students, marketing academicians and the academic support structure, the many potential benefits are not realized. The present paper was an initial effort at delineating the potential and problems relating to MSOs, in order to stimulate discussion and research within marketing education circles. Further investigation into the success factors for MSOs is warranted and likely to be valuable.

References available upon request.

SALES AND PROFIT FORECASTING IN THE INTERNATIONAL ARENA USING PRO FORMA FINANCIAL STATEMENTS

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ABSTRACT

In an era of flexible foreign exchange rates, with currency values sometimes fluctuating daily, strategies are being employed to minimize the cost of funds and to maximize the return on the investment over time. As international investors explore protection against adverse exchange rate movements, they continue to explore alternative approaches of avoiding risk. By utilizing various tools, the foreign investor can better manage foreign exchange risk and minimize foreign exchange losses due to currency fluctuations.

The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate the procedures required to make sales and profit forecasting for a firm involved in international trade. This is done by constructing pro forma income statements with the help of a spreadsheet program. As it is customary in all forecasting techniques, certain assumptions are made. Once the initial forecasts are made, sensitivity analysis is conducted to see how these assumptions affect the final predictions.

INTRODUCTION

Forecasting is very useful and powerful technique used in many industries to predict future values of their financial statements. For example, a company may want to find the predicted sales and profit figures for the next 3 years. Although, forecasting is very advantageous, forecasting too far ahead in the future is problematic. This is because macro-environmental factors such as major political, economic, or technological changes can affect your company as well as your products.

To determine future sales and profits, many businesses construct **Pro Forma** financial statements. A Pro Forma is a provisional financial statement of an enterprise. Pro forma financial information can serve useful purposes. Public companies may quite appropriately wish to focus investors' attention on critical components of quarterly or annual financial results in order to provide a meaningful comparison to results for the same period of prior years or to emphasize the results of core operations. In this paper, the Excel spreadsheet program is used to prepare a pro forma income statement.

When looking at growth, a forecaster can begin by making an initial assumption of a certain percentage of growth, for example, 5%, and then make forecasts of the future based on this assumption. Once the forecast has been made, it is important that a sensitivity (what-if) analysis is performed. Sensitivity analysis looks at the various scenarios that may take place if the initial assumptions do not hold. For instance, if we start out with an initial assumption of 5% growth in sales, we also want to investigate what the estimated profits will be if growth declines to 1% (worst scenario) or if it increases to 10% (best scenario) and of course, all the possible numbers within this range.

FOREIGN EXCHANGE RISK

Exchange rate risk is a potential problem for anyone engaged in international trade. This includes importers and exporters, multinational companies, banks, investment companies, or even individuals planning to travel abroad.

Relatively small changes in exchange rates can have immediate and significant effects on the economy, ranging from corporate profits to overseas traveling. Large changes in exchange rates can destabilize governments as was demonstrated in the 1990's in Mexico and Southeast Asia.

The effect of foreign exchange risk on U.S. firms can be significant as firms, large or small, have substantial exposure to foreign exchange risk (see, for example, International Trade Statistics 2001 and Crain's List of Largest Exporters, 2000).

PROCEDURE

The Pro Forma Income Statement presented here is designed to calculate the estimated sales and profits of a company for the years 2005 thru 2008, given the figures for the year 2004 (base year). The estimated sales and profits are affected by such variables as commission rate, annual growth of sales, tax rate, and cost of goods sold (COGS). When one or more of these factors change, the estimated values for profits will also change.

We start by reconstructing the income statement for the base year (2004). Following certain assumptions, we will predict net profits for the years 2005, 2006, 2007 and 2008. The only figures that are given to us are: gross sales for 2004, commission rate, tax rate, annual

growth rate of sales and cost of goods sold (as % of net sales). Given this information, we can figure out the value of commissions, net sales, COGS, gross profits, tax amount, and net profits by using the simple financial formulas in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Commissions:	= Gross Sales x Commission Rate
Net Sales:	= Gross Sales - Commissions
COGS:	= Net Sales x COGS Rate
Gross Profits:	= Net sales - COGS
Tax Amount:	= Gross Profits x Tax Rate
Net Profit:	= Gross Profit - Tax Amount

Constructing Pro Forma for an International Firm

In order to use pro forma income statements to investigate the effect of exchange rates, we need to make some assumptions:

- A U.S.-based firm has a subsidiary in Japan
- The subsidiary generates all its revenue in Japan.
- The firm relies on Japanese resources, such as raw material and sales force, and pays for them in Yen.
- Since the firm is a U.S.-based company, it must pay income taxes in U.S. The firm pays no tax in Japan.
- The firm is subject to exchange rate volatility.
- Use a simple sales and profit forecasting model.

We can use the same formulas as explained earlier to build pro forma statements for the firm in Japan and the United State. This is summarized in the following:

TABLE 2

	A	B	C	D
2	**Pro Forma Income Statements in Japan**			
3	**Sales and Profit Forecasting in the International Arena**			
4	**(For an American Firm Selling Products in Japan)**			
5				
6	Total Sales for 2004 (in Japan):		¥20,000,000	Yen
7	Exchange Rate ($ vs. Yen):		110	
8	Commission Rate:		10%	
9	Tax Rate in the U.S.:		40%	
10	Annual Growth Rate of Sales		5%	
11	COGS (% of Net Sales):		65%	

To construct the growth of sales in Japan under the above assumptions, we need to insert the appropriate formulas in our worksheet. Table 3 in the appendix will be displayed.

Now, we need to use the exchange rate to see the results in U.S. dollars. This is demonstrated in Table 4. This table represents the pro forma income statements of the firm in U.S. dollars for the next 4 years. In row 33 we have the estimated net profits for years 2005, 2006, 2007, and 2008. If any one of the assumptions of this problem (for example, exchange rate) changes, it can drastically affect the estimated profits. This type of what-if analysis can be performed with the help of data tables type I and type II.

SENSITIVITY (WHAT-IF) ANALYSIS

Once the pro forma income statements are completed, we need to perform sensitivity analysis. For example, what will happen to net profit of the next four years, if sales do not grow by 5% a year? How about the exchange rate? How will changes in exchange rate affect net profits? We can do this in Excel with the help of Data Table commands. There are two types of Data Tables. In type I, change in one factor is investigated and in Data Table type II, two factors are changed simultaneously.

Data Table Type I

To perform sensitivity analysis with one variable factor, we need to pick a range of possible values for one of the variables. Let us assume the variable of interest is the exchange rate. The pro forma incomes statements in the previous tables assumed that this rate is 110 and stays the same over the next four years. What if this rate changes anywhere from 100 (worst possible scenario) to 120 (best possible scenario) in increments of 1. In Excel we can type this in cells C23 through C41, for example. The best way to do this is to type 1% in cell C23 and enter the formula =C23+.005 in the cell below it, C24, and then copy it down all the way to cell C41. Since we are interested in finding out the effect of changes in the annual growth rate of sales on the estimated profits of the next four years (2005, 2006, 2007, and 2008), we need to identify the cells that contain this information. Therefore, we type:

- =C33 in cell J10 (cell C33 contains the estimated profits of year 2005)
- =D33 in cell K10 (cell D33 contains the estimated profits of year 2006)
- =E33 in cell L10 (cell E33 contains the estimated profits of year 2007)
- =F33 in cell M10 (cell F33 contains the estimated profits of year 2008)
- Cell I9 is left blank

Now highlight the table starting from cell I10 through cell M31. From the tool bar, click on "DATA", "TABLE" and enter C7 for column input cell on the menu and press "OK." Table 5 will be displayed. The table represents all values of estimated net profits of years 2005-2008 at varying rates of exchange.

Data Table Type II

Data Table Type 2 expands on the features introduced in Data Table Type 1 by allowing changes in two variables at the same time. Since two factors are changed at the same time, we can only investigate the effect of changes in these two factors on estimated profits of **one year only**. In our analysis, we will investigate the effect of exchange rate and growth rate of sales on the estimated profits of year 2008 as displayed in cell H40.

- Go to an empty area of the worksheet (for example, H40) and type a formula that refers to the cell address that holds the net profit figure for the year 2008, in this case it is =F33.
- Type the various growth rates of sales (for example, 1% through 10%) to the right of cell where =F33 was typed. Instead of typing all the numbers, it is advantageous to use formulas instead.
- Enter exchange rates using the same formulas as in data table 1 in column H starting in cell H41.

After the table is set up, highlight cells H40 through R61 and from the task bar, click on "DATA", "TABLE". On the menu, enter C10 for row input cell and C7 for column input cell and press "OK." Table 6 will appear. The number in cell M51 ($41,769) corresponds to the original value of estimated profits for year 2008 under the assumption of 5% growth in sales and an exchange rate equal to 110.

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APPENDIX

TABLE 3

	A	B	C	D	E	F
13	Growth of Sales in Japan (in Yen)					
14		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
15	Gross Sales:	¥20,000,000	¥21,000,000	¥22,050,000	¥23,152,500	¥24,310,125
16	Commissions Paid in Japan:	2,000,000	2,100,000	2,205,000	2,315,250	2,431,013
17	Net Sales:	18,000,000	18,900,000	19,845,000	20,837,250	21,879,113
18	COGS:	11,700,000	12,285,000	12,899,250	13,544,213	14,221,423
19	Gross Profits:	¥6,300,000	¥6,615,000	¥6,945,750	¥7,293,038	¥6,657,689

TABLE 4

	A	B	C	D	E	F
21	Growth of Sales in Dollars					
22		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
23						
24	Gross Sales:	$181,818	$190,909	$200,455	$210,477	$221,001
25	- Commissions:	18,182	19,091	20,045	21,048	22,100
26						
27	= Net Sales:	$163,636	$171,818	$180,409	$189,430	$198,901
28	- COGS:	106,364	111,682	117,266	123,129	129,286
29						
30	= Gross Profits:	$57,273	$60,136	$63,143	$66,300	$69,615
31	- Tax:	22,909	24,055	25,257	26,520	27,846
32						
33	= Net Profits:	$34,364	$36,082	$37,886	$39,780	$41,769

TABLE 5

	I	J	K	L	M
4	What if exchange rate changes? Assume the range is between 100 to 120.				
5	Sensitivity Analysis: (What-if Analysis)				
6	DATA TABLE TYPE 1				
7	The effect of exchange rate volatility on estimated net profit in U.S. $				
8					
9		2005	2006	2007	2008
10		=C33	=D33	=E33	=F33
11	100	$39,690	$41,675	$43,758	$45,946
12	101	39,297	41,262	43,325	45,491
13	102	38,912	40,857	42,900	45,045
14	103	38,534	40,461	42,484	44,608
15	104	38,163	40,072	42,075	44,179
16	105	37,800	39,690	41,675	43,758
17	106	37,443	39,316	41,281	43,345
18	107	37,093	38,948	40,896	42,940
19	108	36,750	38,588	40,517	42,543
20	109	36,413	38,233	40,145	42,152
21	**110**	**$36,082**	**$37,886**	**$39,780**	**$41,769**
22	111	35,757	37,545	39,422	41,393
23	112	35,438	37,209	39,070	41,023
24	113	35,124	36,880	38,724	40,660
25	114	34,816	36,557	38,384	40,304
26	115	34,513	36,239	38,051	39,953
27	116	34,216	35,926	37,723	39,609
28	117	33,923	35,619	37,400	39,270
29	118	33,636	35,317	37,083	38,937
30	119	33,353	35,021	36,772	38,610
31	120	33,075	34,729	36,465	38,288

TABLE 6

	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R
34	What if exchange rate and growth rate of sales change?										
35	Assume the exchange rate changes between 100 to 120 & sales grow between 1 and 10%.										
36	Sensitivity Analysis: (What-if Analysis)										
37	DATA TABLE TYPE 2 (2008)										
38	The effect of exchange rate & sales volatility on estimated net profit in U.S. dollars.										
39											
40	=F33	1%	2%	3%	4%	5%	6%	7%	8%	9%	10%
41	100	$39,335	$40,916	$42,544	$44,221	$45,946	$47,722	$49,548	$51,426	$53,358	$55,343
42	101	38,945	40,511	42,123	43,783	45,491	47,249	49,058	50,917	52,829	54,795
43	102	38,564	40,114	41,710	43,354	45,045	46,786	48,577	50,418	52,312	54,258
44	103	38,189	39,724	41,305	42,933	44,608	46,332	48,105	49,929	51,804	53,731
45	104	37,822	39,342	40,908	42,520	44,179	45,886	47,642	49,449	51,306	53,214
46	105	37,462	38,968	40,518	42,115	43,758	45,449	47,189	48,978	50,817	52,708
47	106	37,108	38,600	40,136	41,718	43,345	45,020	46,743	48,516	50,338	52,210
48	107	36,762	38,239	39,761	41,328	42,940	44,600	46,307	48,062	49,867	51,722
49	108	36,421	37,885	39,393	40,945	42,543	44,187	45,878	47,617	49,405	51,244
50	109	36,087	37,538	39,031	40,569	42,152	43,781	45,457	47,180	48,952	50,773
51	110	35,759	37,196	38,677	40,201	***41,769***	43,383	45,044	46,751	48,507	50,312
52	111	35,437	36,861	38,328	39,838	41,393	42,992	44,638	46,330	48,070	49,859
53	112	35,120	36,532	37,986	39,483	41,023	42,609	44,239	45,917	47,641	49,413
54	113	34,810	36,209	37,650	39,133	40,660	42,232	43,848	45,510	47,219	48,976
55	114	34,504	35,891	37,320	38,790	40,304	41,861	43,463	45,111	46,805	48,546
56	115	34,204	35,579	36,995	38,453	39,953	41,497	43,085	44,719	46,398	48,124
57	116	33,909	35,272	36,676	38,121	39,609	41,139	42,714	44,333	45,998	47,709
58	117	33,620	34,971	36,363	37,795	39,270	40,788	42,349	43,954	45,605	47,302
59	118	33,335	34,675	36,054	37,475	38,937	40,442	41,990	43,582	45,218	46,901
60	119	33,054	34,383	35,751	37,160	38,610	40,102	41,637	43,216	44,838	46,507
61	120	32,779	34,097	35,454	36,851	38,288	39,768	41,290	42,855	44,465	46,119

MARKETING METRICS: A PUSH FOR TEACHING THE VALUE OF MARKETING AS AN ASSET

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this article is to assess the value of marketing metrics among the academic community. The authors propose that in order for marketing metrics to gain acceptance in corporate decision making, a focus of the importance of these measures must be made first from within the academic community.

INTRODUCTION

Marketing professionals have always seen the importance of metrics that will measure the value of marketing expenditures as an asset (i.e. brand equity). However, while these are often used within departments at operational levels, they rarely reach the level of the boardroom where they compete with those metrics often accepted in accounting and finance. The authors state that in order for these measures to gain acceptance in upper level corporate decision making, the academic community is going to have to instill the importance of such measures in the marketing managers of tomorrow as they pass through the education system. However, what is not clearly understood is who in the academic community is best responsible for this task. The purpose of this paper is to assess the value of marketing metrics among the academic community. With this information, academics will be better prepared to develop a method of spreading the importance of marketing metrics.

Marketing professionals have for a long time espoused that marketing should be capitalized or treated as an investment on the balance sheet rather than as an expense (Simon and Sullivan 1993). However, while accounting practices view the acquisition of new equipment as a cash outlay and a debit to an asset, the expenditure on advertising is looked at as an outlay balanced by a debit to an expense account. Capital expenditures are treated as investments while marketing expenditures are treated as expenses.

While marketing professionals may not like these standards, it is difficult for them to respond to such questions such as; what are we investing in (i.e., what is the asset? and how should we measure the return on the capital employed for the investment?). The Financial Accounting Statements Board (FASB) statement of concepts No. 6 defines an asset as: "Assets are probable future economic benefits obtained or controlled by a particular entity as a result of past transactions or events." Based on this definition an asset that reflects the efficacy of the return to capital employed by marketing is brand equity. The first formal definition of brand equity was provided by David Aaker: "brand equity is a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that of the firms customers" (1991, p.16).

Board members and corporate officers appreciate the value of strong brands. However, they may be less certain as to a market value of a strong brand or how strong brands are created and maintained (Shultz and Gronstedt 1997). To capture brand equity Aaker (1991) recommends, (in addition to quality and other proprietary assets, such as patents, trademarks, etc.), measures such as: brand loyalty, name awareness, perceived quality, and brand associations. These measures of brand equity and their impact upon shareholder value are different from standard accounting valuation of assets. "Accountants still in their nappies are taught about accruals, but that flies out the window where marketing is about. Good marketing may or may not affect sales: it always increases brand equity" (Ambler, 1998, p. 24).

The Financial and Reporting Standards FRS 10, Goodwill and Intangible Assets, and the International Accounting Standards IAS 38, Intangible Assets, requires companies to report the value of acquired brands on the company's annual accounts. FRS 10 allows companies to amortize these acquired brands over a 20 year period (Bartram, 2000). FRS 10 allows for acquired brands to be treated separately from goodwill but it does not apply to any brands developed internally. Still, it is a step in the right direction to meaningfully account for the intellectual capital of a business (Batchelor, 1999). This advance is not without its cost to marketers. "The standard further stipulates that in such cases annual impairment reviews (in accordance with FRS 11 Impairment of Fixed Assets and Goodwill) must be

carried out; the goodwill or intangible asset in question must therefore be capable of measurement. (Gowthorpe, 2000 p. 74). We return to the ever-present obstacle of measuring the impact of marketing; in this case the market value of the brand.

The marketing metrics research project conducted by the London Business School addressed this issue. Tim Ambler, senior fellow at the London Business School, has summarized a 30-month research project studying marketing metrics in his book Marketing and the Bottom Line. He states:" the brief was to report on best practice in marketing performance measurement, to propose improvements and to put forward a shared language." (Ambler 2000 p. 2). Leading examples from this study are awareness, market share and relative price. The results indicate that marketing metrics are collected but at best only 50% of the firms report the measures reaching members of the board.

DISSEMINATION OF INFORMATION

Thus while many can agree that measures of brand equity should be utilized more often in upper level strategic decision making and that we do indeed have the means to measure these values (Aaker 1991), how should this march to the boardroom be accomplished? We suggest that one begins with a grassroots campaign. Similar to a cohort analysis, the techniques and procedures taught to us in graduate programs shape our views. Mention a "Cash Cow," "The CAPM," Porter's "Five Forces Model," and so forth to practicing managers that received an MBA in the last 20 to 30 years they will know exactly what these are, and why they are important or unimportant to the firm. Another example is why conjoint analysis is often used and accepted by marketing managers. These managers have most likely been exposed to the technique while pursuing their MBA, thus they are comfortable with the technique and believe in its value.

Therefore it may be up to educators to emphasize this knowledge of marketing metrics to students so that it may enter the boardroom as a useful tool. The goal of our research is to assess the value of marketing/brand equity metrics among the academic community; especially for those professors teaching core courses in MBA programs. What are the managers of tomorrow hearing with respect to the value of marketing metrics? The specific question to be addressed by our research is: Do professors teaching MBA students consider marketing measures as being useful for determining the value of a firm?

The next question to answer then is 'Who in academia will lead the charge?' Can we expect a unified procession of MBA professors to make this emphasis in their teachings? The following study looks at the belief of using such brand equity measures of MBA professors. It is here where we will find who should be responsible in initiating this push.

THE STUDY

The metrics surveyed in our study are a combination of the items used by Brand Finance and those identified by the London Business School's Marketing Metrics Project. Subjects were asked: "In your opinion, how useful are the following measures for determining the value of a firm." The response categories were: Extremely Useful, Very Useful, Somewhat Useful, Not Very Useful, Not At All Useful, Not Useful and In Fact Misleading, and Not Sure. Items such as brand awareness, brand image, customer loyalty and satisfaction, perceived quality and price premium are considered as measures of brand equity.

A one page questionnaire, along with a prepaid return envelope, was sent to professors, who taught the core course in accounting, finance or marketing at institutions rated as being one of the top 125 MBA programs[1]. Two weeks after the initial mailing, a reminder letter with another questionnaire and return envelope was sent to all the professors. A postal coupon was included for all professors residing outside The United States.

Questionnaires were sent to 114 accounting professors, 120 finance professors, and 116 marketing professors: In total, 132 questionnaires were returned for a response rate of 38%. Respondents who returned comments, but did not complete the questionnaire, were culled from further analyses. The sample used for analysis contained 32 responses from accounting (28% response), 33 responses from finance (28% response), and 62 from marketing (54% response).

Results

The question of interest is whether there are differences among the three academic areas (accounting, finance, and marketing) regarding the usefulness of the marketing measures. The Brand Finance survey results reported the percentage of top-box and top-two box scores. In an analogous fashion, we re-coded the data. Responses to each item were categorized into one of three levels: very

[1] Our goal was the top 125 programs.

useful, useful, and not useful. Brand Relationships has the largest top box score (57.1%). Price premium and customer loyalty followed brand relationship in importance, with top box scores of 38.7% and 38.1%, respectively. The items receiving the lowest top-box scores were: advertising expenditure (14.4%), and brand awareness (18.5%). The low top-box score for brand awareness was not expected. In Keller's model of brand equity (1993) the two drivers of brand equity are brand awareness and brand associations. Other measures received a top-box score of at least 20%.

As a group, the sample of professors did not rate the marketing metrics as being very useful for determining the value of a firm. Only the one measure, brand relationships had a top box score in excess of forty percent. To assess differences among the academic area with respect to the usefulness of the marketing measures, a chi-square statistic was calculated for the cross-tabulations between the marketing metrics and the academic areas. Statistically significant differences ($p \leq .05$) were found for four measures: customer loyalty (p=.000), brand image (p=.029), volume share (p=.045) and brand relationships (p=.053). Except for volume share, the marketing professors were more likely to rate the items as useful. One might expect the marketing professors to rate the brand equity items as more useful; however, even for this group only two items (brand relationships and customer loyalty) received scores in excess of 50% for very useful. We now turn to a categorical clustering procedure, latent structure analysis, to search for groups of people with similar response patterns regardless of academic area.

Latent Profiles

The analyses thus far have assessed differences based on an, a *priori*, classification into one of the three academic areas. We now drop the, a *priori*, assignment and use the responses to the brand equity items as input to the LADI program to identify latent profiles of responses. LADI (Dillon and Mulani 1989) is a latent structure (cf Lazarsfeld and Henry 1968) clustering procedure and falls under the heading of Latent Mixture Models.[2]

The LADI program creates clusters using maximum likelihood estimates of mixing parameters and structural parameters. Factor loadings and goodness of fit heuristics aide in this selection and a four cluster solution was chosen as indicated by using a chi-square difference test. Inspection of the mixing parameters indicates that cluster two is the largest with approximately 44% of the respondents. The sizes of the other clusters are: one = 12.6%, three = 14.96% and four = 28.35%.

The structural parameters estimates for the four cluster solution were used to interpret, or provide meaning, to the latent clusters. These estimates are conditional probabilities; the probability of responding to a specific level of an item given that they are in a latent class. For example, consider the item brand awareness. For the entire sample the probability of responding very useful was 18.55%. The conditional probability of responding very useful given membership in one of the four latent classes ranges from a high of 68.8% for cluster one to a low of 0.0% for cluster four. Consequently, those respondents in cluster one view brand awareness as a very useful metric, whereas those in cluster four do not.

We label cluster one as the "Brand Currency" cluster. By comparing the conditional probability of responding very useful given membership in cluster one to the sample probability of responding very useful we found these people place a greater value on the usefulness of the marketing metrics. People recruited into cluster three are more likely to respond very useful to market share measures. We label this cluster as "Product Currencies."

Cluster four is labeled "skeptics." People in this cluster are more likely to rate the brand equity measures as not useful. The responses from people in cluster one and cluster four are basically contrary; those in cluster one view the marketing metrics as useful, those in cluster four do not. Latent class two is the largest cluster, and therefore, as might be expected, responses are the most similar to the entire sample. People in cluster two are more likely to rate the measures as being useful when compared to the people in cluster three and four but not cluster one.

The means and standard deviations for the recruitment probabilities for the four latent classes are provided in Table 1. These recruitment probabilities reflect how sure we are that the observation was placed in the correct latent class. If the recruitment probability for class one was 90%, then the sum of the probabilities for the other three classes is only a 10%. The results show a very good assignment.

We now look at the crosstabulation between a person's academic area and assignment into one of the four latent classes (see Table 2). The chi-square

[2] The Discussion of LADI follows from the work of Dillon and Mulani 1985.

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics

	Latent Class			
	I	II	III	IV
Mean	.90	.98	.94	.99
SD	.14	.004	.12	.002
Number	16	56	19	3

value is χ^2 =10.26 with 6 degrees of freedom, yielding a p-value of .11. Therefore the null hypothesis of no association is not rejected. The interpretation being that knowledge of academic area does not provide information as to the latent profile of responses to the brand equity items.

In Table 2 the first number in each cell shows the actual count. The second number is the conditional probability of being in a latent class, given an academic area. For example, consider cell (1,1). The actual count is 3; therefore three of the accounting faculty were recruited in cluster 1, the brand currency cluster. The second number (18.75%) indicates that of the 16 people recruited into cluster 1, 18.75% are accounting professors. Although the majority of the "brand currency" class comes from marketing (68.8%), close to one third of the people reporting very useful to the brand equity items are accounting or finance professors. The make up of cluster three, the "product currency cluster" is somewhat different. Here the accounting professors are the majority, while the marketing professors are the minority. Cluster two, the largest cluster, pretty much matches the distribution of the academic areas. Cluster 4, the negative cluster contains approximately the same number from each academic area. However, approximately half of the sample is marketing .

DISCUSSION

The results of our survey are similar to those of the Brand Finance survey. The brand equity metrics are not seen as being very useful for determining the value of a firm. We presume they have some value, but what is it? The marketing metrics project indicated that the measures are collected but not communicated to the board. Clearly any firm that scores better on any of the measures should be more valuable. Would you ever pay more for a firm with lower customer loyalty or perceived quality? Clearly not! But when asked, people do not report these as being valuable for determining the value of the firm.

This may seem like heresy to a marketing audience, but maybe the first step is to develop an MASB-- the

TABLE 2
Cross-Classification

	Latent Class				
	I	II	III	IV	Total
Acctg	3	11	8	10	32
	18.8%	19.6%	42.1%	27.8%	25.2%
Finance	2	13	6	12	33
	12.5%	23.2%	31.6%	33.3%	26.0%
Mktg	11	32	5	14	62
	68.8%	57.1%	26.3%	38.9%	48.8%
Total	16	56	19	36	127
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Marketing Accounting Standards Board. If marketers want their beans to count and be counted, they have to develop a standard and universally accepted set of marketing metrics.[3] "A metric is a performance measure that top management should review ... Metrics is not just another word for measure: metrics should be necessary, precise, consistent and sufficient (i.e. comprehensive) for review (Ambler, 2000 p.5). Having a set of metrics that is recognized by the board will get the board to spend more time scrutinizing the marketing effort.

The addition of the above suggestion and the advancement of today's brand value measures are great improvements as tools to implement these metrics into the boardroom. However, the mere existence of these tools is not enough to ensure that management will use them beyond their daily operations. The ingrained use of existing financial tools is too entrenched for an immediate change to occur. Perhaps what is needed is a place to plant a seed of appreciation for these metrics in tomorrow's executives in order for the metrics to become more accepted over time. An emphasis from academics is the best means possible for this task. The prominent use of metrics in marketing textbooks and the training of MBA students to utilize measurement tools have a large effect later in their careers. While these students will also face corporate inertia from current boardroom measures, the dissemination of these brand measures will improve the likelihood of use in the future. Unfortunately, as we have seen from our study it appears that the marketing educators will be battling this task alone if only at first as academics from accounting and finance departments do not share similar viewpoint.

[3] MSI has recognized the area of marketing metrics as one of their two gold research areas.

BEHAVIORAL ECONOMICS IN MARKETING: A TEACHING NOTE

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ABSTRACT

This note is offered in celebration of the Nobel Prize awarded to Professor Kahneman for his contribution of integrating psychological research into the economic thinking. Kahneman's recognition presents a strong challenge to the long held beliefs in classical economics. This teaching note reifies behavioral decision theory.

PROFESSOR DANIEL KAHNEMAN: PIONEER IN BEHAVIORAL ECONOMICS[1]

Daniel Kahneman was awarded the 2002 Nobel Prize in economic sciences for his pioneering research in integrating psychological perspectives into economics. In its announcement, the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences cited Kahneman "for having integrated insights from psychological research into economic science, especially concerning human judgment and decision-making under uncertainty."

Kahnemann and his deceased colleague, Amos Tversky[2], developed an approach to the study of judgment and decision-making that has gained influence in psychology and economics. Kahneman "challenged the micro-foundations of economics," said Deborah Prentice, chair of Princeton's psychology department. "He has documented the shortcuts people take and the biases they have in making decisions. When people don't have a systematic way of making a decision, they do what they can, and that was news to psychologists and economists. If people are not always capable of making rational decisions, then a lot of what economists had inferred on the basis of those assumptions really needed to be re-examined."

[1] The section on Daniel Kahneman's Nobel Prize was excerpted from a Princeton University press release written by Jennifer Greenstein Altmann on October 9, 2002

[2] The Nobel committee does not make posthumous awards, but in interviews Kahneman said the honor also belonged to Amos Tversky, his longtime colleague and friend. Kahneman said "The prize ... is quite explicitly for joint work, but unfortunately there is no posthumous prize,"

BEHAVIORAL DECISION THEORY: A TEACHING NOTE

Human rationality has been at the center of the debate between economist and behaviorist about the influence of price information on consumer behavior. The economic perspective tends to be supported much more by the rational choice concept, while the behavioral perspective has often been found in actual consumer behavior. Economic theory predicts that gains and losses of equal size are valued the same, whereas behavioral decision theory predicts that they are valued quite differently.

The practical marketing implications of prospect theory (Kahneman and Tversky 1979 and Tversky and Kahneman 1981) and transaction utility theory (Thaler 1980, 1985) challenged the common view in economic theory and in marketing models of consumer choice that a purchase decision involved the comparison of positive utility of a product with the negative utility of its price (Nagle and Holden, 1995).

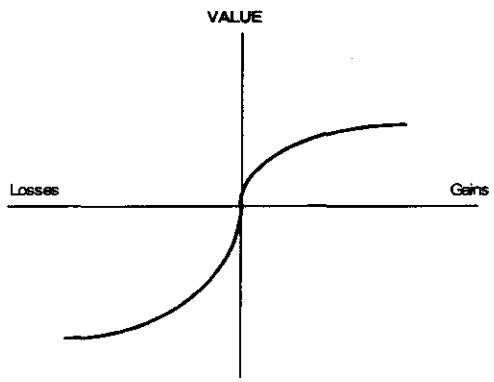
Behavioral decision theory leads to the contention that there are different ways to frame the same transaction, and each way implies somewhat different behavior. For example, Nagle and Holden (1995) describe the following scenario where the outcome is identical but psychologically people would prefer to buy from station A. Station A: Sells gasoline for $1.50 per gallon, and gives a $0.10 discount if the buyer pays with cash while Station B: Sells gasoline for $1.40 per gallon, and charges a $0.10 premium if the buyer pays with a credit card. The perceived cost of purchasing from station A with a discount is less than purchasing form station B with a surcharge.

The Value Curve

Buyers' evaluation of purchases in terms of how the product's quality and price are viewed or framed, in terms of gains and losses, influence the attractiveness of a purchase (Kahneman and Tversky 1979; Thaler 1985). Each transaction involves a gain (product or service) in return for a loss (money). A conceptualization of the value curve is shown in Figure.

Three key propositions are found in the curve: (1) the value function is defined over perceived gains and losses relative to a reference point, (2) the value function is assumed to be concave for gains and convex for losses, and (3) the loss function is steeper than the gain function. Let's assume a value function was described by two functions[3]: value (gain) = $.1631X - .0001X^2$ and value (loss) = $.22X + .0002X^2$ where X is the monetary gain or loss.

FIGURE
The Value Function of Prospect Theory



There are four principles of joint outcomes (gains, losses) that suggests how value for the buyer and demand for the seller can be optimized. Marketers can use these four principles to focus the marketing mix on increasing the gain, and decreasing the loss to enhance the overall value of the offering. By influencing the structuring of the gains and losses of a transaction, marketers can consistently influence people's choices.

Segregate Gains. When there are multiple gains, it is best to segregate the gains. In essence, the point of this is "don't wrap all of the Christmas gifts in one box." For example, retirees prefer to receive a monthly payment over a period of time versus a single lump sum payment and better restaurants serve the various courses of a meal over time rather than all at once.

Segregating gains is symbolized by the formula: value (x) + value (y) > value (x+y). For example, a consumer receiving two consumer rebate checks, one in the amount of $15 and the other in the amount of $25 would be happier than receiving one rebate check in the amount of $40. Using the value function for gain, the value of receiving $15 is 2.42; the value of receiving $25 is 4.02. Adding the two values together totals 6.44. This is greater than the value of $40, which is 6.36. While the human mind does not run quadratic functions in their mind to determine value, Kahneman and Tversky were able to show in their research that subjects will overwhelmingly choose the segregation of gains over integration. The algebraic functions mimic this behavior and are introduced as hypothetical models similar to the demand functions that are used in classical economics.

Integrate Losses. When there are multiple losses it is better to integrate the losses. The desirable feature of a credit card is that these transactions are pooled into one monthly statement. Let's say one shopper makes three purchases of $45, 215 and $86 respectively and pays cash for each purchase. Another shopper charges the same three purchases on a credit card and pays $346 one month later when the statement is due. In doing so, the second shopper reduces the total value lost. This would be illustrated as: value (-x) + value (-y) + value (-z) < value (-x-y-z). Using the value function for losses above[4], the first shopper's value, which segregated the loss, is –52.18. The second shopper, who used a credit card, had a higher value, i.e. –52.18 > -64.99.

Combine Losses Against Larger Gains. People don't like to pay for things like insurance and retirement because they do not have any immediate benefit. But these purchases are important; sellers will offer a plan to integrate the loss (insurance payment) with a gain (payroll). The benefit for the consumer is that they gain the benefit but do not see the loss as the payment is integrated into the paycheck. This transaction would be evaluated as value (x) + value (-y) < value (x-y). One employee subscribes to the company's health plan and has $53.75 deducted from weekly pay of $600. Another employee, paid the same amount, subscribes to an insurance plan where he writes a check each week for $53.75. The first employee's net amount of $546.25 is placed in the gain function for a value of 59.25 while the second employee's gross amount is placed in the gain function and the $53.75 is placed in the loss function for a net value of 50.61. The first employee would "feel" more value (59.25) than the second employee (50.61).

Segregate Gains Against Larger Losses. When there is a mixed loss, it is best to segregate the two. When rebates are offered, the rebate is received after the buyer takes possession of the product. For example, a buyer pays $180 for a DVD player but receives a

[3] These functions are used to describe the value function in the following case. Obviously, in any value estimation exercise, these functions will change but will still conform to the three key propositions about value functions. These particular functions work for ranges of approximately -600 to +600.

[4] In the case of losses, the loss would be entered as a negative number, i.e. $45 is entered into the value equation as -45.

rebate of $20 in the mail two weeks later. This transaction has more value then if the buyer found a a DVD player on sale for $160. This can be symbolized as: value (x) + value (-y) > value (-y+x). The buyer who receives a rebate perceives a better value of -29.90 where the second buyer's value is –30.08.

This section can be introduced to students by asking four questions which describe the four principles of joint outcome (see Appendix). The instructor can then introduce the hypothetical gain and loss function which should verify the class response to the four questions. The example of the computer purchase can then be used to complete the discussion.

A PEDAGOGICAL EXAMPLE: HOW THE VALUE FUNCTION WORKS

Ever since Bob used a friend's top line notebook computer, his old computer never seemed to be the same. After perusing stores, catalogs and endless product reviews on the internet, he found a Solis e-Lite Mini Notebook that seemed to meet his needs. There was an offer in Midwest Micro, a computer catalog, that bundled together the computer with Windows NT Workstation and Microsoft Office and a wireless setup. The package price was $1,595 plus $10.50 (S&H). Solis was offering a $100 rebate on this offer. However on the Internet, he was able find the same individual component from different vendors at the following prices.

Solis Notebook	$799.59 plus $12.95 (S&H)
Windows NT Workstation	245.25 plus 3.25 (S&H)
Microsoft Office	215.00 plus 4.45 (S&H)
Wireless Setup	159.95 plus 3.75 (S&H)
Total	$1,419.79 plus $24.40 (S&H)

With very little hesitation, he was ready to call Midwest Micro to place his order in the amount of $1505.50. Given that he would be able to save a considerable sum of money by buying all the components separately, how can his choice be explained?

He didn't get around to placing the order that day. And it was a good thing because the very next day he received an office memo indicating his employer was offering a payroll deduction program for the purchase of computers. The company offered an interest rate of 4% over 36 months. Bob quickly calculated each of 156 weekly payments to be $10.25. At the time, Bob weekly paycheck was $1,214. He promptly called Human Resources to set up this plan and then called Midwest Micro with his company's authorization to make the purchase. How did the company's offer impact Bob's decision?

After he had made his purchase, he was still perplexed by his consumption behavior. Bob's good friend, a professor at a nearby university, was able to explain to Bob the phenomenon of the value function and the mental framing of prices. While the professor could not pinpoint the actual process of Bob's thinking, he could offer a hypothetical model[5]. He drew the picture of the value function and estimated the equations for the two curves. For the curve on the right side he suggested the equation value (gain) = $9.908991X - .003259X^2$; for the left hand side, he suggested value (loss) = $11.786539X + .003859X^2$, in both equations X represents the monetary amount of the gain or loss. He went on to explain the two situations illustrated in the case.

The first situation is the choice between the catalog offer and the Internet offerings. The products for either offer are identical. The difference is the amount of money paid. Using economic theory, one would predict that the consumer would choose the offer that minimizes price. Prospect theory, taking into account more than the monetary sacrifice, will suggest the higher priced option is more satisfying. Here is the logic of the prospect theory argument:

Buying components from the Internet:

	Price	S&H	Total	Value[6]
Solis Notebook	$799.59	$12.95	$812.95	(7,029)
Windows NT Workstation	245.25	3.25	248.50	(2,691)
Microsoft Office	215.00	4.45	219.45	(2,401)
Wireless setup	159.95	3.75	163.70	(1,826)
Total	$1,419.79	$24.40	$1,444.19	(13,947)

The evaluation of this offer is segregated by it individual components. Therefore the computation of the value of the loss is computed separately for each of the four components. The "theoretical" value of the loss is –13,947.

Buying the package price from the catalog:

Price	Rebate	S&H	Total	Value[7]
Package with instant rebate				
$1,595.00	($100)	$10.50	$1,505.50	(8,998)
Package with delayed rebate				
$1,595.00		$10.50	$1,605.50	(8,976)
	($100)		(100.00)	958
$1,595.00	$100	$10.50	1,505.50	(8,018)

[5] The use of quadratic functions to mimic the value functions is hypothetical in nature. These curves do not exist in reality. However, the behavior of consumers is consistent with the mathematical computation of the value curve.
[6] Use loss function to compute.
[7] Use loss function to compute

The evaluation of this offer depends on how the rebate is paid. When the rebate is "instant" then the gain is integrated into the loss with a resulting value of the loss of 8,998. When the rebate is delayed, the gain of the rebate is segregated from the loss of the financial payment. This results in a value of the loss of 8,018. When both offers are compared, it is apparent that the consumer will minimize the value of the loss by wanting the catalog offer with a rebate to be paid at a later date. This is consistent with prospect theory that says buyers will prefer to integrate losses, thus, the catalog offer is preferred over the Internet offerings. Secondly, buyers prefer to segregate gains against larger losses to gain the so-called "silver lining" of the offer. Therefore, the delayed rebate, segregated from the payment, is preferred.

The second situation demonstrates the power of combining losses against larger gains. By using payroll deduction to pay for the computer, it will be "less" painful than separately receiving a paycheck and then paying separately the periodic payment to a financial institution. The table below will illustrate that the overall value of the gain is larger when the two transactions are combined via a payroll deduction.

Gain	Value of Gain	Loss	Value of Loss	Net Gain	Net Value
Separate transactions					
$1,214	7,226	($10.25)	(120)	$1,203.75	7,106
Payroll deduction					
$1,214		($10.25)		$1,203.75	7,206

CONCLUSIONS

This paper demonstrates that consumers do not respond to prices in a perfectly logical manner. Rather, there is a behavioral component that strongly affects consumer's decision process towards buying.

While this single example does not prove a theory, it demonstrates in a mathematical sense how prospect theory what has already been found in several research studies (Kahneman and Tversky 1979; Tversky and Kahneman 1981; Thaler 1980, 1985). The idea of value is a powerful concept that goes beyond the economic perspective that consumers will minimize the price paid. Behavioral economics goes beyond this example to explain a more complete set of consumer decision to maximize value rather than to minimize price paid.

Aspects of behavioral economics need to be better integrated and presented in principles of marketing textbooks so that both the students and professors have a more complete understanding of consumer demand. Including an example of behavioral economics in our marketing curriculum is fitting tribute to a Nobel prize winner.

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APPENDIX

- Nathan receives two rebates in the mail. One is for $15 and the other is for $25.
- Josh receives a rebate check for $40.

Who is more satisfied?

- Amanda goes shopping and makes three purchases of $45, $215, and $86 and pays cash for each purchase.
- Kristen goes shopping and makes three purchases of $45, $215 and $86 and uses a credit card.

Who is more satisfied?

- Ian subscribes to the company health plan and has $53.75 deducted from his weekly pay of $600.
- Eric health plan and has to write a check for $53.75 every week. His weekly pay is $600.

Who is more satisfied?

- Elise pays $180 for a DVD player and receives a rebate of $20 in the mail two weeks later.
- Erin pays $160 for a DVD player (same one) on sale.

Who is more satisfied?

RENEWING THE EMPHASIS OF ETHICS IN THE BUSINESS SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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ABSTRACT

Given the ethical, moral and legal issues that have had major impact on the business community in recent years, one wonders what students may really know about ethics and if they know what may constitute the various ethical issues they will face in the business world. This special session will discuss the various curricular issues, classroom activities and a real world perspective of ethics. Topics to be covered:

1. Defining the need. An overview of the topic and short discussion of the need for having more ethics topics in business coursework and curriculum
2. The AACSB emphasis on ethics studies in the curriculum.
3. The "real world" perspective on the importance of teaching ethical issues.
4. A small school perspective on the ethics problem
5. Issues of ethics and student perceptions of ethical behaviors
6. In class exercise for building awareness of ethical issues in relevant marketing/international business classes.

DEFINING THE NEED FOR ETHICS IN THE BUSINESS CURRICULUM
DELORES BARSELLOTTI

At one time, many business schools did have courses in business ethics (some taught in the business school, some by the philosophy department in the school of arts). These courses often were either a part of the required business courses or as a required general education course.

Given the ethical, moral and legal issues that have had major impacts on the business community in recent years, this is being reconsidered. Cases like Enron, the accounting firms that have utilized "creative accounting" (i.e., Arthur Andersen) and the mixed messages of situational ethics have all given the impression that "anything goes" when one is attempting to become very successful.

This portion of the presentation will focus on recent problems, their impacts and what has possibly lead to permitting these issues to become so massive and pervasive in our society.

Other issues to be presented will cover why there is a strong need to reintroduce the ethics areas back into the curricula with a more pronounced emphasis.

AACSB PERSPECTIVE
ANDREW TRUONG

There have been many articles on the importance of instilling ethics into university business courses. The AACSB has been calling for a larger role for ethical studies to be incorporated into courses so that students may become more sensitive to the ethical and moral issues (along with the legal ones) that they may encounter in today's corporate world.

ETHICS IN THE REAL WORLD
DAVE PETERS

Professional Solutions International is an international business-consulting firm. Mr. Peters has worked in over 60 countries in the last five years. He will discuss the importance (or lack of) ethical training and situational ethics as experienced abroad. In addition, he will offer the "real world" perspective of what should be taught in a university setting.

SMALL SCHOOL PERSPECTIVE
JANIS DIETZ

University of La Verne is a smaller business school and a program originally affiliated with a religious organization, the Church of the Brethren. This former affiliation is reflected in the mission statement of the university and is intentionally carried out in the general education program. The focus on social, environmental and global responsibility is key to attracting students and faculty who want to be a part of such a community. Private schools do not always need to abide by the same rules (Healy, 1996) as state schools in certain areas, so they have the responsibility of holding themselves to higher standards. Does this vary ethical education? Do students have different value patterns to begin with? Is it easier to instill ethical values in a university with a "Christian" mission?

Initial interviews with the students show that they downplay the impact of that background, but do feel that the smaller sized school does help them to understand ethical issues better.

Ethics is taught in the business curriculum as a separate course and is offered five times a year. University of La Verne uses MITT (Multi-Integrity Teaching Tool) to train these students. Smaller class sizes make it somewhat easier to police unethical activities and the continued presence of the Church of the Brethren influence (albeit, unofficial and less dominate than other schools) encourages a higher ethical standard. The in-creasingly multi-cultural background of the student body and the increased exposure to potential ethical dilemmas (Internet term paper sources, music downloading, etc.) seems to have mitigates some of the forces pushing to a stronger ethical background.

Indeed, the faculty also reflects this multicultural background and this, too, may have an impact on the teaching of ethics as ethics values are culturally determined. Some of these do not adhere to "American" values and see no reason to do so (Shaw and Berry, 2004). The question must be asked, "Do our students reflect what we teach, or what we do?"

INCORPORATING ETHICS IN THE CLASSROOM
SUSAN PETERS

Over the years, ethics education has held various places in our curricula. Classes in ethics or business ethics were once very popular and often required classes. The feeling then arose that teaching ethics this way separated it from the function course work. That is to say, it became another class like biology or history that a student had to take, but yet was not what they really needed to learn to be an accountant, a marketer, etc. Schools focused on teaching ethics within the courses. Marketing ethics was a subsection of each marketing course, accounting ethics of each accounting course and similarly throughout the curriculum. But is this effective? Do students see this as incorporating ethics in the functional knowledge they are obtaining or do they perceive that it has been de-emphasized? (Shannon & Berl, 1997)

Robinson, Lewicki and Donahue (1998) developed a questionnaire addressing seven clusters of what the authors refer to as "marginally ethical tactics" that may occur in the negotiation process (modified later by Lewicki and Barry 2001). This questionnaire, the SINS II Scale, was originally used on MBA students and practitioners in the field. (SINS stands for "Self-reported Inappropriate Negotiations Strategies.") The survey (to be administered during this discussion) is simple enough to be used, also, at the undergraduate level. Due to the negations emphasis, placing it in the appropriate section of a class is desirable to reduce confusion or misunderstanding.

California State Polytechnic University teaches a class in International Negotiations, which is required for all international business students and all of the sales track marketing students (and recommended for certain other career tracks.) Approximately eight sections a year are offered with the average class size of around 40 students. This exercise is often used AFTER teaching negotiations ethics.

The exercise usually begins by asking for a show of hands of those who believe that they are ethical (this usually is unanimous). The class is then asked if they believe that they are more "ethical" than the typical business person (most do see themselves as more ethical). They are then asked if they believe that, in general, business people are more or less ethical today than they were in the past (this opens a very lively discussion of issues that have occurred in the relative recent past, (i.e., Enron and others) and whether or not we have learned from these occurrences.

The next step is the administration of the questionnaire. The real surprise happens to be the results. The members of the class already view themselves a strongly ethical (or, more so than their predecessors), so it is a shock that the results usually show the exact opposite.

This questionnaire exercise is an experiential exercise to familiarize students with ethical issues,

dilemmas and problems that may occur in the real world. It is designed by the questionnaire authors to act as a catalyst for discussions (after the class fills out and hands in the questionnaires), and to permit students to examine their own personal views of ethical behaviors. The results from the questionnaires are useful to analyze those areas that may need to be addressed further in the classroom; these areas may be important when reviewing curricular matters for various other courses (the main reason to administer it in relevant courses).

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RATEYOURSTUDENTSETHICS.COM: PIRACY, PLAGIARISM OR CHEATING?

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ABSTRACT

This Special Session, chaired by Katrin R. Harich, focuses on issues relating to students' ethical behavior, including plagiarism, cheating with use of technology, and piracy. The presenters will address questions such as: has the spread of computing changed general ethics/student ethics (i.e. made some previously unethical acts seem less unethical), why and how does Internet plagiarism occur, why and how does Internet piracy occur, why and how does Internet cheating occur, what is the effect of these behaviors on learning, for the students, are these three areas (plagiarism, cheating, piracy) related, how can the transgression of ethics in these areas be explained from a theoretical perspective, and what are the different approaches to curb unethical Internet behavior and to whom and which of these areas do these approaches apply (or work best).

SPECIFIC SESSION CONTENT

Specifically, Neil Granitz discusses the growth of internet plagiarism, possible reasons for this "explosion," as well as solutions to the challenge. According to surveys, 41 percent of undergraduate students admit that they have engaged in one or more instances of "cut and paste" plagiarism involving the Internet. Curiously, according to extant research, more than 30 percent of instructors did nothing to pursue cheating, although they knew it was going on in their classes. Complicating matters further, not even college professors always agree on what constitutes plagiarism. Suggested solutions include contract honor, define plagiarism as wrong, teach proper citation and documentation techniques, act as a role model, avoid standardized, general assignments, explain and emphasize surveillance, institute and enforce clear, severe penalties.

Jerry Kirkpatrick focuses on ethical theory, pointing to the fact that various theories do not agree whether lying is always wrong or, if it is sometimes justified, under what conditions it might be justified. Deontologists argue that we should act according to duty, regardless of consequences. Utilitarians always look at consequences to discover acts that lead to the greatest happiness of the greatest number. Advocates of rational or enlightened self-interest theory look at consequences in relation to the principle of self-defense. Relativists say that right and wrong depend on some perspective, such as one's culture, language, nation, historical era, ethnic group, or self. Finally, situationalists look at the specific situation, guided by an overarching principle, such as love or growth and progress, to judge right from wrong.

Lauren Wright and Dan Toy emphasize the role of technology with respect to cheating. Cheating behavior can be facilitated by information technology, including chat rooms, plagiarism from the Internet, sharing of test questions via email between classes, the use of cell phones to dial multiple choice answers into numeric pagers, and crib note cheating with cutting edge calculators. Some of the most popular choices for e-cheating are the web-based "term paper mill sites." In a recent exchange of emails on ELMAR, marketing professors discussed the problems of posting solutions to business cases on Web sites. These solutions were being retrieved by students and used as a shortcut for preparing case assignments.

While technological tools provide additional avenues for cheating, they also offer new methods for preventing, identifying and verifying cheating. Faculty now have access to search engines such as turnitin.com, paperbin.com, howoriginal.com, and plagiserv.com to help combat online plagiarism. These sites use word mining tools to check

documents against published work on the web. Securexam and SofTest are the equivalent tools for use in e-testing environments. A more traditional approach to combating cheating involves developing a "relationship" type of environment in the classroom. Other options include: affirming the importance of academic integrity, promoting an environment of trust in the classroom, clarifying expectations for students, reducing opportunities to engage in cheating, challenging dishonesty when it occurs, and helping define and support campus-wide academic integrity standards.

Brian Jorgensen discusses Internet piracy of music, video, and other digital products. Internet piracy of music, video, and other digital products is the offspring of two previously common practices among students. The first of these was the analog copying of music and movies onto audio and video cassettes. The second was the free installation of software products from disks purchased by someone else. The gray area legality in the first case coupled with the ability to create an identical duplicate in the second case converged to create an "I can and, therefore, I will" mentality among otherwise would-be purchasers of entertainment and software products. When Napster arrived on the scene, many students and other music lovers viewed it as a gift and a goldmine, particularly in light of the beliefs of most that file sharing was not illegal. Part of the research on which this presentation is based was collected through interviews with students during the heyday of free file sharing using Napster, specifically in the fall of 2001.
A second set of interviews was conducted in early 2005, following a time period during which some individuals who had downloaded free music over the internet had been prosecuted and fined. As a result these prosecutions, most consumers today believe that free file sharing is, indeed, illegal. Further, the emergence of online music stores that sell downloads for a price, such as itunes, has created an alternative to having to buy a whole CD for one or two desired songs. Nevertheless, many students continue to download music for free and to burn copies of friends' CDs without giving much thought to the ethics of these practices. A not uncommon, though somewhat surprising, view is that while illegal, free file sharing is not unethical. In some senses, music is viewed like oxygen, a highly-valued substance that is, nevertheless, all around and free for the taking.

Generally, even those who are concerned about the ethics of file sharing feel that the people they know who engage in the practice are good, ethical people. This belief can lead some individuals to the viewpoint that even if a particular practice is unethical, it can still be okay if enough people are engaging in it. This perspective could, in turn, have dangerous implications if it were extended to unethical student practices such as plagiarism or cheating.

Lastly, David Folsom addresses "phishing," the fraudulent attempt by Internet criminals to get consumers to provide personal financial information via response to an e-mail. Phishing has replaced privacy as a major Internet consumer concern, harming legitimate Internet marketers. MailFrontier, a leading Internet email software company, designed a survey to test consumer awareness and recognition of phishing. With the permission of MailFrontier, Folsom and his co-authors surveyed business students to determine how knowledgeable and accepting they are of this type of Internet scam.

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BALANCING ACTS: FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF CHANGING CAREER EXPECTATIONS

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ABSTRACT

During the last few decades, numerous changes have taken place in the lives of university faculty members. A majority of these changes reflect an increasing expectation to expand faculty responsibilities in all three critical areas of teaching, research, and service. Inherent in these changes is a lack of accompanying time and resources. Within the field of marketing, and especially among the members of the Marketing Educators' Association, the premiere organization for marketing educators, changing perspectives of how faculty manage their career responsibilities, especially with regard to teaching and research activities, have been recently explored. For example, recent articles and discussion on how faculty can balance academic and personal life needs (Mundt and Driver 1996), faculty working conditions (Suter et. al 1994), the future of marketing education (Collins et. al 1998), university reward systems and institutional mission statements (Haley et. al 1999), and socializing new faculty to adapt to university teaching (Sianchuk 2003) have been insightful. All of these sources address timely issues that marketing faculty must encounter in their careers as they attempt to understand how an academic institution affects them and to begin the process of shaping the future of marketing education. However, what has been missing from these engaging discussions is a holistic view of how individual faculty members manage to realistically cope with increasing career expectations that must also be balanced with other demands in their personal and professional lives.

The session addressed issues surrounding how faculty create or try to create balanced lives in the midst of increasing and shifting obligations, and shrinking resources. A diverse panel of full-time, tenure track and part-time faculty in varying stages of their academic careers and personal lives discussed the struggles, successes, failures, pitfalls, highlights, inspirations, and models they pursue in the quest for balanced lives. In this effort, they discussed and recommended effective coping strategies for dealing with the numerous, complex, and increasing career expectations that they confront in today's academic environment and global marketplace.

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