



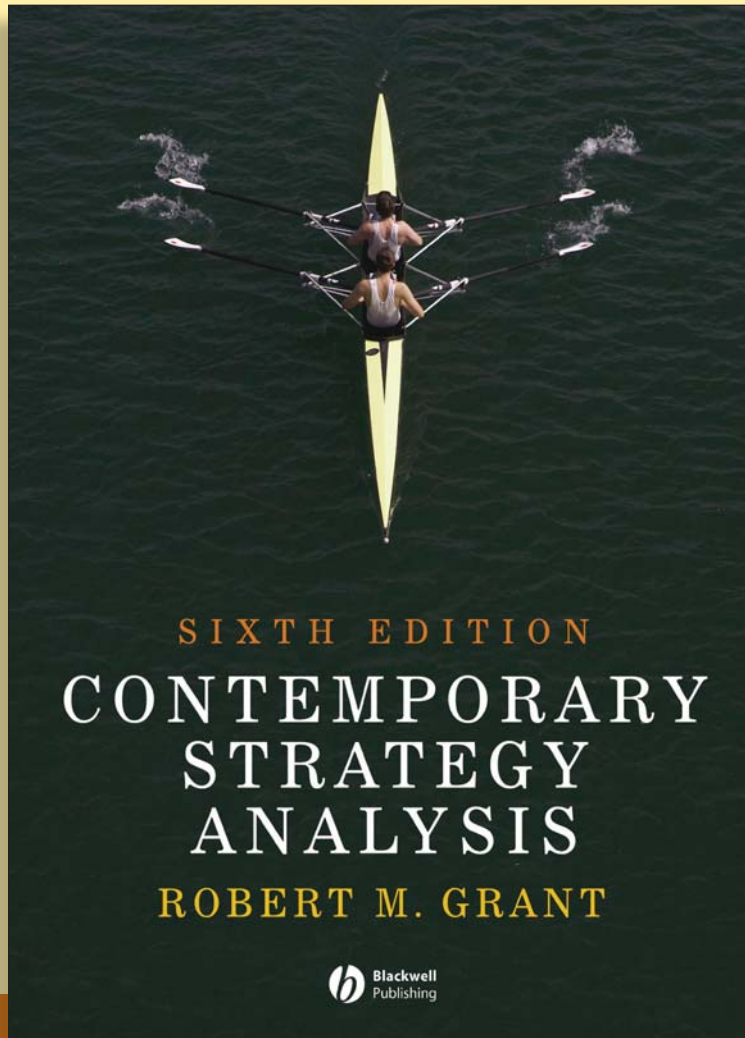
**Marketing Management Association
2007 Educators' Conference Proceedings**

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Gregg is a 1993 alumnus of Southeast Missouri State University, and earned a MBA from Lindenwood University in 1988.

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As account director, her brand experience includes Sprint PCS, Beech-Nut baby food, American Association of Orthodontists, St. Louis Blues, Bud Light, Miller Lite, High Life, Foster’s, and Peroni. In addition to her agency job, Ms. Jenne has taught advertising creative strategy development at Maryville University and Lindenwood University.

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An enthusiastic scholar, Dr. Schermerhorn is a member of the Academy of Management, where he served as chairperson of the Management Education and Development Division. In addition, educators and students alike know him as author of *Management 8e* (Wiley 2005) and senior co-author of *Organizational Behavior 9/e* (Wiley 2005), and *Core Concepts of Organizational Behavior* (Wiley 2004).

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Marketing Management Association Educators' Conference September 26–28, 2007, St. Louis, Missouri

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WE ARE CURRENTLY EXPERIENCING TECHNICAL DIFFICULTIES – WILL YOU STAND BY?

Lori Lohman, Augsburg College

SUMMARY

Imagine that you are ready to begin the lecture portion of your Principles of Marketing class. You flip on the computer and the projector, but no image is showing on the screen behind you. You check all of your connections, but you can't find anything amiss. Somewhat embarrassed, you ask a student to help you. The student can't find anything wrong, so you call your college's technology help line. The support person arrives 15 minutes later, and diagnoses the problem, which may be major or minor. Meanwhile, you've wasted 25 minutes of a 50-minute class on technology issues, rather than covering the subject material for the day.

Does this Scenario Sound Familiar? It Has Happened to Me More than Once

Technology is a blessing and a curse. When it is working properly, technology can help instructors to cover more material in a shorter period of time, link to resources on the Internet, and keep student attention; however, it is just as likely that form can supersede function. Instructors can spend too much time trying to get the technology to work properly at the expense of student learning.

Is the use of technology really necessary in the classroom? According to Kathy Schwalbe, who studied this topic as part of her doctoral dissertation, "The more a technology is used in an organization, the more effective it is perceived to be. . . . However, none of the technologies used in this study were perceived as being highly effective *in improving the teaching and learning process* (emphasis added)" (Schwalbe p. vii). If this is true, then what does technology add to the classroom beyond an entertainment value? In his book "Does IT Matter? Infor-

mation Technology and the Corrosion of Competitive Advantage," Nicholas Carr backs Schwalbe's findings, arguing that companies do not have a clear strategy in mind when they make IT investments. He argues that companies are too quick to embrace the latest technology, and have not assessed the true costs and benefits of such investments.

Technology can spawn other difficulties as well. It can contribute to multiple forms of student cheating. With online student evaluations, only students with strong feelings about the course may respond (although that is an inherent risk with any self-administered survey tool). Students may argue that professors do not reply fast enough to e-mail messages, or that they should be available 24/7. And then there is the ever-present threat of "entertainment value" posing as learning.

I am not advocating that instructors should not use technology; rather, I am arguing that instructors should have a clear reason for using various types of technology (besides the novelty factor, explain their rationale to students (including their policies for availability) . . . and have a backup plan for when technology fails!

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PROPOSAL FOR AN INTERDISCIPLINARY COURSE ON OUTSOURCING

Suneel Maheshwari, Marshall University

Uday Tate, Marshall University

Martin Stack, Rockhurst University

INTRODUCTION

Outsourcing of business process and related activities has emerged as a leading, controversial, and inevitable issue. Outsourcing has been and will be a global strategy for many American businesses. Due to its strategic significance, it is imperative that academicians systematically investigate dynamics of outsourcing and at the same time, develop pedagogical approaches to deliver outsourcing as a legitimate course in business curricula, both at undergraduate and graduate levels. The present proposal will address various pedagogical issues on outsourcing. We believe the topic is timely and will generate a lot of academic and research interest.

Primary objective of the proposal is to prepare a course that will help students understand and deal effectively with the issue of global outsourcing. This course is an acknowledgment of the fact that global outsourcing is here to stay in the long term. Although outsourcing can be both offshore and onshore, it is more commonly used for offshore outsourcing. One of the visible and politically publicized effects of offshore outsourcing is loss of jobs in the United States. Job losses are always painful, and the recent recession and sluggish recovery have meant real hardship for many Americans. It is important, however, to shun hysteria and demagoguery in assessing what is going on with the economy and the labor market and examine the dynamics of outsourcing in an objective manner.

The total U.S. private-sector jobs increased by 17.8 million between 1993 and 2002. To produce that healthy net increase, a breath-taking total of 327.7 million jobs were added, while 309.9 million jobs were lost. In other words, for every new net private-sector job created during that period, 18.4 gross job additions had to offset 17.4 gross job losses. Meanwhile, despite the new offshoring trend, the Department of Labor is forecasting a 35 percent increase in computer- and math-related jobs over the next decade. All of those job losses are a painful but necessary part of the larger process of innovation and

productivity increases that is the source of new wealth and rising living standards.

According to a May 2003 survey by *CIO*, 68 percent of the more than 100 IT executives who responded said their offshore contracts would increase significantly. The trend would continue (unless the U.S. government intervenes) because the apparent cost advantages are simply too seductive.

As more jobs move offshore, the work will move higher on the IT food chain. Indeed, it already has. The *CIO* survey found that 11 percent of the companies had outsourced system and architecture planning offshore, and 14 percent had outsourced research and development – two categories that analysts and chief information officers have predicted would never leave the shores of America.

Rationale

The course is designed to prepare students for future challenges of the global job market and to help them get a competitive edge. Outsourcing like any other business strategy has multiple facets and therefore theoretically it is advisable to approach the outsourcing issue from different perspectives. To emphasize a cross-functional teaching approach, the proposed course has been divided into several modules and each of these modules will be covered by specialist in that area. Below is provided a preliminary thought as to how the course can be broken into different modules and some issues that might be covered under that module.

Proposed Structure

1. Accounting/Finance Function

- ◆ The real impact of outsourcing on the US economy and world in general.
- ◆ Evaluating cost effectiveness of outsourcing in-shore and off-shore.

- ◆ Firms in different regions compare with regard to cost, quality, timely delivery performance, customer service, design, and other metrics of performance.
- ◆ Procedures of bidding for the job, inviting bids on a particular job, financial documents involved in the process.
- ◆ Intellectuals Property protection: reporting guidelines, auditing, taxes, etc.
- ◆ Export and Import Procedures and Intricacies.

2. Management/Production Function

- ◆ What are the medium and long-term benefits from a firm, country or regional viewpoint.
- ◆ How regions can attain competitive performance standards more quickly today.
- ◆ Managing client changes and vendor changes due to outsourcing.
- ◆ Managing failure of outsourcing.
- ◆ Providing scalability due to changing/expanding client needs.
- ◆ Sustaining long term primary outsourcing destination – Advantages for country like India.
- ◆ Remaining ahead of global competitors and at the pinnacle of innovation.
- ◆ Strategies and best practices to manage the mature outsourcing relationship.
- ◆ Outsourcing has changed hiring practices and HR policies. Skill sets are expected from workers, managers and executives.
- ◆ Training of personnel in outsource firm.

3. Marketing Function

- ◆ How do the traditional factors such as co-location, clustering, and scale impacting outsourcing or factors other than these that weigh in favor of outsourcing.
- ◆ How the recent phenomenon of outsourcing has affected the service sectors. Impact of these trends on the structure of firms. Would service

sector outsourcing follow similar trends as manufacturing?

- ◆ Customer relationship and marketing; marketing strategies for outsourcing.
- ◆ How regions and firms maintain competitive advantage in particular areas.
- ◆ The IT revolution has impacted the ability of firms to work together at long distance.
- ◆ Marketing of product/services across distances, time zones, cultural differences, and languages.
- ◆ Difficulty in maintaining quality and reliability in outsourcing.
- ◆ Managing expectations in a maturing marketplace.
- ◆ Offshore outsourcing: entry strategies.

The above functional areas will be further divided into several teaching modules in the proposed course as follows:

Teaching Modules

- Module 1: Introduction to Offshore Outsourcing
 - a. Offshore Outsourcing: What is it? Why do it?
- Module 2: An Overview of offshore outsourcing process
 - a. Offshore outsourcing Business Models
- Module 3: Offshore outsourcing: Understanding of Environmental Factors
 - a. Geopolitical climate
 - b. Culture
 - c. Language and Social Barriers
 - d. Technological and Economic Factors
 - e. Competition
- Module 4: Infrastructure, intellectual property, trademark, and security issues
- Module 5: Accounting Decisions
 - a. The real impact of outsourcing on the U.S. economy and world in general
 - b. Evaluating cost effectiveness of outsourcing in-shore and off-shore
 - c. Accounting principles and practices related to offshore outsourcing

- Module 6: Financial Decisions
- Assessment of financial performance of offshore outsourcing
 - Financial reporting guidelines, auditing, taxes, etc.
 - Assessment of financial risk, cost-benefit analysis, etc.
- Module 7: Navigating contracts and negotiations
- Procedures of bidding for contracts
 - Negotiation skills and strategies
- Module 8: Market Identification and Development
- Assessment and Analysis of client needs
 - Market segmentation strategies
 - Customer Relationship Management
 - Marketing strategies in offshore outsourcing
- Module 9: Development of Marketing Program in Offshore Outsourcing
- Product/service offerings: features, quality, warrantee, etc.
 - Communication with Customers and other target audiences
- Module 10: Development of Marketing Program in Offshore Outsourcing
- Distribution, supply chain management, and vendor issues
 - Pricing, foreign currency, rates, payments methods, etc.
- Module 11: Management of Human Resource
- Hiring and training policies
 - Retention, motivation, comensation, and termination practices
- Labor laws, child labor, diversity, labor union issues
 - Organizational structure and relationships for offshore outsourcing
- Module 12: Offshore outsourcing strategies
- Entry strategies: contractual manufacturing, joint ventures, strategic alliances, direct investment, etc.
 - Role of IT and e-commerce in the development of offshore outsourcing strategies
 - Location Analysis
- Module 13: Implementation and evaluation of offshore outsourcing strategies
- Development of performance standards and metrics
 - Policies and procedures for measuring performance metrics
 - Assessment and analysis of offshore performance
 - Evaluation and control of offshore outsourcing
- Module 14: Future of Offshore Outsourcing
- Offshore Outsourcing in the New Economy
 - Future challenges and directions in offshore outsourcing

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ORAL PRESENTATIONS IN MARKETING COURSES: STUDENT ATTITUDES AND SELF-ASSESSMENT

Alison M. Wolfe, Elmira College

ABSTRACT

Oral presentations represent important exercises for developing real-world communications and leadership skills. At the same time, they present unique challenges for marketing faculty in areas such as grading criteria, course weighting, and the impact of team participation. This paper explores student attitudes toward such oral presentations, based on results from a survey with nearly 100 respondents. Issues surveyed include preferences toward grading approaches, assessment of individual competencies, and attitudes toward the value of such presentations.

INTRODUCTION

Marketing education continues to focus itself on preparing students for the actual skills and competencies they will need in their careers, leading in turn to a necessary shift from pure classroom instruction toward active, experiential learning. Given the role of marketing as a science of promoting products and ideas, the ability to communicate clearly to groups of people represents a basic competency for its graduates. As a result, oral presentations tied in with project work are increasingly finding their way in undergraduate marketing courses.

- ◆ At the same time, the growth of oral presentations opens up some important pedagogical questions for marketing educators, including:
- ◆ How should the quality of an oral presentation factor in the grading of a marketing project, and how can we best assess this quality?
- ◆ What should the influence be of team participation on a marketing project and oral presentation, and in particular, what are appropriate boundaries for the assessment of individual participation within a team project?
- ◆ Which stakeholders should be involved in the assessment of an oral presentation – the faculty mem-

ber alone, the students who form the audience for an oral presentation, and/or the team members who can best judge individual levels or participation?

- ◆ What are the attitudes of students themselves toward these oral presentations, and what factors and competencies do they feel are important?

Oral presentation skills are an essential part of the communications processes that lie at the heart of all marketing endeavors, and there is a growing realization that these must be cultivated by marketing educators, as evidenced by an increasing trend to include both oral and written assignment in marketing course syllabi (Martin 1990). Corporate recruiters openly seek prospective marketing employees with excellent written and oral communication skills (Hawes and Foley 2006), and the lack of these skills has been cited as a key argument that business school education is losing its effectiveness (Armstrong 2004; Armstrong 2005). A study by Ferris (1998) showed that formal speaking was ranked highest among seven specific listening or speaking skills by students themselves, who also indicated little exposure to formal speaking in their classes, and a desire for further training in oral skills.

As a result, numerous authors have encouraged the development of courses directed toward the development of written and oral communication skills (McCole 2004). Scholars have suggested that these skills are best learned through involvement exercises with structured feedback, and not from listening to lectures on marketing theories (Young 2002). Lyke and Young (2006) have asserted that deep cognitive strategies (e.g., expanding on the course material through term projects and oral presentations reporting on these projects) generally produce better understanding of course material than do surface strategies (Pintrich and Garcia 1991), such as reading and repeating ideas learned in the course, and students who employ these strategies are likely to be more engaged with the material than are students who employ surface strategies.

A study conducted by Carroll (2006) showed that presentations and role-plays were regarded as the most important topic covered in sales related academic curriculum by both professors and sales professionals (Parker et al. 1996). While Carroll notes a relative lack of studies on best practices for assessing oral business presentations, one area that has been researched to some degree is the use of peer assessment techniques for these skills. Several studies show potential benefits and adequate reliability for this approach, while raising potential issues such as adequate training for raters, consistency of peer assessment criteria, and potential bias in areas such as gender, educational background, or participation in the development of criteria. (Topping 1998; Campbell et al. 2001; Langan et al. 2005), although a more recent study by Pinar and Girard (2006) shows no consistent patterns that substantiate gender bias.

Given the dearth of studies directed at oral presentations as a whole, the study discussed in this paper was designed to elicit the opinions of students from a standpoint of consumers of marketing education, to inform the design of effective oral presentation assignments and their assessment criteria for future marketing course programs. By analyzing and interpreting this data we can better fine-tune these efforts over the life cycle of a student's post-secondary education. These results, in turn, provides an effective composite picture of student attitudes toward oral presentations within the context of their marketing courses, and their own perceived sense of the importance of such presentations as part of their project work and overall educational experience.

METHODOLOGY

A survey was administered via electronic mail to students at a liberal arts college on the East Coast approximately two months after the conclusion of the spring term, containing 15 questions designed to explore student attitudes toward various aspects of oral presentations including their grading, the impact of team participation, an assessment of individual competencies, and the importance of these presentations, along with demographic information. The survey group consisted of students who have taken a Principles of Marketing course, students on record as having registered for this course in the next academic term, plus a smaller sample of students from a broad range of academic backgrounds serving in this school's Student Senate. A total of 94 responses were received, with representation from freshman through senior class levels ranging from 15 percent to 32 percent of total respondents, and approximately a 2 to 1 ratio of females to males (64 versus 30). A majority of respondents (55) were students of business, and nearly two-thirds (61.7% or 58 respondents) had taken an introduc-

tory Principles of Marketing course. The survey questions were as follows:

I. Demographic Information

The following questions were asked to classify the demographics of the respondents:

1. What year did or do you expect to graduate from college?
2. Did you enroll and complete a course entitled Principles of Marketing?
3. What is your gender?
4. What is your major or specialization?

II. Grading Approaches

5. As an individual presenter, if you were delivering a 30-minute presentation to your class, do you believe you should receive one grade for your oral presentation and a separate grade for the written portion of that presentation? If no, explain.
6. If you were completing an individual term project, and that project required you to deliver a thirty-minute oral presentation to the class on that term project, what do you believe should be the weight of the oral presentation to your final grade in the course? (0%, 1%–5%, 6%–10%, 11%–15%, 16%–20%, 21%–25%, 26%–30%, or other).
7. As a team presenter, if your team were delivering one thirty-minute presentation to your class, do you believe your team should receive one-grade for your oral presentation and a separate grade for the written portion of the presentation? If no, explain:
8. If you were completing a team term project, and that project required that you deliver a thirty-minute oral presentation to the class, what do you believe should be the weight of the oral presentation to your final grade in the course? (0%, 1%–5%, 6%–10%, 11%–15%, 16%–20%, 21%–25%, 26%–30%, or other).
9. Please rate the following grading approaches as Poor, Average, Good, or Excellent:
 - i. Graded solely by the professor, using criteria from an evaluation form distributed prior

- to preparing and presenting the oral presentation.
- ii. Graded partially by peer evaluations from each student attending the oral presentation, where attendees complete an evaluation form and submit to instructor.
- iii. Graded partially by peer evaluations from team members rating each team member's level of participation in preparing and presenting the oral presentation.

III. Assessment of individual competencies

10. How confident are you in your ability to do the following (No confidence, Limited confidence, Moderately confident, Very confident).
 - i. speak clearly?
 - ii. match your style and content to suit the audience?
 - iii. effective use of time?
 - iv. effective use of transitioning to different topics or ideas in your presentation?
 - v. organize ideas and explain them clearly?
 - vi. use visual aids effectively, e.g., PowerPoint?
 - vii. use body language effectively?
 - viii. respond to questions from your audience?
 - ix. dress appropriately (professional attire) to suit the audience?
 - x. ability to handle the media equipment for your presentation, projector, microphone, laptop, visual aids, etc.
 - xi. deal with speaking anxiety before and during your presentation?

IV. Attitudes toward oral presentations

11. Rank the importance of each of the following five categories from 1 to 5: Preparation, Organization, Content, Presentation, and Oral Skills
12. Please explain any bad experiences you have had as a class presenter.
13. How would you describe the top two personal characteristics of an excellent oral presentation?
14. Do you believe delivering oral presentations into the classroom enhances your college experiences and educational goals?
15. Do you believe delivering oral presentations into the classroom improves your future professional skills?

Results from the survey questions listed above were then coded as followed for further analysis:

- ◆ Major and specialization values were grouped into one of the following overall categories: Business, Education, Social Science, Science, Liberal Arts, and Other.
- ◆ A content analysis was performed on responses to questions 11 and 12. Answers for question 11 were grouped into one of the following categories: Team issues, Lack of preparation, Speaking anxiety, Audience reaction, and Logistical issues, while answers for question 12 were grouped into one of the following categories: Interest, Knowledge, Confidence, Strength of Topic, and Presentation Skills.
- ◆ Other survey responses were coded as quantitative values as specified by respondents.

Responses to these questions were compiled, and this data was then analyzed for both aggregate responses and the relationship of these responses to demographics factors such as gender and declared major. Except as noted below, the vast majority of these responses showed little variation with demographic factors.

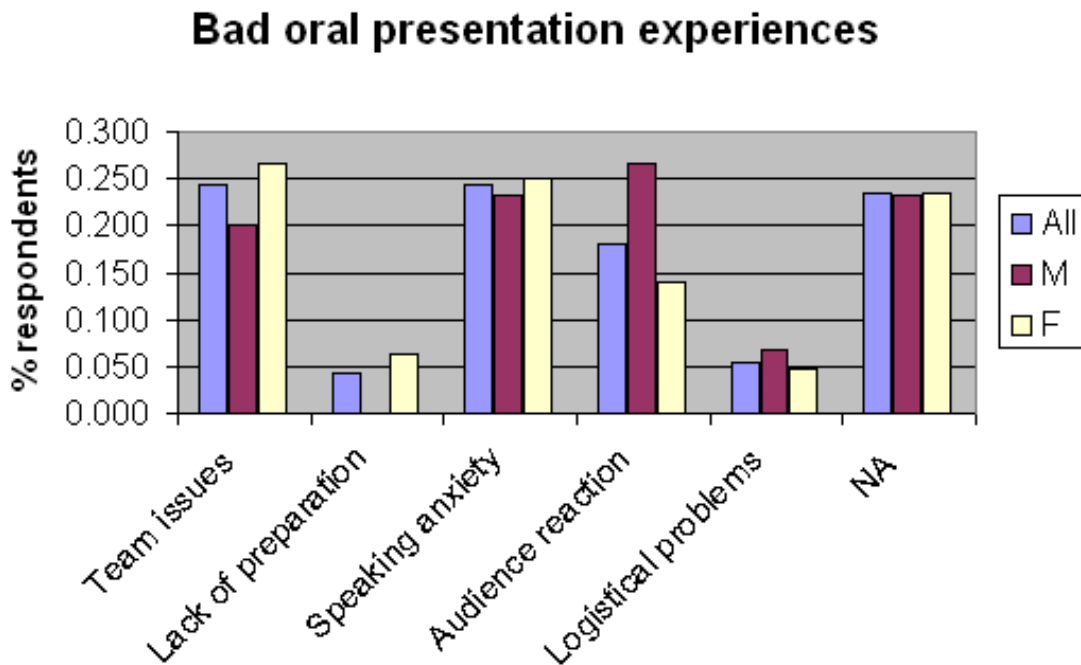
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of this study underscored the importance of oral presentations in the opinions of students themselves, while at the same time revealing a number of findings that challenge traditional thinking about the use of these presentations in marketing education. Some of the key findings include the following:

Students Have Substantial Ambivalence about Team Presentations and Peer Assessment

In an ideal world, the college classroom may appear to be a promising laboratory for participatory approaches to both project work and assessment – however, this view is not widely shared among students themselves. In a content analysis of qualitative responses about bad experiences with oral presentations, one of the most common was being part of a presentation team, cited by nearly a quarter of respondents (24.5%) as shown in Figure 1. Common concerns included team members not sharing the workload equally, being out of touch, or impacting the final presentation with poor presentation skills. As one student noted, “My grade was lowered once because of my partner not being a good presenter. In almost every group project I’ve done, there are always students who do a majority of the work and other members who don’t do nearly enough.” While not shown in this figure, this was

FIGURE 1
Bad Student Experiences with Oral Presentations, as Percentages of Respondents, for All Students and by Gender



also one area where a higher percentage of students with a core major of business shared team concerns (29.1% of respondents) versus other majors (17.9% of respondents).

This ambivalence extends to peer assessment, both in terms of student audience reactions and grading issues. In the former case, Figure 1 also shows that 18.5 percent of respondents cite audience reactions as a bad experience in oral presentations. The majority of these cite inattention as their main concern, however, some speak of fellow students openly trying to disrupt their presentation, and more than one notes other students making fun of their accent. This was also one of few survey areas where there were substantive differences based on gender, with nearly twice the percentage of female students (26.7% versus 14.1% of males) highlighting audience reactions as their worst experience.

These concerns are also reflected in attitudes toward the grading oral presentations, as shown in Figure 2. A majority of those responding rate grading solely by professor from good to excellent (38 out of 65 responses), while a majority rated the addition of grading input by peer audiences as average to good (72 out of 93 responses), and grading input from participation ratings by

team members as poor to average (60 out of 92 responses). Students overwhelmingly preferred that a separate grade be given for oral versus written projects (90.4% of responses for both individual and team projects), with a median preferred weighting (i.e., percentage of total grade) of 16–20 percent for individual projects and 21–25 percent for team projects.

There Is a Considerable Gap Between How Students Assess Their Own Presentation Skill Needs Versus How They Evaluate Other Presentations

Simply put, the traits that students value the most in other presentations involve pedagogical competencies such as presentation skills and capturing audience interest, yet when they look in the mirror to rate their own most important skills, content and organization issues are rated far over these skills. When asked to quantitatively describe the top characteristics of an excellent oral presentation, an overwhelming majority of students gave their highest rating to platform skills such as creating audience interest (28.7% of responses), showing confidence (25.5%), and presentation skills (23.4%). Conversely, Figures 3 and 4 show that when asked to rate the importance of their own oral presentation skills, students rated content (28 out of 94 responses), preparation (19) and

FIGURE 2
Student Ratings of Grading Approaches for Oral Presentations

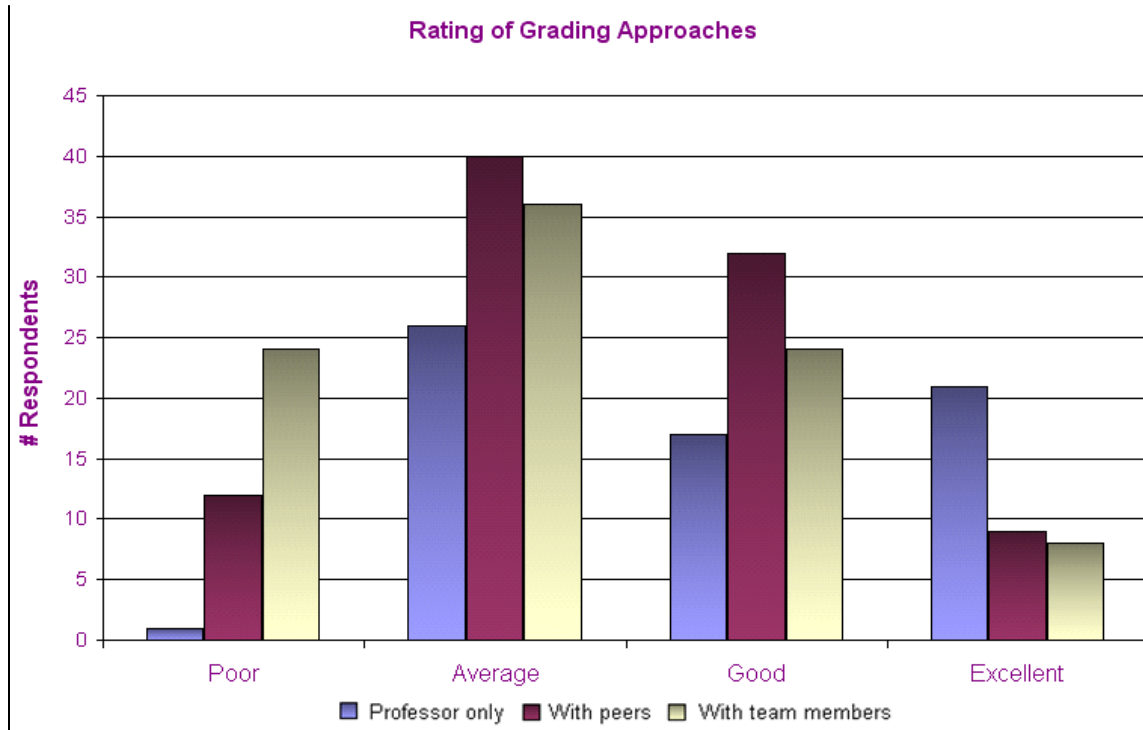


FIGURE 3
Factors Rated Most Important by Students for Oral Presentations

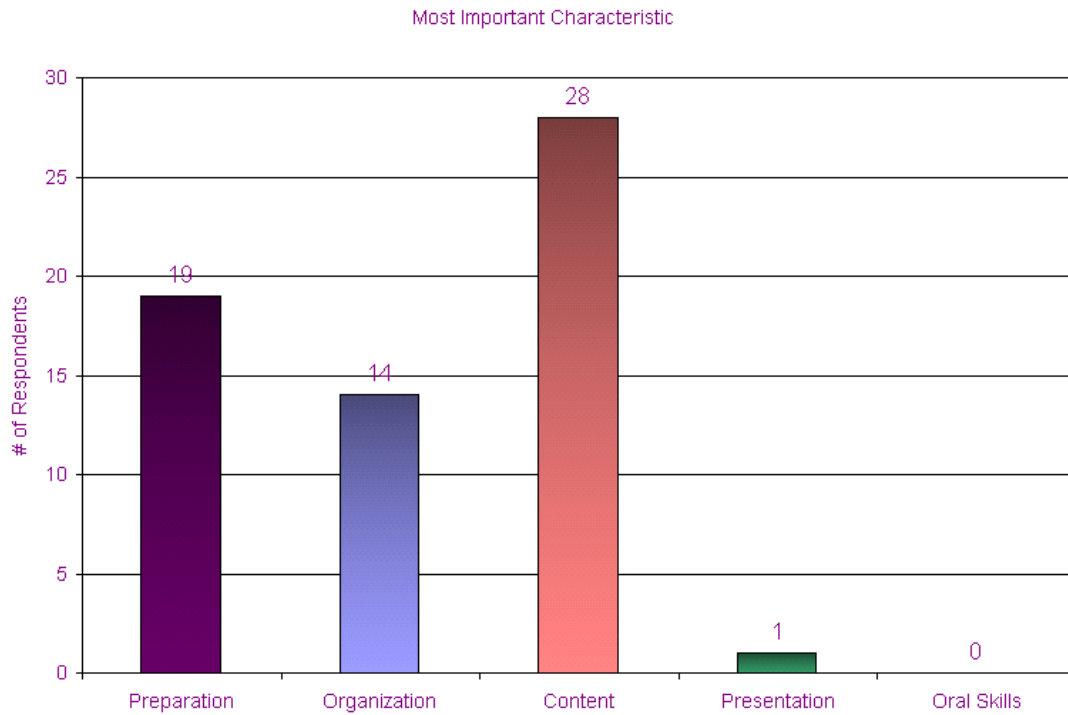


FIGURE 2
Student Ratings of Grading Approaches for Oral Presentations

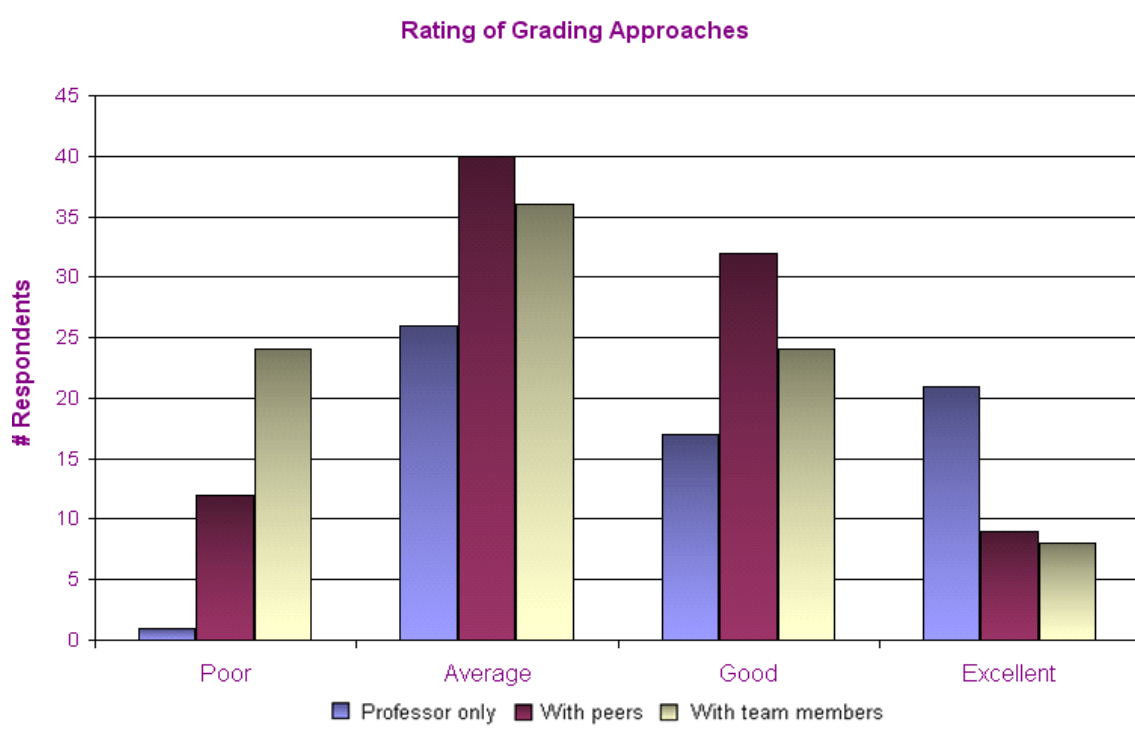


FIGURE 3
Factors Rated Most Important by Students for Oral Presentations

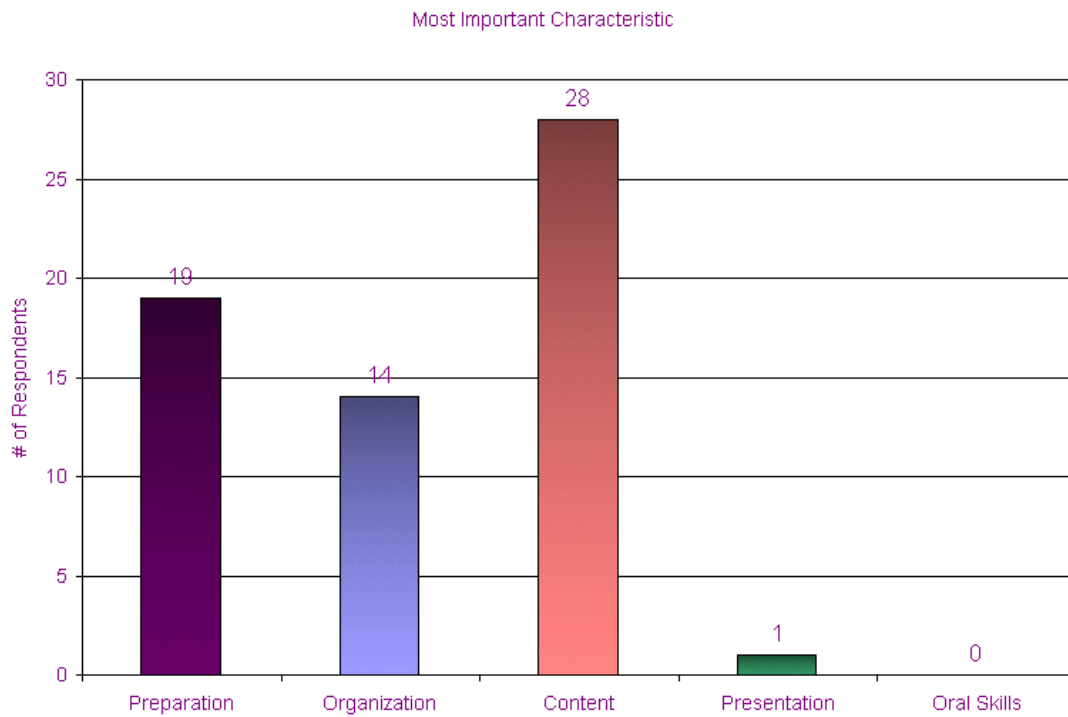
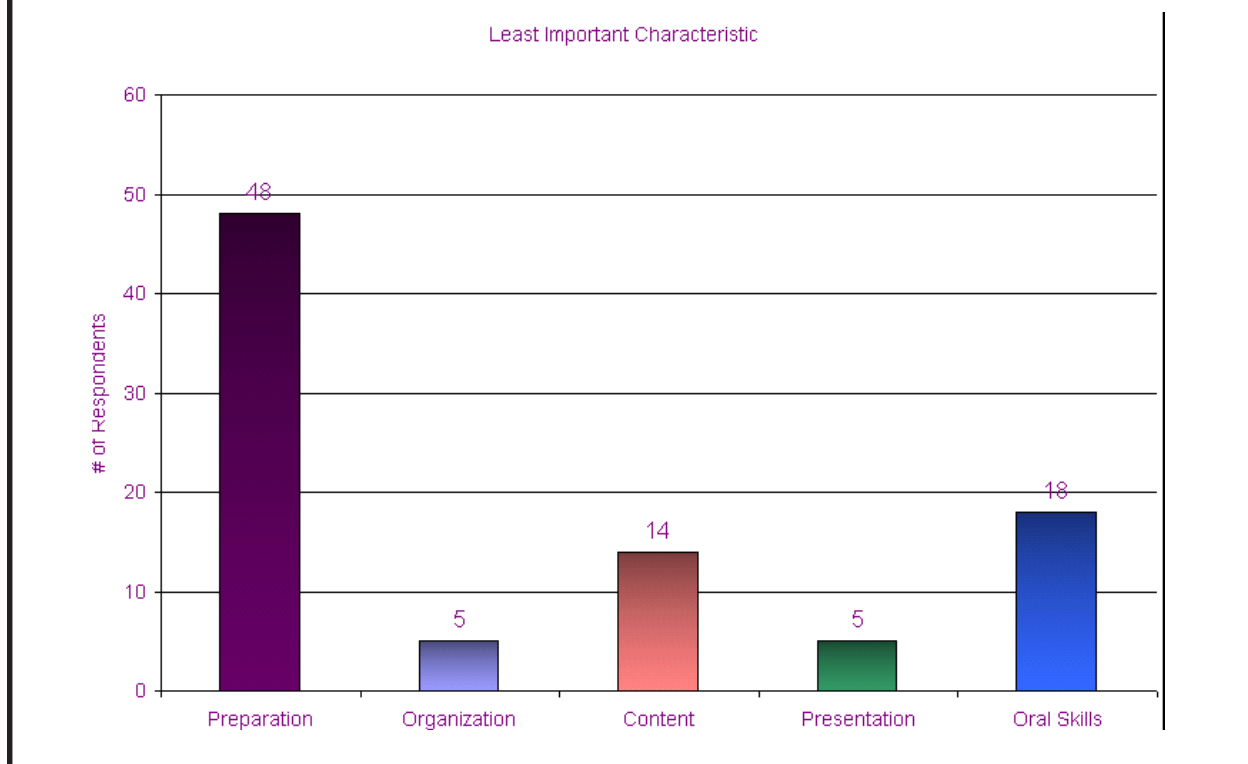


FIGURE 4
Factors Rated Least Important by Students for Oral Presentations



organization (14) the highest, while only one respondent rated presentation skills the highest, and none rated oral skills the highest – in fact, 19 percent of respondents rated oral skills as their lowest priority.

Students place a high value on the importance of oral presentations; yet disclose considerable anxiety about speaking. Respondents almost universally rated oral presentations as being important to both their academic experience (94.7%, or 89 out of 94) and their future careers (98.9%, or 93 out of 94). At the same time, delivering these presentations remains a source of anxiety for many students. Among responses rating their own competencies for oral presentations, control of speaking anxiety was the lowest rated area, with an average rating of 2.85 out of 4.0 across all respondents, as shown in Figure 5. In general, students rated procedural competencies such as dress (3.83), use of visual aids (3.53), and use of audio/visual equipment (3.27) the highest, while pedagogical skills such as body language (3.0), managing time (3.09), and speaking clearly (3.13) were rated the lowest. These results showed a very similar variation across both gender and declared major.

In the content analysis of bad speaking experiences discussed earlier in Figure 1, a plurality of respondents

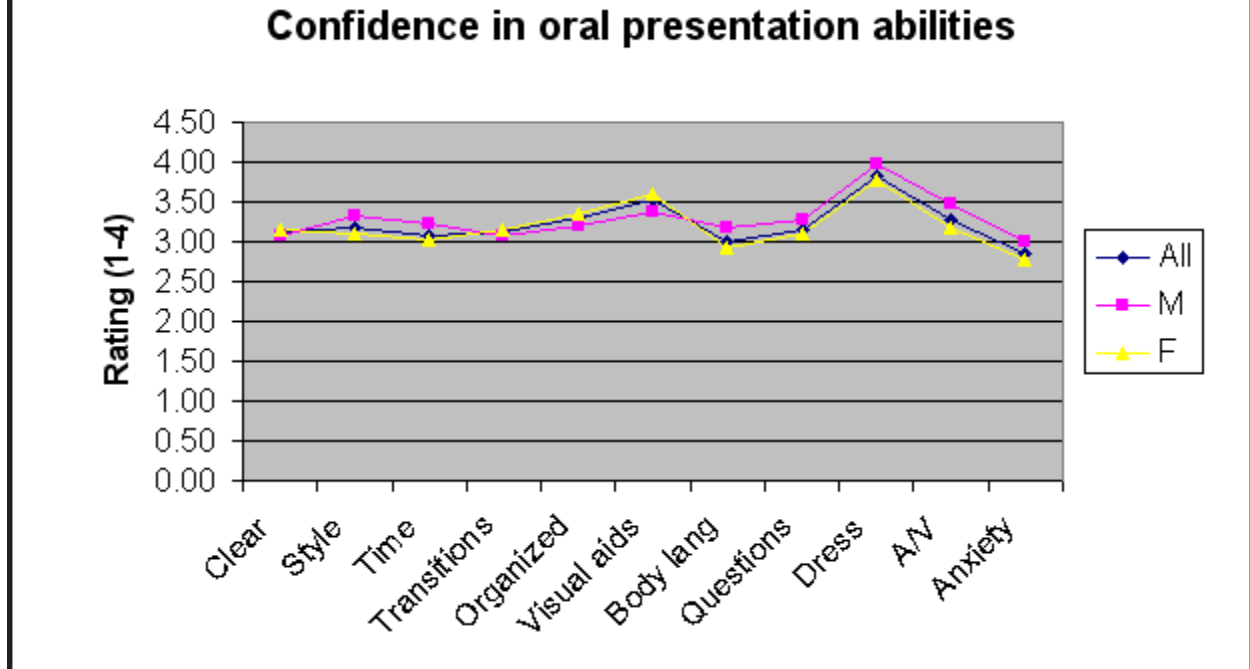
also identified their own anxieties (24.5% of respondents) as being their worst experience, together with the aforementioned concerns with audience reactions and team issues.

These findings paint a clear picture of students who on one hand see great value in developing good oral presentation skills as part of one’s marketing education, and on the other hand lack perception regarding the basic skills and competencies that will make these efforts successful in both academia and their future careers. Moreover, these results point to legitimate concerns regarding the differences in both participation levels and assessment skills among their fellow students. Finally, the fear of public speaking – commonly rated as our worst fear – remains an impediment for many students in leveraging oral presentations as a tool to enhance their personal skills and marketability.

SUMMARY

Taken in sum total, these survey results represent a challenge to marketing educators who wish to give their students more real-world exposure in the form of oral presentations, particularly when they are part of a team project. Making these experiences truly effective in the

FIGURE 5
Ratings of Student Confidence Levels in Specific Competencies for Oral Presentations



future will require creative thought in a number of areas, including:

- ◆ How do we accurately assess the value of individual contributions within a team presentation? Moreover, how can we turn team projects into effective learning experiences for each of the participants involved?
- ◆ How can we educate students themselves to be effective and respectful consumers of oral presentations, and successfully help assess and coach such presentations as their peers develop their own presentation skills?
- ◆ What steps need to be taken to improve the platform and pedagogical skills of student presenters? More important, how can we teach students what speaking and presentation competencies are valued by the business world in their careers?
- ◆ How can we effectively address common student fears of speaking in public, particularly in front of their peers?

Further areas for research may include surveying larger sample sizes, addressing a more general student population, and surveying a larger number of males to further examine gender effects. Survey methodologies such as class-based surveys may also reveal further data beyond

students who self-select to respond to an independent survey such as this one. Areas for further investigation such as these can potentially serve as a basis for turning oral presentations into a tool for personal growth and development among marketing students, and in turn add depth and value to their overall educational experience.

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COMPUTER GAME PLAYING EXPERIENCE AND ITS IMPACT ON BUSINESS SIMULATION GAME PERFORMANCE

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David Hutchinson, University of Windsor

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Many variables have been examined as they relate to student performance in business simulation games. Among those variables examined in past published research can be found participant personality characteristics, GPA, gender, ethnic origin, team size, decision time pressure, the degree of simulation explanation provided, method of team formation, previous business experience, student major, previous business courses taken, degree of team organization and planning, team cohesion, locus of control, leadership, attitude toward simulations, strategic planning, and instructor interest among others (Faria 2000).

Intuitively, as instructors, we generally accept that student enthusiasm or interest in a particular subject affects student performance (Brenenstuhl and Blalack 1977). Some students express an above average interest in particular course activities, such as the use of simulation games (Lumsden 1970) as a major or minor part of the course. It is generally believed that an interest in a topic, or activity, would lead to more time devoted to that activity and better performance in that activity (Snyder 1993). However, past research does not show a relationship between the amount of time student teams devote to business games and their resulting success in the simulation game (Armenakis, Feud, and Holley 1974).

According to Snyder (1993), "Today's simulations require substantial time involvement for the gamer on the computer. Indeed, game organizers can state that the quality of each team's decision for a given time period is a function of the number of hours spent running what-if scenarios and attempts to learn how the game's model works."

In addition to individual interest and motivation, a cohesive simulation team and strong leadership have been shown to be related to improved performance (Badgett 1980; Faria 2000; Wolfe and Box 1986).

The use of decision support tools might also be expected to lead to improved performance in business simulation competitions. However, according to Armenakis et al. (1974), successful teams did not employ more quantitative decision tools than less successful teams.

Finally, it is generally accepted that the more successful a team is in a simulation game the more positive outlook the team members have about the simulation experience and the more confident they are that the simulation game is a true reflection of their skills.

Over the past twenty years, the popularity of computer and video entertainment games has increased as has the sophistication of these games. The term "gamer" has become a popular term to describe heavy users of these games. According to the *Random House Unabridged Dictionary*, a "gamer" is an individual taking part in "a competitive activity involving skill, chance, or endurance on the part of two or more persons who play according to a set of rules, usually for their own amusement or for that of spectators."

In classes in which business games are used, these "gamers" are often easily identifiable because they are eager to form teams and to participate in the simulation exercise. There is also an impression that because of their experience and interest in games, that they are willing to spend the time needed to learn and adapt to the business game which should, in turn, impact on their performance. If "gamers" are identifiable and impact team rankings in simulation competitions, this is a factor that should be considered in team formation.

As no "gamer" studies for marketing simulation games could be found, the authors decided to examine the "gamer" and simulation game performance in a second year Marketing Management course. The study involved 42 marketing students (43% considered themselves to be

“gamers”) divided into 14 teams playing *COMPETE: A Dynamic Marketing Simulation* (Faria 2006). The individuals were evaluated based on their performance as regional managers (85%) in the competition as well as for their overall team ranking (15%). Using a structural equation modeling program (PLS Graph 3.0), the authors concluded that the “non-gamers” spent more time on the simulation competition than the “gamers.” Other factors examined, such as use of decision tools, team cohesiveness and game performance were not related to the participant’s “gamer” labelling. A structural equation model to show the relationships between game performance and the above factors was developed and will be further examined in an upcoming study with a larger number of students.

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DIRECTING STUDENT-LED CLIENT MARKETING PLANS IN AN INTERACTIVE VIDEO NETWORK (IVN) DISTANCE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT: CHALLENGES AND SUGGESTIONS

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Distance learning environments provide unique challenges for the professor who is dedicated to constructing a practitioner-oriented learning experience involving student teams; especially when the students are geographically disbursed and the learning experience involves the development of disciplined and integrated marketing plans for area businesses. Global teaching objectives should include comprehension and retention of course content, assimilation of course knowledge into a real-life setting with the team's client, involvement of clients who will provide a rich experience for problem-based learning, management and assessment of the student team/client relationship, established processes for managing conflict, and evaluation of student performance and client satisfaction.

Challenges and their corresponding suggestions follow:

1. Using marketing case studies as the basis for the marketing plans will provide the students with non-current information. If the case features a popular company, then plagiarism or cheating is a possibility. To avoid these challenges, a solution is to use local businesses. This may be done one of two ways. First, the professor may secure the clients, but this is a time-bound endeavor and leaves the students without knowledge of how to initiate partnership with a business. Second, the professor may provide guidelines for qualifying a local business (e.g., must be in business for at least two years, provide two years of financial statements, meet with student teams as often as necessary and provide two years of past marketing effort examples). This last approach empowers the student teams from the beginning and since the client is local, it is unlikely that existing marketing plans or documents (undisclosed to the professor) can be found or plagiarized.
2. If the marketing plan outline is too complex for the client at hand (e.g., asking for SBU financial breakdowns from a local client that is a small sole proprietorship), the students will struggle with applicability. The marketing plan outline chosen should reflect the breadth and depth of the types of clients likely to be chosen at a local level.
3. Micromanagement of student/client relationship should be avoided. A professor who attends each student/client meeting is likely not making the most use of his/her time or entrusting the students to their learning environment. Instead the professor should provide a set of pre-established questions for client interviews and have teams audio record each interview to refer to repeatedly. These may be typed out and turned in as an assignment.
4. Client satisfaction surveys should be taken after the end of the semester regarding the plan provided and the student/client relationship quality.
5. The IVN environment makes it difficult to create connections with the students at the distance sites. A professor should teach from each distance site at least once a semester if possible, arriving early or staying late to meet and consult with each team and guide them personally in the process. This should be done at a critical time in the project such as after the Situational Analysis, Target Market, and Objectives have been written but before the Strategy and Tactics sections.
6. Throughout the semester, remind the students of the vision for the project and tell them of the pride in their hard work. In addition, remind them that the clients will be invited to attend the student teams' professional presentations at the end of the semester. This will cement in their minds that the professor has high expectations.
7. Student teams often get frustrated and have questions as the marketing plan is developed. To assist students, identify frequent question areas and pro-

vide them with the answers. Common questions involve: (a) Where to find credible secondary research sources, (b) How to interpolate industry trends to a regional or local level, (c) How to define who the competition is, (d) What company information is needed, and (e) How to communicate efficiently and effectively within the team and with the professor. Communications can be facilitated by having a class website where this information is posted and also creating a list-serve for the class. In addition Peer/Group Evaluations should be taken mid- and end-semester to assess each student's perception of their own and their team-member's contribution and attitude in the group. The professor should meet with groups that evidence problematic behaviors or attitudes and attempt to get the team on track by managing the conflict, using active listening skills, placing importance on teamwork, and re-casting the vision for the project. Project grades should be in part tied to this evaluation.

8. For most students this will be the first marketing plan they have written, so breaking the plan down into subsections is most effective to facilitate learning. Students should be required to "fix" all mistakes (omissions or commissions) in the graded subsections before handing in the final marketing plan.

9. Avoid using campus mail for assignment collection and return. Having all student teams submit assignments as email attachments is timely. In turn, grading the attached document and putting professor comments in red with grade at the top, facilitates the return. With only a semester to produce a valuable marketing plan, quick turnaround of assignments is critical. Exams may be faxed to the professor from the distance site to facilitate grading, then returned via campus mail.
10. Team projects may result in grade inflation for students who are not performing to their capacity, especially if their team members protect them. To guard against this, the proportion of the overall course grade allotted for individual performance (presentations, participation, exams, other assignments) must outweigh that of the team project. The marketing plan should account for no more than 35 percent of the overall grade in the course.

Following these 10 guidelines will help a professor to effectively and efficiently manage the development of a student-led marketing plan developed for a local client. The result is a valuable learning experience for the students, a quality marketing plan for the client, and goodwill built for the Marketing Department, College, and University.

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BRINGING ACTIVE LEARNING TO THE CLASSROOM

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One of the best ways to facilitate student learning in a classroom is to let students actively engage in tasks that simulate the types of decisions marketing managers make on a daily basis. Develop active learning exercises that allow students to perform marketing behaviors, interact with other students during class and learn from each other. Use class time to allow students to work on projects in groups, work on assignments in pairs, work on problems individually and then in groups, and work on exercises in groups. As hard as it is for some professors to admit, students can, and often do, learn more when the professor is not talking.

Adopt an active learning philosophy that learning is doing! Students learn when they DO. Students learn when they are actively working toward a learning goal instead of passively listening to a lecture. Unfortunately, this philosophy is often difficult for professors to adopt. They feel uncomfortable relinquishing time in the classroom to students. They feel that they are not teaching when they are not talking. Unfortunately, many teachers believe that teaching means talking – usually in the form of a lecture. However, if you let students take class time to work actively, work interactively and work coopera-

tively, you will notice increases in student learning, increases in student involvement, increases in student motivation, and increases in interactions between students as well as between students and teachers.

An active learning philosophy requires a complete reversal of teachers' and students' activities inside and outside of the classroom. With the traditional model of classroom activities, students are to be passive receivers of knowledge in classroom settings. They are to sit and take notes while a teacher lectures. Conversely, students are expected to be active integrators of knowledge outside of the classroom, working on projects, problems, homework, and exercises on their own time. For their part, teachers in the traditional model are to be active providers of knowledge during class sessions, delivering and presenting mass amounts of material and information (usually from the textbook) in a relatively short class session. Teachers have traditionally viewed teaching as lecturing. So, teachers spend most of their time outside of class preparing what they will say in their lectures. Unfortunately, this traditional model of classroom activities does not work well if learning objectives are behaviorally based and learning is measured behaviorally on tests.

Traditional Model of Classroom Activities		
	In-Class	Out-of-Class
Student	Passive receiver of information (knowledge). Take notes as teacher lectures from the textbook.	Active participation in groups, work on projects and papers, do homework.
Teacher	Actively provide, deliver, and dispense information (knowledge) from the textbook. "Sage on Stage"	Prepare for lecture (What will I say in my lecture?). How can I present the material from the textbook?

An alternative model of classroom activities views students as active integrators and co-discoverers of knowledge in the classroom during a class session. Students are

given time in class to work on projects, solve problems and complete exercises individually and in groups. With the active teaching model, the action shifts from the

teacher to the student. Teachers become less active during class, while students become more active during class. Teachers are not to be performers who merely deliver information. Rather, teachers are to be the evaluators of students' progress during in-class projects,

problems and exercises. They are to monitor students' progress toward behavioral learning objectives, offer suggestions for improved performance, and guide students through the improvement process.

The Active Learning Model of Classroom Activities		
	In-Class	Out-of-Class
Student	Active participant in the learning process; interactive, cooperative and discovery based learning.	Read material, prepare for activities in class.
Teacher	Guide activities of students, monitor and evaluate performance. <i>"Guide on the Side"</i>	Identify and prioritize behavioral learning objectives, develop activities for in-class exercises (What will I have them do in class?)

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LEARNING STYLE PREFERENCES AND CULTURAL BACKGROUNDS: A COMPARISON OF STUDENTS IN THE BASIC MARKETING COURSE

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ABSTRACT

The *Index of Learning Styles* (ILS) was administered during the 2007 spring term to 80 students in the basic Marketing course. Of these 80 students, 42 were American students and 38 were international students representing the countries of China, Japan, Poland, Germany, Italy, Taiwan, and Singapore. The purpose of this exploratory research was to investigate whether cultural background played a role in learning style preferences in the classroom. Using basic descriptive statistics, it was concluded that American students preferred learning styles that are active, sensing, visual, and global whereas international students preferred learning styles that are reflective, sensing, visual, and sequential.

INTRODUCTION AND SELECTED LITERATURE REVIEW

Little research on learning styles in the United States has focused on the relationship between learning styles and cultural diversity in the college classroom. More recently researchers have suggested links between learning styles and culture and underscore the critical need for more research into the learning styles of diverse student groups.

Research has shown that there exist certain tendencies toward learning among students from certain cultural backgrounds (Mushi 2001). De Vita (2001) reports that a student's culture influences perceptual, organizational, processing and communication styles. Since these processes are the main elements affecting learning styles, it follows that culture and learning style share a relationship that cannot be disregarded by researchers (Church 2001). A study by Wan (2001) suggests that in the wake of discovering how learning style preferences affect educational needs, attention has shifted to cultural diversity in the college classroom. Dunn (1997) acknowledges that culture affects learning styles but recognizes that

distinct learning style patterns don't necessarily fit a specific cultural group. York (1995) supports the fact that there is a correlation between student's cultural background and their preferred learning style and has identified a number of variables that may influence the extent to which a student exhibits the learning style associated with his/her culture. Guild (1994) examines the relationship between culture and learning style and concludes that the only way to meet the learning needs of culturally diverse college students is to intentionally apply diverse teaching strategies. Likewise, Bennett (1986) emphasizes that the concept of learning styles offers a value-neutral approach for understanding individual differences among students from various cultural backgrounds. The assumption is that everyone can learn, provided professors respond appropriately to individual learning needs.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research field of learning styles is both extensive and conceptually diverse. With learning styles models being developed simultaneously and relatively autonomously within departments of business, education, law, science, and psychology in universities throughout the world there are over 100 models in existence (Mitchell 1994).

To gain some insight regarding the learning style preferences of students compared to their cultural backgrounds in the basic marketing course the Felder-Soloman Index of Learning Styles (2006) was used. This particular instrument was chosen for various reasons: the questionnaire is available on-line, free, simple to use and interpret, and has good validation results (Felder and Spurlin 2005; Litzinger et al. 2005; Zywno 2003; Livesay et al. 2002).

The current version of the ILS consists of four dichotomous dimensions and a student's learning style can be defined in terms of the answers to the following questions

(Felder 1993): How does the student prefer to process information: *actively* – through engagement in physical activity or discussion, or *reflectively* – through introspection? What type of information does the student preferentially perceive: *sensory* – sights, sounds, physical sensations, or *intuitive* – memories, ideas, insights? Through which modality is sensory information most effectively perceived: *visual* – pictures, diagrams, graphs, demonstrations, or *verbal* – sounds, written and spoken words and formulas? How does the student progress toward understanding: *sequentially* – in a logical progression of small incremental steps, or *globally* – in large jumps, holistically?

The ILS was administered during the 2007 spring term to 80 students in the basic Marketing course. Of these 80 students, 42 were American students and 38 were international students representing the countries of China, Japan, Poland, Germany, Italy, Taiwan, and Singapore. Each student was given a printed version of the ILS questionnaire that consisted of 44 incomplete sentences to which an “a” or “b” response could be selected to finish the statement. The questionnaire took approximately 10–15 minutes to complete. The responses of students were submitted on-line and a profile for each student was returned with scores on all four dimensions.

Each learning style dimension was scored on a scale from -11 to +11 and showed an emerging preference for the given modality. For statistical analyses it was convenient to calculate only the “a” responses so that a score on a dimension would be an integer ranging from 0 to 11 (Felder and Spurlin 2005). Using the visual-verbal dimension as an example, 0 or 1 “a” responses represented

a strong preference for visual learning, 2 or 3 a moderate preference for visual learning, 4 or 5 a mild preference for visual, 6 or 7 a mild preference for verbal, 8 or 9 a moderate preference for verbal and 10 or 11 a strong preference for verbal learning.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE USING FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS

Data presented in Table 1 shows the frequency distributions for the active-reflective learning style preference divided between American students and international students. Of the 42 American students four students represented strong active, 17 students moderate active and 6 students mild active. Mild reflective and moderate reflective responses combined represented 15 students, and no student fell into the strong reflective category. None of the 38 international students were in the strong active category. Six students fell into the moderate active group and nine students in the mild active group. The mild reflective category represented 14 international students with nine students in moderate reflective and no student representing the strong reflective learning style preference. Thus, 64 percent of American students preferred some degree of active learning (strong, moderate, or mild) compared to 39 percent of international students.

Table 2 shows the frequency distributions for the sensing-intuitive learners. For the American students six recorded strong sensing, nine students moderate sensing and 12 students mild sensing. On the intuitive side seven students were mild intuitive, four students moderate intuitive and four students strong intuitive. For the international students, three were in the strong sensing cat-

TABLE 1
Frequency Distributions for Active-Reflective Learners

Preference	Number of American Students	Number of International Students
Strong Active	4	0
Moderate Active	17	6
Mild Active	6	9
Mild Reflective	11	14
Moderate Reflective	4	9
Strong Reflective	0	0
Total	42	38

egory, eight in moderate sensing and 18 in mild sensing. Nine students represented mild intuitive and zero students fell into either the moderate intuitive or strong intuitive class. Sixty-four percent of American students preferred some degree of sensory learning and 76 percent of international students preferred sensory learning.

The frequency distributions for the visual-verbal dimension are shown in Table 3. Twelve American students prefer strong visual, 13 students were moderate visual and eight students were mild visual. Mild verbal, moderate verbal, and strong verbal represented four, five, and

zero students respectively. Of the international students six were strong visual, 14 represented moderate visual and 12 mild visual. Mild verbal, moderate verbal, and strong verbal represented zero students, six students and zero students respectively. For visual-verbal learners, 79 percent of American students preferred some degree of visual learning compared to 84 percent of international students in this same category.

In the sequential-global dimension zero American students were strong sequential, 15 students were moderate sequential and 9 students were mild sequential. The

TABLE 2
Frequency Distributions for Sensing-Intuitive Learners

Preference	Number of American Students	Number of International Students
Strong Sensing	6	3
Moderate Sensing	9	8
Mild Sensing	12	18
Mild Intuitive	7	9
Moderate Intuitive	4	0
Strong Intuitive	4	0
Total	42	38

TABLE 3
Frequency Distributions for Visual-Verbal Learners

Preference	Number of American Students	Number of International Students
Strong Visual	12	6
Moderate Visual	13	14
Mild Visual	8	12
Mild Verbal	4	0
Moderate Verbal	5	6
Strong Verbal	0	0
Total	42	38

number of American students in the mild global category was 7, with 9 representing moderate global and two students in strong global. Of the international students, three were strong sequential, nine were moderate sequential and 18 were mild sequential. On the global side, five international students were mild global, three were moderate global and zero students were strong global. Fifty-seven percent of American students preferred some degree of sequential learning compared to 79 percent of international students.

ADDITIONAL DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL RESULTS

The means and standard deviations were recorded for each of the four learning style preferences divided by

American students and international students. Table 5 illustrates the results. The smaller the value of the mean the more students prefer active, sensing, visual, and sequential learning. The larger the value of the mean illustrates a preference for reflective, intuitive, verbal, and global learning.

For the active-reflective learning style preference the mean for American students was 4.17 compared to a mean of 5.97 for international students. Active learners tend to understand and retain information best by engaging in hands-on activities. Unlike reflective learners who like to study and solve problems alone, active learners like group work where they discuss material with others. The difference between the two means was statistically significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 4				
Frequency Distributions for Sequential-Global Learners				
Preference	Number of American Students		Number of International Students	
Strong Sequential	0		3	
Moderate Sequential	15		9	
Mild Sequential	9		18	
Mild Global	7		5	
Moderate Global	9		3	
Strong Global	2		0	
Total	42		38	

TABLE 5				
Descriptive Statistics by Learning Style Preference				
	American Students (n = 42)		International Students (n = 38)	
	Mean	Standard Dev.	Mean	Standard Dev.
ACT-REF*	4.17	2.347	5.97	2.047
SEN-INT	4.71	2.916	4.29	2.065
VIS-VRB	3.45	2.734	3.71	2.556
SEQ-GLO*	5.92	2.578	4.34	1.977

*Difference between means statistically significant at .01 level.

In the sensing-intuitive learning style category both American students and international students showed a preference for the sensing learning style. The mean for American students was 4.71, and the mean for international students was 4.29. Sensing learners understand information better with real-world applications. They like learning facts, brainstorming solutions with group members and solving problems in a methodical way. The intuitive learners are comfortable with abstract ideas, mathematical formulas and reflecting on creative methods of problem solving. The difference between means was not statistically significant at the .01 or .05 levels.

The difference between means was not statistically significant at the .01 or .05 levels between the two groups for the visual-verbal learning style dimension. American students as well as international students prefer a classroom environment where visual learning is emphasized. The mean for American students was 3.45, and the mean for international students was 3.71. Visual learners learn and remember information best when they see diagrams, pictures, videos, and demonstrations unlike their verbal counterparts that learn best by reading written material from textbooks or handouts and listening to class lecture and discussion.

For the sequential-global learning style dimensions, American students tended to be global learners whereas international students tended to be sequential learners. The mean for American students was 5.92 compared to their international counterparts with a mean of 3.71. Sequential learners first understand logical sequential steps that comprise the whole picture rather than global learners who need to grasp the whole picture first before understanding the individual steps. The difference between means was statistically significant at the .01 level.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This exploratory research has been an attempt to compare learning style preferences and culture differences in the basic Marketing course. Eighty students enrolled in Marketing were given the Felder and Soloman's Index of Learning Styles questionnaire during the 2007 spring term. Overall, American students preferred learning styles that were active, sensing, visual and global. International students preferred learning styles that were reflective, sensing, visual, and sequential.

The small sample size was a major limitation to this research. Differences in gender were not taken into account. Other statistical tests such as chi-square could be used to analyze the data, but was beyond the scope of this paper.

As the number of international students continues to rise, it is important to create a classroom environment where both American and international students can thrive. What is presented in the classroom will be of little use to students if it cannot be applied in real life situations-particularly to the learner's cultural circumstances. As professors work with increasingly diverse college-student populations, an awareness and understanding of how culture relates to learning style preferences is vitally important. Further work should be undertaken to address the appropriate pedagogy used in college classrooms populated by international students.

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GMATOEFL

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ABSTRACT

Students wishing to study in the U.S. are now faced with additional costs and layers of bureaucracy as new entry procedures are implemented by the Department of Homeland Security. These act as barriers to the student, as the more difficult and costly the process becomes, the more likely it is that the student will elect not to study in the U.S. Alternate locations are aggressively competing with the U.S. One way of reducing the costs is to eliminate the TOEFL requirement for MBA applicants. This paper looks at some preliminary data which would support such an action.

INTRODUCTION

Since 2001, the Department of Homeland Security has instituted new procedures (one being the SEVIS database) to process student applications. Congress mandated that the cost of this system can be recovered by charging the users – in this case, the applying student. All students are now required to personally appear at a U.S. consular office; while previously this was a step that many students could complete by mail. Depending on the country, a trip to the nearest consular office can be a time consuming and expensive process, often involving travel and hotel expenses.

However, the benefits for encouraging international students to come to the U.S. remain unchanged. Studying in the U.S. allows the student to experience a capitalist economic system, a democratic political system, gain experience which may help both to improve the student's career development and to develop relationships with persons of different cultures. Long term benefits may accrue to the "sending" country because returning students are citizens who can contribute to the development of their country after being exposed to "cutting edge" education and technology while overseas.

If students elect to remain in the country of study after graduation, the "receiving" county can gain. The U.S. has gained productive immigrants from such students who remain in the country after completing their studies. In a global sense, international cultural exposure may con-

tribute to better political understanding and in the long term, greater peace, cooperation and harmony between nations.

As the language of commerce remains strongly English, foreign students seek countries in which the primary language is English. Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, as well as Britain and Ireland, are alternatives to the U.S. As barriers to entering the U.S. have risen, applications to competing countries have tended to rise.

Additionally, as educational standards and opportunities increase in traditional "sending" nations, many students simply find it easier to stay at home and study rather than face first, the daunting bureaucracy of getting a visa, and then, the resulting perception of a possible uncomfortable welcome once they arrive in the U.S. Many overseas universities are now conducting some or all of their MBA program components in English, yet another reason for students to stay at home. Campuses of U.S. and Australian universities, in particular, are common throughout Asia and the Middle East. This further reduces the attractiveness of studying overseas, as students can study in their home country.

International student enrollment at U.S. colleges and universities dropped 2.4 percent in 2003–2004, the first decline in more than 20 years. Of the 25 largest foreign student enrolment universities in the U.S., 15 have reported international enrolment declines, some as large as 20 percent (NAFSA 2005).

Another undesirable side effect of the increased cost of foreign students obtaining U.S. student visas is the retaliatory actions of some foreign governments, thus increasing barriers to U.S. students who want to study overseas. This particularly hurts reciprocal exchange programs where parity must exist between students-out and students-in. In addition, universities can look to foreign students to boost enrolment at a time when, demographically, enrollments are expected to fall. Not only does the marginal revenue from paid tuition increase funds, it also helps contribute to fixed cost operations such as dormitories, etc.

UNIVERSITY RESPONSE

Lobbying efforts, both directly and through various organizations, may be helpful in bringing pressure on the Department of Homeland Security to streamline the processes that are imposed on international students applying for a visa. Already some progress is being made:

“I have a special message for young people across the world” said Karen Hughes, the new U.S. undersecretary for public diplomacy and public affairs, at her Senate confirmation hearing July 22. “We’re improving our visa process, and we want you to come and study in America” (Star Tribune, August 6, 2005).

However, closer to home, the university may be able to streamline its own processes to reduce application frustration. Some universities have started providing financial incentives to foreign students. These range from refunding some visa fees after they have enrolled or successfully completed a period of study, to offering tuition discounts. Some universities allow (some) foreign students to enroll and pay in-state rates. However, these options require earmarking of funds to help with international enrollments, and on many campuses faced with tight budgets, such initiatives can be a hard sell.

Action may also be taken at the level of the Business School. One way of reducing costs for the incoming international graduate business student is to change admission requirements. Currently, most MBA programs require incoming international students who come from a non-English speaking country to take the TOEFL – Test of English as a Foreign Language – and the GMAT – Graduate Management Admission Test. Are both tests really necessary? Could the GMAT alone be used?

WHAT IS THE GMAT?

The Educational Testing Service (ETS), the world’s largest private educational testing organization, administers both the TOEFL and GMAT tests. Since they have a vested interest in universities requiring both tests, they have not released any data to support (or not support) the idea of using the GMAT as a substitute for TOEFL.

- ◆ The GMAT exam is administered only in English and consists of three sections, measuring “basic verbal, mathematical, and analytical writing skills.”
- ◆ The Verbal Section – consists of 41 multiple choice questions of three types – Reading Comprehension, Critical Reasoning and Sentence Correction.

- ◆ The Quantitative Section – consists of 37 multiple choice questions.
- ◆ The Analytical Writing Assessment – includes analysis of an issue and analysis of an argument. (Educational Testing Service).

From the above descriptions, it is clear that the GMAT exam does measure the student’s ability to communicate in English. The ETS website goes on to explicitly state what the GMAT does not measure:

- ◆ your knowledge of business,
- ◆ your job skills,
- ◆ specific content in your undergraduate or first university course work,
- ◆ your abilities in any other specific subject area,
- ◆ subjective qualities – such as motivation, creativity, and interpersonal skills.

Therefore, the ETS’s own discussion of what the test does not measure includes learned subject-specific knowledge, but it does not suggest that it is unsuitable for measuring English skills. In fact as we noted, they implicitly state that it is indeed effective in that area.

What would this mean for a student? Currently ETS charges \$250 for a student to take the GMAT and \$140 for TOEFL. Elimination of the dual requirement would save the student over 35 percent of the test fees, plus reduce the cost of commuting to take the tests by 50 percent, as they would now have to take only one test.

Many students coming to the U.S. for graduate studies are coming from countries with much lower levels of disposable income. A savings of at least \$140 would be considered significant to these students. Furthermore, a university allowing students to avoid taking the TOEFL may be perceived to have a differential recruiting advantage and be able to attract a greater number of international students.

ETS recently revamped its TOEFL test to incorporate speaking components. This would differentiate the test from the current GMAT, which is in written format only. However, as the written-only TOEFL was deemed acceptable for almost all of the last century, an argument could be made that the speaking component is not really essential to measure English proficiency.

A PILOT STUDY

Using a database of MBA applicants at our University, we compared GMAT and TOEFL scores for all MBA applicants that had completed both tests. The list consisted of 42 students. A simple correlation analysis yielded a Pearson correlation coefficient with a p-value = 0.000, indicating strong significance at the $p < 0.01$ level. Therefore, our preliminary results indicate that there is a strong correlation between the GMAT and TOEFL scores.

The table below shows the results from our pilot group:

	TOEFL Below 550	TOEFL 550 +
GMAT below 400	0	2
GMAT 400+	0	40

This data set indicates that no student would have been admitted based solely on the GMAT that would not have been admitted based on both scores, based on threshold MBA admission requirements of a minimum equivalent score of 550 on TOEFL and 400 on GMAT. In other words, according to these results, the GMAT was a more

discriminating test than the TOEFL. The TOEFL test scores did not add any information that was useful in the admission process.

SUMMARY

Graduate schools should consider eliminating the dual requirement of TOEFL and GMAT. A small pilot study showed that no improperly prepared student (at least based on these tests) would be admitted by using the GMAT alone compared to using both tests.

It is likely the same argument could be made for the GRE (Graduate Record Examination) for graduate students in other disciplines. Clearly more study is required with larger sample sizes. If, as expected, larger data sets reveal a similar trend, then elimination of the dual graduate school admission requirements of GMAT and TOEFL should become common practice.

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YOUTUBE.COM: A FRANCHISE PLAYER IN TEACHING SPORTS MARKETING

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ABSTRACT

Practical suggestions and guidelines for the pedagogical use of YouTube.com, a Web site that offers visitors views of a large number of video clips, by instructors and students in the teaching of undergraduate level courses in sports marketing.

Introduction

The first days of teaching a course in marketing research and sports marketing – what a difference! Marketing research typically starts with warnings about the dire consequences of falling behind in the reading, while in sports marketing, class begins with analyzing the marketing implications of the Boston Red Sox winning another World Series.

The purpose of this paper is to provide practical suggestions and guidelines for using one of the fastest growing Internet sites in the teaching of courses in sports marketing in an effort to more effectively and efficiently meet the learning objectives of the course and to satisfy the expectations, needs, and learning styles of a generation of students who have grown up with computers and embrace their use.

According to Google, Inc., who bought YouTube in November 2006, less than a year after its launch for approximately \$1.65 billion, the media company delivers more than 100 million video views and receives 65,000 new videos each day. <<http://www.google.com/intl/en/press/pressrel/youtube.html>; July 11, 2007> At YouTube.com users can search video clips using key words or choose among different categories to search, including “sports,” which offers about 278,000 video clips. Within each category viewers can use key-word searches or browse by viewer feedback and time parameters. To help select a preferred clip viewers are provided each video’s description, length, date added, number of views, and rating (out of 5 stars). <<http://youtube.com/browse?s=mp&t=m&c=17&l=>; July 7, 2007>

The following topics are typically taught in an undergraduate sports marketing class and are areas where an

instructor can use YouTube.com for purposes of illustration and explanation during class lectures and discussions. I also discuss how students might use YouTube.com as a learning aid and research tool.

Width and Breadth of Sports

Introducing a course on sports marketing often starts with discussing the width and breadth of particular sports, from the popular to the obscure. Most students are familiar with sports such as baseball, boxing, tennis, golf, lacrosse, soccer, hockey, football, and basketball. But what about the other sports? Showing video clips of sports such as badminton, croquet, table tennis, curling, cricket, wakeboarding, jai alai, street luge, and bobsledding, rather than describing them in lecture format can be very effective and often leads to class discussion. Taking it a step further, YouTube.com can serve up videos on zorbing, tall bike jousting, cliff diving, log rolling, elephant polo, and slamball.

Sports as Entertainment

An early concept in the study of sports marketing is the notion of sports as entertainment – but entertainment unlike that one experiences while attending an opera or visiting a museum. “What makes sports different?” is easily illustrated by showing YouTube.com clips of the spontaneous and unexpected events following walk-off home runs, tie-breakers, shoot outs, final rounds, and half-court shots. Video clips from YouTube.com are particularly effective at demonstrating the positive level of arousal felt by spectators during exciting moments in sports. Watch students sit up in their seats and become animated as they view clips of classic sporting moments such as Willie Mays making “the catch” during the first game of the 1954 World Series, Doug Flutie’s “Hail Mary” pass to Gerard Phelan in 1984 to give the Boston College football team a win over Miami in the Orange Bowl, Bobby Orr scoring the overtime goal for the Boston Bruins to win the 1970 Stanley Cup, and Billie Jean King defeating Bobby Riggs in 1973. Clips such as these never fail to generate students’ suggestions for other notable moments in sports and are fertile ground for research projects.

The entertainment value of sports (and an element in price determination) goes beyond the actual game, race, or contest. YouTube.com offers a variety of video clips of pre-game tailgating, remote-controlled blimps navigating through arenas' upper reaches, between period chuck-a-puck contests, and fans creating waves as they stand and sit on cue. The pervasiveness of sports in popular culture can be exemplified with segments from popular movies such as *Jerry Maguire*, *Million Dollar Baby*, *Major League*, *Cool Runnings*, and *Friday Night Lights*.

Understanding Sports Consumers

A critical part of a course in sports marketing is devoted to analyzing consumers as sport participants and/or spectators. YouTube.com can be used as a resource for video clips of participants and spectators of all interests, ages, and abilities in events such as the Boston Marathon and activities such as evening softball leagues. By watching the video clips, students gain greater understanding of what satisfies spectators and the marketing research necessary to understand consumers from various demographic attributes, behavioral tendencies, and socioeconomic backgrounds. Students, for example, can compare and contrast video clips of fans at a professional baseball game and avid football fans in South America. Segmenting consumers of sports products and services is an important concept and more easily grasped by students as they watch video clips of tractor pulls, NASCAR races, and golf tournaments.

Borrowing from the field of service marketing, customers (spectators) often interact during an event and have a direct impact on each other to heighten or diminish their sense of satisfaction with the event (service received) and can, in fact, directly affect the outcome of a game or an event. Nothing illustrates this better than watching video clips of football hooligans and incidents of fan interference during hockey games, tennis matches, and basketball games.

Sports Products

Marketing sports involves more than thinking about a family of four attending a minor league baseball game on a warm night in July. The topic of sports products encompasses a multitude of want-satisfying objects and intangible, heterogeneous services. YouTube.com offers video clips of stadiums crowded with avid fans, wintry mountain slopes, road race courses empty of spectators, and scoreboards lighted by background fireworks. Information services is a category of sports product, and at the

click of a mouse sports marketing students can watch sports commentators offering news and opinions, highlights reels (and lowlights) of possibly every sport ever played, and the intended and unintended consequences of using particular types and brands of sports equipment.

The critical success factors for new sports equipment such as trialability, observability, perceived complexity, relative advantage, and compatibility can be topic of a lecture but are better understood by students as they watch videos of professional and amateur sports participants in action.

Event Planning

Sports marketers must understand the theory involved in planning sporting events – from a local 5K charity run to the next Olympics – and the practical considerations that go into analyzing the internal and external contingencies surrounding every contest, race, or game. Likewise, sports marketers must implement their plans and establish assumptions, processes, and contingency control mechanisms to ensure that goals and objectives are met. YouTube.com makes available video clips that exemplify and address many of these planning issues and practicalities, such as larger than expected crowds descending on a NASCAR race course, overly exuberant fans confronting authorities after a game, wardrobe malfunctions, and opening ceremonies that go exactly as planned. Dramatic examples of teams and players who are willing to take extraordinary risks or “bend the rules” in keeping with team cultures can be easily found on YouTube.com.

Promotional Activities

Sports marketers spend considerable effort to determine the optimal marketing mix, including activities in sales promotion and advertising: identification of objectives, matching benefits to target markets, and setting advertising appeals. Looking for examples of sports celebrities endorsing products in top-rated television commercials? Students can watch them on YouTube.com: Larry Bird challenging Michael Jordan to a shooting contest for his Big Mac in the 1993 McDonald's advertisement, Mean Joe Green giving his game jersey to a young boy in the 1980 Superbowl advertisement for Coca-Cola, and Tiger Woods bouncing a golf ball on his club during a Nike Golf Commercial filmed in 1999.

Teaching sports marketing can be a challenge, perhaps not like teaching marketing research, but one made easier with a franchise player on your team: YouTube.com

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TECHNO-ETIQUETTE

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Various types of high tech communication such as cell phones, voice mail, and e-mail are creating new etiquette rules for students. As students prepare for their career positions they need to be reminded that the way they handle high tech communication not only reflects on their professionalism in the workplace but also on the company's reputation. Sometimes by being connected . . . we disconnect from manners and respect for others. The following paper is designed to provide insight to students regarding how to be respected and to benefit in a connected world.

As many readers can remember, telephone booths were developed to keep street noises from disrupting a conversation and to keep the conversation private. Even without a telephone booth the same consideration needs to be practiced today with cell phones. As a cell phone carrier, one needs to ask the following three questions:

- ◆ Why am I carrying a cell phone?
- ◆ Will receiving a call disturb others around me?
- ◆ Is there another way to receive messages?

Cell Phones

Cell phone "do's" will show respect for others around you:

- ◆ Be in the moment,
- ◆ Excuse yourself,
- ◆ Keep it private,
- ◆ Learn to vibrate,
- ◆ Send a message.

Likewise, there are seven "don'ts" when speaking on a cell phone:

- ◆ Walk around on a cell phone,
- ◆ Carry on multiple conversations with caller and onsite companions,

- ◆ Discuss sensitive matters,
- ◆ Cuss,
- ◆ Cell yell,
- ◆ Drive and dial,
- ◆ Put your phone on the table.

Cell Phone Voice Mail

- ◆ Speak slowly,
- ◆ Beginning: Identify yourself,
- ◆ Ending: leave your name, company, best time to call back and repeat phone number 2x's,
- ◆ Do not call back the same day.

Email

Read the following email and identify the techno-etiquette mistakes.

Hey,

MSU WILL BE SPONSORING A CONTINUEING EDUCATION SEMINAR ON TECHO-ETIQUETTE. MSU PROFESSOR LINDA PETTIJOHN, WORKING FROM THE NATIONAL STREET IVORY TOWER, (lol) WILL BE THE GUEST SPEAKER. She has TAUGHT HUNDREDS OF PEOPLE THE PROPER ETIQUETTE TECHNIQUES TO USE IN THE BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT ;)

ttyl,

JANE SMITH

In composing an email one should follow the basic etiquette for written correspondence.

- ◆ Subject line – be specific,

- ◆ Salutation,
- ◆ Body of email
 - Start with a rapport-building 1–2 sentences
 - Use please and thank you
 - Emoticons: ;-)
 - Abbreviations: LOL, TTYL
 - In responding to an email – copy
- ◆ Sign off with your name and relevant business info.

Email Tips

- ◆ Emails from clients received late in the day can be answered during the p.m. and sent in the a.m.

- ◆ Limit email to ½ a screen,
- ◆ 24 hour turnaround.

Group Email

- ◆ Outside office: email addresses are public,
- ◆ Inside office: only email individuals on a need to know basis.

In summary, students using the above techno-etiquette techniques will be respected and benefit in a connected world.

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LIABILITY CONCERNS WITH INTERNSHIPS

Mary Virginia Moore Johnson, Southeast Missouri State University
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ABSTRACT

With greater numbers of students working as interns, the issue of legal liability is one that cannot be ignored. This panel will conduct an interactive exercise with participants to discover the extent to which legal issues have arisen in supervised Marketing/Management internships. Panelists will discuss the various types of claims that occur in an internship context and the various parties involved when students participating in an internship sue. Results of the interactive exercise will be shared along with data supporting or refuting the results. A thorough discussion of duty, who owes it and when it is

owed will be presented. General rules from court cases will be introduced and concepts such as “special relationships,” “*in loco parentis*,” “duty to warn,” “sexual harassment,” and “fiduciary relationships” will be explained. Matters that complicate liability issues, such as voluntary vs. mandatory internships, credit/no credit vs. graded internships, and paid vs. unpaid internships will be addressed. In the case of intern incompetence or misconduct leading to employer claims, the panelists will explain who is liable and why. Finally, university policy recommendations will be presented in an effort to minimize a university’s exposure to internship liability.

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USING MARKETING RESEARCH TO BETTER IMPLEMENT AN ALUMNI RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT (ARM) SYSTEM

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

ABSTRACT

Past research has identified several organizational behavior antecedents including organizational distinctiveness, organization prestige, tenure, and satisfaction with the organizations that contribute to greater support for the organization. This paper takes a marketing approach to developing an Alumni Relationship Management (ARM) Model that can be used by universities to help generate financial support from their alumni. It is hoped that alumni associations and their directors will benefit from this holistic approach.

INTRODUCTION

Over the past three decades, many public universities in the US have evolved from “state” universities to “state-supported” universities. Most states today are experiencing a decline in overall revenues, a constitutional requirement to balance budgets, stronger lobbying from other organizations, and other efforts that serve to diminish the level of financial support for education. Therefore, the public universities of the future will predominately be “state-assisted” universities. A “state-assisted” university is one that receives less than 50 percent of the university budget by the state (Archibald and Feldman 2003). As universities struggle to generate additional revenues to mitigate the negative impact of ebbing state support, universities are developing creative ways of raising money. These methods include, but are not limited to, selling rights to name stadiums and buildings, increasing tuitions and fees paid by students, using differential pricing models to charge different rates depending on ones major, etc. Probably one of the best and most successful methods of generating additional revenues is soliciting former students. Since these students hold diplomas that bear the name of the university, it is believed that they may have an affinity toward the institution.

The word *alumnus* has a Latin origin and means “a former student or graduate” of the university. Most universities

today are investing millions of dollars on their alumni associations. While some of this money is being spent in improving infrastructures (i.e., building better and bigger Alumni Centers), most of it is being spent on building better relationships with past graduates. While Alumni Relationship Management (ARM) is not a new concept, its importance today cannot be understated. To assist alumni directors better implement ARM, this paper will undertake this issue as a marketing research problem rather than an organizational behavior problem. More specifically, the widely used and practiced principles of marketing research will be used to develop a testable ARM model. In turn, this holistic model will help practitioners to better understand the dynamics underlying their alumni relations activities. Several hypotheses will also be stated and empirically tested using surveys.

THE PROBLEM

The alumni association of a “state-assisted” university in Texas is facing numerous problems, including low involvement, low participation, low membership renewal rates, few participants at events (football games, basketball games, and parades), and low levels of donations. Therefore, the primary research question that the alumni association wanted the authors to answer was: How can the Alumni Association get greater support? To help answer this research question two types of exploratory research techniques were deployed.

EXPLORATORY RESEARCH

Focus Groups

Four focus groups were conducted among senior students on campus. Two groups consisted of students near graduation who were “most likely” to join the alumni association upon graduation (i.e., answered a 9 or 10 on a 10-point scale on a screener). The other two groups consisted of students near graduation who were “least likely” to join the alumni association upon graduation (i.e., answered a 1 or 2 on a 10-point scale on a screener).

Some of the main issues that were discussed during the sessions included memorable experience at the university, involvement in clubs and associations, and the value proposition to joining the alumni association.

Literature Review

Second, a literature review was conducted. Numerous library databases were searched, utilizing key words from the focus groups sessions, including commitment, involvement, prestige, number of years at the university, and satisfaction with the institution.

The outcome of the above stated exploratory research methodologies resulted in the development of the proposed “ARM” model. A major portion of the proposed model is derived from the work of Mael and Ashforth (1992), who successfully laid out a model that explained the antecedents to organizational identification and its consequences. Previous work by Diamond and Kashyap (1997) provided insight into the measurement of obligation and attachment to the institution. Finally, previous research by Martin et al. (2000); Schertzer and Schertzer (2004); and Russell (2005) assisted in the specification of the various aspects of student satisfaction with the university.

Independent variables (Antecedents)

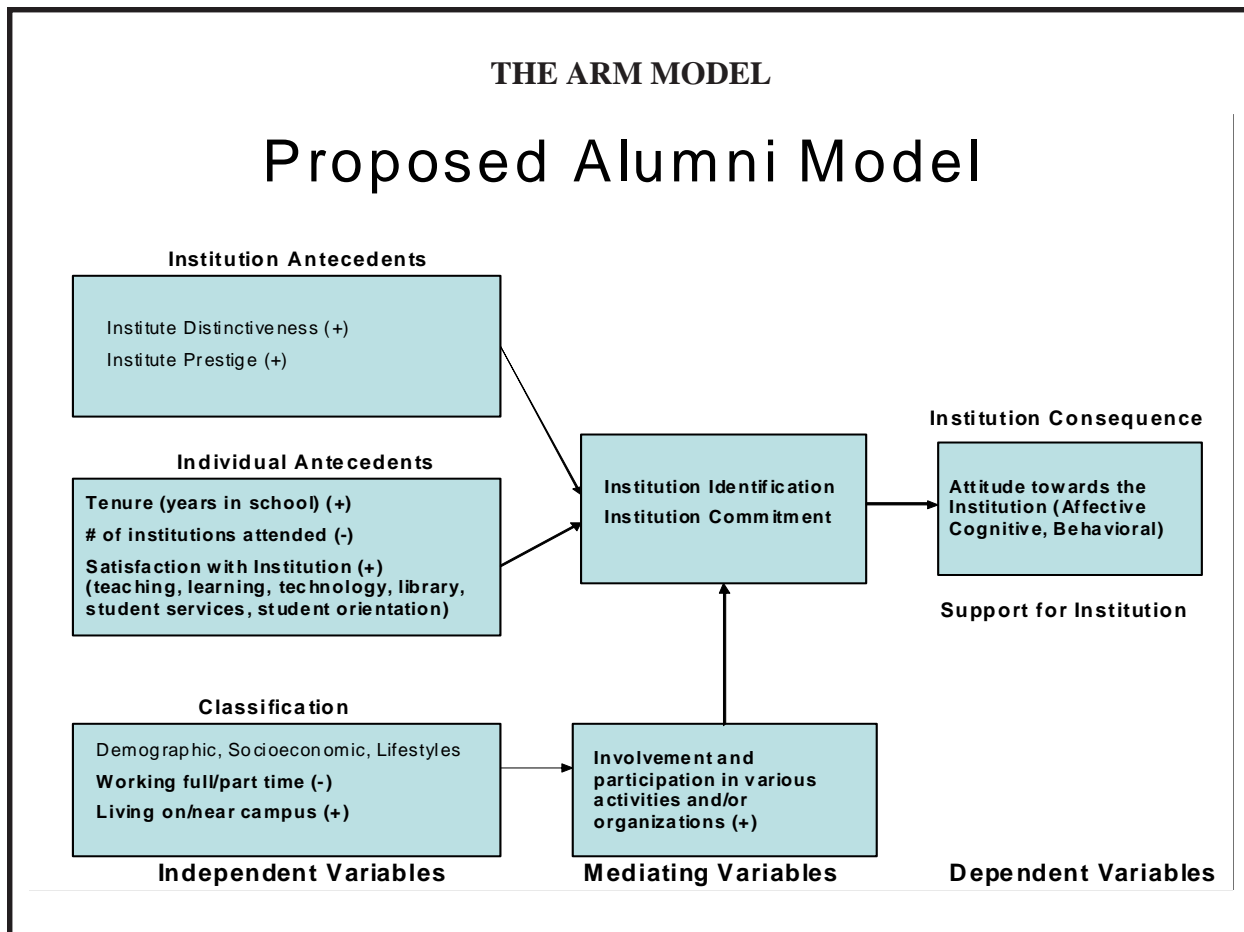
Antecedents are factors that come first (independent variables) and produce consequences/outcomes (dependent variables) through mediating variables (ones that link the independent and dependent). In designing the instrument that will be used for a follow-up descriptive research study, here are some of the key constructs and their conceptual definitions that were identified in the literature (Mael and Ashforth 1992; Mavondo et al. 2004).

Institution Distinctiveness. These are things that differentiate the University from other institutions (e.g., unique programs, small classes, attractive campus, etc.)

Institution Prestige. These are things that students would like to identify with the University so as to boost their individual self-esteem (e.g., reputation, would recommend to others, etc.)

Satisfaction with the Institution. This is a cumulative measure that deals with five aspects of the university:

- a. Satisfaction with the teaching includes quality of faculty, faculty commitment, challenging courses;



- b. Satisfaction with the learning environment includes a supportive environment, attitudes toward the students;
- c. Satisfaction with the technology available in the classroom, labs, up-to-date hardware and software;
- d. Satisfaction with the library in terms of providing added value to the experience, quality of service provided, hours of operations, technology available;
- e. Satisfaction with several student services including financial aid, parking, boarding, meals, intramural sports, student orientation.

Other Independent Variables. Some of these were measured using single item measures. These include years at the institution, number of institutions of higher education attended, whether working full or part time during the school year, and living on or near campus. Finally, there are several demographic, socioeconomic, and lifestyle issues that the authors feel have a direct impact on student's involvement and participation in various university activities (Mehta and Newbold 2008).

Mediating Variables

Just as antecedents are critical in measuring consequences, so are the mediating variables. Mediating variables are impacted by antecedents, and, in turn, have an impact on the dependent variables (or consequences). The mediating variables for the proposed model are briefly described below:

Institutional identification. How strongly students identify (i.e., proud, embarrassed, critical) with the university.

Institutional commitment. How committed is the university to its students (e.g., mentoring and interaction with faculty, extracurricular activities).

Involvement. Generally this refers to time and effort invested. Here it refers to participation in organized activities (e.g., intramural sports, lighting of the Christmas tree) offered by the institution.

Dependent Variables (Consequences)

Dependent variables, or consequences, are the outcomes that are observed as the result of the antecedents and mediating variables. For the purposes of this model, the consequences are three-dimensional. To tap into the construct well, it is best to measure each of these components separately. According to Fishbein, attitudes tend to be a function of three components:

Cognition. What beliefs students hold about the university;

Affect. What students feel and like about the university;

Behavior. Whether student intent to join the alumni association after graduation and donate money to the school.

HYPOTHESES

Given the proposed ARM model, the following hypotheses are posited:

Hypothesis 1: Students who find the university to be distinct are more likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide future financial support to the university.

Hypothesis 2: Students who find the university to be prestigious are more likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide financial support to the university.

Hypothesis 3: Students who have been at the university longer are more likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide financial support to the university.

Hypothesis 4: Students who have attended multiple universities (i.e., transferred) are less likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide less financial support to the university.

Hypothesis 5: Students who have had a positive experience and are satisfied with the various aspects of the university (i.e., teaching, learning environment, technology available, library, and student services) are more likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide financial support to the university.

Hypothesis 6: Students who work during the school year are less likely to be involved with various university activities and therefore less likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide less financial support to the university.

Hypothesis 7: Students who live on or near campus during the school year (not commuters) are more likely to be involved with various university activities and therefore more likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide financial support to the university.

QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

Since no secondary data exists to answer the stated research question, test the stated hypotheses, and validate the proposed ARM model, primary data will be collected for this study utilizing survey research methodology. The survey will be a self-administered, structured (mostly close-ended), undisguised instrument. Besides the fact that these types of instruments are the fastest, cheapest, least expensive, and most popular (Aldreck and Settle 1995), the primary motivation for selecting this form of instrument is that it is the most appropriate. The instrument will be designed so that all of the critical data integrity issues are addressed (e.g., funnel approach, categories must be mutually exclusive and collective exhaustive, multiple scales are used, appropriate formatting, grammatically accurate, etc.).

SAMPLE SELECTION

The population under study will be seniors (those expecting to graduate within one year) at a mid-size “state-supported” university in Texas. To guarantee representation from the population, stratified sampling (versus simple random) will be used. Both gender and ethnicity will be used to create the strata. Every potential respondent will be asked a screening question to determine if they are a senior and are qualified to participate in the study.

STUDY ADMINISTRATION

For generalizability and elimination of any type of bias in the responses, students of an undergraduate marketing research course will be trained to each complete the survey with eight respondents. Based on the pilot study and preliminary analysis, it is anticipated that the questionnaire will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. To ensure accuracy of data collection and completion, 5 percent of each student’s course grade will be tied into this process. To encourage participation, all respondents completing the survey will be eligible for participation in a lucky draw. Twelve prizes totaling \$500 will be randomly given to subjects that participated in the study (these prizes include an Ipod, digital camera, flash drives, etc.).

DATA QUALITY

To ensure data quality, extra care will be taken in the actual designing of the questionnaire in terms of proper phrasing of the questions, a neat layout of the various sections, consistent use of 7 points scales, etc. (Chruchill and Brown 2007). Several items will be reverse coded in the instrument. Participation will also be checked by conducting “call-backs” among a random sample of respondents. Chi-square “goodness of fit test” will also be performed on the sample to determine the accuracy and representation of the sample to the population proportions. Finally, reliability measure will be done on each construct using Crobach’s alpha.

METHODOLOGY

While the model may seem appropriate for causal testing using a structural equation modeling approach, it is the author’s belief that given the cross-sectional nature of the proposed data, it is best to use correlations. We find support for our recommended analysis from previous studies (Mael and Ashford 1992).

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APPENDIX

SHSU Alumni Survey

Sections A-D are intended to help the Alumni Association determine: what makes SHSU **distinct and unique** (section A), students beliefs about its **reputation and prestigious** (section B), how much students **identify** with SHSU (section C), how **committed** students are to SHSU (section D). Please use **1 (strongly disagree) thru 7 (strongly agree)** to answer the following questions.

1=Strongly Disagree, 4=Neutral (neither disagree or agree), 7=Strongly Agree; NA=Not Applicable

A STUDENT'S OPINION ABOUT SHSU'S DISTINCTIVENESS

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. The <i>history</i> of SHSU is unique when compared to other universities. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. The <i>degree programs</i> available at SHSU are unique when compared to other universities. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. The <i>social activities</i> at SHSU build long-term friendships and connections. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 4. In general, SHSU gives me greater <i>flexibility</i> (location, schedules) when compared to other universities. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 5. On average, SHSU has <i>small class sizes</i> compared to other universities. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 6. On average, SHSU is <i>cheaper</i> (less expensive) when compared to other universities. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
-
- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 7. Overall , I consider SHSU to be <i>distinct</i> and <i>unique</i> . | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|

B STUDENT'S IMPRESSIONS OF SHSU'S REPUTATION

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. It is considered <i>prestigious</i> to be an alumnus of SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. SHSU is considered one of the <i>best schools</i> in the region. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. People from other comparable universities look up to SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 4. SHSU Alumni would be <i>proud</i> to have others attend SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 5. SHSU has a good <i>reputation</i> in my community. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 6. When employers are <i>recruiting</i> new graduates, they would want students from SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
- | | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 7. Overall , I consider SHSU to be a <i>prestigious</i> institution with a good reputation. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|

C STUDENT'S LEVEL OF IDENTIFICATION WITH SHSU

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. When someone criticizes SHSU, it feels like a personal insult. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. I am very interested in what others think about SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. When I talk about SHSU, I usually say "we" rather than "they." | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 4. SHSU's successes are my successes. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 5. When someone praises SHSU, it feels like a personal compliment. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 6. I feel a sense of pride to be affiliated with SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 7. Overall , I tend to identify with SHSU and what it stands for. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|

D STUDENT'S COMMITMENT TOWARDS SHSU

- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. If I could start college over, I would choose to <i>attend</i> SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. I am a strong <i>supporter</i> of SHSU and what it represents. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. I feel a sense of <i>belonging</i> to SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |

APPENDIX (CONTINUED)

4. I feel a sense of *loyalty* towards SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 5. **Overall**, I feel committed towards SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA

Sections E-I are intended to help determine the level of **SATISFACTION** with various aspects and departments at SHSU, including: **Quality of teaching** (section E), **Learning environment** (section F), **Availability of technology** (section G), **Library facilities** (section H), and **Student services** (section I). Please use **1 (strongly disagree) thru 7 (strongly agree)** to answer the following questions.

1=Strongly Disagree, 4=Neutral (neither disagree or agree), 7=Strongly Agree; NA=Not Applicable

E STUDENT'S SATISFACTION WITH THE TEACHING AT SHSU

1. I am pleased with the *personalized attention* I receive from the faculty at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 2. The faculty at SHSU is committed to providing me with the *best education* possible. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 3. **Overall**, I am satisfied with the quality of teaching at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA

F STUDENT'S SATISFACTION WITH THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT AT SHSU

1. I am satisfied with the range of *course* available at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 2. I am satisfied with the quality of *facilities* (classrooms, buildings) at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 3. I am satisfied with the current *faculty/student ratio* at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 4. **Overall**, SHSU provides a satisfactory *learning environment*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA

G STUDENT'S SATISFACTION WITH THE AVAILABLE TECHNOLOGY AT SHSU

1. I am satisfied with the *computer labs* on campus. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 2. I am satisfied with the SHSU *website* and its features. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 3. I am satisfied with the *wireless services* available at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 4. I am satisfied with the *software* available at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 5. **Overall**, I am satisfied with the quality of service provided by *Computer Services*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA

H STUDENT'S SATISFACTION WITH THE LIBRARY AT SHSU

1. I am satisfied with the *resources* offered by the SHSU library. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 2. I am satisfied with the *staff* of the SHSU library. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 3. I am satisfied with the types of *services* the library offers. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 4. **Overall**, I am satisfied with the *quality* of the library. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA

I STUDENT'S SATISFACTION WITH THE STUDENT SERVICES AT SHSU

1. I am satisfied with the *Campus police* (security) at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 2. I am satisfied with the *Parking situation* at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 3. I am satisfied with the *Financial Aid Department*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 4. I am satisfied with the *Bearkat OneCard* (id, debit). 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 5. I am satisfied with the *Student Advisement & Mentoring (SAM) Center*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 6. I am satisfied with the *Undergraduate Admissions Department*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 7. I am satisfied with *Residence Life*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 8. I am satisfied with *Career Services*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 9. I am satisfied with *Student Health Services*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 10. I am satisfied with *Recreational Sport*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 11. I am satisfied with the *Registrars Office*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 12. I am satisfied with *Alumni Association*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 13. **Overall**, I am satisfied with the *Student Services Department*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA

Section J are questions that deal specifically with **your level involvement and participation** in various activities on campus. Please use **1 (strongly disagree) thru 7 (strongly agree)** to answer the following questions.

1=Strongly Disagree, 4=Neutral (neither disagree or agree), 7=Strongly Agree; NA=Not Applicable

J INVOLVEMENT AND PARTICIPATION IN VARIOUS ACTIVITIES

- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. I am involved with my <i>religious organization(s)</i> (church) at SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. I am involved with my social <i>sorority/fraternity</i> at SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. I am involved with <i>professional organization(s)</i> related to my field of study. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 4. I participate regularly (every semester) in <i>programmed physical activities</i> on campus (e.g., intramurals). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 5. I participate regularly (about 2-4 times a week) in <i>unprogrammed physical activities</i> on campus (e.g., working out, jogging). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 6. I participate regularly (about 2-4 times a week) in <i>off-campus social activities</i> (e.g., going to clubs & bars, going to the movies). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 7. I regularly (more than half) attend <i>SHSU athletic events</i> (e.g., football, basketball, baseball, soccer). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 8. I regularly attend other <i>SHSU sponsored events</i> (e.g., Christmas tree lighting, parades, job fairs, guest speakers, plays, concerts). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 9. Overall , I am involved and participate in <i>various activities</i> . | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |

Sections K-L are questions that deal with the **SHSU Alumni Association**. These questions are designed to determine your **intentions** (section K), level of **familiarity** (section L) with the various services. Please use **1 (strongly disagree) thru 7 (strongly agree)** to answer the following questions.

1=Strongly Disagree, 4=Neutral (neither disagree or agree), 7=Strongly Agree; NA=Not Applicable

K GENERAL ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE SHSU ALUMNI ASSOCIATION

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. I would like the SHSU Alumni Association to offer <i>networking opportunities</i> . | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. I intend to join the SHSU Alumni Association <i>after</i> graduation. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. I would join the SHSU Alumni Association <i>before</i> graduation. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 4. After graduation, I intend to <i>provide financial support</i> (i.e., outside of membership dues) to the SHSU Alumni Association. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |

L FAMILIARITY WITH VARIOUS ALUMNI SERVICES CURRENTLY OFFERED

- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. I am familiar with <i>Sam Works</i> (a social networking event). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. I am familiar with <i>Alumni Receptions</i> (formal networking event). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. I am familiar with the <i>Football Tailgate Parties</i> (food and festivities before home games and some road games). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 4. I am familiar with the <i>Scholarships</i> offered by the Alumni Association to current SHSU students. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 5. I am familiar with the <i>Official Ring Ceremony</i> . | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 6. I am familiar with the <i>Distinguished Alumni Awards</i> . | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 7. I am familiar with the <i>discounts</i> Alumni Association members received (Raven Nest Golf Club, tickets to sporting events). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |

Section M consists of demographic questions that are strictly for classification purposes. *Please check the box(s) that applies to you.*

1. What is your GENDER? **Check one box.**
- | | |
|-----------|--------------------------|
| 1. Male | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Female | <input type="checkbox"/> |

APPENDIX (CONTINUED)

2. What is your AGE? _____ in YEARS.
3. During the time school is in session, about how many HOURS PER WEEK do you generally spend WORKING at a job for pay? **Check one box.**
- 1. None ("I don't work")
 - 2. 1–10 hours/week
 - 3. 11–20 hours/week
 - 4. 21–30 hours/week
 - 5. 31–40 hours/week
 - 6. Over 40 hours/week
4. AFTER GRADUATION, where do you intend to work and live? **Check one box.**
- 1. Within the Houston Metropolitan Area
 - 2. Outside the Houston Metro but within Texas
 - 3. Another state besides Texas
 - 4. Foreign Country (outside the USA)
5. Which of the following best describes your ETHNIC ORIGIN? **Check one box.**
- 1. Caucasian (White)
 - 2. Hispanic (Non-White)
 - 3. African-American
 - 4. Asian-American
 - 5. Other
6. What is your current ACADEMIC CLASSIFICATION in college? **Check one box.**
- 1. Freshman
 - 2. Sophomore
 - 3. Junior
 - 4. Senior
 - 5. Graduate
 - 6. Other
7. Did you begin your college here at SHSU or did you transfer here from another institution? **Check one box.**
- 1. Started here
 - 2. Transferred from another institution
(Name of institution _____)
8. How many YEARS have you been attending SHSU? Check one box.
- 1. Less than 1 year
 - 2. 1–2 years
 - 3. 3–4 years
 - 4. 5–6 years
 - 5. 7 or more years
9. How many different universities/community colleges/trade schools have attended to date (i.e., after high school)?
_____ DIFFERENT institutions.

APPENDIX (CONTINUED)

10. How many college credit hours are you CURRENTLY registered/enrolled for (i.e., Spring 2007)?
_____ Semester HOURS.

11. What is your current OVERALL GPA? _____

12. WHERE do you live DURING THE SCHOOL YEAR? **Check one box.**

- 1. Dormitory or other campus housing
- 2. Fraternity or Sorority house
- 3. Residence within Walker County
- 4. Residence outside Walker County

13. Did either of your PARENTS GRADUATE from SHSU? **Check one box.**

- 1. Both parents
- 2. Father only
- 3. Mother only
- 4. Neither

14. Which of the following college does your MAJOR fall in? **Check one box.**

- 1. College of Arts and Sciences
- 2. College of Business Administration
- 3. College of Criminal Justice
- 4. College of Education
- 5. College of Humanities and Social Sciences
- 6. None of the above

Please write your specific major in this space _____

15. Where are you taking your classes this semester (i.e., Spring 2007)? **Check All Boxes That Apply.**

- 1. On the main campus at Huntsville
- 2. At the University Center
- 3. Correspondence courses
- 4. Via the Internet (not including Blackboard)

16. Which of the following best describes **your own personal** income for 2006? **Check one box.**

- 1. Less than \$10,000
- 2. \$10,001 - \$15,000
- 3. \$15,001 - \$30,000
- 4. \$30,001 - \$45,000
- 5. More than \$45,000

17. If you have any *general comments* about this study, please feel free to share your opinion with us in the space below:

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THE FOG OF (MARKETING) WARS: THE NEED FOR ASSUMPTION-BASED DECISION MAKING PROCESSES

David E. O’Gorman, University of Illinois at Springfield

ABSTRACT

Military strategists talk of the fog of war, the period of confusion early in a war during which it is not clear what is going on. This paper provides several anecdotes from the author’s work experience that illustrate the fog of war concept applies to marketing decisions. Making decisions is not easy in the fog. Because of the lack of clarity, decision makers revert to their own personal beliefs and experience, and interpret, and misinterpret, the confusing signals coming from the war front. Such decisions may be sub-optimal because they are based on erroneous assumptions. This paper proposes a modified version of Mason and Mitroff’s Strategic Assumption Surfacing and Testing as the optimal way to make decisions in the fog of war.

INTRODUCTION

Clausewitz. No one name is more associated with strategic thinking in the military as that of Carl von Clausewitz. He started his career in the Prussian military as an enlisted person before he rose through the ranks to become a General and the leading military theorist of all time. He served in many military campaigns, mostly against French forces, including those of Napoleon. He also was instrumental in shaping the coalition of Prussia, Russia, and the United Kingdom which ultimately defeated Napoleon. In the 10 years he headed the Military Academy at Berlin in the 1820’s he wrote his famous book, *On War* (Von Clausewitz and Rapoport 1968), which has had a profound impact on military and corporate strategy.

Among his famous sayings is that of the “fog of war.” By that he meant that military decision makers cannot see clearly the situation that is facing them because it shrouded in a twilight or fog. This is particularly true early in a campaign, when it is difficult to get a good picture of what is happening based on fragmentary, ambiguous reports from the front.

Less well known is his advocacy of dialectical argumentation (pros and cons) as an aid in the decision making

process. Dialectical argumentation is one of the approaches advocated by some current management theorists (Cosier 1981; Schweiger et al. 1986; Schwenk 1988 and 1989) as being suited for making decisions in uncertain situations. The dialectical argumentation approach, however, is limited because it operates within a single loop environment that is typical of virtually all companies (Argyris 1977).

This paper describes several “marketing fog of war” situations, and the limitations imposed on decision making process by single loop decision making process. It proposes a “double loop” approach based on Mason and Mitroff’s (1981) Strategic Assumption Surfacing and Testing approach that is arguably superior to other decision making approaches.

EXAMPLES OF THE FOG OF MARKETING WARS

The following are two examples of the fog of war from my own experience as a marketing researcher at a consumer products division of Bristol-Myers in the 1960s. It is interesting for me to reflect on these decisions, now that I have a background in decision making processes.

Congespirin

In the early 1960’s it was not clear whether there was a market for a children’s cold tablet. There were several brands of children’s aspirin, lead by St. Joseph’s Children’s Aspirin, which were the main product given to children who had colds. Some competitors had made attempts to market a children’s cold tablet, but were unsuccessful.

Within this foggy situation, we “knew” several things: (1) children had colds, a lot of them, and (2) aspirin did not contain a decongestant that would relieve cold symptoms better than aspirin alone. We did not know other things. It was questionable whether there was a market for children’s cold remedies other than aspirin. After all, there might be some reason grounded in consumer psy-

chology that was inimical to the concept. For example, were cold tablets perceived by mom's as being too strong to give to kids?

While we in marketing division were grappling with these issues, our R&D Division developed a tablet for children that combined aspirin with a decongestant. The question was then how to market it.

There were two schools of thought regarding how to position this product in the marketplace. Some of our executives thought that it should be positioned as a children's cold tablet. This was understandable given the fact that our company was the leading producer of cold tablets with our 4-Way and Bromo-Quinine brands.

Other of our executives thought that, in light of the fact that competitor's attempts to market a children's cold tablet were unsuccessful, and given the success of children's aspirin, that the new product should be positioned as close to an aspirin as possible, such as with a name like "Aspirin-Plus."

I was in charge of doing the consumer in-use test of this new children's product. Using Home Testing Institute's panel of consumers, we did a blind monadic product placement in which a sample of homes received our new product and the second sample received children's aspirin. Packaging was generic and as identical as possible. Results were very favorable. So we knew we had a product that would work.

The next question was the product positioning and name, either as a children's cold tablet or as an aspirin plus a decongestant. We assumed we had several months to resolve this issue with appropriate marketing research. However, when the executives at Bristol-Myers headquarters saw the very favorable results of the consumer in-use test, they wanted a crash project to get the product into test markets during the then current cold season rather than waiting for the next cold season as we had originally planned. This meant making important positioning, naming, and marketing decisions rapidly.

I learned of the urgent need to put the product into test markets from our new products marketing guy who said, "Dave, I just found out that New York wants us to move into test markets immediately. Our divisional president has decided that the product will be named "4-Way Children's Cold Tablets." The ad agency will be in next Tuesday to present the storyboards for the TV campaign." I expressed my concerns that we had not done a name study, and reviewed our mutual concerns about positioning it as a "children's cold tablet." He shrugged his shoulders and essentially said, "What can I do? The divisional president has already made the decision re-

garding the name. Besides, it is now Thursday and the agency is coming in next Tuesday with the storyboards."

I was not happy with the decision. I went to my boss, and he essentially shrugged his shoulders and said, "The divisional president has made the decision, and we are stuck with it. Besides, it is now Thursday and the agency is coming in next Tuesday with the storyboards." I went back to my desk and stewed about this for an hour or so, and went back to my boss and said, "What if we did a name study over the weekend and had the results by Tuesday." He checked with the vice-president of marketing and got approval for the name study.

The challenge was how to do a name study in just several days. The normal cycle for a name study would be weeks if not months. I was able to convince a marketing research house here in St. Louis, Peters Marketing Research, to get fired up to do the name study in several cities in the midwest. I designed the questionnaire on Friday morning, they sent them to their people in several cities, and their field people did the interviews on Saturday and Sunday. Monday the results were tabulated and slides prepared for the Tuesday meeting.

The Tuesday meeting was interesting. The ad agency from New York had their usual gaggle of people, and they went through their presentation of the storyboards for "4-Way Children's Cold Tablet." Then I got up and presented the results of the name study that indicated that "4-Way Children's Cold Tablet" was a terrible name for a children's product because it was perceived as being too strong and unsafe for children. The name study also indicated that another name we tested, Congespirin, would be a very good name for this product.

It was an awkward moment. The marketing vice-president was between a rock and a hard place. On one hand, the agency had already put together the advertising program for the four test markets for "4-Way Children's Cold Tablet." Time had already been bought in all the markets. The production and the sales force were ramping up to get the product into distribution on time in the test markets. On the other hand, the results of the consumer survey were clear. With the wisdom of Solomon, the marketing vice president made the decision on the spot that we would go into two test markets under the "4-Way Children's Cold Tablet" name and two test markets under the "Congespirin" name.

The agency modified the commercials and (rather crudely) inserted the name "Congespirin" in what was originally prepared as a 4-Way commercial. It will come as no surprise to you as marketing people that test markets using the 4-Way product failed and that the two test markets with Congespirin were very successful. Al-

though it was a very expensive way to confirm the results of the name study, the decision making process reflected several points:

1. The fog of war obscured the nature of the market for products to treat children's colds. Decisions were made based on subjective opinions and experience, in this case decades of experience with adult cold tablets.
2. There were decision dynamics occurring that we can look back now and say "Gee, this is typical single loop stuff." The characteristics of single loop are described in more detail later in this paper, but for now, it is quite clear that there was a unspoken factor "Thou shalt not confront the policies and objectives that top management are excited about."
3. The erroneous assumptions made that were typical of single loop cultures.

Contac

In the early 1960's, the Grove Laboratories of Bristol-Myers was a major player in the over-the-counter cold tablet market, with 4-Way Cold Tablets, Bromo-Quinine Cold Tablets, and Congespirin, a children's aspirin/decongestant. These cold tablets were relatively inexpensive to make, with a corresponding low retail price of about \$.25 per tablet in current dollars.

One of our sales reps found out that Smith Klein and French (SKF), a pharmaceutical manufacturer, was test marketing an over-the-counter timed-release cold tablet called Contac. This caused a flurry of activity in the home office for several reasons:

1. The concept of a "timed-release" medication was unheard of.
2. The price of each Contac capsule was priced at \$1.00, which was four times that of our cold tablets.
3. An analysis of their advertising expenditures revealed their Advertising to Sales ratio for Contac that was substantially higher than any other known advertising effort in the history of consumer marketing.
4. SKF was a pharmaceutical company that was competing in the consumer market for the first time.

Enter the fog of war. In a series of meetings to try to figure out the implications of the entry of Contac into the market, we decided Contac could not possibly succeed. For one thing, the head of our R&D division said that the

time release concept was bogus, and could not work. Second, we decided that consumers would never pay so much money for a cold tablet. Third, we determined that their Advertising to Sales ratio was unsustainable, and with the inevitable reduction of their advertising expenditures their sales would dry up. It was clear to us that SKF did not know what they were doing in the sophisticated consumer marketing arena, and that Contac would fail.

Based on these considerations, it was decided not to develop our own timed-release product to compete with Contac. Two years later, after it became clear that Contac was a phenomenal success, we decided to purchase a timed-release product from a third party, rebrand it, and market it under our name. It failed in the marketplace and was discontinued after a short time.

Meanwhile, Contac became the leader in the non-prescription cold remedy market. Once again, we see that in the fog of war decision makers make bad decisions based on faulty assumptions.

ASSUMPTION-ORIENTED DECISION MAKING

Clausewitz was on the right track when he suggested a dialectical, pro and con, approach to making decisions. The purpose was to clarify as much as possible the assumptions underlying a proposed course of action. Indeed, modern organizational theorists such as Cossier (1981) have advocated for similar processes.

Unfortunately, there is a problem with those approaches to decision making. They do not factor in cultural predispositions that in many cases nullify the good intentions of those who are using the techniques. Indeed, it appears that virtually all organizations suffer from a decision making process that is deficient in its ability to surface and validate assumptions, a requirement of cutting through the fog of war (Argyris 1977; Argyris 1985; Argyris and Schon 1978). This flawed decision making process was dubbed "single loop" by Harvard's Chris Argyris and MIT's Donald Schon who first described it in detail (Argyris and Schon 1978).

The term "single loop" refers to feedback loops within a system. For example, a furnace thermostat that is set at 70 degrees has a single feedback loop that regulates the furnace to keep the temperature at 70 degrees. The thermostat has no ability to question the assumption that the proper temperature for it to be set at should be 70 degrees. Similarly, single loop organizations are "programmed" to try to attain the goals set by management, and are deficient in their ability to question fundamental assumptions about those goals.

Single loop decision making is part of the broader work of Argyris and Schon on organizational learning and the defensive routines that inhibit learning (Argyris 1977; Argyris 1985; Argyris 1999; Argyris and Schon 1978). The characteristics of their work that are most relevant for understanding single loop decision making are:

- ◆ A single loop organization may espouse open communication, but in reality operates on a principle that “Thou shalt not confront the policies and objectives that top management are excited about.”
- ◆ Those who violate this rule are labeled “troublemakers” and are subject to subtle and not-so-subtle forms of punishment.
- ◆ Decisions are heavily influenced by subjective opinions rather than objective facts, resulting in failure to adequately surface and validate underlying assumptions. When used, facts are frequently generated to support decisions that have already been made on a subjective basis. This factor is consistent with other reports from business researchers who talk of top management manipulating their research findings to coincide to their own preconceived opinions (Clarke 1999; Cullen 2000; Radford 1978; Wiseman 1988).
- ◆ A gap exists between what the organization espouses and what it practices.
- ◆ Bad news is camouflaged.
- ◆ The upward flow of information is edited so as not to upset top management.
- ◆ There is a win/lose culture within the organization.
- ◆ Individuals play organizational games that everyone knows but no one discusses.
- ◆ Denial that the above single loop behavior exists.

The combination of the fog of war and the dysfunctional single-loop decision process is not a good one. It results in decisions that are based on the personal opinions of decision makers, with the bottom line usually being a poor job of surfacing and evaluating assumptions, and an unwillingness to question the wishes of top management. For important decisions or crises with potentially serious consequences, a mediocre single loop decision process is not good enough. What is needed is a decision making process that openly examines the assumptions underlying proposed courses of action. Dialectic and other argumentation-based techniques such as Devil’s Advocacy feed into these dysfunctional characteristics of single loop process.

The key to making good decisions in important situations is the temporary substitution of double loop decision processes for the single loop process normally used.

Fixing Single Loop Processes: Double Loop

The characteristics of Argyris and Schon’s work that are most relevant for understanding double loop decision making are shown below, with the most important feature being the willingness to question underlying assumptions.

- ◆ Everyone is encouraged to uncover hidden assumptions, especially their own implicit assumptions.
- ◆ Facts are used to make decisions rather than subjective opinions.
- ◆ There is no gap between what the organization says it does and what it actually does.
- ◆ Individuals are rewarded for uncovering performance gaps or hidden assumptions.
- ◆ Participation in decisions is based on knowledge, especially the ability to identify underlying assumptions and help validate them with facts.
- ◆ There is a win/win ethic within the organization.

The question is how to implant double loop decision process in an organization. This is easier said than done. Even Argyris encountered problems in his attempts to change the culture of organizations from single loop to double loop (Argyris 1977). This paper posits that the answer is Streamlined Assumption Surfacing and Testing technique (S-SAST). Rather than attempting to change the culture of an organization from single to double loop, S-SAST temporarily implants a pocket of double loop decision making within the single loop organization. Essentially, we don’t care if the culture changes to double loop. All we want is that important decisions be made in a double loop manner.

S-SAST ASSUMPTION SURFACING TECHNIQUE

S-SAST is a streamlined version of Mason and Mitroff’s (1981) Strategic Assumption Surfacing and Testing technique. S-SAST is grounded in organizational behavior and strategic decision making, and is essentially a non-quantitative approach to generating and evaluating alternative solutions with a particular focus on the assumptions underlying a proposed solution. The objective of S-SAST is to generate a realistic understanding of the situation so that the best possible decision can be made.

The qualitative approach of S-SAST uses an iterative group-oriented process in which a group formulates a proposed course of action and then proceeds through a series of steps that identify the key assumptions underlying the likely success of the proposed solution. The key assumptions are then researched in order to determine if they should be accepted, rejected or modified. The objective is not to “prove” that the proposed course of action is a good one (as would be done in a win/lose single loop environment), but to illuminate faulty assumptions and change the proposed course of action as necessary prior to the implementation of the proposed solution. There is wisdom in the old saying, “An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure.”

S-SAST can be executed in face-to-face meetings, over the Internet using word processing and electronic spreadsheet software, or with a combination of teleconferencing and the Internet. Sophisticated collaborative software could also be used but is not required. S-SAST can be done synchronously or asynchronously, the latter having the advantage of capturing input from contributors in different time zones and those who might not be available for synchronous meetings.

S-SAST is ideal for pulling into focus fuzzy situations in which there is disagreement regarding the nature of the problem and/or possible solutions. In crisis situations, in a matter of hours S-SAST can generate alternative solutions and illuminate the key assumptions underlying the proposed solutions. S-SAST is a self-correcting, adaptive process, which is a major benefit in situations that are rapidly changing. In retrospect, one can see how S-SAST would have helped in the Congespirin and Contac situations by illuminating and investigating key assumptions.

Steps in the S-SAST process

S-SAST Step 1: Generation of alternative solutions. The first step is to have the facilitator lead the group through a brainstorming process to develop alternative solutions. The most promising alternatives would be selected for in-depth analysis with S-SAST.

S-SAST Step 2: Stakeholder identification. Stakeholders are individuals, groups or systems that affect, or are affected by the proposed solution.

S-SAST Step 3: Listing of assumptions. The facilitator leads the group through the listing of assumptions for each stakeholder. The general question is, “What do we need to assume about this stakeholder in order for the proposed solution to be successful.”

S-SAST Step 4: Rating on Importance and Certainty. After all assumptions have been listed, the facilitator

leads the group through a process of voting on “Importance” and “Certainty” for all assumptions. The voting process varies. It could be a simple manual process, or a more sophisticated electronic one. In face-to-face settings, a non-electronic way to vote is to have the facilitator ask participants to vote by holding up 1 to 5 fingers, with 5 being high. The facilitator can visually scan the group, estimate the mean, and write it on the flip chart alongside of the assumption. Ratings could also be done using electronic keypads if available. For asynchronous meetings, the ratings on Importance and Certainty can be done with an electronic spreadsheet that is emailed to each participant. Participants fill in their votes on importance and certainty and email it back to the facilitator who consolidates the votes. Voting could be done using more sophisticated collaborative software if it is available to all of the desired participants.

S-SAST Step 5: Plotting on a two-dimensional matrix. The facilitator directs the preparation of a two-dimensional matrix (Importance on the vertical axis and Certainty on the horizontal axis). Each assumption would be plotted on the matrix, using each assumption’s unique number.

S-SAST Step 6: Research assignments. The group then examines the matrix with the assumption numbers plotted on it. The group then decides which assumptions need further research. Those assumptions that are rated high on importance and low on certainty are always considered for additional research. Those assumptions that are rated high on importance and high on certainty should also be scrutinized carefully in case the ratings on certainty are too optimistic. Assumptions that are rated relatively low on importance are not normally considered for further research, except for those that any group member feels should be examined. For example, a group member might say, “I believe our collective rating of Importance for Assumption 42 is too low. Although it isn’t in the list of assumptions to be checked out, I will volunteer to do some research on it.”

Research could be gathered by personal contact with knowledgeable individuals, telephone calls, research via the Internet, engineering analyses, systems dynamics models, review of reports, surveys, or other appropriate means. In crisis situations, the objective is to gather information and reconvene the group as soon as possible, preferably in hours rather than days.

S-SAST Step 7: Reporting on the results of the research. As the group reconvenes, members take turns reporting on the results of their research. In the S-SAST process, it is important that the facilitator not allow general discussion by the group until all reports are heard because premature discussion delays the process. Open discus-

sion follows the reporting of results. The focus should be on deciding the next steps.

S-SAST Step 8: Deciding on the next steps. After all reports are heard, the group decides what the next steps should be. There are three basic options:

1. Trashcan the idea. No further work on the topic would be done.
2. Make a significant modification to the proposed solution. This is a typical course of action selected by an S-SAST group because problems with the original proposal frequently are illuminated, and additional creative ideas generated as tacit and explicit knowledge (Nonaka and Konno 1998) is shared in the group. The new options are then evaluated with the S-SAST process.
3. Continue to examine the originally proposed solution, e.g., revising existing assumptions, preparing new assumptions, adding or deleting stakeholders, re-voting on importance and certainty.

DISCUSSION

Making decisions is not easy in the fog of war. Because of the lack of clarity, decision makers revert to their own personal beliefs and experience, and interpret, or misinterpret, the confusing signals coming from the war front. In real wars and marketing wars such as those illustrated with the Congespirin and Contac situations, such decisions may be sub-optimal because they are based on erroneous assumptions. Almost all organizations do a poor job of surfacing and validating assumptions underlying a proposed course of action. This deficiency is caused by the single loop culture found in virtually all organizations.

As Argyris points out, some single loop decisions are not entirely bad (Argyris 1985). Single loop processes, with their top-down rules-and-regulations orientation, provide stability and permits organizations to function efficiently.

Although there are some advantages to single loop processes, there is a major problem with using single loop decision processes for important decisions. That problem is the poor way that single loop decision processes surface and validate assumptions, which results in bad decisions such as those involved in the Congespirin and Contac situations. Dialectic and other argumentation-based techniques such as Devil's Advocacy feed into the dysfunctional characteristics of single loop process.

Failure to surface and validate assumptions is not a major concern with most decisions, because most decisions are not critical decisions. It is only a serious problem when making decisions about important issues. For important decisions, double loop processes should be used. The relationship between single loop and adaptive double loop decision processes is this: The efficient single loop infrastructure provides a stable foundation for the innovative, double loop adaptive processes that are critical to the organization's survival.

CONCLUSION

The prospects for improving decision processes in a "fog of war" are good if S-SAST is used. S-SAST is a technique that can counter the dysfunctional characteristics of single loop cultures. Those organizations that "fix" their dysfunctional single loop decision process will help ensure that they can see more clearly through the fog of war.

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SPECIAL SESSION

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS STUDY ABROAD: A DISCUSSION OF THE VALUE OF SUCH TRIPS, WHOM TO PARTNER WITH, AND HOW STUDENTS CAN BENEFIT

Suzanne A. Nasco, Southern Illinois University
Lisa-Jane Perraud, Grenoble (France) Ecole de Management
Dennis G. Nasco, Southern Illinois University

THE VALUE OF TEACHING AN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS STUDY ABROAD COURSE

ABSTRACT

College students in the United States have historically had multiple international study abroad opportunities available through their universities. Many of these opportunities are organized for each student individually, are not necessarily focused on international business practices, and are not chaperoned by Business school faculty. This presentation will discuss how to organize an effective study abroad experience for both undergradu-

ate and graduate students, how to arrange for international business visits and coursework, and how to integrate business faculty into such programs. The challenges in establishing such a program will also be discussed, such as initiating faculty involvement, gaining support from the Dean's office, and using travel companies or international partner schools for support. Audience members will also be invited to discuss their experiences.

PROVIDING INTERNATIONAL STUDY ABROAD OPPORTUNITIES TO U.S. COLLEGES: A PARTNER'S PERSPECTIVE

ABSTRACT

The global nature of today's marketplace and the rise of international business programs make collaborative efforts among schools to create study abroad opportunities more attractive to both partners. This presentation will discuss how Grenoble Ecole de Management (GEM) in Grenoble, France has created such programs with U.S.

universities and will detail the various types of study abroad opportunities that GEM offers. The benefits to the students at GEM, as well as the benefits to US students who study in Grenoble, will also be discussed. Audience members will be asked to suggest additional ways that international schools can provide customized study abroad opportunities to U.S. universities.

INCORPORATING AN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS STUDY ABROAD COURSE INTO STUDENTS' CAREER DEVELOPMENT

ABSTRACT

Many U.S. college students who study abroad describe their experience as a rite of passage into adulthood. Whether they go for a year, a semester, or a few weeks, many study abroad participants agree that their trip was a life-changing experience. Although most students gain college credit toward their degree for their study abroad experience, few students know how to incorporate the trip into their career development. This presentation by a

professional in Human Resources will show how study abroad participants can edit their résumés and can incorporate their international experiences into job interviews. Study abroad opportunities that specifically focus on international business practices would maximize the integration between the trip and the student's career development efforts. Audience members will be invited to discuss additional ways for U.S. college students to use an international business study abroad for career placement.

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HOW TO EFFECTIVELY USE STUDENT GENERATED CONTENT?

Rama Yelkur, University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire

I have taken the tools and techniques of teaching online and applied them to face to face classes. All of my on-campus classes are hybrid courses, I have integrated virtual tools to engage students and teach using student generated content. In my on-campus, hybrid classes students actively participate in D2L discussions outside of class (of course they get credit), initiate conversations on current topics related to the class, collaborate in small and large groups outside of class on a multitude of assignments, to name a few activities. Most of the work that I assign to students requires work beyond the textbook, each group is given a piece of the puzzle on an assignment and they bring it together in the classroom. Students work in their small groups and large groups virtually, ahead of class time. I actively participate and guide their small group and large group discussions related to any particular assignment. The key is to have each group have distinct parts of the assignment, so that there is motivation to listen to each other's findings. It is

also crucial to clearly describe the expectations of the assignment and have a grading rubrics laid out in order to monitor the quality of the material that students deliver. Although it requires a lot of effort and advanced preparation in thinking through class activities, it generates and enhances class discussion, increases student curiosity and shifts some responsibility for learning to the student. I am able to better play my role as "facilitator of learning" as opposed to "deliverer of information." It appeals to students as they are more comfortable with digital tools and are willing to engage in this method of learning to supplement and enhance traditional classroom learning. It is also time-consuming, as it involves a variety of assessment and feedback methods as well as continuous interaction with students outside of class. I do think it is worth it; not only is it a refreshing change, it gets students excited about learning as they are involved in the teaching as well!

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BETTER NEW PRODUCT IDEAS THROUGH BETTER SCREENING PEDAGOGY THE EVOLUTION OF REVOLUTION

Paul Lane, Grand Valley State University
John Farris, Grand Valley State University

The idea of screening new product ideas is not new (Crawford and Di Benedetto; Clark and Wheelright). It is found in many discussion of the new product process. The problem has always been the teaching the screening process. This paper explores what happens when you stop teaching it and let the students do it. The authors, through a series of graduate and undergraduate course in this country and in Central America, have found that there is much to be learned from the students to improve the process. Improvements have occurred in introducing the concept, in screen development, and in screen application. Evolutionary changes in the presentation of screening have lead to revolutionary improvements in the quantity and quality of ideas for new products.

WHY USE A SCREEN?

You may be asking what is a screen and why do you want to use one. If you are teaching New Product Development, Entrepreneurship, Innovation, or Portfolio Management then the concept of screening can improve your course. A screen is used to identify ideas or concepts that merit the commitment of scarce resources to develop and bring to market. A screen consists of a group of criterion that is used to rank or compare ideas. An example of a critiereon is "The product is environmentally friendly." Each criterion has a Likert scale attached to it. For the environmentally friendly criterion a version of a five-point Likert Scale is shown below:

- 2 Strongly Disagree
- 1 Disagree
- 0 Niether Agree nor Disagree
- 1 Agree
- 2 Strongly Agree

Crawford and Di Bendetto recommend ranking ideas or concepts using the following criteria: (Crawford and Di Benedetto, p. 221).

1. Market Size

2. Market Relatedness
3. Market Growth
4. Market Regularity
5. Distribution Capability
6. Competitive Status
7. Regulatory Freedom
8. International Potential
9. Marketing Capability
10. Manufacturing Capability
11. Financial Capability
12. Engineering Capability
13. Vendor/supply options
14. Technical uncertainty
15. Strategic Fit

Of course this list is not exhaustive.

In the author's experience, students often find it easier to construct screens by starting with a list of functional areas of business. Such a list might include:

1. Target Market
2. Channels
3. Customer Needs
4. Competition

5. Financial Capability
6. Technical Capability
7. Ease of Communication

To avoid cumbersome screens, screens should contain about 10 criterion. Remember screens are employed to objectively select which ideas to pursue given scarce human and financial resources.

When the authors started teaching the concept of screening they were following the model of the beginning of the new product development process shown below.

Management Brief → Ideation → Screen Development → Screen Application → Concept Development

The authors made several observations while teaching this traditional model to a class of graduate engineers and business students. The first class, when management or the company sponsors of the projects presented their design brief, motivated the students. The process of ideation was exciting and fun. Unfortunately the development and application of the screen was not productive or satisfying for the students. After an exciting evening of ideation students were not interested in developing a screen, they wanted to begin designing and surveying customers. Second, developing a screen after ideation was a mistake. Once students had a favorite idea they often slanted the choice of criterion in the screen to support their favorite idea. Finally, the application of the screens was a painful, slow and contentious experience. Students were trying to apply poorly worded criterion to the ideas to fragments of concepts. Many of the ideas from the ideation sessions were not complete concepts. Teams struggled to understand the criteria and evaluate the incomplete concepts in terms of market, financial, and operational viability.

WHAT WERE THE PROBLEMS?

It was clear that there were problems with the pedagogy. First students cannot learn if they are not interested and paying attention. The process needed to be interesting for students and have value in their eyes. Second the screen needed to be objective. The purpose of a screen is to provide an objective ranking of concepts by considering the concept from many perspectives. The screening process should build consensus among the diverse members of a product development team. Finally many product development team members could not apply the criteria that they did not create. For instance an engineer had trouble applying the criteria constructed by a marketing student. Although this is logical because the people who

constructed the criteria used language and ideas from their functional areas, the frustration created did not help teams have confidence in the process or arrive at consensus.

IMPROVING THE PEDAGOGY

Introduce Students to the Concept of Screening

To introduce students to the concept of screening have students apply an existing screen to a list of new products. The authors start the exercise by asking students to identify their favorite products. Cell phones, MP3 players or robot vacuums; the products named do not matter. Then the students receive a screen and asked to use the screen to pick which product their “company” should develop. The exercise always provokes discussion on the construction and application of a screen. Some example student questions are listed below:

1. Who is the organization?
2. What market are they trying to serve?
3. Who will use the product?
4. Does the organization have money to invest?
5. What about the competition?
6. What does management want to accomplish?
7. Does the organization have the technical ability?
8. Are there questions of intellectual property?

This process is best done in class where you can spend time with each team.

Create the Screen

All members of the teams need to participate in developing the screen. First referring back to the previous experience teams are encouraged to develop screens of approximately ten criteria. In order to create a list of potential screening criteria, the teams are encouraged to think the characteristics of the “perfect” solution, the “worst” solution and an “acceptable” solution in terms of the functional areas of the business. Second, they prioritize the screening criteria. Finally they eliminate or modify criteria that cannot be evaluated at this stage of the new product development process, that do not fit into a Likert scale or that cannot be understood by everyone on the team. Several common problem areas that teams will face include the development of yes no questions. In lower

level courses with specific groups the facilitator may have to prompt the engineers to add the customer criteria, or conversely the marketers to add technology criteria.

Pretest the Screen

Pretesting the screen is one of the most recent additions to the process but is probably the most obvious. It is a very powerful change in the process. Currently each student on a team takes the screen and a few product or service ideas to at least five people and asks them to apply the screen. Then the teams refine the screen based on their collective results. Doing the revisions in class time provides the faculty facilitator a chance to join in the discussion. There are usually questions that people did not understand, could not answer or did not fit the Likert scale. This is feedback can be used to improve the screen.

Ideation

The authors have learned much from facilitating many ideation sessions with students ranging in age from traditional freshmen to older graduate students. Introduce the process of ideation and model the process for the students before requiring students to lead an ideation session. The faculty facilitated sessions is best done at a separate class session so that students will have time to think about what they might do to generate ideas. Keep the ideations sessions moving. Announce a topic and give participants a minute or two to think about the topic and write down their initial ideas. Then, to inspire lateral thinking, start announcing the ideas. Hopefully, one participant's idea will trigger another idea from another participant. Participants can write their ideas on self sticking note paper so the ideas can be easily maintained and manipulated. In case the flow of ideas wanes, have several questions or topics ready to reignite the session. A relaxed process and a sense of humor seem to work the best for students. Make it fun: Dig deep for the brightly colored sticky notes, bring a snack, students are not creative on demand.

Grouping Ideas into Concepts with Sketches

After the team has completed the ideation process they should have more than 100 ideas. This can be an overwhelming amount of information. In the past the authors would have the students apply the screen to each unique idea. More recently the authors ask the students to group similar ideas together. Ideally they should end up with 15 to 25 groups. Some teams will try to fit all of their ideas into four groups while other teams will see each idea as fitting into its own group. The facilitator must coach the teams through the process.

Developing Full Concepts

In this step the teams use the groups of ideas to form complete concepts. The concepts consist of a description of the idea and a rough sketch. The description and sketch on four inch by six inch note cards. Although the students resist the idea of sketching, the sketches force the students to complete their concepts and help them communicate the concept to the other team members. Also the sketching is often a chance for a different person to lead the team.

Preparing for Screen Application

One of the important steps to screen application is the preparation. First the groups need to think about how many screeners there will be. Assuming that will be five the group needs to make five copies of each idea card and in some way label them as idea 1,2,3 etc. The authors have had the experience of screeners not using the cards in the same order. This makes all of the results useless. Once their concept cards are properly copied and labeled, the group needs to recheck their screen form. Is there a place to put what idea is being worked on? Is there a place to identify the screener? Is it set up so that screeners can efficiently score? Does the group have a plan to process the data when it is available? Finally groups need to bring enough copies of the screen so if you are going to have four people screen fifty ideas you need 200 copies of the screen. This is the group's responsibility to have it all together.

Apply Someone Else's Screen

This has been a big move to change to having another group; hopefully an objective group applies the screen. It may seem a little threatening at first as a particular member cannot push for their own idea. The advantages are, found in objectivity, forced organization, and speed. So far this has been done in meeting or class room. People are serious and the facilitator can remind them this is not a group project but an individual task. The facilitator must allow plenty of time as some groups will have more questions and more concepts than others to be screened. This process works well as an in class activity.

Processing the Data

When the screen is done the teams or groups need to spend time processing the data. The authors used to spend class time discussing how to process the data. Today most students can quickly organize the data in a spread sheet or similar form and determine which concepts scored the highest. While students compile the data, the facilitator

can observe, comment and answer questions about the process. The students should look at the results critically. Were the scores consistent between screeners? This session is often completed with simply revealing what concepts scored the highest. The teams should also analyze why some concepts scored better than others.

Final Selection

Some teams will not agree with the results of the screening process. They may want to lobby for a favorite concept that did not score high. Some teams will argue that the top concepts are not feasible or appropriate. In these cases the teams should analyze what happened. Was their screen not clear or complete? Were their descriptions of the concepts not clear? In some cases iterating through the process can improve the results. The facilitator should remind the students that new product development is an iterative process.

THE EVOLUTION OF REVOLUTION

The process of screening concepts has been improved by making many incremental changes to the traditional approach. Each change was motivated by the author's frustration at a less than satisfactory process student's suggestions. The result has been that semester by semester the evolutionary changes have added up to a revolutionary result.

It is important to remember that this paper is not only about the development and use of a screen to select product concepts. It is about a style of facilitating student's learning that works well as an approach to the fuzzy front end of new product development. This approach has applications in new product courses in marketing, engineering, design, product management courses and entrepreneurship.

NEXT STEPS

The authors are in the process of completing an assessment of the new process with business students, engineering students, entrepreneurship students from across the campuses of the university. The student input will help refine and improve the process further. Further industrial trials will provide additional opportunities for learning.

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STUDENT PERCEPTION RATINGS OF ACTIVITIES THAT SUPPLEMENT MARKETING COMPUTER SIMULATIONS

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ABSTRACT

While computer marketing simulations offer a variety of educational benefits, many marketing professors also incorporate additional supplemental activities to enhance the learning experience as well as to enhance student satisfaction levels. This research offers summary perceptions of certain supplemental requirements in enhancing learning and in enhancing satisfaction when coupled with two widely used simulations (The Marketing Game! and CapSim) by undergraduate, MBA, and Executive MBA students. The supplemental requirements that were measured include periodic meetings with the instructor; conducting financial analyses; developing customer profiles; developing competitor profiles; and presenting post-simulation oral presentations that analyzed the simulated marketplace.

INTRODUCTION

Since the dawn of marketing education, marketing professors have continually sought new ways to assist their students in learning more than just basic marketing concepts both within the classroom and beyond. While classroom settings are well suited for learning concepts or terminology, marketing is a discipline that also requires the student to move from concepts to application and experience before it can truly be mastered. Effective marketing education requires that students learn how to analyze complex situations, apply marketing concepts, and synthesize proposed solutions all within a marketplace filled with multiple interdependent decision points. Each of these decision points must be considered within the framework of an organization's objectives and each is fraught with great risk. The marketing professor, therefore, takes responsibility for this unenviable, yet rewarding, challenge of teaching students (who often have varied marketing experiences and backgrounds) to begin applying marketing concepts when making actual business decisions.

THE COMPUTER SIMULATION EXPERIENCE

The classroom setting is not quite so ideal for leading students beyond conceptual understanding and into the integrated, applied understanding required for making effective real world marketing decisions. Such learning cannot be memorized but requires active participation in order to be fully grasped. Marketing educators have embraced several tools for increasing active participation among students including case studies, essay assignments, actual business projects, and computer simulations. Although many research studies have documented that each of these tools has its own advantages, computer simulations seem to be gaining in popularity among marketing professors for a myriad of reasons. Computer-based marketing simulations require students to make decisions within a complex environment. As such, simulations offer a particularly active tool for students while providing them potentially immediate feedback on their decisions. Previous research has illustrated computer simulations' advantages in areas such as enhancing forecasting and decision-making skills (Herche and Fox 1994) as well as enhancing teamwork and group decision-making (Lamont 2001) all within an active learning environment, (see also Burns and Gentry 1992).

A review of available marketing simulations also shows a wide range of complexity and sophistication that allow simulations advantages in addressing diverse learning objectives. Advances in computer technology, in communications technology, and in systems modeling have led to the development of rich, responsive, and interactive simulations with complexity levels that can be adjusted depending on the level at which the simulation is employed. As such, varying complexity levels allow for the use of simulations with students at varying levels of marketing sophistication.

When used as part of introductory marketing principles, for example, simulations tend to be simple (few operative

variables, competitors, and markets). Their main purpose is to enliven, enrich, and extend the students' knowledge of marketing concepts and their comprehension of how marketing knowledge fits together into a cohesive whole. In essence, simulations in introductory courses focus on the first two levels of Bloom's (1956) classic Taxonomy of learning objectives: knowledge and comprehension.

When used in an undergraduate capstone marketing strategy course or in a master's level marketing management course, however, simulations tend to employ a particularly complex range of variables, markets, and competitors. The simulation is designed at these levels to foster an understanding of the application of marketing theories, the analysis of complex marketing situations, the synthesis of strategies to solve problems or capture opportunities, and the evaluation of strategic decisions. These learning objectives exemplify the four higher levels of Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy.

“SUPPLEMENTS” TO THE COMPUTER SIMULATION EXPERIENCE

Despite growing popularity and widely acknowledged benefits, empirical studies examining various approaches to utilizing computer simulation options have been somewhat limited. With a plethora of options from which to choose, Brooks, Burson, and Rudd (2006) point out that marketing professors would benefit from empirical studies examining how various aspects of computer simulations impact such dependent outcomes as student learning as well as student and/or professor satisfaction. One area within such a research stream that has received very little attention is the study of various activities that marketing professors utilize to augment their students' computer simulation experience. The purpose of this study, therefore, is to examine student perceptions on the various additional activities that a marketing professor may choose to augment the simulation experience. Such possible student activities that have been identified in previous literature include developing oral and/or written presentations analyzing the simulation variables (Alpert 1995); developing profiles of competitors and/or of customers (Brooks et al. 2006); incorporating exams/quizzes on the simulation parameters (Brooks et al. 2006); incorporating case studies that illustrate concepts consistent with the simulation (Zych 1997); and periodically scheduling required meetings with the course professor (Alpert 1995). This research extends each of these previous studies by comparing student perceptions of several of these additional activities from students who have recently completed a simulation experience. In so doing, summary statistics are provided for student perceptions of each activity.

METHODOLOGY

Respondents

This study surveyed a total of 63 marketing students attending a private southeastern university. Within the business school, this sample represented a widely diverse student population consisting of both undergraduate and graduate marketing students. Each respondent had just completed a marketing simulation that served as a major component for completing a specific marketing course. Thirty-six undergraduate students from three different sections of the capstone course for marketing students reported on their experience with The Marketing Game. Twenty-seven graduate student respondents had just completed the capstone MBA marketing course. The twelve evening part-time MBA students and fifteen Executive MBA students (from a single cohort) reported on their experience with the CapSim simulation. Note that while CapSim is a general business simulation, these MBA students took part in this simulation with the marketing component of the simulation having been advanced to provide a strong focus on marketing within the overall business framework.

Concurrent with the simulation, each of these students had been required to complete several of the additional activities listed previously including developing oral and/or written presentations, developing both competitor profiles and customer profiles, periodically scheduling required meetings with the course professor, and developing an internal financial analysis (based on analyzing a break-even point format).

Measures

After having fulfilled all simulation requirements, participants completed a survey that identified each of the activities that they had completed concurrent with their simulation experience. Using five-point Likert-type scales the survey measured each respondent's overall perceptions of the marketing simulation in terms of enhancing learning and in terms of satisfaction with the simulation exercise. Using these same five-point Likert-type scales the survey also measured each respondent's perceptions on five different simulation-related activities that had been required: developing customer profiles; developing competitor profiles; developing a financial analysis based off of a break-even point for each brand that the student offered in the simulation; periodically meeting with the instructor; and delivering an oral presentation after the conclusion of the simulation. The survey measured the respondents' perceptions of how each activity affected their learning as well as how it impacted their satisfaction

with playing the simulation game itself. The impact of each additional simulation-related activity on learning was measured in two ways: how each activity increased understanding of marketing concepts as well as how each activity increased understanding of developing a marketing strategy.

Each of the undergraduate students and each of the evening MBA students completed the survey during class time after all simulation-related activities had been completed. The executive MBA students received the survey via e-mail.

RESULTS

Overall Simulation Experience

Summary statistics of student perception ratings for the overall marketing simulation are presented in Table 1. Overall, students indicated that the simulation enhanced their learning of the marketing concepts that were otherwise discussed in the course. They also indicated that the simulation increased their understanding of how marketing is integrated within the other business functions. The other two items regarding the overall simulation experience – if the simulation impacted the students’ satisfaction on the overall course and if it enhanced understanding of additional marketing concepts not discussed in the course – received lower sample means.

Enhanced Learning from Additional Activities Related to the Marketing Simulation

Summary statistics on student perceptions regarding how each of the five additional simulation-related activities enhanced their learning are presented in Table 2. The two activities that the student sample rated the highest were the periodic meetings with their instructor and conduct-

ing the financial analysis. Of note, these two activities also received the highest sample means in terms of increasing understanding of developing a marketing strategy as well.

Satisfaction from Additional Activities Related to the Marketing Simulation

The summary statistics of student satisfaction ratings from each of the five additional simulation-related activities are presented in Table 3. Meeting with the instructor received the highest overall sample mean while making a final oral presentation received the second highest sample mean.

DISCUSSION

Each professor utilizing a marketing computer simulation is faced with decisions on what, if any, additional activities to incorporate with the simulation experience. In making such decisions, each individual professor must make his/her own personal evaluation as to the importance of student perceptions of each activity – both on their learning process as well as on their satisfaction level. Some professors, for example, may weigh student satisfaction as being very important believing that it further enhances motivation and learning, while others may weigh student satisfaction as being of little importance, preferring to focus solely on student learning perceptions. Either professor should consider these results and weigh these findings accordingly in making their own course decisions.

As such, these findings should also serve as a starting point for research on how marketing professors can maximize their objectives through these experiences. Meeting with the professor during the simulation experience, for example, seemed to be particularly important

TABLE 1
Marketing Student Perceptions Regarding Computer Simulations

Item	Mean	S.D.
The Marketing simulation increased my understanding of the marketing concepts discussed in this course.	4.44	0.78
The Marketing simulation increased my understanding of how marketing is integrated with other business functions within an overall business structure.	4.37	0.77
The Marketing simulation increased my satisfaction with this course.	4.19	0.51
The Marketing simulation increased my understanding of additional marketing concepts not discussed in this course.	3.97	0.88

TABLE 2
Marketing Student Perceptions of How Course Activities Related to Computer Simulations Enhanced Learning

Item	Mean	S.D.
. . . increased my understanding of marketing concepts.		
Meeting with the instructor	4.27	0.89
Conducting the financial analysis	4.24	0.77
Conducting the competitive analysis	4.10	0.88
Conducting the customer profile	4.04	0.77
Making a final presentation	4.00	1.14
. . . increased my understanding of developing a marketing strategy.		
Conducting the financial analysis	4.46	0.62
Meeting with the instructor	4.26	0.92
Conducting the competitive analysis	4.23	0.83
Making a final presentation	4.21	1.02
Conducting the customer profile	4.13	0.82

TABLE 3
Marketing Student Satisfaction Ratings of Course Activities Related to Computer Simulations

Item	Mean	S.D.
. . . increased my satisfaction of playing the marketing (simulation) game.		
Meeting with the instructor	4.08	0.97
Making a final presentation	3.94	1.15
Conducting the financial analysis	3.89	.088
Conducting the competitive analysis	3.69	0.95
Conducting the customer profile	3.52	0.97

both for the student's learning process and his/her satisfaction level. This finding is consistent with Baglione, Tucci, Talaga, and Burson's (2003) conclusions that a professor's willingness to be actively involved with the student's simulation experience will significantly enhance the student's simulation experience.

While this research offers insight into student perceptions, any research must also be considered within its own limitations. This research study is limited by its design as well as by its sample size and construction. Since each of the undergraduate students participated in the same simulation (The Marketing Game!) and each of the graduate

students participated in the same simulation (CapSim with an advanced Marketing component) the procedures suffer a potential confound from the simulation selection.

Furthermore, with a myriad of potential supplemental activities, the sample could only respond to measures regarding those activities in which they actually participated. Additional research is needed to evaluate how students would rate other potential simulation-related activities. Additional research is also needed to confirm how well these sample results can be generalized to other students and other simulations as well as how students would rate other potential supplemental activities.

As additional empirical research is conducted to examine computer simulation usage, it is not just the marketing professor who benefits, but also his/her students. This study should serve as one component of an on-going research stream to additional insights into maximizing the effectiveness of utilizing simulation exercises.

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CHINA: AN EMERGING ECONOMIC POWERHOUSE IN THE GLOBAL ECONOMY

Sid Konell, University of Wisconsin – Barron County

January 1–13, 2007

Shanghai, Hangzhou, Guangzhou, and Hong Kong

A Faculty Development Program Sponsored by U.S. Department of Education

Centers for International Business Education and Research (CIBERs) at
University of Colorado at Denver and Health Sciences Center
and
University of Southern California

In collaboration with CIBERs at

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Michigan State University
Texas A&M University
The Ohio State University
University of Connecticut
University of Hawaii at Manoa
University of Kansas
University of Maryland
University of Memphis
University of Pittsburgh
University of South Carolina
University of Wisconsin at Madison

January 1, 2007 (Monday)

Participants will arrive in Shanghai on or before January 1, 2007

Hotel Check in: Le Royal Meridien Shanghai
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Phone: +86.21.3318.9999
Fax: +86.21.6361.3388
Website: www.starwoodhotels.com/lemeridien/property/overview/index.html?propertyID=1945

January 2, 2007 (Tuesday)

9:00 A.M.	Introduction and Program Orientation <i>Meet at the Le Bistrot restaurant at the hotel</i> Chen, Ji University of Colorado at Denver and Health Sciences Center
10:00 A.M.	Shanghai Urban Planning Museum Shanghai Museum
P.M.	Free to explore Shanghai
Evening	Welcome Dinner (COSCO revolving restaurant)

January 3, 2007 (Wednesday)

A.M. Briefing from U.S. Foreign Commercial Service
Mr. Yu-Chien Chen
Senior Commercial Specialist
American Consulate General in Shanghai
E-Mail: Yuchen@mail.doc.gov

Mr. Mark Edmund Schaub
Barrister and Solicitor
King & Wood
E-Mail: schaub@kingandwood.com

P.M. Visit Old Shanghai City (Yuyuan)

Evening Dinner on your own

January 4, 2007 (Thursday)

A.M. School of Economics and Management, Tongji University
Dr. Wu Sizong
General Director and Chairman of School Council
School of Economics and Management, Tongji University
E-Mail: wsz001@263.net

P.M. Baosteel Company visit

Evening Group dinner at "Red Baby Chicken" Restaurant

January 5, 2007 (Friday)

A.M. Harvest Fund Management Co. Ltd.
Ms. Chen Wenhong
General Manager of Shanghai Region
E-Mail: chenwh@harvestasset.com

Bus tour to Pudong new district

Noon Lunch at Great Brand Mall

P.M. Shanghai Grand Tower Steel Structure Co, Ltd.
Mr. He Mingxuan
Vice President and Chief Engineer
E-Mail: Mingxuan.he@grandtower.com

Travel to Hangzhou via bus transfer

Evening Group Dinner in famous Hangzhou restaurant

Hotel Check in: Sofitel Westlake Hangzhou
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Website: http://www.sofitel.com/sofitel/fichehotel/gb/sof/5554/fiche_hotel.shtml

January 6, 2007 (Saturday)

A.M. Bus Transfer to Yiwu
Yiwu Small Commodity Market

Evening Explore Hangzhou and dinner on your own

January 7, 2007 (Sunday)

A.M. Bus transfer to Yuyao
Visit Ningbo General Bearings /UBC Bearing Company
Mr. Rong Weijun
President of the Board and General Manager
Ningbo Gengda Group Co., Ltd.
E-Mail: rong@ngtb.cn

Mr. Domingo Penaloza
Chairman and President
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P.M. Fly from Hangzhou to Guangzhou
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E-Mail: swan@whiteswanhotel.com
Website: www.white-swan-hotel.com

Evening Group dinner in a seafood restaurant

January 8, 2007 (Monday)

A.M. School of Business, Sun Yat-Sen University
Dr. Fu, Zheng Ping
Associate Dean, Professor of Economics
E-Mail: mnsfzp@mail.sysu.edu.cn

Tour of Campus and Library

Noon	Working lunch in Sun Yat-sen University	Evening	Dinner on your own
P.M.	Tour of Guangzhou University City Chen Family Museum	January 11, 2007 (Thursday)	
Evening	Explore Guangzhou and dinner on your own	A.M.	InvestHK Mr. Simon Galpin Associate Director – General E-Mail: sgalpin@InvestHK.gov.hk
January 9, 2007 (Tuesday)		Noon	Group lunch at Hong Kong Vocational Training Center
A.M.	Midea Group Shunde District Government	P.M.	Hong Kong Stock Exchange Ms. Bonnie Chan Vice President Investment Services Corporate Communications Department Hong Kong Exchanges and Clearing Limited E-Mail: bonniechan@hkex.com.hk
Noon	Group Lunch in Sun Feng Restaurant in Shunde		
P.M.	Pearl River Piano Group Mr. Tong, Zhi Cheng Chairman of the Board Pearl River Piano Group Ltd.		
January 10, 2007 (Wednesday)		Evening	Dinner on your own
A.M.	Wanli Tire of Guangzhou South China Rubber Company	January 12, 2007 (Friday)	
	Transfer to Shenzhen via bus	A.M.	Hong Kong University of Science and Technology Dr. K.C. Chan Dean
Noon	Lunch ordered from KFC in Dongguan City	Noon	Group dinner at faculty lounge of HKUST Program Evaluation
2:00 P.M.	Yantian International Container Terminals Ltd. Alan Y P Au Assistant General Manager Port Marketing and Solution Department E-Mail: Au.alan@pms.hit.com.hk	P.M.	Explore Hong Kong by yourself
5:00 P.M.	Bus cross the border to Hong Kong, Special Administration Region (SAR)	Evening	Farewell Banquet at China Club Program Adjournment
Hotel Check in: City Garden Hotel 9 City Garden Road, North Point Hong Kong Phone: + 852.2887.2888 Fax: + 852.2887.1111 Website: www.citygarden.com.hk		January 13, 2007 (Saturday) Check out of hotel Depart Hong Kong to the U.S.	

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TEACHING ONLINE: 10 LESSONS LEARNED FROM THE TRENCHES

Michelle B. Kunz, Morehead State University

Teaching an online course presents both opportunities and challenges. These ten tips come from more than five years of teaching courses online, and more than ten years teaching distance learning courses, using online course support for web assisted, web enhanced, and hybrid courses. Even then, taking a class to the online only environment can be daunting. So let me share a little of what I've learned, and my recommendations to everyone teaching courses online.

1. Planning

Planning is essential. In spite of all the years' of experience one can bring to the classroom, using "fillers" when in a pinch for time to fully develop a lesson or class activity, when you move your course totally online – you need to plan far, far in advance. I think the first time you're going to teach, you should begin building that course a full semester in advance of when you plan to actually offer the course. More time would be even better, but probably not very realistic. Be prepared to get inquiries about your textbook, syllabus, projects, expectations, etc. before the pre-registration process for that term the course will be offered. I usually use mid-term as my guide to have my syllabus prepped, and this means I've selected my text, and have pretty much outlined what the projects, assessments, and schedule will be. If at all possible, post your syllabus online in an open environment for students to "browse." If that's not possible, be ready to send an email reply with attachment as soon as you receive inquiries. Many online students, especially graduate students, but undergraduates as well, are "shopping" other institutions for elective courses that will transfer to their home university for fulfill requirements and graduate early, or on schedule. Thus, I'll have inquiries from "visiting" students who need a copy of the syllabus to get prior approval that the course will transfer for the credit they need. Begin posting your course materials, perhaps basic at first, by mid-term, and then "flesh the course out" as the remaining of the semester progresses. This way, you'll have time to think about the course design, layout, etc. Begin with the basic materials you already use, then see what of your "traditional" course materials might need to be adapted. Don't think that you have to wipe the slate clean, and start from scratch. However, realize that

it really will be a building process. After three or four offerings of a course, I feel like I've gotten lined up pretty well, and that hopefully it won't need major changes. However, the online environment will by default mean that the course must be continually updated to remain current and fresh.

2. Develop a Standardized Backup Plan

Post this on your course site, and in the syllabus. Indicate what procedure students should use in the case the course platform/system fails, an unannounced downtime/maintenance occurs, etc. My standard plan is to email the documents as an attachment to my Yahoo email address. This is also a standard "backup" I use: an alternative email, other than my university account. I can keep ALL the emails, along with attachments there until the end of the term, and attachment size is not as limited as my university account. However – I have colleagues who feel it is unprofessional NOT to use the university email – so this may be personal preference, or might be dictated by university policy. You may also want to investigate backup support sites available in addition to the university server. Many if not all of the publishers have study guides, quizzes, support materials, and activity links to accompany texts. I personally prefer to "pick and choose" what pre-published materials I use. I usually do NOT choose to use a course cartridge supplied by the publisher for Blackboard (they are available for WebCT too) simply because I find it more work to remove or turn off the parts of the course content that I don't want to use. However, other faculty have found the cartridge system very helpful, especially early in their course development process.

3. Use the "Kitchen Sink" Approach

In other words, when you begin posting materials on your course site, post everything you think might possibly help students understand you, your teaching style, your expectations, as well as full and complete information for assignments. I post my teaching philosophy, my perspective on team assignments, why and what I expect from students on group/team assignments. I post information on how the course will progress, regular weekly sched-

ule/due dates/times, standard procedures for submitting materials, posting to the discussion board, courtesy and professionalism, etc. Write out all project descriptions in detail. Be sure to post the due date. Also, post all of this important information in multiple locations, or post info about WHERE the particular item is, in multiple locations. I have discovered, students don't seem to look where I would logically expect them to, and in particular – they RARELY read specific details that I post in the announcement section of the course – which is where I would expect them to read/look first! So I always try to remember to post in the announcements, WHERE, something is posted.

4. Develop a FAQ (Frequently Asked Questions) Document

I call mine Dr. K's Tip Sheet. I might actually want to rethink that – and call it a FAQ document. This document gives basic guidelines for the course, netiquette expectations (I'm finding I have to caution students NOT to use text message shorthand), pet peeves, etc. I have found that in spite of all of this, most students won't actually read this document, UNLESS, I do something sneaky – like give them a quiz on it! Establish a standardized format for naming files that they will submit to you. ALMOST without fail, they won't use their name in the file, nor will they type their name inside the document, unless you require it up front. I also ask that they use page numbers and a running header or footer to help identify electronic documents. I discovered a few years ago that my printer was actually “dropping” pages in my file printouts, and the only way I found out was when I was actually comparing the printed version of a file with the electronic file. Having them include page numbers also helps them track if their paper/assignment is getting close to meeting my length requirements for many assignments.

5. Do NOT Lower Expectations

I am very adamant about this. I post this statement in my course requirements, classroom expectations, and just about anywhere I can. I explicitly state that this is NOT an electronic correspondence course. I have the same requirements and rigor in an online course as a face-to-face class. In fact, it's probably more rigorous, since the students don't have a required class meeting, and my “fly arm movements” to express how important getting their work done on time, or reading the assignment is. Rather, the student has to take the personal responsibility, and have the self-discipline to do these things on their own time/schedule. It takes personal fortitude to do all this, especially for undergraduate students.

6. Be Vigilant for Plagiarism and Academic Dishonesty

If it is available to you, avail yourself of a service such as Turnitin.com. I used to submit my students' work myself, and then send them a copy of the report that was generated. Lately, I've set the system so that students submit their work themselves. After they realized it generated a report, I had to explain what that report meant. I subsequently set up a “free submission” for them to “pre-test” their papers, and determine if they have appropriately cited their material. I also give a portion of the assignment grade, based upon the report. Primarily, this helps the students understand how to correctly cite materials, NOT necessarily preventing dishonesty, but rather showing them how and why appropriate/correct citation of reference materials is imperative. Discourage test cheating. There are several ways to do this, depending upon the course platform. Basic things such as randomizing the question sequence, randomly selecting questions from a pool, so you're not using the same questions every time you offer the course, as well as setting a timer/time limit for taking the course, setting the system to post one question per screen, and entering a “no print” command all will help discourage cheating. Be realistic, you can't totally prevent all cheating. However, by designing your assignments with unique requirements, you make it more difficult for students to “buy a paper” or reuse one from previous classes. Give exams that require application of course materials, or higher-order thinking. Essay, short answers, or even “take-home” formats will also discourage students who think it will be easy to cheat. Be upfront with the students about your due diligence regarding academic dishonesty. Post a definition of plagiarism and/or academic dishonesty in your syllabus. Also post what the penalty/consequences for such actions. Mine is full and complete failure of the course. Be prepared to stand by that position. You must also be sure that you are in compliance with university requirements and procedures. Finally, don't think that the online course is any different than the traditional course when it comes to “beating the system.” On our campus, instructor manuals and test banks are readily available across campus. As such, this makes me begin to rethink the use of publisher-supplied/generated materials for my classes. At the very least, I will probably look to a different test bank, rather than using the one that comes with my textbook!

7. Set Aside Time for the Online Class, Equal to “Meeting Class Times”

Plan this based upon your schedule. The first time or two you teach any class online, it will be very labor intensive. Then, it will probably become easier, and you'll be more

efficient with many of the tasks. Any time I teach a course for the first time, it means I have to devote extra time for preparation, grading, and development, just as I would for a new face-to-face class. I still prefer to grade papers from the printed copy, rather than on screen, via the electronic versions. It seems that I can do it faster this way, but it is really a matter of personal preference. Plan due dates for assignments and the overall semester schedule to fit with your other obligations such as conference attendance, heavy committee load (tenure or promotion portfolios), etc. Give yourself the necessary block of time to devote to grading assignments. I find that students in the online environment really do expect more “instant gratification” than even in the traditional classroom. Therefore, prompt grading, posting and return of assignments and other papers is critical. I generally expect that I’ll grade assignments, post and return within one week, or the next “regular” time I’m online for the course. Thus, I may spend my entire weekend working to get them done, but my students are always very appreciative of getting their work back promptly. Set up a standard response time to answer email and inquiries from students. For me, I tell them I’ll reply within 24 hours. If they don’t hear from me by then – resend email. I know that many professors set timelines to perhaps two hours to reply, even including the weekend. Others, don’t check their university email over the weekend at all. Whatever works for you – or is established by your university, FOLLOW IT. I do try to check email several times during the day, but there are some days when you’re just not able to give a question your full attention. If that is the case for me – I send a quick reply, that I’ve received the inquiry, but just can’t devote my attention until. . . . And then tell them when I’ll officially give them an answer. The 24-hour rule applies to this, UNLESS I’m traveling. I let my classes know when I’m on the road, and if I know I’ll be checking email, or if it’s uncertain. I do think that in many instances, students will expect you to be at “their beckon call” 24 hours a day, and that’s unrealistic. I deserve some down time for myself – and I let them know it! Finally – I set up a discussion board item that is an “off assignment” forum. It’s usually titled something like the “Water Cooler.” I tell them this is a place to post interesting thoughts, news items, or questions that others in the class may be able to answer. I also try to have my teaching assistant (assuming I have one) monitor this forum. If there are lots of questions about a similar aspect of an assignment – I know my guidelines in the assignment aren’t clear or sufficient, and then I go in and address this on the system. Finally, be flexible. If there are system/platform problems, it may behoove you to delay or postpone a due date. If my schedule changes, and it often does mid-term, I’ll postpone a due date by a couple of days. I also tell the students WHY I’m delaying the assignment: that I won’t have the time available to grade the project, and therefore, I see no need for it to just sit and

wait for me to get to it; I’d rather they have the extra few days to polish the paper to be its best. However, take this “flexible” attitude with caution. Don’t let lack of planning on the part of individual students allow you to delay assignments on a regular basis. I do however, make allowances for personal/family emergencies, as with all my courses.

8. SAVE! SAVE! SAVE!

Keep a backup copy of EVERY document you post, in Word, Excel, PowerPoint, etc. Backup your backup!! I refer to old class offerings when I teach the course a year or two later. What worked, what didn’t work, how I designed a project, or the grading rubric that I used. I download and save all student documents submitted. My Yahoo email lets me keep these all semester, and several times I’ve had to refer to the original document sent to me when a student disputes a grade/ or content evaluation. I also remind students to keep a backup of everything they submit. The old, my disk crashed excuse doesn’t cut it with me. Archive and/or Export your course at the end of the term, and burn it to CD-Rom. You have it to “reload” back to the server at a later date, and you have a backup of everything should a grade dispute arise.

9. Be a Real Person

Post an introduction about YOU, not just what you teach; what you like, dislike, favorite movies, TV shows, activities, etc. I tell my students where I grew up, how many pets I have, etc. Be present in your class discussion. This is a fine line to walk – between being too visible – “hovering over everything” and being invisible. However, undergraduate classes may need more “visible presence” than graduate classes, but each and every individual class has its own “personality” just like the face-to-face classes do. If the students interact with each other, you can “lurk” more and participate less visibly, but if they don’t – you may need to be more actively involved. Provide students tools for success. I post PowerPoint slides for the chapters – as these serve as a good outline. Some students use them, others don’t, but that’s the same as my traditional classes. I try to post chapter summaries – or at least an outline of what I perceive to be the MOST important points of the chapter, along with links to the textbook support sites. Post debate-types of questions on the discussion board, NOT just definitions or yes/no types of questions. Ask them to give a personal example, etc. applying an aspect of the chapter for the discussion board. I ask my student to post a response to my question/post, as well as two comments to classmates that have “substance” not just “fluff” responses. Also – find out how your students are connecting to get to the course. I usually still have one or two students in a class of about 20 that have dial-up internet

access – and therefore if I have a large file for them to download – I let them know it’s big.

10. The Virtual Environment

Have office hours posted – even if your office hours are just email. I don’t like the “virtual classroom, chat” tool, as it is time/place bound, and I think that defeats the purpose of asynchronous learning. However, I will readily admit that students often enjoy “chatting” in the virtual chat room – as they find it is less formal than email. Virtual discussion and interaction will help build a sense of community and belonging. But – you **MUST** consider different time zones that you may encounter, especially if you have students in other countries – a couple times I have individuals on the other side of the international date

line!! Be vigilant about copyright requirements. Rather than posting full “copied” documents, why not post links to the source online at its origin? Help students understand this concept by setting a good example. Learn to grade papers online and electronically. It’s environmentally friendly and responsible. However – I still find it difficult, and when pressed for time, rely on hardcopy papers first. If you insert comments in the document you can set it to “track changes” or type your comments in different font/color so students can easily see what you insert. However – it’s often difficult to determine if they really read the returned document. Sometime, I just list the page, paragraph, line number and then comment on the information presented there in my Excel rubric that I use to evaluate the assignment.

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CREATING EXPECTATIONS: THE KEY TO SUCCESSFUL ONLINE TEACHING

Rama Yelkur, University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire

Teaching online has its learning curve for both instructors and students. I have taught online courses both undergraduate and graduate for the past seven years and it has been quite a journey! Not only does it take advance preparation, new challenges seem to surface every time you teach a course. One of the keys to success in online teaching is creating expectations for your students, if this is established upfront and throughout the course, it makes a big difference in the smooth running of the course. Below are a few policies regarding expectations that I highly recommend be included in an online course.

Student Expectations

It is extremely important to create very clear student expectations. Even though online teaching and learning have been around for many years now, many students continue to perceive online courses as “correspondence” courses. In my courses, I have a document titled “The Online Playing Field: The Yelkur Doctrine,” that includes the following:

- ◆ On-Campus vs. Online classes: Myth vs. Reality
- ◆ How often should you be in the course?
- ◆ Web-Based Platform requirements for Communication
 - Computer Requirements
 - Internet access
 - An email account
 - A D2L (web-based platform) account
 - Microsoft Word for all submissions
- ◆ Technology
 - Establish a reliable Internet connection (dial-up connections may not be reliable).

- Have a back up plan, such as using the Internet at a public library or on campus.
- When you post discussions, compose in Microsoft Word and then copy and paste the material into your discussion message. That way if your browser crashes, you can just open it up again and re-paste the message.
- Don't wait until the last minute to post your work--the technology gods almost never smile on students who do this, and their computers almost always crash.

◆ Due Dates

◆ Discussions and Group Work

- The dates and times of your posting are an indication of the amount of time and consideration you have given your classmate's contributions.
- Submit all discussion postings and assignments on time.
- Group discussion assignment grades will be unique to each individual,

◆ Your Professor's Response Time

◆ Communications

- Communicate with me and your classmates in a way that is professional, respectful, and consistent with standard English grammar and usage. Avoid chat slang and acronyms used in chat rooms, instant messaging, and email.
- One of the keys to your success in any course is the interaction you have with the instructor and with other students.

In addition to this, students are sent a “Student Code of Conduct and Expectations” that they read and sign of on before the start of the course.

◆ Faculty Expectations

As a faculty member teaching the online course, I sign off on a faculty code of conduct and what students can expect from me. This document includes the following:

- ◆ Post a welcome to students that
 - engages them
 - provides them with a sense of direction (is the calendar their “focal point” in the class? Should they check the news area daily?)
 - gets them started in the class
- ◆ Post an entry in the news area a minimum of twice weekly; these can vary from directing students to a location within the course, citing some recent event that ties to the course content, reminding students of a deadline, announcing grade postings (or the reason they are delayed), commenting on the weather giving them a sense of instructor presence.
- ◆ Visit the Ask the Professor/Raise Your Hand section of the course and check for questions daily
- ◆ During the M-F workweek, respond to questions in Ask the Professor or in email within 24 hours
- ◆ Explicit weekend policy (varies from instructor to instructor)
- ◆ On average, return graded assignments to students within one week after submission
- ◆ Publish exceptions to the norm as soon as the professor is aware of them

- ◆ Provide insight into grades
 - A letter grade or % is not sufficient, nor is a “good job” type comment
 - Some overall comment to the class is appropriate (not necessarily on every assignment)
- ◆ Provide a legitimate means for students to interact through such things as
 - True discussion, not just 30 identical short answers
 - Opportunities to describe, compare and contrast and comment on each other’s work and personal experiences as they relate to the course material
 - Evaluations or comments on each others entries
 - Group projects
- ◆ Completion of the class
 - Complete grading within a week after the class final submissions are due
 - Contact the program coordinator if a student is receiving an incomplete so the class can remain available
 - Submit grades to the contact persons at each of the partner schools
 - Notify the coordinator or director if a student is receiving a less than satisfactory grade and provide some rationale
 - Follow UW System policy with regard to student academic misconduct and notify Program Management of any incidents of misconduct that occur.

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CYBER CHEATING: HOW RAMPANT IT HAS BECOME AND WHAT WE CAN DO TO STOP IT

Janie R. Gregg, University of West Alabama
Wayne Bedford, University of West Alabama
M. Suzanne Clinton, University of Central Oklahoma

Technology has led to creative new ways in which students from kindergarten through college can enhance their cheating abilities. Any child who has a cell phone, PDA, or I-Pod, and knows how it works, can use any of these devices as savvy means to enhance cheating.

In this session, we will discuss why students feel it is so very necessary to cheat to get ahead of other students in today's competitive environment. We will look at how creative the cheating process has become with the use of

several technological devices that all students seem to carry. We will also offer ways in which professors can use some of their own technology, new and not-so-new, to combat the problem.

This session should be of interest to professors in all disciplines, and we will encourage a dialogue between the participants in the session. All of us have encountered special problems with cyber cheating and learning from each other is critical.

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GENERATING CLASS PARTICIPATION AND ENGAGING STUDENTS

Larry Zigler, Highland Community College

Class Participation

- ◆ All students should make a contribution to the class.
- ◆ Actively participating in class and group discussion.
- ◆ Keep abreast of current topics that pertain to the class that you are teaching.
- ◆ Using a point's basis when it comes to grading.
- ◆ Writing a one paragraph summary of the previous day's lecture.
- ◆ Measuring a student's performance based on attendance.
- ◆ How many times they answer a question in class.
- ◆ Turning in class assignments on time.
- ◆ Being prompt and on time for class.
- ◆ Put students in groups depending on the subject matter.
- ◆ Bring in articles that pertain to the subject matter being discussed.

Engaging Students

- ◆ Reward and repeat (words such as good, that's correct).

- ◆ Randomly select to students to answer previous days lecture material.
- ◆ Talk about other events to break the boredom of the subject matter you are discussing.
- ◆ Learn the first name of each student depending on the class size.
- ◆ Give students ample time to answer a question.
- ◆ Have an open mind and don't be judgmental.
- ◆ Learn something about the students likes and dislikes.
- ◆ Speak to them outside of class.
- ◆ Praise them in class.
- ◆ Ask them how they learn certain materials that are presented in class.
- ◆ Let them know that you may ask them for help on occasion if you become brain dead.
- ◆ Make the material you present challenging to them and look at their non-verbal cues.
- ◆ Tone of voice makes students feel more at ease in the classroom.

These are some of the ideas from the topic areas listed above. I will have more thought and ideas at the Fall conference.

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TEACHING WITH THE CASE METHOD: BEYOND KNOWLEDGE AND COMPREHENSION

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Michael N. Razzouk, California State University

ABSTRACT

“Analysis,” the core of graduate business education, is probably one of the least understood and most misrepresented learning activities. Many people seem to claim that they know it, yet most seem unable to actually define it or practice it. This paper reviews Bloom’s taxonomy of learning objectives with a special focus on “analysis.” More specifically, the paper seeks to present a more profound perspective of “analysis” and “synthesis” as taught and learned in a typical business course that utilizes case studies to enhance the learning process. The authors take more of an epidemiological perspective to case analysis which goes beyond the mere rehash of case facts to developing a clear understanding of all communication elements in the case and the relationship between the elements for the purpose of synthesizing a new picture that was not obvious before. This paper presents a useful framework for analyzing business cases and recommending and implementing viable strategic options.

INTRODUCTION

One of the most common words in business is “Analysis.” It is no surprise then to see the word creep into every area of business education. Courses, textbooks, chapters, journal titles, and published literature present analysis as an important staple of every area of business decision making. Marketing, Management, and other business strategy courses utilize case studies to simulate actual business experiences and give students an opportunity to apply knowledge and practice decision making. In real life, as it should be in the classroom, analysis is a crucial component of effective decision making. It could be said that analysis is the core of business education. Whether it is in Marketing, Finance, Personnel, General Management, Information Technology, or any other area, students are trained to analyze the situation first, understand the issues, identify the alternatives and then select and implement the best options applicable. As Hill and Jones (1998) confirm, the effectiveness of the whole process

depends on the person’s ability to effectively and thoroughly analyze the situation (Hill and Jones 1998, p. C6). We should hasten to note however that effective analysis does not in and of itself guarantee good strategic decisions.

Despite its noted significance, analysis itself receives very little attention from modern academia. A general survey of business textbooks of all various disciplines (Marketing, Management, Finance, and Information Management) failed to produce a single appropriate definition of “analysis.” Where the term “analysis” is presented or discussed, it is typically described rather than defined in such terms as “assessing,” “identifying,” “examining,” or “evaluating.” Many of these text books ask students to begin by identifying issues or by completing a brief company overview followed by a SWOT analysis. These approaches generally lead students to focus on the symptoms instead of the true problems and yet authors describe this process as “analysis” instead of what it truly is, rehash. Overall, it seems that either the authors of the textbooks assume students are already familiar with the concept of analysis or the authors do not feel elaborating on analysis is worth much ink. So what is analysis? And how best could analysis be taught or learned in business education?

THE NATURE OF ANALYSIS

One of the most useful discourses on analysis remains that of Benjamin Bloom, who in 1956 – presented it in the context of the hierarchy of learning objectives. Concerned about the changes produced in individuals as a result of educational experiences, Bloom (1956) developed a taxonomy comprised of six major levels of learning: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Knowledge

Knowledge as defined by Bloom involves the recall of specifics and universals, facts and observations, patterns,

structure, or setting. It is the most basic level of learning that involves primarily the psychological processes of remembering and does not require further intellectual abilities or skills.

Comprehension

Comprehension represents the lowest level of understanding. It connotes the learner's ability to make use of the material being communicated without necessarily relating it to other material or even understanding its full implications. At its best, comprehension requires the skill of interpretation which involves recognizing the essentials and differentiating them from the less essential portions or from the relatively irrelevant aspects of the communications. This process requires some capability for abstracting generalizations from a set of particulars as well as for weighing and assessing the relative emphasis to be given the different elements in the communication. In these respects, interpretation becomes synonymous with analysis and has characteristics in common with evaluation. One can argue that any significant learning through case studies requires the student to develop a much higher level of comprehension than the mere understanding of words and their meanings. The student must be able to distinguish between what is relevant and what is not in the context of a particular decision-making situation.

The third class in the hierarchy is Application – the use of abstractions in particular and concrete situations without having to be prompted as to which abstraction is correct or without having to be shown how to use it in that situation. In Comprehension the emphasis is on the grasp of the meaning and intent of the material. In Application it is on remembering and bringing to bear upon given material the appropriate generalizations or principles. It could be argued that the underlying learning premise from case studies is the application of learned cognitions and relationships to specific decision-making situations. Thus, the company and the decision situation become the theatre in which strategies, plans, and tactics are tried or tested. The fact that one may never be able to find exactly how those proposed strategies, plans, and tactics will fare in that situation, this remains the major caveat of case study learning. On the other hand, this pseudo-applied perspective remains one of the next-best approaches to learning by trial and error in a true decision making role.

Analysis

Analysis, the focus of this paper, emphasizes the breakdown of the communicated material into its constituent parts and detection of the relationships of the parts and of the way they are organized (Bloom 1956, p. 144). To achieve its intended objective in the learning process,

Analysis must help the learner achieve the following three tasks:

1. Break the whole communication down into its constituent elements.
2. Examine relationships of the elements to each other or elements to the main idea (thesis). The purpose of this step is to determine the connections and interactions between the various parts.
3. Analyze the structure and organization (e.g., asking what is the form, pattern, or structure used?) and identify the purpose of the message. Recognize the organizational principles, arrangements and structure which hold the communication together.

Athanassiou and McNett (2003) utilize Bloom's taxonomy as a learning tool in business management classes. However, they only mention the first task of analysis in their brief overview of Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives (Athanassiou and McNett 2003, p. 536). While the first task of analysis is important, the other two tasks are critical in effectively and adequately applying the next parts of Bloom's taxonomy.

The last two classes of the taxonomy are Synthesis and Evaluation. Synthesis pertains to bringing together all the elements and parts of the case study material to form a new whole. This process involves arranging or re-arranging of the pieces into a new mosaic that was not present before. It requires well developed written and oral communication skills as well as organization capabilities.

At the top of the hierarchy is Evaluation. This process involves the learner making judgments about the value of the information in the case, or processes and methods cited in the case, utilizing specific criteria or established standards. The criteria or standards may be determined by the learner or could be provided by the originator of the case study.

APPLYING THE MODEL TO CASE ANALYSIS

A case study, as often written in a business text book, is a historic account of a decision situation as seen through the eyes of the writer. More often than not, the writers of the cases are second hand observers or researchers of the reported scenario. While text book cases may not be ideal, there is good reason for their utilization. It is generally not feasible to have students assigned to real life companies where they could learn by both trial and error or by observing others make decisions. Additionally documented, real-life decision situations are more efficient venues for teaching business decision making than mere-book learning from typical academic prose.

Harrison and St. John (2008) assert that “case analysis, to some extent, mirrors the processes managers use to make real strategic decisions. The main advantages managers have over students who analyze cases are that they have more information and more experience.” Nevertheless, both must learn to make decisions without full information (Harrison and St. John 2008, p. 179).

Case analysis also helps students become familiar with the dynamics of team work. Hill and Jones (1998) argue that the case method of learning aids students in the group process. It helps them learn scheduling, work allocation and responsibility (Hill and Jones 1998, p. C3). Fred David (2003) notes, “In the business world, important decisions are generally made within groups; strategic management students learn to deal with overly aggressive group members and also timid, noncontributing group member” (David 2003, p. 36). Case analysis provides this unique level of interaction with other people which is absent in most teaching/learning methods.

Some of us who utilize the case method of learning/teaching in our classroom often experience the frustration of having student groups turn in lengthy reports or make case presentations that are replete with recitation of case facts but are void of analysis beyond what is obvious. Another major weakness often cited-observed is the attempt on behalf of the students to mix description and prescription together without much of an attempt to diagnose, examine, or evaluate the elements of the case or the relationships between the various elements. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to provide a framework for teaching a marketing strategy course utilizing the case method.

Analysis of Case Elements

Case reports are often composed of a large number of elements. Some of the elements are explicitly presented as in history and background information about the case, the names and roles of the major players, the decision situation facing the decision maker, past and current strategies, performance data – financial, sales, etc., information on competition, industry, customers, and other such explicitly presented communication. These rather conspicuous components are easily recognized and classified by the students as to their true nature: information about customers, competitors, the market, company performance, past strategies, and so forth. Often in his or her case analysis, the student can note with ease the type of corporate culture the company manifests, as well as develop a fair picture of the decision situation by rehashing such case information as who the customers are, where they are, and what they seem to want or not want.

There are many elements in the case report that are not so clearly labeled or identified by the case writer. In their marketing management textbook, Dalrymple and Parsons (2000) emphasize to students that sometimes the most important facts in a case are buried in a chance remark or a seemingly minor statistical exhibit (Dalrymple and Parsons 2000, p. 24). Many of these elements may be of great significance to the process of identifying the case’s strategic issues along with the best solutions to those issues. Kerin and Peterson (2001) emphasize that students need to distinguish between supposition and fact (Kerin and Peterson 2001, p. 58). Suppositions treated as facts can cause confusion and lead to issues which are ignored. Unless the student is able to detect, comprehend, examine, and evaluate these elements, he or she may never be able to articulate a plan or strategy that could actually achieve the managerial objectives implicated in the case.

A notable element that is often ignored by students is that of the people within the case. People determine the philosophy of the corporation. For instance, students are quick to prescribe investing heavily in R&D to try and produce a better quality product instead of addressing the real issue that the people in charge have a strong finance orientation that impacts the overall corporate philosophy away from investing in a strong R&D effort. In the end, it is people who make the final decisions about implementation strategies and so it is crucial to analyze the human element of the cases.

In a typical case study, the analysis of the elements involves having the student achieve the following cognitive and behavioral objectives:

1. The ability to develop a short Historical Perspective of the case, the company and the decision situation.
 - a. Short history of the company.
 - b. Corporate culture: Mission, super-ordinate goal, communication networks, rites and rituals, distinctive competencies, and organizational dynamics.
 - c. Corporate business model
2. The ability to perform an external situation assessment:
 - a. Customer Analysis: Segments profile, motivation, unmet needs.
 - b. Competitor Analysis: Profiles, strategic groups, performance, strengths, weaknesses, and distinctive competencies.

- c. Market Analysis: size, projected growth, profitability, entry barriers, cost structure, trends, Past and Current, Key Success Factors, and driving forces in the industry.
 - d. Environmental Analysis: Legal, Economic, Technological, Socio-Cultural, and Demographic.
3. The ability to perform an internal Situation Assessment:
 - a. Performance Analysis: Profitability, sales, customer satisfaction, marketing mix assessment, employee capabilities, and skills, etc.
 - b. Determinants of strategic options: Past and current strategies, resource analysis, strengths and weaknesses.
 4. TOWS Summary of threats, opportunities, strengths and weaknesses.

It should be noted that the authors digress from the usual SWOT analysis in which strengths and weaknesses are examined first, and instead introduce the TOWS approach where the external environment takes precedence. This approach is applied because strengths and weaknesses should be examined relative to the opportunities and threats a company faces. The strengths and weaknesses should show how a company can overcome a threat or capitalize on an opportunity.

It is fair to surmise that a useful textbook case report may have a number of unstated or implicit assumptions, elements, or relationships which can only be inferred from an analysis of both explicit and implicit case information to achieve the desired results from the exercise. Some of these elements are statements of facts, others may be statements of values and others may be statements of personal values or organizational norms and intent. As in the case of a medical exam, more complex analysis may be necessary to identify all the elements in the case and to assess the relationship between the various elements.

Completing this level of analysis involves an understanding of managerial decision making as well as the comprehension of the data and other information presented in the case. For the most part, the outcome of this level of analysis is descriptive with some minor deductive reasoning relative to the decisions to be made in the case.

ANALYSIS OF RELATIONSHIPS

Having identified the elements in the case, the student or decision maker still has the task of determining the

relationships among the various elements as well as the relationships among the various parts of the case. The basic task of analysis at this level is that of identifying the strategic issues facing the organization, and the strategic options available for dealing with the strategic issues. At this level of analysis, the main question for the students to answer is: "so what?" The question should be asked relative to each key fact or element in the case, as well as combinations of elements that could be significant. For example, a student could ask: So what if the consumer tastes have been shifting and the company does not have any new products in the pipeline? So what if competitors have excess capacity and the company decides to increase its prices? So what if the market is demanding energy-efficient products; and the company does not have any in its product line?

Answering the "so what?" question demands more than the comprehension of the information in the case, and more than the mere description of the various elements identified in the case. Much of the analysis of relationships may deal with the consistency among the elements, and the relevance of the elements or key facts to the strategic issue or issues that must be addressed in the case. Strategic issues are best stated in the form of a question. For example: how can a company increase its profit if it is forced to match the prices of competition? How can a company maintain quality customer service with declining supply of qualified labor? Or, how can a company meet the challenge of developing new energy efficient vehicles with nonexistent cash reserves. All of these stated issues represent relationships between two or more elements of analysis in the case. There may be a relationship between a consumer trend and an insufficient resource, between an environmental threat and a relative weakness of some sort, or between an emerging key success factor and a major strength or weakness. This level of analysis demands a lot more than mere description, and involves the use of diagnostic tests or implements.

Like most health care professionals, business strategists and decision makers must consistently perform their duties under conditions of uncertainty, and therefore they have to weigh various probabilities and possible courses of action before making crucial decisions. Many of these decisions are not straightforward because neither medicine nor business is an exact sciences. The factors that affect decision making have more than evidentiary value; such factors, including both social and psychological, may actually affect which decisions are put up for consideration as well as determine the ultimate form of the final decisions.

When a physician examines a patient and hears his or her complaint, the physician will then have to make a deci-

sion on what is wrong. The diagnosis is based on answers to questions asked of the patient and on tests that are performed. Even at this stage a physician has to weigh the risks inherent in a particular diagnostic procedure against the risks of following a treatment plan without the information that would result from performing the diagnostic procedure. In prescribing treatment, the physician also knows that the treatment for one illness may aggravate another illness. Furthermore, many factors must be taken into account, such as the patient's characteristics, ability to tolerate pain, allergies to certain medications, living conditions, and etc. Physicians and health care professionals develop judgment from three sources. First, during medical training, they study anatomy and physiology to understand the various parts of the human body and the "relationships" between these parts. Second, these developing professionals observe assessments made by people more experienced in their field. And third, health care professionals learn directly through trial and error – they diagnosis issues, prescribe a treatment, and observe the results. It is important to note, however, that there is a great deal of disagreement among health care experts regarding particular treatments or the use of certain drugs for the cure of some ailments.

As in the case of health care decisions, business professionals must understand the elements of a decision situation and the linkages between the various elements in order to make any useful diagnosis. As in medicine, diagnosing the main issues or problems to be addressed in a particular case requires the knowledge of the possible diagnostic tests, the relative costs and benefits of such tests, and the ability to interpret the results of those diagnostic tests. Because the root cause of a problem or issue could be difficult to identify, this level of analysis could require multiple tests of multiple elements and relationships. Some of these tests could be quantitative and objective. Others may involve the use of social and psychological metrics or criteria. It is crucial to keep in mind that issues can often be directly related to a certain action or lack of action from people within the case. These relationships should be identified so that the heart of the problem can be addressed and dealt with adequately. Whatever the case, the analysis of relationships requires going beyond the obvious. This is by far, the greatest caveat in case analysis reports or presentations by student groups. Often this section is a mere rehash of case facts and summary of case parts. Instead of repeating the fact that sales have been declining for the past five years, the students should be examining the trends to answer the question: Why have sales been declining for the past five years, and what can be done to arrest that decline or reverse it? Just as physicians distinguish symptoms from the disease itself, students should be able to identify core problems separately from their effects. Whenever data is available in the case, whether of

financials, market research findings or time series data from one source or another, every effort must be made to break this data into its relevant elements and use it to help answer the question: "so what?" Authors often flood cases with data and statistics that must then be examined and broken down to convert the data into information. As Dalrymple and Parsons (2000) state, "Rarely are the data supplied in the case in the form most appropriate to finding a solution," (Dalrymple and Parsons 2000, p. 24).

Analysis of Organizational Principles

The highest level of analysis is the task of analyzing the structure and organization of the case. Rarely would a case writer state up front the underlying managerial principles or assumptions underlying the decision making situation. Thus, the reader may be unable to develop any type of prescription or treatment plan for the organization until he/she fully comprehends the purpose, point of view, antecedent, or the specific decision to be made. The purpose of business education is to help learners develop a "sense of smell" as to what the real bottom line is in a particular case.

It is imperative that the students ~~understand~~ why the textbook included the case in the first place. Moreover, it is essential that they identify the true "antecedent" for the decision situation. In other words, why are consultants (students) called upon to participate in this decision situation? Why now and not a month, or a year ago? What has happened inside or outside the organization to require such attention? Understanding the antecedent of the decision situation assists the consultant/ or student to identify the psycho-social elements that may confound the decision situation and makes him or her aware of the expectations of management with respect to the prescribed treatment plan. Here again, the best way to grow this high-level analysis skill is by trial and error in a classroom setting.

Synthesis and Evaluation

Synthesis in learning is defined as the putting together of elements and parts so as to form a new whole. This is a process of working with elements and parts and combining them in such a way as to constitutes a pattern or structure not clearly there before (Bloom 1956, p. 206). This form of cognitive learning provides for creative behavior on the part of the learner. However, it should be noted that the student does not have a free reign with creative expression since generally he or she is expected to work within the limits set by specific problems, managerial principles, and methodological frameworks.

It should be noted that comprehension, application, and analysis also involve the combining of elements and the

construction of meanings. However, they tend to be more partial and less complete than synthesis. Moreover, in synthesis, the student must draw upon elements from many sources and put them together into a structure or pattern not clearly there before – something new. Thus synthesis, to some extent, may well require some or all of the previous categories.

In case analysis, synthesis is best captured in the selection of strategic options, and the presentation of a specific detailed implementation plan. While no two strategists or students of strategic management would weave the same mosaic of a plan or strategy, such plans or strategies selected must be bound by information gained or deduced from the case write-up and any other relevant source of information. Thus, a useful plan or strategy must be consistent with the noted corporate culture, the TOWS summary, and the strategic issues identified. Students must examine the determinants of strategic options before seeking to implement a plan of action. Students have been known to make recommendations that do not align with the current situation of the organization. One of the most frequently observed weaknesses in student case reports is that of a prescribed plan or strategy which seems to completely ignore what has been discussed in the analysis section. Hill and Jones (1998) asserts, “Recommendations should be in line with your analysis; that is, they should follow logically from the previous discussion” (Hill and Jones 1998, p. C6). Students should be questioned as to where their suggested options came from, along with how will the proposed plan address the identified strategic issues and assist with the managerial decisions at hand while keeping the determinants of strategic options in mind.

In general, a synthesis is faulty if it lacks “goodness of fit” with the requirements of the decision problem. Faulty synthesis may be the result of inadequate comprehension or inadequate analysis, or both. For instance, if the decisions to be made are misidentified, or if the antecedent is improperly identified, omitting important elements of the analysis such as the impact of the environment, or the resources of the company. Focusing on irrelevant elements or applying improper tests to the elements could easily result in a faulty strategy or a faulty implementation of that strategy. If the analysis component is done properly, the synthesis of the strategy and implementation plan would be sound and relevant.

Last but not least, is Evaluation defined as “the making of judgments about the value, for some purpose, of ideas, works, solutions, methods, material, etc. It involves the use of criteria as well as standards for appraising the extent to which particulars are accurate, effective, economical, or satisfying” (Bloom 1956, p. 207). Such judgments may be either quantitative or qualitative, and

the criteria could be those determined by the students or those which are given to them.

Evaluation is placed at the top of the learning hierarchy because it requires to some extent all the other categories of behavior, however it is important to note that evaluation will in some cases be the prelude to an acquisition of new knowledge, a new attempt at comprehension or application, or a new analysis and synthesis. In the context of a case analysis, the student who attempts to analyze financial or performance-based data may form a judgment about the accuracy of the data, the appropriateness of the data gathering methods or the design instrument, or even the fundamental assumptions of decisions made in the case. And although it is recognized that an individual is entitled to his/her own opinion as well as his/her own judgments about the value of specific information elements, one major purpose of business education and the use of the case method is to broaden the foundation on which judgments are made.

In the Strategic Market Management framework, students are called upon to use their judgment in evaluating the viability of strategic options under consideration, and also to develop an evaluation component that will be invoked as part of the implementation process to help assess the effectiveness or lack thereof of proposed strategies. Following are some factors that could be used in evaluating strategic options:

1. Cost/Benefit analysis: Do the financial benefits of the proposed strategy outweigh the financial costs?
2. Compatibility with the company’s mission and strategic goals? Does the pursuit of a given strategy protect other company strengths or neutralize weaknesses?
3. Implementation viability: Will the company be able to implement such strategy in a timely manner and with ease given the demand on resources? Does the strategy fit the capabilities, organization, structure, processes, and overall culture?
4. Ethical/Moral viability: Is the strategy consistent with the core values of the organization and its major stakeholders?
5. Durability of returns: Does the viability of the strategy extend beyond the current cycle? Are there potential synergies from our selected strategy and anticipated competitive responses or emerging market or environmental forces?

In addition to the above set of metrics, the students could use such tools as Pay-off Matrix or a numeric scorekeeping

system to assess the acceptability of each potential strategic alternative. The result of any evaluation utilizing these and other similar metrics should be a set of recommendations that the company should pursue (Harrison and St. John 2008).

UTILIZING GUIDELINES

It is often beneficial for teachers as well as students if the latter are presented with some guidelines to enhance the

case method approach. This provides students with a general overview of the material that should be included in their exploration and analysis of cases. Some teachers provide rigid outlines that students must follow. This can lead to lengthy reports consisting of high amounts of rehash since the focus is on completing the outline instead of presenting the important issues at hand. Exhibit 1 is an example of an outline that applies the six levels of Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives. As a result of the outline, students often went section by

EXHIBIT 1 Strategic Analysis of Marketing Cases: A Process Approach

1. A short Historical Perspective of the case, the company and the decision situation.
 - a. Short history of the company.
 - b. Corporate culture: Mission, super-ordinate goal, communication networks, rites and rituals, distinctive competencies, and organizational dynamics.
 - c. Corporate business model.
 - d. What is the antecedent of the decision situation?
 - e. What is/are the decision(s) to be made?
2. Situation Assessment – External Analysis.
 - a. Customer Analysis: Segments profile, motivation, unmet needs.
 - b. Competitor Analysis: Profiles, strategic groups, performance, strengths, weaknesses, and distinctive competencies.
 - c. Market Analysis: size, projected growth, profitability, entry barriers, cost structure, trends, Key Success Factors.
 - d. Environmental Analysis: Legal, Economic, Technological, Socio-Cultural, and Demographic.
3. Situation Assessment – Internal Analysis:
 - a. Performance Analysis: Profitability, sales, customer satisfaction, marketing mix assessment, employee capabilities, and skills, etc.
 - b. Determinants of strategic options: Past and current strategies, resources, strengths, and weaknesses.
4. TOWS Summary of threats, opportunities, strengths and weaknesses.
5. Identify 4–6 Strategic issues the company faces at the time of the decision situation.
6. Identify strategic alternatives to address the strategic issues identified in #5
 - a. Product/Market investment strategies
 - b. Marketing function-specific strategies
 - i. Market segmentation strategies
 - ii. Marketing Mix strategies
 - iii. Assets, Competencies and Synergies.
7. Evaluate the viability of strategic alternatives to resolve the strategic issues.
8. Select your strategy.
9. Present a detailed implementation plan.
 - a. Be specific
 - b. Remember that Marketing effort costs money!
 - c. Remember that PEOPLE matter the most in determining the success or failure of any strategy.
 - d. Allow for contingencies
 - e. Include some form of a review or evaluation process to assess the effectiveness of strategies.

section through the outline. There was no sense of excitement as one could always predict what would come next no matter how trivial the element was to the issues in the case. In an attempt to inspire creativity on the part of the students and to seek an emphasis on that which is important, Exhibit 2 was utilized instead of the traditional outline approach. Exhibit 2 provides students with a general framework to perform the case analysis but it is not presented in the traditional structure that seems to create the perception of rigidity. It is crucial to emphasize to students that this is not meant to be a blueprint for examining the cases. Elements can be filtered out if they

do not pertain to the issues or additional information not listed on the guideline may be necessary. Students should find their case analysis progressing through the various levels of Bloom's taxonomy as they explore the case, but they should not feel or appear as though they are constricted to a specific outline.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper was to explore the true nature of "analysis" when using the case method in business education. As evident in most textbooks and the general

EXHIBIT 2			
The Hierarchy of Learning Objectives: A framework for Analyzing Cases in Marketing			
Knowledge:	Case Facts Past Strategies Decisions to Be Made	Current Strategies Chief Complaint(s)	Major players Performance data
Comprehension:	Corporate Culture: Mission, Super-ordinate goal, Rites & Rituals, Distinctive Competencies, Communication Networks, and Organizational Dynamics Business Model Short History The Antecedent Answering the question of Why?		
Application:	Bringing in relevant information, and proper evaluation tools, i.e.: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Performance metrics and financial analysis tools ◆ Criteria for evaluation of Market Segments ◆ Organizational Behavior Theories and frameworks ◆ Consumer Behavior Theories and frameworks ◆ Market Research tools and statistical measures 		
Analysis:	Situation Analysis: Customers, Competitors, Markets, Environments. Self Analysis: Performance, Resources, Skills and Capabilities. Breaking down the case into the various individual elements Evaluating the relationship between the elements Performing diagnostic tests as needed - , i.e., Financial Analysis, Making necessary comparisons and contrasts Completing the TOWS analysis Attempting to answer the question: So What? Understanding the Antecedent of the decision situation. Identifying the Strategic Issues in the Decision Situation.		
Synthesis & Evaluation:	Identifying the Determinants of Strategic Options Identifying the Strategic Options Evaluating Strategic Options Selection of Strategies Implementation Plan		

literature, -Business educators have not seen it necessary to explore the true meaning of analysis and to require its true manifestation in the classroom. Accordingly, many of us go on teaching and evaluating grading at the lower levels of Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning Objectives.

This paper reminds us that proper analysis goes beyond mere comprehension, interpretation and application to involve breaking the given whole into its component elements, and assessing the relationships between the elements as well as the true purpose of the case and the general antecedent. A complete and relevant analysis should result in relevant strategic issues, and a set of relevant strategic options. Beyond analysis, the learner must be encouraged to manifest a measure of creative expression in the synthesis and integration of learned cognitions in a new whole. In the context of case analysis this involves the presentation of a set of alternative options that are internally consistent with the analysis, and a comprehensive implementation plan that incorporates a viable evaluation component.

While Bloom assigns Evaluation the top position in the hierarchy, it is nonetheless important to note that in the proper process of case analysis, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation are intertwined to provide a relevant learning experience. Moreover, one should note that the process is by far more important than the report or the actual presentation, and thus we must place emphasis ~~must be~~ on assisting the students to develop higher learning skills beyond mere knowledge and comprehension.

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MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTION SEQUENCING AND STUDENT OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

Marketing educators often use multiple choice exams with various versions of question sequencing to minimize cheating with little consideration for its influence on student performance. This study replicates prior research; however, consideration is also given to academic achievement as a contributing factor. General academic achievement is measured by cumulative GPA whereas marketing academic achievement is measured by student performance on short answer questions. The results indicate that student scores on multiple choice exams in the Principles of Marketing course differ significantly based on academic achievement, not question sequencing. This paper describes the research design, findings and implications for marketing educators.

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTION SEQUENCING AND STUDENT OUTCOMES

Marketing educators often utilize multiple choice exams to assess student mastery of content. This is an efficient and objective form of assessing student learning, particularly in courses with larger sections. Various versions of the same exam are commonly used to minimize the possibility that students collaborate on selecting their answers. Each version usually contains the same questions with exam questions presented in a different order. Intuitively one might assume that students do better on exams with questions appearing in the same order that material was covered in class. However, randomizing the order of test items is a fair and simple approach given the automated process provided by test bank software that accompanies most marketing texts.

Does randomizing the order of test items put students at a significant disadvantage? Research results regarding question sequencing are mixed. Some studies find no significant difference while others cite marginal or significant improvement in student scores based on a particular sequence of test items. However, there is little to no research in marketing education that considers other factors along with question sequencing that might influence student performance on multiple choice exams.

The purpose of this research is to investigate such influences in the Principles of Marketing course. Specifically, this study considers general academic achievement as measured by cumulative GPA and marketing academic achievement as measured by student performance on the short answer portion of exams in the Principles of Marketing course. Exam version is also considered as a differentiator of student performance on multiple choice questions. The results of the analysis are consistent with several previous studies and provide meaningful insight for marketing educators.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The study of question sequencing on student performance on multiple choice exams is not new (Hughes, Prytula, and Schnelle 1974; Norman 1954). In fact, this line of inquiry has expanded to include testing time (Geiger and Simons 1994; Marso 1970), test anxiety (Burns 2005; Neely, Springston, and McCann 1994), and test item difficulty (Gerow 1980; Laffitte 1984; Skinner 1999). However, the work in marketing education has focused primarily on test item order.

Petit, Baker, and Davis (1986) examined test item order with class standing, college major, and test paper color as covariates in a Principles of Marketing course. After controlling for college major (marketing majors performed significantly better than non-majors), students who received the forward-sequential version scored significantly higher than those who received the random-sequential version. A number of studies support the finding that students perform significantly better on a forward-sequential than a random-sequential version of a multiple choice exam (Balch 1989; Howe and Baldwin 1983; Carlson and Ostrosky 1992; Stout and Wygal 1990; Taub and Bell 1975).

Chidomere (1989) also used a Principles of Marketing course to investigate test item order and student performance. He concluded from his study, which included four multiple choice exams with forward and random-sequential versions, that there was no significant difference in student performance based on test item order.

This supports previous studies by Sax and Cromack (1966) and Schmitt and Scheirer (1977). A more recent study focused on marketing courses also shows inconclusive results regarding question sequencing and student performance (Russell, Fisher, Fisher, and Premo 2003). Similar results are common in other business disciplines as well (Geiger and Simons 1994; Heck and Stout 1991; Peek 1994).

It is clear that there are mixed results regarding student performance and question sequencing for multiple choice exams in the Principles of Marketing course. However, only the work of Russell and his associates (2003) considered academic achievement as well. In their study, students in two sections of an Advertising course and one section of a Sales Management course as well as students in three sections of management courses were administered three multiple choice exams over one semester. Each student took one exam with exam questions in forward order, one in reverse order, and one in scrambled order. The researchers controlled for academic ability in their research design by averaging each student's mean score on the multiple choice questions across all three exams and used it as a blocking variable in their statistical analysis. Although students scored highest on the forward order exam, the difference in student performance across the three exam versions was not significant.

A more comprehensive approach to considering prior academic achievement is to utilize student cumulative GPA in the design of the study. This was the approach taken by Paretta and Chadwick (1975) and Canlar and Jackson (1991) in their research on academic achievement, test item order, and student performance on multiple choice exams with accounting students. In their work they used cumulative GPA to divide students into three groups, namely highest third, middle third and lowest third. Canlar and Jackson (1991) then randomly assigned students from each group to one of the exam versions (forward, random, reverse test item order). The results of their analysis showed that there was no difference in student performance based on academic achievement for students in the highest or lowest third but that students in the middle third performed significantly better on the reverse order version compared to the other two versions.

A similar approach is utilized in this study with some modifications. In this study, each student takes three exams with multiple choice questions over the semester rather than just one exam. Thus each student is exposed to each kind of exam version (forward, random, reverse) once and grouping students based on cumulative GPA is used for exam version assignment. Actual cumulative GPA, rather than a contrived blocking variable as was the case in the Russell and his associates study (2003), is used

in the analysis of variance to compare general academic achievement and student performance on multiple choice exams. Since cumulative GPA includes academic achievement in courses from a variety of disciplines unrelated to business another measure is needed. Marketing academic achievement is measured by student performance on short answer questions on the same exams to reflect academic achievement in a similar content area as the multiple choice questions.

METHOD

This study was conducted at a small public institution in the north east. Question sequencing was manipulated on three exams in two sections of the Principles of Marketing course taught by the same instructor. The course is required of all Business Management majors. In each case, multiple choice questions were placed at the beginning of the exam followed by five or six short answer questions requiring answers of two to three paragraphs each. Other assessment measures in the course included weekly quizzes, four short written case studies, and two group presentations.

There were three versions of each exam. In the first version, multiple choice questions were placed in forward order, that is, questions appeared in the same order that material was presented in class. In the second version, multiple choice questions were placed in random order, that is, the order that the questions appeared was unrelated to the order that the material was presented in class. In the third version, multiple choice questions were placed in reverse order, that is, questions appeared in the opposite order that material was presented in class.

Students in each section were divided into three groups based on cumulative GPA. On the first exam, the instructor administered the random order version of the exam to students in the highest third, the forward order version to students in the middle third and the reverse order version to students in the lowest third. Over the next two exams students were administered the exam versions to which they had not been previously exposed. Thus, every student took three exams and was exposed to each exam version (forward, random, reverse) once throughout the semester. Exposing each student to all three version types ensured that the final grade earned by a certain student had not been skewed by the test item order of one particular exam. All exams, regardless of version, were printed on white paper, so students had no visual cues as to the order of test items.

There were 24 multiple choice questions and six short answer questions covering five chapters on the first exam. There were 20 multiple choice questions and five short answer questions on the second and third exams

covering four chapters of material each. The difference in the number of multiple choice questions on each exam was a reflection of the number of chapters covered on each exam with approximately five questions per chapter. As a result, percentages were used as the measure for student performance rather than raw scores to account for the variance in the number of multiple choice items on each exam.

Short answer questions were the same for both sections and appeared in the same order. Although multiple choice questions varied between sections, everyone in the same section was administered an exam with identical multiple choice questions. All multiple choice questions in both sections were selected from a test bank and were of equal difficulty. Having questions on the exam for one section that differed from those on the exam for the other section did not result in a significant difference in student scores for the multiple choice portion with an average of 75.1 percent for one section and 75.4 percent for the other. The examination periods were timed, but in each testing situation every student completed the exam in the time allotted.

Cumulative GPA and question sequencing were recorded with the student scores on the multiple choice and short answer questions to allow for further analysis of the results. Analysis of variance was utilized to determine if student performance on the multiple choice portion of the exams in the Principles of Marketing course differed significantly based on general academic achievement, marketing academic achievement or question sequencing.

RESULTS

There were 57 students enrolled in the course; however, only the results of 50 students were recorded for the purpose of this study since two students withdrew from the course before taking all three exams, four students were transfer students in their first semester of attendance and thus had not established a cumulative GPA at the institution, and one student was a postmaster's student seeking continuing education.

Of the 50 students observed in this research 22 percent were seniors, 38 percent were juniors, and 40 percent were sophomores. Eighty percent of the students enrolled in the course were business management majors, 12 percent were sport and recreation management majors, and 8 percent were from other disciplines.

An analysis of variance was conducted to see if marketing academic achievement and general academic achievement are consistent measures. The analysis found that

students in the highest third based on cumulative GPA scored significantly better on short answer questions than students in the middle and lowest thirds ($p = 1.72E-07$). The average scores for the three groups on short answer questions were 85.7 percent, 70.1 percent, and 66.4 percent respectively with an overall average of 74.2 percent. This suggests that there is a positive relationship between marketing academic achievement and general academic achievement in that students who score high on general academic achievement also score high on marketing academic achievement.

An analysis of variance was also conducted to see if student performance on multiple choice questions differed significantly based on academic achievement or question sequencing. The dependent variable in the analysis was the percentage of correct answers on the multiple choice portion of the exams. The independent variables included question sequencing, general academic achievement represented by cumulative GPA and marketing academic achievement represented by student performance on short answer questions. The analysis was conducted at the .05 alpha level.

Table 1 shows that students scored highest overall on the reverse version and lowest on the forward version. There was no significant difference in student performance based on question sequencing in the analysis of variance ($p = 0.49$). Table 1 also shows the average student performance on multiple choice questions based on general academic achievement. It is clear that students with the highest cumulative GPAs performed the best on each of the exam versions used. When considering academic achievement based on cumulative GPA students in the highest third scored significantly better in average multiple choice exam scores compared to students in the two other groups ($p = 8.22E-05$).

Table 2 shows the average student performance on multiple choice questions based on marketing academic achievement. When academic achievement is defined by student performance on short answer questions an analysis of variance shows that those in the highest third performed significantly better on multiple choice questions than those in the middle third ($p = 0.02$). Interestingly, those in the lowest third also performed better than those in the middle third but the difference was not significant ($p = 0.13$).

These two tables show that those students in the highest third based on general or marketing academic achievement consistently scored better than other students on the multiple choice questions regardless of question sequencing.

TABLE 1
Student Performance and General Academic Achievement

Test Item Order				
General Academic Achievement	Forward	Random	Reverse	Overall
Highest Third (17)	81.8	78.2	84.1	81.4*
Middle Third (17)	66.7	75.3	76.2	72.7
Lowest Third (16)	72.8	71.9	69.8	71.5
Overall (50)	73.8	75.2	76.8	75.3

* Highest third is significantly different than both middle and lowest third ($p = 8.22E-05$).

TABLE 2
Student Performance and Marketing Academic Achievement

Test Item Order				
Marketing Academic Achievement	Forward	Random	Reverse	Overall
Highest Third (17)	77.4	78.8	80.0	78.8*
Middle Third (17)	69.9	73.1	72.1	71.7
Lowest Third (16)	74.1	73.5	78.5	75.3
Overall (50)	73.8	75.2	76.8	75.3

* Highest third is significantly different than middle third ($p = .02$).

DISCUSSION

The results of this research support those of previous studies which show that question sequencing does not significantly influence student performance on multiple choice exams in the Principles of Marketing course (Chidomere 1989; Russell, Fisher, Fisher, and Premo 2003). Even though the difference is not statistically significant, consistent with the findings of Gruber (1987), students scored highest on the reverse order version. This suggests a recency effect where students more readily recall information presented most recently in class. Successful completion of these initial items may provide confidence to better address the remaining test items on the exam.

In this study student performance varied significantly based on general academic achievement. Intuitively this makes sense given that academically stronger students are more likely to be the best prepared for exams regardless of version and therefore are least sensitive to test item order. Moreover, weaker students are also not as likely to be affected by question sequencing given their overall difficulty with objective exams.

Student performance also varied significantly based on marketing academic achievement. This is a more relevant finding given that general academic achievement is a reflection of student performance in a variety of courses from a number of disciplines. However marketing academic achievement is based on similar course content

and therefore provides a more applicable result. Taken together, the two measures for academic achievement suggest that question sequencing is not a significant differentiator of student performance compared to the influence of past performance in other courses and current performance in other assessments in the Principles of Marketing course.

When looking at student grouping based on cumulative GPA and multiple choice exam score it is clear to see that students in the highest third scored lowest on the random version, students in the middle third scored lowest on the forward version, and students in the lowest third scored most poorly on the reverse version. This is interesting because these respective versions for each group represent the first exam students took in the course. Given that the overall average for all students was lowest on the first exam this finding may be due to students not being familiar with the instructor's testing style or the type of content that appears on multiple choice exams.

The results of this study and those of previous research (Canlar and Jackson 1991; Paretta and Chadwick 1975) suggest that students in the middle third are the most susceptible to the influence of question sequencing given the highest third view exams as easy and the lowest third view them as challenging regardless of familiarity with the instructor's approach to testing or the order in which test items appear on the exams.

When students were grouped based on marketing academic achievement students in the lowest third actually performed better than those in the middle third on all three exam versions, particularly those in forward and reverse test item order. Although the difference was not statistically significant, this result does raise an interesting point. Students in the lowest third based on marketing academic achievement likely do not retain comprehensive data as effectively and do not have writing skills as strong as those in the other two thirds who perform better on short answer questions. Perhaps the students in the lowest third are better able to recall related information represented by multiple choice questions formatted in sequential order, whether in forward or reverse order. Thus, multiple choice questions in forward or reverse order, as opposed to short answer questions, tend to favor the poorest academic achievers while not significantly disadvantaging the highest academic achievers.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The results derived from this study should be viewed as suggestions rather than definitive conclusions given that the research was conducted at one institution with one instructor. Although the students in this study are repre-

sentative of students at many institutions, there is likely to be differences based on institutional size and selectivity. Also, no consideration was given to student test anxiety or attitude toward marketing as a field of study or career. Perhaps those students who wish to pursue further coursework in marketing better prepare for exams than those who take the course simply to fulfill the requirement for the Business Management major. The findings by Petit, Baker, and Davis (1986) showed that marketing majors perform better than non-majors on multiple choice exams. However that type of analysis was not possible since the marketing major is not offered at the institution in this study.

Rather than matching general academic achievement groups with a particular question sequencing version from the outset, some students from each group should be administered a forward test item version, some a random test item version, and some a reverse test item version on each of the three exams. This will mitigate the influence of maturation particularly on the first exam. However, each student should still be exposed to each question sequencing version once so that the influence of test item order and academic achievement on student performance can still be analyzed. This approach is also most fair for students so that their grades in the course are not needlessly influenced by the question sequencing on one exam.

Test items used in this study were all categorized as moderately difficult so no consideration was given to the order of test items and their level of difficulty. Students completed the exams in this study within the time given, but it would be interesting to see if there is any change in the influence of the factors listed above with significant time constraints placed on the exam administration. Time limitation is quite relevant to the study given the myriad of situations that students will face after graduation when time is of the essence in making effective business decisions.

The influence of question sequencing may have been reduced in this study given the limited number of multiple choice questions included in each exam (24, 20, and 20) and by the fact that the two sections did not have the exact same questions on their exams. Perhaps increasing the number of multiple choice items and administering exams with identical questions to multiple sections in a future study might highlight the possible differences that were not perceptible given the brevity of the multiple choice portion of the exams in this study. Increasing the number of students and including marketing majors is worthy of consideration.

The marketing academic achievement variable could be expanded to include student performance on other mea-

asures of assessment in the Principles of Marketing course such as written case analyses, group presentations, and quizzes. This would better illuminate any differences between the general academic achievement measure based on cumulative GPA and the marketing academic achievement based on performance solely in Principles of Marketing. Future studies could also consider the influence of text anxiety, time constraints, student major, or volume of material, as measured by the number of chapters covered, on student performance on multiple choice exams in the Principles of Marketing course.

CONCLUSION

Student performance was not affected by question sequencing rather academic achievement in prior courses as well as the Principles of Marketing course played a more significant role. Therefore, marketing educators should not hesitate to utilize the randomizing function of testing software that scrambles the order of questions to make several versions using the same questions for a selected multiple choice exam. This is an efficient and fair approach which serves as an effective deterrent to student cheating. It may also be a more accurate measure of student learning given the absence of cues from preceding or following questions in the random version. The random version does not favor any student group based on academic achievement and it better represents how knowledge is used in business practice when related information is not readily available.

Educators with larger sections should not hesitate to use multiple choice questions instead of short answer questions on exams. As demonstrated in this study, students who perform well on questions in short answer format are just as likely to excel at multiple choice questions. This will reduce the time marketing professors have to spend on grading without compromising a student's ability to excel in the course. This is particularly true when students are also given the opportunity to demonstrate their learning via written assignments such as case analyses, critiques, or marketing plans.

However, educators may want to consider using the reverse question sequence on the first multiple choice exam in a given course since the benefits of the recency effect may mitigate the detriments of student unfamiliarity with the professor's approach to testing. This may also encourage students who might otherwise do poorly on the first exam to not withdraw from the course prematurely. Professors should also consider lowering the weight of the first exam or administer several exams in the course to reduce the influence of initial student unfamiliarity with the professor's testing style. Given the pervasiveness of multiple choice exams administered in Principles of Marketing courses continued research in

question sequencing should enhance marketing pedagogy and student learning.

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STUDY SKILLS (TACTICS) AND PERFORMANCE OF BUSINESS STUDENTS

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Not every learning strategy or study habit will produce useful results in terms of academic achievement. However, one can expect that in general, students who possess good study skills will be better performers than students with poor study skills. In this study, we operationalize effective study habits or tactics to include such behaviors as the ability to pay attention while reading and listening to lectures (Concentration), having access to a good set of notes (Notes), scheduling regular review periods (Sched-

uling), and time spent outside of class studying (Study Time). Using a sample of business students, the study investigated the relationship these study tactics have with academic performance as measured by semester grade point average (SGPA) and cumulative grade point average (CGPA). The study also investigated if students vary the frequency of use of these study tactics based on different levels of motivation and drive. Summary results are as follows:

		Mean Use of Study Tactics and Performance Based on Student Ability and Motivation	
Ability	High	Notes = 3.99 Scheduling = 2.02 Concentration = 2.57 Study time = 19 SGPA = 2.99 CGPA = 3.18 <i>Low use of all study tactics</i>	Notes = 3.69 Scheduling = 2.28 Concentration = 2.84 Study time = 26 SGPA = 2.60 CGPA = 2.78 <i>High use of time but low use of all other study tactics</i>
	Low	Notes = 4.32 Scheduling = 2.82 Concentration = 2.94 Study time = 24.3 SGPA = 3.44 CGPA = 3.46 <i>High use of all study tactics</i>	Notes = 4.02 Scheduling = 2.98 Concentration = 2.99 Study time = 33.5 SGPA = 2.96 CGPA = 2.98 <i>Highest use of all study tactics including time</i>
		Low	High
		Motivation (Drive)	

Based on pairwise correlations, results show study tactics notes and concentration to have a significant positive impact on SGPA and CGPA. In addition study results show students to vary their use of study tactics based on their level of motivation and ability as seen in the above table. Clearly students who are motivated use all study

tactics more often than students who are less motivated. Using effective teaching techniques such as action oriented learning and experiential learning (Kolb 1976) will keep these students more intellectually engaged. These techniques will help those students who are high in ability but low in motivation to be better motivated. It may be

prudent for those students who are both low in ability and motivation to consult a counselor. They are most likely to be in academic trouble if the reason for low motivation is not addressed.

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ILLEGAL QUESTIONING: A STUDY OF MARKETING STUDENTS' RECENT INTERVIEW EXPERIENCES DURING THEIR CAREER SEARCHES

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ABSTRACT

This study presents marketing students' interviews, relevant marketing literature, and survey results collected from a group of undergraduate marketing students represented by four universities throughout the United States. Specifically, this study examined whether marketing students were asked illegal questions during their most

recent face-to-face interviews and the students' reactions to these questions. The results suggested that, overall, the students from the four universities *are* being asked illegal questions during job interviews and, surprisingly, *are not* uncomfortable being asked inappropriate and often illegal questions. Discussed are reasons why students appeared to be unconcerned about answering questions with potential legal ramifications.

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UNDERGRADUATE RESEARCH IN MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT: CLARIFYING DEFINITIONS AND MEASURES OF VALUE AND ASSESSMENT

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Undergraduate research has been increasingly valued at institutions of higher education in recent years (Lopatto 2005; Chapman 2003). There are a variety of reasons for this trend. One, it provides an outlet for highly driven students who desire to extend their college experience beyond the typical undergraduate curriculum. Consequently, this has become an increasingly popular option, as graduate programs tend to look favorably upon students who undertake such programs. Two, for primarily undergraduate institutions where instructors carry heavy teaching loads, these students represent a viable pool of trainees. Thus, these students permit faculty members to undertake larger scale research projects than would be possible on their own. Lastly, involving undergraduates provides faculty members with greater sources of research funding. In recent years, both institutional and external agencies have begun offering novel grants specifically for research projects involving undergraduates.

As a result of that presented above, there has been greater emphasis placed on undergraduate research by a number of constituents including students, faculty, administrators, and various other university stakeholders. Increasingly, students are seeking out opportunities to become involved in faculty/student research projects in order to improve their marketability upon graduation. In a related vein, faculty are seeking out undergraduates to increase their success in procuring research funding, to share their intellectual passion with their students, and to increase the likelihood of achieving tenure and promotion. Additionally, university administrators are seeking faculty who will participate in engaging undergraduates in order to attract and retain high quality, motivated students.

However, despite the significant attention undergraduate research is receiving from a number of sources, what exactly constitutes undergraduate research in the area of business, (specifically within the disciplines of marketing and management), is still rather vague. For example, there seems to be little agreement as to exactly what level

of involvement is required for a student experience to be recognized as undergraduate research. Similarly, how faculty should be recognized/rewarded for involving undergraduates in research is poorly established. Overarching all of this is the question of what must be achieved in order that the undergraduate research experience be declared a success. Even broader than these questions is how undergraduate research differs between the traditional sciences (i.e., physics, chemistry, biology, etc.) and the social sciences (i.e., marketing, management, sociology, etc.). Recent involvement in the Symposium for Scholarship and Research at Slippery Rock University in Pennsylvania, (a mid-size, four-year public institution), has revealed that undergraduate research between the aforementioned disciplines seems to be both viewed and valued quite differently.

Thus, we pose a number of significant questions that are designed to provoke inquiry at individual institutions of higher education with the expectation that the answers to these questions will guide strategic planning in building and maintaining strong undergraduate research programs in the marketing and management disciplines. A sampling of select lines of inquiry which we wish to open up for discussion include the following:

1. Collectively, how do business disciplines (e.g., marketing, management, finance, accounting, etc.) define undergraduate research? Is there consensus amongst these various business disciplines?
2. Does the aforementioned definition differ from the model followed by those in the traditional sciences? If so, how?
3. Is undergraduate research in business valued from a faculty perspective? If so, why? If not, why?
4. What are student expectations regarding undergraduate research in business?

Moreover, the answers to these questions are extremely valuable to ascertaining the following broader questions:

1. Is there cohesion or disconnect between faculty and student expectations regarding undergraduate research in business? The answer to this question could have significant ramifications for the future success of various programs within specific disciplines.
2. How should faculty be recognized for engaging undergraduates in assorted research projects? Recent literature supports the idea that research involving undergraduates is much slower and takes dramatically longer to reach a level suitable for publication in peer-reviewed journals (Chapman 2003). Consequently, should business departments not adequately value and recognize faculty efforts in the

area of undergraduate research, faculty mentors may be unintentionally punished for delays in their progress.

3. Do committees overseeing faculty progress need to account for differing opinions on undergraduate research in the business disciplines? At present, it appears that at the vast majority of universities, faculty from diverse disciplines are assessed using the same instrument.

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FROM INDUSTRY TO ACADEMIA: PREPARING NEW AND TEMPORARY PROFESSORS FOR THE CLASSROOM

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SUMMARY

Given the demand for educated and experienced business faculty, the need for adjunct or visiting professors is a consistent reality for most universities. However, the transition for these new teachers from industry to academia can be challenging. This session will offer a “what I wish I knew” perspective on that transition and serve as a refresher for the audience on what industry experts need to know to be more successful in the classroom.

Further Description: Oftentimes those filling visiting and adjunct positions within a business faculty come directly from industry. They are considered experts in their fields and can effortlessly add illustrations, anecdotes and examples to any related text book. Yet, ask them to write a syllabus or a lesson plan and it is likely you will receive a blank stare. It’s a transition that can be daunting and frustrating for both the professor and the institution without proper training and preparation. The surprises,

challenges, rewards, and need for basic training will be explored to help ensure an institution’s academic standards are upheld and to create a positive experience for new and temporary professors.

Various topics will be explored including:

- ◆ Preparing for Class: Arming new professors with teaching basics (how to organize a class session, create a syllabus and lesson plans, use university technologies, make a positive first-impression with students, etc.).
- ◆ Understanding the Target Audience: The shift from customers, suppliers and employees to students.
- ◆ Optimizing Work Experience: How a new professor can integrate his/her work experience with course materials.

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BY ADOPTING ENTREPRENEURIAL AND MARKETING STRATEGIES UNIVERSITIES CAN PLAY A MAJOR ROLE IN COMMUNITY AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: A RESULT ORIENTED PRACTICAL APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

Management and Entrepreneurial Education contributes directly to the society by facilitating economic development and service. One of the special characteristics of humans is their ability to develop complex, purposeful organizations that enhance quality of life. Management education develops that characteristic and produces leaders capable of creating organizations that provide significant value to society. Such organizations create electricity, scientific instruments, transportation, food, cures for diseases, education, retail goods, entertainment, and almost everything else that enables civilization beyond a tribal level. Management education unquestionably prepares people to participate meaningfully in these organizations and gives them the tools to enhance their effectiveness. In addition to individual and organizational contributions, management education makes other contributions to society – contributions that have a significant impact on communities.

Management education has revitalized and bolstered economic development in communities by involving students, faculty, and other resources in resolving real-world problems. It is this form of societal development that best exemplifies the connection between management education, management research, and society. For example, Michael Porter of Harvard Business School has conducted research on business opportunities of the inner city; and his activity has led to a nonprofit organization, the Initiative for a Competitive Inner City. Professor Porter's premise is that "No matter what amount of social intervention we engage in, whatever kind of philanthropy

or charity there is, communities can't possibly be healthy unless the economy works." Management education produces individuals and research that fuel the economic growth of communities. As part of their business school experience, many students also work directly with individuals to implement local business projects. These projects often have significant societal benefit, especially since student collaboration and involvement extend to communities in many different parts of the world. Such projects are incredibly diverse.

For marketing education to remain viable, both the process and content of marketing curricula must be changed to meet the needs of American businesses. Innovative teaching techniques must be adopted to provide a grounding in the skills that are central to students' effectiveness in the organizations of the 1990s and beyond. And courses that address the new knowledge requirements must join or supplant traditional courses that limit the marketing mix to the "4 Ps" and view manufactured goods as the typical offering.

Helping to establish programs like daycare or eldercare centers that enable others to join the workforce is only one example. Through such initiatives, management education not only provides an educationally rewarding outlet for students but also endows and enriches communities. The management education experience creates leaders capable of inspiring greater benefit from the work of individuals and of developing organizations that are more effective at fulfilling their purposes. As a result, societies can achieve greater productivity and support human needs at a higher level.

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SUCCESS IN THE COLLABORATIVE CLASSROOM: BUILDING RELATIONSHIPS IN ADVERTISING PRINCIPLES

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Don Dickinson's book *The New Account Manager* reminds us that "[advertising agencies] are organized, staffed, and managed to serve the marketing communications (MarCom) needs of clients with whom they have an ongoing working relationship."¹ If one concurs, then the advertising classroom must be a place where "ongoing working relationships" are practiced. It seems appropriate to include practice in working together as a part of the toolkit for developing and nurturing working relationships.

Following principles of Russ Edgerton's "pedagogies of engagement"² I determined that cooperative learning and problem-based learning practices would be the basis for my experiment in practicing ongoing working relationships. "Cooperative learning is instruction that involves people working in teams to accomplish a common goal, under conditions that involve both positive interdependence and individual and group accountability."³

The Advertising Principles class is typically composed of students from the majors of marketing and other business programs, advertising, graphic design and journalism. Students may be at the sophomore, junior or senior level. Each subgroup approaches the study of advertising from their own perspective. The mix fairly resembles a mix of talents found at an ad agency.⁴ While there is great value in assembling such varied backgrounds, my experiences have been difficult when students without a generous spirit toward collaborative work are enrolled.

I chose to experiment with small-group collaborative learning strategies in my Advertising Principles class. Enrollment for this course typically finalizes at 50–70 students per semester, which is a large enrollment compared to other classes at my university. I chose a model researched by Karl A. Smith pertaining to in-class project work,⁵ and planned to assign students to triads. I also had to increase the complexity of the project due at semester's end, to justify group activity.

In an effort to avoid complete randomization and to simulate real-world conditions, I prepared a job applica-

tion for the students to submit at the start of the semester. Rather than requesting lists of courses completed or jobs held, my course job application asked students to identify their strongest skills/talents in areas as diverse as finance, print production, music composition, and arbitration. My goal in constructing the application was to empower even the youngest, least experienced student with responsibility as an active knowledge constructor.⁶ I used this information in tandem with the student's major(s) and minor(s) and expected graduation date to "hire" each student into an "ad agency" for the semester. Using Myers-Briggs typology as a model, I categorized students listing skills such as finance, bookkeeping, research and programming as sensing/thinking and students listing skills such as painting, sketching, music composition and design as intuiting/feeling. My goal in constructing triads was to have one member a sensing/thinking person, one-member an intuiting/feeling person, and the third was based on years of study, as I tried to select each member of the triad from a different graduating class.

I presented the class with the agency list during the second week of the semester. Through small in-class assignments, the groups began working collaboratively using bookends procedures.⁷ They gained confidence in each other as valuable group members and as active knowledge constructors. As the semester progressed I introduced the groups to their semester project – a collaborative effort. I encouraged the five critical elements for success: **positive interdependence, individual accountability, promotive interaction, social skills, and group processing.**⁸ These elements point to the ownership students took of the course material – it was not just me lecturing, but it was the students who encouraged and activated the learning for their own group. I prepared a rubric, timeline and peer evaluation to aid in group progress/goal-setting and evaluations.

Not only did I find the projects of a higher quality than previous semesters, but students also were more satisfied with the project and the class, as evidenced by much more positive course evaluations. Additional benefits included

my knowing each student's name much earlier than usual in the semester (a result of breaking it down as 17 agencies instead of one large class), better attendance and student engagement when attending, and less antagonism between student factions by major/year. Some students remarked informally that they came to realize through the group interaction the value of another person's point of view and skillsets. While the text was not completely covered, the experience proved more successful overall. We cannot ignore the additional benefit of experiencing the nurturing of Dickinson's "ongoing working relationships" so critical to ad agency personnel.

I recommend to faculty that collaborative learning practices should be explored and planned out well before implementation. Collaborative learning does not mean less work for the professor; rather, it is a process that I found needed more preparation and a willingness to allow learning to take place in a student-accountable way.

ENDNOTES

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WE ARE CURRENTLY EXPERIENCING TECHNICAL DIFFICULTIES – WILL YOU STAND BY?

Lori Lohman, Augsburg College

SUMMARY

Imagine that you are ready to begin the lecture portion of your Principles of Marketing class. You flip on the computer and the projector, but no image is showing on the screen behind you. You check all of your connections, but you can't find anything amiss. Somewhat embarrassed, you ask a student to help you. The student can't find anything wrong, so you call your college's technology help line. The support person arrives 15 minutes later, and diagnoses the problem, which may be major or minor. Meanwhile, you've wasted 25 minutes of a 50-minute class on technology issues, rather than covering the subject material for the day.

Does this Scenario Sound Familiar? It Has Happened to Me More than Once

Technology is a blessing and a curse. When it is working properly, technology can help instructors to cover more material in a shorter period of time, link to resources on the Internet, and keep student attention; however, it is just as likely that form can supersede function. Instructors can spend too much time trying to get the technology to work properly at the expense of student learning.

Is the use of technology really necessary in the classroom? According to Kathy Schwalbe, who studied this topic as part of her doctoral dissertation, "The more a technology is used in an organization, the more effective it is perceived to be. . . . However, none of the technologies used in this study were perceived as being highly effective *in improving the teaching and learning process* (emphasis added)" (Schwalbe p. vii). If this is true, then what does technology add to the classroom beyond an entertainment value? In his book "Does IT Matter? Infor-

mation Technology and the Corrosion of Competitive Advantage," Nicholas Carr backs Schwalbe's findings, arguing that companies do not have a clear strategy in mind when they make IT investments. He argues that companies are too quick to embrace the latest technology, and have not assessed the true costs and benefits of such investments.

Technology can spawn other difficulties as well. It can contribute to multiple forms of student cheating. With online student evaluations, only students with strong feelings about the course may respond (although that is an inherent risk with any self-administered survey tool). Students may argue that professors do not reply fast enough to e-mail messages, or that they should be available 24/7. And then there is the ever-present threat of "entertainment value" posing as learning.

I am not advocating that instructors should not use technology; rather, I am arguing that instructors should have a clear reason for using various types of technology (besides the novelty factor, explain their rationale to students (including their policies for availability) . . . and have a backup plan for when technology fails!

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PROPOSAL FOR AN INTERDISCIPLINARY COURSE ON OUTSOURCING

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INTRODUCTION

Outsourcing of business process and related activities has emerged as a leading, controversial, and inevitable issue. Outsourcing has been and will be a global strategy for many American businesses. Due to its strategic significance, it is imperative that academicians systematically investigate dynamics of outsourcing and at the same time, develop pedagogical approaches to deliver outsourcing as a legitimate course in business curricula, both at undergraduate and graduate levels. The present proposal will address various pedagogical issues on outsourcing. We believe the topic is timely and will generate a lot of academic and research interest.

Primary objective of the proposal is to prepare a course that will help students understand and deal effectively with the issue of global outsourcing. This course is an acknowledgment of the fact that global outsourcing is here to stay in the long term. Although outsourcing can be both offshore and onshore, it is more commonly used for offshore outsourcing. One of the visible and politically publicized effects of offshore outsourcing is loss of jobs in the United States. Job losses are always painful, and the recent recession and sluggish recovery have meant real hardship for many Americans. It is important, however, to shun hysteria and demagoguery in assessing what is going on with the economy and the labor market and examine the dynamics of outsourcing in an objective manner.

The total U.S. private-sector jobs increased by 17.8 million between 1993 and 2002. To produce that healthy net increase, a breath-taking total of 327.7 million jobs were added, while 309.9 million jobs were lost. In other words, for every one new net private-sector job created during that period, 18.4 gross job additions had to offset 17.4 gross job losses. Meanwhile, despite the new offshoring trend, the Department of Labor is forecasting a 35 percent increase in computer-and math-related jobs over the next decade. All of those job losses are a painful but necessary part of the larger process of innovation and

productivity increases that is the source of new wealth and rising living standards.

According to a May 2003 survey by *CIO*, 68 percent of the more than 100 IT executives who responded said their offshore contracts would increase significantly. The trend would continue (unless the U.S. government intervenes) because the apparent cost advantages are simply too seductive.

As more jobs move offshore, the work will move higher on the IT food chain. Indeed, it already has. The *CIO* survey found that 11 percent of the companies had outsourced system and architecture planning offshore, and 14 percent had outsourced research and development – two categories that analysts and chief information officers have predicted would never leave the shores of America.

Rationale

The course is designed to prepare students for future challenges of the global job market and to help them get a competitive edge. Outsourcing like any other business strategy has multiple facets and therefore theoretically it is advisable to approach the outsourcing issue from different perspectives. To emphasize a cross-functional teaching approach, the proposed course has been divided into several modules and each of these modules will be covered by specialist in that area. Below is provided a preliminary thought as to how the course can be broken into different modules and some issues that might be covered under that module.

Proposed Structure

1. Accounting/Finance Function

- ◆ The real impact of outsourcing on the US economy and world in general.
- ◆ Evaluating cost effectiveness of outsourcing in-shore and off-shore.

- ◆ Firms in different regions compare with regard to cost, quality, timely delivery performance, customer service, design, and other metrics of performance.
- ◆ Procedures of bidding for the job, inviting bids on a particular job, financial documents involved in the process.
- ◆ Intellectuals Property protection: reporting guidelines, auditing, taxes, etc.
- ◆ Export and Import Procedures and Intricacies.

2. Management/Production Function

- ◆ What are the medium and long-term benefits from a firm, country or regional viewpoint.
- ◆ How regions can attain competitive performance standards more quickly today.
- ◆ Managing client changes and vendor changes due to outsourcing.
- ◆ Managing failure of outsourcing.
- ◆ Providing scalability due to changing/expanding client needs.
- ◆ Sustaining long term primary outsourcing destination – Advantages for country like India.
- ◆ Remaining ahead of global competitors and at the pinnacle of innovation.
- ◆ Strategies and best practices to manage the mature outsourcing relationship.
- ◆ Outsourcing has changed hiring practices and HR policies. Skill sets are expected from workers, managers and executives.
- ◆ Training of personnel in outsource firm.

3. Marketing Function

- ◆ How do the traditional factors such as co-location, clustering, and scale impacting outsourcing or factors other than these that weigh in favor of outsourcing.
- ◆ How the recent phenomenon of outsourcing has affected the service sectors. Impact of these trends on the structure of firms. Would service

sector outsourcing follow similar trends as manufacturing?

- ◆ Customer relationship and marketing; marketing strategies for outsourcing.
- ◆ How regions and firms maintain competitive advantage in particular areas.
- ◆ The IT revolution has impacted the ability of firms to work together at long distance.
- ◆ Marketing of product/services across distances, time zones, cultural differences, and languages.
- ◆ Difficulty in maintaining quality and reliability in outsourcing.
- ◆ Managing expectations in a maturing marketplace.
- ◆ Offshore outsourcing: entry strategies.

The above functional areas will be further divided into several teaching modules in the proposed course as follows:

Teaching Modules

- Module 1: Introduction to Offshore Outsourcing
 - a. Offshore Outsourcing: What is it? Why do it?
- Module 2: An Overview of offshore outsourcing process
 - a. Offshore outsourcing Business Models
- Module 3: Offshore outsourcing: Understanding of Environmental Factors
 - a. Geopolitical climate
 - b. Culture
 - c. Language and Social Barriers
 - d. Technological and Economic Factors
 - e. Competition
- Module 4: Infrastructure, intellectual property, trademark, and security issues
- Module 5: Accounting Decisions
 - a. The real impact of outsourcing on the U.S. economy and world in general
 - b. Evaluating cost effectiveness of outsourcing in-shore and off-shore
 - c. Accounting principles and practices related to offshore outsourcing

- Module 6: Financial Decisions
- Assessment of financial performance of offshore outsourcing
 - Financial reporting guidelines, auditing, taxes, etc.
 - Assessment of financial risk, cost-benefit analysis, etc.
- Module 7: Navigating contracts and negotiations
- Procedures of bidding for contracts
 - Negotiation skills and strategies
- Module 8: Market Identification and Development
- Assessment and Analysis of client needs
 - Market segmentation strategies
 - Customer Relationship Management
 - Marketing strategies in offshore outsourcing
- Module 9: Development of Marketing Program in Offshore Outsourcing
- Product/service offerings: features, quality, warrantee, etc.
 - Communication with Customers and other target audiences
- Module 10: Development of Marketing Program in Offshore Outsourcing
- Distribution, supply chain management, and vendor issues
 - Pricing, foreign currency, rates, payments methods, etc.
- Module 11: Management of Human Resource
- Hiring and training policies
 - Retention, motivation, comensation, and termination practices
- Labor laws, child labor, diversity, labor union issues
 - Organizational structure and relationships for offshore outsourcing
- Module 12: Offshore outsourcing strategies
- Entry strategies: contractual manufacturing, joint ventures, strategic alliances, direct investment, etc.
 - Role of IT and e-commerce in the development of offshore outsourcing strategies
 - Location Analysis
- Module 13: Implementation and evaluation of offshore outsourcing strategies
- Development of performance standards and metrics
 - Policies and procedures for measuring performance metrics
 - Assessment and analysis of offshore performance
 - Evaluation and control of offshore outsourcing
- Module 14: Future of Offshore Outsourcing
- Offshore Outsourcing in the New Economy
 - Future challenges and directions in offshore outsourcing

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ORAL PRESENTATIONS IN MARKETING COURSES: STUDENT ATTITUDES AND SELF-ASSESSMENT

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ABSTRACT

Oral presentations represent important exercises for developing real-world communications and leadership skills. At the same time, they present unique challenges for marketing faculty in areas such as grading criteria, course weighting, and the impact of team participation. This paper explores student attitudes toward such oral presentations, based on results from a survey with nearly 100 respondents. Issues surveyed include preferences toward grading approaches, assessment of individual competencies, and attitudes toward the value of such presentations.

INTRODUCTION

Marketing education continues to focus itself on preparing students for the actual skills and competencies they will need in their careers, leading in turn to a necessary shift from pure classroom instruction toward active, experiential learning. Given the role of marketing as a science of promoting products and ideas, the ability to communicate clearly to groups of people represents a basic competency for its graduates. As a result, oral presentations tied in with project work are increasingly finding their way in undergraduate marketing courses.

- ◆ At the same time, the growth of oral presentations opens up some important pedagogical questions for marketing educators, including:
- ◆ How should the quality of an oral presentation factor in the grading of a marketing project, and how can we best assess this quality?
- ◆ What should the influence be of team participation on a marketing project and oral presentation, and in particular, what are appropriate boundaries for the assessment of individual participation within a team project?
- ◆ Which stakeholders should be involved in the assessment of an oral presentation – the faculty mem-

ber alone, the students who form the audience for an oral presentation, and/or the team members who can best judge individual levels or participation?

- ◆ What are the attitudes of students themselves toward these oral presentations, and what factors and competencies do they feel are important?

Oral presentation skills are an essential part of the communications processes that lie at the heart of all marketing endeavors, and there is a growing realization that these must be cultivated by marketing educators, as evidenced by an increasing trend to include both oral and written assignment in marketing course syllabi (Martin 1990). Corporate recruiters openly seek prospective marketing employees with excellent written and oral communication skills (Hawes and Foley 2006), and the lack of these skills has been cited as a key argument that business school education is losing its effectiveness (Armstrong 2004; Armstrong 2005). A study by Ferris (1998) showed that formal speaking was ranked highest among seven specific listening or speaking skills by students themselves, who also indicated little exposure to formal speaking in their classes, and a desire for further training in oral skills.

As a result, numerous authors have encouraged the development of courses directed toward the development of written and oral communication skills (McCole 2004). Scholars have suggested that these skills are best learned through involvement exercises with structured feedback, and not from listening to lectures on marketing theories (Young 2002). Lyke and Young (2006) have asserted that deep cognitive strategies (e.g., expanding on the course material through term projects and oral presentations reporting on these projects) generally produce better understanding of course material than do surface strategies (Pintrich and Garcia 1991), such as reading and repeating ideas learned in the course, and students who employ these strategies are likely to be more engaged with the material than are students who employ surface strategies.

A study conducted by Carroll (2006) showed that presentations and role-plays were regarded as the most important topic covered in sales related academic curriculum by both professors and sales professionals (Parker et al. 1996). While Carroll notes a relative lack of studies on best practices for assessing oral business presentations, one area that has been researched to some degree is the use of peer assessment techniques for these skills. Several studies show potential benefits and adequate reliability for this approach, while raising potential issues such as adequate training for raters, consistency of peer assessment criteria, and potential bias in areas such as gender, educational background, or participation in the development of criteria. (Topping 1998; Campbell et al. 2001; Langan et al. 2005), although a more recent study by Pinar and Girard (2006) shows no consistent patterns that substantiate gender bias.

Given the dearth of studies directed at oral presentations as a whole, the study discussed in this paper was designed to elicit the opinions of students from a standpoint of consumers of marketing education, to inform the design of effective oral presentation assignments and their assessment criteria for future marketing course programs. By analyzing and interpreting this data we can better fine-tune these efforts over the life cycle of a student's post-secondary education. These results, in turn, provides an effective composite picture of student attitudes toward oral presentations within the context of their marketing courses, and their own perceived sense of the importance of such presentations as part of their project work and overall educational experience.

METHODOLOGY

A survey was administered via electronic mail to students at a liberal arts college on the East Coast approximately two months after the conclusion of the spring term, containing 15 questions designed to explore student attitudes toward various aspects of oral presentations including their grading, the impact of team participation, an assessment of individual competencies, and the importance of these presentations, along with demographic information. The survey group consisted of students who have taken a Principles of Marketing course, students on record as having registered for this course in the next academic term, plus a smaller sample of students from a broad range of academic backgrounds serving in this school's Student Senate. A total of 94 responses were received, with representation from freshman through senior class levels ranging from 15 percent to 32 percent of total respondents, and approximately a 2 to 1 ratio of females to males (64 versus 30). A majority of respondents (55) were students of business, and nearly two-thirds (61.7% or 58 respondents) had taken an introduc-

tory Principles of Marketing course. The survey questions were as follows:

I. Demographic Information

The following questions were asked to classify the demographics of the respondents:

1. What year did or do you expect to graduate from college?
2. Did you enroll and complete a course entitled Principles of Marketing?
3. What is your gender?
4. What is your major or specialization?

II. Grading Approaches

5. As an individual presenter, if you were delivering a 30-minute presentation to your class, do you believe you should receive one grade for your oral presentation and a separate grade for the written portion of that presentation? If no, explain.
6. If you were completing an individual term project, and that project required you to deliver a thirty-minute oral presentation to the class on that term project, what do you believe should be the weight of the oral presentation to your final grade in the course? (0%, 1%–5%, 6%–10%, 11%–15%, 16%–20%, 21%–25%, 26%–30%, or other).
7. As a team presenter, if your team were delivering one thirty-minute presentation to your class, do you believe your team should receive one-grade for your oral presentation and a separate grade for the written portion of the presentation? If no, explain:
8. If you were completing a team term project, and that project required that you deliver a thirty-minute oral presentation to the class, what do you believe should be the weight of the oral presentation to your final grade in the course? (0%, 1%–5%, 6%–10%, 11%–15%, 16%–20%, 21%–25%, 26%–30%, or other).
9. Please rate the following grading approaches as Poor, Average, Good, or Excellent:
 - i. Graded solely by the professor, using criteria from an evaluation form distributed prior

- to preparing and presenting the oral presentation.
- ii. Graded partially by peer evaluations from each student attending the oral presentation, where attendees complete an evaluation form and submit to instructor.
- iii. Graded partially by peer evaluations from team members rating each team member's level of participation in preparing and presenting the oral presentation.

III. Assessment of individual competencies

10. How confident are you in your ability to do the following (No confidence, Limited confidence, Moderately confident, Very confident).
 - i. speak clearly?
 - ii. match your style and content to suit the audience?
 - iii. effective use of time?
 - iv. effective use of transitioning to different topics or ideas in your presentation?
 - v. organize ideas and explain them clearly?
 - vi. use visual aids effectively, e.g., PowerPoint?
 - vii. use body language effectively?
 - viii. respond to questions from your audience?
 - ix. dress appropriately (professional attire) to suit the audience?
 - x. ability to handle the media equipment for your presentation, projector, microphone, laptop, visual aids, etc.
 - xi. deal with speaking anxiety before and during your presentation?

IV. Attitudes toward oral presentations

11. Rank the importance of each of the following five categories from 1 to 5: Preparation, Organization, Content, Presentation, and Oral Skills
12. Please explain any bad experiences you have had as a class presenter.
13. How would you describe the top two personal characteristics of an excellent oral presentation?
14. Do you believe delivering oral presentations into the classroom enhances your college experiences and educational goals?
15. Do you believe delivering oral presentations into the classroom improves your future professional skills?

Results from the survey questions listed above were then coded as followed for further analysis:

- ◆ Major and specialization values were grouped into one of the following overall categories: Business, Education, Social Science, Science, Liberal Arts, and Other.
- ◆ A content analysis was performed on responses to questions 11 and 12. Answers for question 11 were grouped into one of the following categories: Team issues, Lack of preparation, Speaking anxiety, Audience reaction, and Logistical issues, while answers for question 12 were grouped into one of the following categories: Interest, Knowledge, Confidence, Strength of Topic, and Presentation Skills.
- ◆ Other survey responses were coded as quantitative values as specified by respondents.

Responses to these questions were compiled, and this data was then analyzed for both aggregate responses and the relationship of these responses to demographics factors such as gender and declared major. Except as noted below, the vast majority of these responses showed little variation with demographic factors.

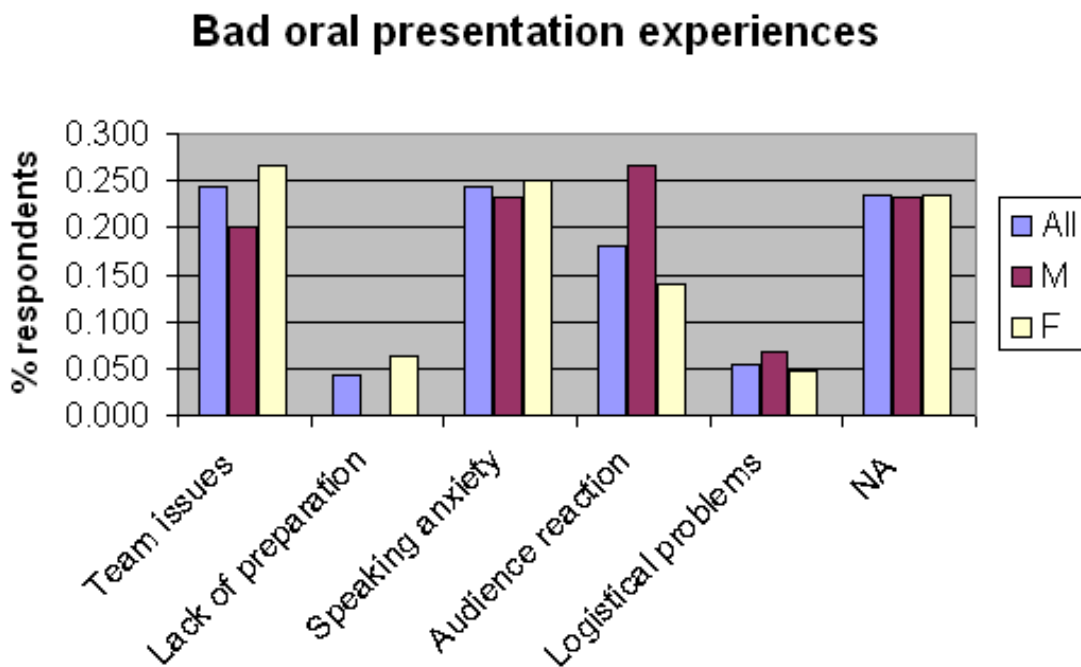
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of this study underscored the importance of oral presentations in the opinions of students themselves, while at the same time revealing a number of findings that challenge traditional thinking about the use of these presentations in marketing education. Some of the key findings include the following:

Students Have Substantial Ambivalence about Team Presentations and Peer Assessment

In an ideal world, the college classroom may appear to be a promising laboratory for participatory approaches to both project work and assessment – however, this view is not widely shared among students themselves. In a content analysis of qualitative responses about bad experiences with oral presentations, one of the most common was being part of a presentation team, cited by nearly a quarter of respondents (24.5%) as shown in Figure 1. Common concerns included team members not sharing the workload equally, being out of touch, or impacting the final presentation with poor presentation skills. As one student noted, “My grade was lowered once because of my partner not being a good presenter. In almost every group project I’ve done, there are always students who do a majority of the work and other members who don’t do nearly enough.” While not shown in this figure, this was

FIGURE 1
Bad Student Experiences with Oral Presentations, as Percentages of Respondents, for All Students and by Gender



also one area where a higher percentage of students with a core major of business shared team concerns (29.1% of respondents) versus other majors (17.9% of respondents).

This ambivalence extends to peer assessment, both in terms of student audience reactions and grading issues. In the former case, Figure 1 also shows that 18.5 percent of respondents cite audience reactions as a bad experience in oral presentations. The majority of these cite inattention as their main concern, however, some speak of fellow students openly trying to disrupt their presentation, and more than one notes other students making fun of their accent. This was also one of few survey areas where there were substantive differences based on gender, with nearly twice the percentage of female students (26.7% versus 14.1% of males) highlighting audience reactions as their worst experience.

These concerns are also reflected in attitudes toward the grading oral presentations, as shown in Figure 2. A majority of those responding rate grading solely by professor from good to excellent (38 out of 65 responses), while a majority rated the addition of grading input by peer audiences as average to good (72 out of 93 responses), and grading input from participation ratings by

team members as poor to average (60 out of 92 responses). Students overwhelmingly preferred that a separate grade be given for oral versus written projects (90.4% of responses for both individual and team projects), with a median preferred weighting (i.e., percentage of total grade) of 16–20 percent for individual projects and 21–25 percent for team projects.

There Is a Considerable Gap Between How Students Assess Their Own Presentation Skill Needs Versus How They Evaluate Other Presentations

Simply put, the traits that students value the most in other presentations involve pedagogical competencies such as presentation skills and capturing audience interest, yet when they look in the mirror to rate their own most important skills, content and organization issues are rated far over these skills. When asked to quantitatively describe the top characteristics of an excellent oral presentation, an overwhelming majority of students gave their highest rating to platform skills such as creating audience interest (28.7% of responses), showing confidence (25.5%), and presentation skills (23.4%). Conversely, Figures 3 and 4 show that when asked to rate the importance of their own oral presentation skills, students rated content (28 out of 94 responses), preparation (19) and

FIGURE 2
Student Ratings of Grading Approaches for Oral Presentations

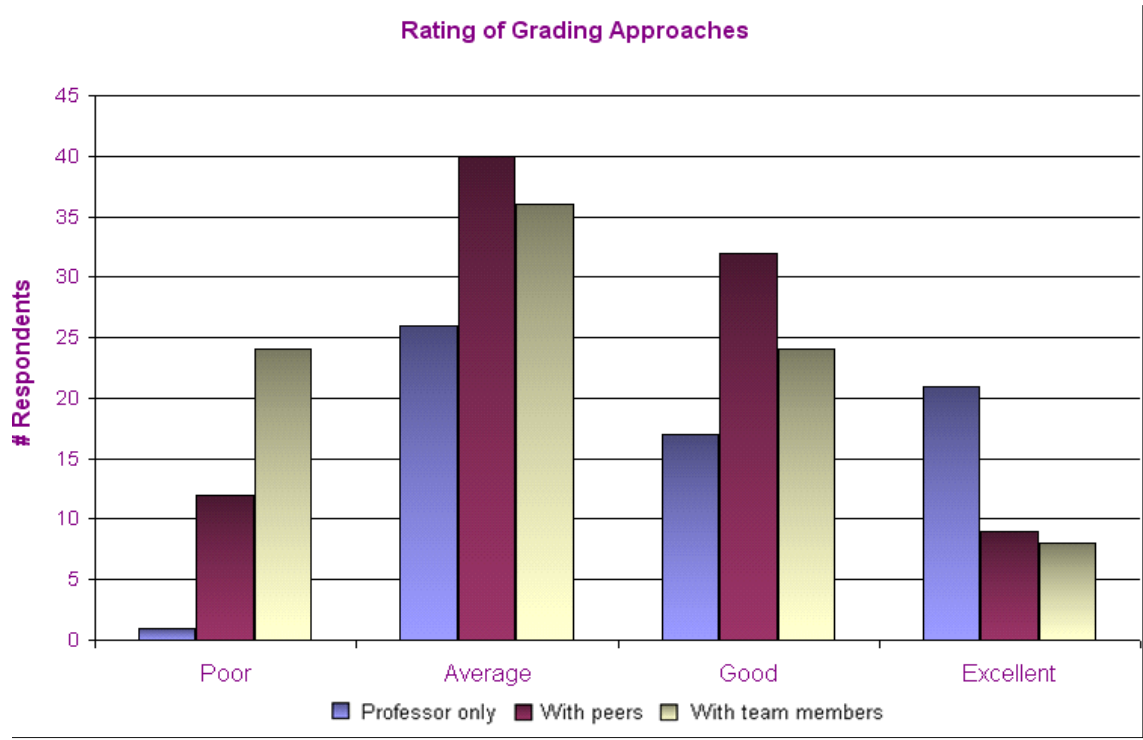


FIGURE 3
Factors Rated Most Important by Students for Oral Presentations

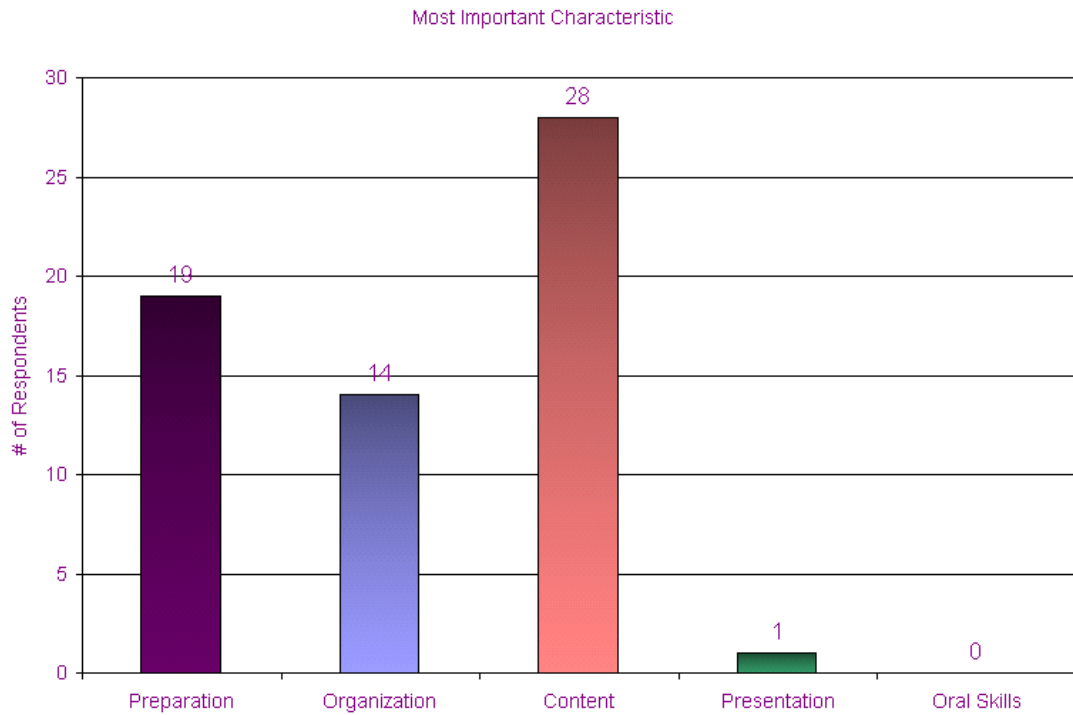
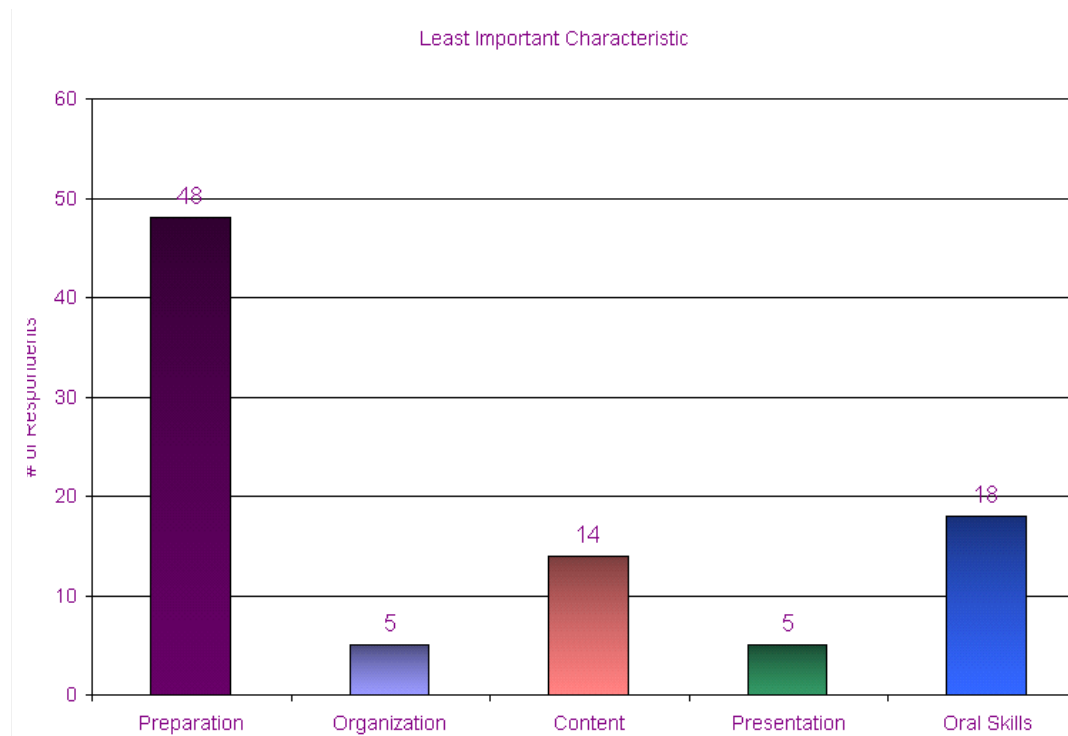


FIGURE 4
Factors Rated Least Important by Students for Oral Presentations



organization (14) the highest, while only one respondent rated presentation skills the highest, and none rated oral skills the highest – in fact, 19 percent of respondents rated oral skills as their lowest priority.

Students place a high value on the importance of oral presentations; yet disclose considerable anxiety about speaking. Respondents almost universally rated oral presentations as being important to both their academic experience (94.7%, or 89 out of 94) and their future careers (98.9%, or 93 out of 94). At the same time, delivering these presentations remains a source of anxiety for many students. Among responses rating their own competencies for oral presentations, control of speaking anxiety was the lowest rated area, with an average rating of 2.85 out of 4.0 across all respondents, as shown in Figure 5. In general, students rated procedural competencies such as dress (3.83), use of visual aids (3.53), and use of audio/visual equipment (3.27) the highest, while pedagogical skills such as body language (3.0), managing time (3.09), and speaking clearly (3.13) were rated the lowest. These results showed a very similar variation across both gender and declared major.

In the content analysis of bad speaking experiences discussed earlier in Figure 1, a plurality of respondents

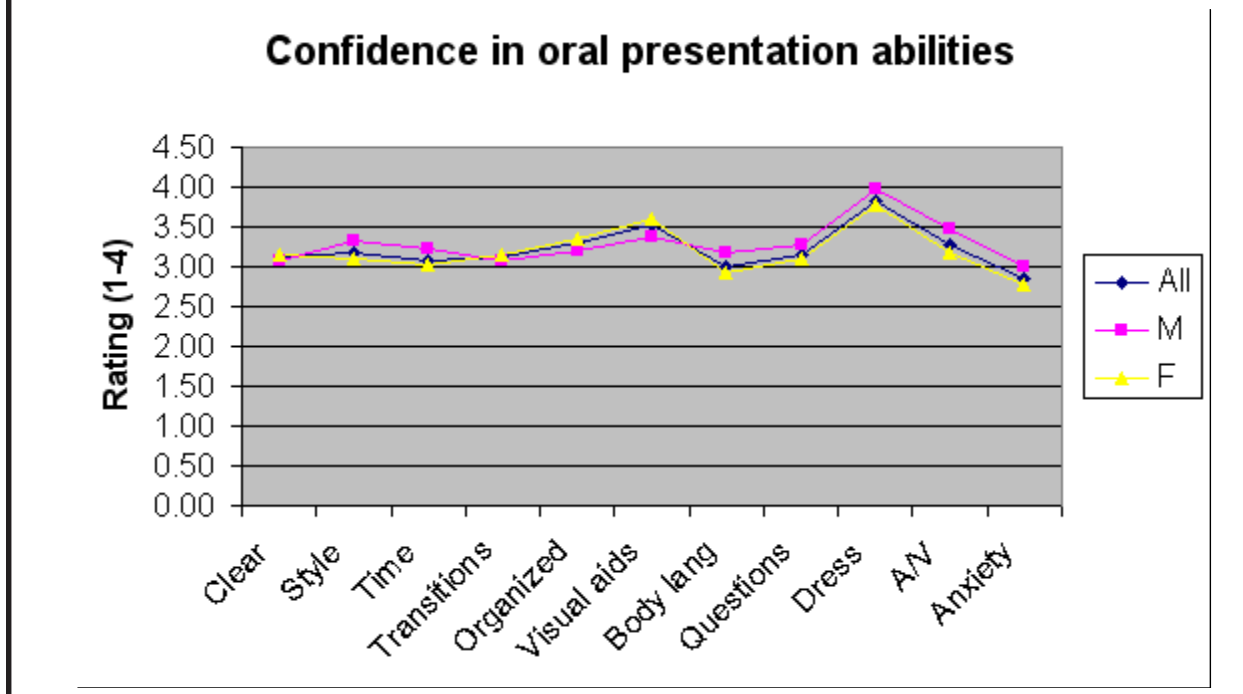
also identified their own anxieties (24.5% of respondents) as being their worst experience, together with the aforementioned concerns with audience reactions and team issues.

These findings paint a clear picture of students who on one hand see great value in developing good oral presentation skills as part of one’s marketing education, and on the other hand lack perception regarding the basic skills and competencies that will make these efforts successful in both academia and their future careers. Moreover, these results point to legitimate concerns regarding the differences in both participation levels and assessment skills among their fellow students. Finally, the fear of public speaking – commonly rated as our worst fear – remains an impediment for many students in leveraging oral presentations as a tool to enhance their personal skills and marketability.

SUMMARY

Taken in sum total, these survey results represent a challenge to marketing educators who wish to give their students more real-world exposure in the form of oral presentations, particularly when they are part of a team project. Making these experiences truly effective in the

FIGURE 5
Ratings of Student Confidence Levels in Specific Competencies for Oral Presentations



future will require creative thought in a number of areas, including:

- ◆ How do we accurately assess the value of individual contributions within a team presentation? Moreover, how can we turn team projects into effective learning experiences for each of the participants involved?
- ◆ How can we educate students themselves to be effective and respectful consumers of oral presentations, and successfully help assess and coach such presentations as their peers develop their own presentation skills?
- ◆ What steps need to be taken to improve the platform and pedagogical skills of student presenters? More important, how can we teach students what speaking and presentation competencies are valued by the business world in their careers?
- ◆ How can we effectively address common student fears of speaking in public, particularly in front of their peers?

Further areas for research may include surveying larger sample sizes, addressing a more general student population, and surveying a larger number of males to further examine gender effects. Survey methodologies such as class-based surveys may also reveal further data beyond

students who self-select to respond to an independent survey such as this one. Areas for further investigation such as these can potentially serve as a basis for turning oral presentations into a tool for personal growth and development among marketing students, and in turn add depth and value to their overall educational experience.

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COMPUTER GAME PLAYING EXPERIENCE AND ITS IMPACT ON BUSINESS SIMULATION GAME PERFORMANCE

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Many variables have been examined as they relate to student performance in business simulation games. Among those variables examined in past published research can be found participant personality characteristics, GPA, gender, ethnic origin, team size, decision time pressure, the degree of simulation explanation provided, method of team formation, previous business experience, student major, previous business courses taken, degree of team organization and planning, team cohesion, locus of control, leadership, attitude toward simulations, strategic planning, and instructor interest among others (Faria 2000).

Intuitively, as instructors, we generally accept that student enthusiasm or interest in a particular subject affects student performance (Brenenstuhl and Blalack 1977). Some students express an above average interest in particular course activities, such as the use of simulation games (Lumsden 1970) as a major or minor part of the course. It is generally believed that an interest in a topic, or activity, would lead to more time devoted to that activity and better performance in that activity (Snyder 1993). However, past research does not show a relationship between the amount of time student teams devote to business games and their resulting success in the simulation game (Armenakis, Feud, and Holley 1974).

According to Snyder (1993), "Today's simulations require substantial time involvement for the gamer on the computer. Indeed, game organizers can state that the quality of each team's decision for a given time period is a function of the number of hours spent running what-if scenarios and attempts to learn how the game's model works."

In addition to individual interest and motivation, a cohesive simulation team and strong leadership have been shown to be related to improved performance (Badgett 1980; Faria 2000; Wolfe and Box 1986).

The use of decision support tools might also be expected to lead to improved performance in business simulation competitions. However, according to Armenakis et al. (1974), successful teams did not employ more quantitative decision tools than less successful teams.

Finally, it is generally accepted that the more successful a team is in a simulation game the more positive outlook the team members have about the simulation experience and the more confident they are that the simulation game is a true reflection of their skills.

Over the past twenty years, the popularity of computer and video entertainment games has increased as has the sophistication of these games. The term "gamer" has become a popular term to describe heavy users of these games. According to the *Random House Unabridged Dictionary*, a "gamer" is an individual taking part in "a competitive activity involving skill, chance, or endurance on the part of two or more persons who play according to a set of rules, usually for their own amusement or for that of spectators."

In classes in which business games are used, these "gamers" are often easily identifiable because they are eager to form teams and to participate in the simulation exercise. There is also an impression that because of their experience and interest in games, that they are willing to spend the time needed to learn and adapt to the business game which should, in turn, impact on their performance. If "gamers" are identifiable and impact team rankings in simulation competitions, this is a factor that should be considered in team formation.

As no "gamer" studies for marketing simulation games could be found, the authors decided to examine the "gamer" and simulation game performance in a second year Marketing Management course. The study involved 42 marketing students (43% considered themselves to be

“gamers”) divided into 14 teams playing *COMPETE: A Dynamic Marketing Simulation* (Faria 2006). The individuals were evaluated based on their performance as regional managers (85%) in the competition as well as for their overall team ranking (15%). Using a structural equation modeling program (PLS Graph 3.0), the authors concluded that the “non-gamers” spent more time on the simulation competition than the “gamers.” Other factors examined, such as use of decision tools, team cohesiveness and game performance were not related to the participant’s “gamer” labelling. A structural equation model to show the relationships between game performance and the above factors was developed and will be further examined in an upcoming study with a larger number of students.

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DIRECTING STUDENT-LED CLIENT MARKETING PLANS IN AN INTERACTIVE VIDEO NETWORK (IVN) DISTANCE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT: CHALLENGES AND SUGGESTIONS

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Distance learning environments provide unique challenges for the professor who is dedicated to constructing a practitioner-oriented learning experience involving student teams; especially when the students are geographically disbursed and the learning experience involves the development of disciplined and integrated marketing plans for area businesses. Global teaching objectives should include comprehension and retention of course content, assimilation of course knowledge into a real-life setting with the team's client, involvement of clients who will provide a rich experience for problem-based learning, management and assessment of the student team/client relationship, established processes for managing conflict, and evaluation of student performance and client satisfaction.

Challenges and their corresponding suggestions follow:

1. Using marketing case studies as the basis for the marketing plans will provide the students with non-current information. If the case features a popular company, then plagiarism or cheating is a possibility. To avoid these challenges, a solution is to use local businesses. This may be done one of two ways. First, the professor may secure the clients, but this is a time-bound endeavor and leaves the students without knowledge of how to initiate partnership with a business. Second, the professor may provide guidelines for qualifying a local business (e.g., must be in business for at least two years, provide two years of financial statements, meet with student teams as often as necessary and provide two years of past marketing effort examples). This last approach empowers the student teams from the beginning and since the client is local, it is unlikely that existing marketing plans or documents (undisclosed to the professor) can be found or plagiarized.
2. If the marketing plan outline is too complex for the client at hand (e.g., asking for SBU financial breakdowns from a local client that is a small sole proprietorship), the students will struggle with applicability. The marketing plan outline chosen should reflect the breadth and depth of the types of clients likely to be chosen at a local level.
3. Micromanagement of student/client relationship should be avoided. A professor who attends each student/client meeting is likely not making the most use of his/her time or entrusting the students to their learning environment. Instead the professor should provide a set of pre-established questions for client interviews and have teams audio record each interview to refer to repeatedly. These may be typed out and turned in as an assignment.
4. Client satisfaction surveys should be taken after the end of the semester regarding the plan provided and the student/client relationship quality.
5. The IVN environment makes it difficult to create connections with the students at the distance sites. A professor should teach from each distance site at least once a semester if possible, arriving early or staying late to meet and consult with each team and guide them personally in the process. This should be done at a critical time in the project such as after the Situational Analysis, Target Market, and Objectives have been written but before the Strategy and Tactics sections.
6. Throughout the semester, remind the students of the vision for the project and tell them of the pride in their hard work. In addition, remind them that the clients will be invited to attend the student teams' professional presentations at the end of the semester. This will cement in their minds that the professor has high expectations.
7. Student teams often get frustrated and have questions as the marketing plan is developed. To assist students, identify frequent question areas and pro-

vide them with the answers. Common questions involve: (a) Where to find credible secondary research sources, (b) How to interpolate industry trends to a regional or local level, (c) How to define who the competition is, (d) What company information is needed, and (e) How to communicate efficiently and effectively within the team and with the professor. Communications can be facilitated by having a class website where this information is posted and also creating a list-serve for the class. In addition Peer/Group Evaluations should be taken mid- and end-semester to assess each student's perception of their own and their team-member's contribution and attitude in the group. The professor should meet with groups that evidence problematic behaviors or attitudes and attempt to get the team on track by managing the conflict, using active listening skills, placing importance on teamwork, and re-casting the vision for the project. Project grades should be in part tied to this evaluation.

8. For most students this will be the first marketing plan they have written, so breaking the plan down into subsections is most effective to facilitate learning. Students should be required to "fix" all mistakes (omissions or commissions) in the graded subsections before handing in the final marketing plan.

9. Avoid using campus mail for assignment collection and return. Having all student teams submit assignments as email attachments is timely. In turn, grading the attached document and putting professor comments in red with grade at the top, facilitates the return. With only a semester to produce a valuable marketing plan, quick turnaround of assignments is critical. Exams may be faxed to the professor from the distance site to facilitate grading, then returned via campus mail.
10. Team projects may result in grade inflation for students who are not performing to their capacity, especially if their team members protect them. To guard against this, the proportion of the overall course grade allotted for individual performance (presentations, participation, exams, other assignments) must outweigh that of the team project. The marketing plan should account for no more than 35 percent of the overall grade in the course.

Following these 10 guidelines will help a professor to effectively and efficiently manage the development of a student-led marketing plan developed for a local client. The result is a valuable learning experience for the students, a quality marketing plan for the client, and goodwill built for the Marketing Department, College, and University.

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BRINGING ACTIVE LEARNING TO THE CLASSROOM

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One of the best ways to facilitate student learning in a classroom is to let students actively engage in tasks that simulate the types of decisions marketing managers make on a daily basis. Develop active learning exercises that allow students to perform marketing behaviors, interact with other students during class and learn from each other. Use class time to allow students to work on projects in groups, work on assignments in pairs, work on problems individually and then in groups, and work on exercises in groups. As hard as it is for some professors to admit, students can, and often do, learn more when the professor is not talking.

Adopt an active learning philosophy that learning is doing! Students learn when they DO. Students learn when they are actively working toward a learning goal instead of passively listening to a lecture. Unfortunately, this philosophy is often difficult for professors to adopt. They feel uncomfortable relinquishing time in the classroom to students. They feel that they are not teaching when they are not talking. Unfortunately, many teachers believe that teaching means talking – usually in the form of a lecture. However, if you let students take class time to work actively, work interactively and work coopera-

tively, you will notice increases in student learning, increases in student involvement, increases in student motivation, and increases in interactions between students as well as between students and teachers.

An active learning philosophy requires a complete reversal of teachers' and students' activities inside and outside of the classroom. With the traditional model of classroom activities, students are to be passive receivers of knowledge in classroom settings. They are to sit and take notes while a teacher lectures. Conversely, students are expected to be active integrators of knowledge outside of the classroom, working on projects, problems, homework, and exercises on their own time. For their part, teachers in the traditional model are to be active providers of knowledge during class sessions, delivering and presenting mass amounts of material and information (usually from the textbook) in a relatively short class session. Teachers have traditionally viewed teaching as lecturing. So, teachers spend most of their time outside of class preparing what they will say in their lectures. Unfortunately, this traditional model of classroom activities does not work well if learning objectives are behaviorally based and learning is measured behaviorally on tests.

Traditional Model of Classroom Activities		
	In-Class	Out-of-Class
Student	Passive receiver of information (knowledge). Take notes as teacher lectures from the textbook.	Active participation in groups, work on projects and papers, do homework.
Teacher	Actively provide, deliver, and dispense information (knowledge) from the textbook. "Sage on Stage"	Prepare for lecture (What will I say in my lecture?). How can I present the material from the textbook?

An alternative model of classroom activities views students as active integrators and co-discoverers of knowledge in the classroom during a class session. Students are

given time in class to work on projects, solve problems and complete exercises individually and in groups. With the active teaching model, the action shifts from the

teacher to the student. Teachers become less active during class, while students become more active during class. Teachers are not to be performers who merely deliver information. Rather, teachers are to be the evaluators of students' progress during in-class projects,

problems and exercises. They are to monitor students' progress toward behavioral learning objectives, offer suggestions for improved performance, and guide students through the improvement process.

The Active Learning Model of Classroom Activities		
	In-Class	Out-of-Class
Student	Active participant in the learning process; interactive, cooperative and discovery based learning.	Read material, prepare for activities in class.
Teacher	Guide activities of students, monitor and evaluate performance. <i>"Guide on the Side"</i>	Identify and prioritize behavioral learning objectives, develop activities for in-class exercises (What will I have them do in class?)

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LEARNING STYLE PREFERENCES AND CULTURAL BACKGROUNDS: A COMPARISON OF STUDENTS IN THE BASIC MARKETING COURSE

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ABSTRACT

The *Index of Learning Styles* (ILS) was administered during the 2007 spring term to 80 students in the basic Marketing course. Of these 80 students, 42 were American students and 38 were international students representing the countries of China, Japan, Poland, Germany, Italy, Taiwan, and Singapore. The purpose of this exploratory research was to investigate whether cultural background played a role in learning style preferences in the classroom. Using basic descriptive statistics, it was concluded that American students preferred learning styles that are active, sensing, visual, and global whereas international students preferred learning styles that are reflective, sensing, visual, and sequential.

INTRODUCTION AND SELECTED LITERATURE REVIEW

Little research on learning styles in the United States has focused on the relationship between learning styles and cultural diversity in the college classroom. More recently researchers have suggested links between learning styles and culture and underscore the critical need for more research into the learning styles of diverse student groups.

Research has shown that there exist certain tendencies toward learning among students from certain cultural backgrounds (Mushi 2001). De Vita (2001) reports that a student's culture influences perceptual, organizational, processing and communication styles. Since these processes are the main elements affecting learning styles, it follows that culture and learning style share a relationship that cannot be disregarded by researchers (Church 2001). A study by Wan (2001) suggests that in the wake of discovering how learning style preferences affect educational needs, attention has shifted to cultural diversity in the college classroom. Dunn (1997) acknowledges that culture affects learning styles but recognizes that

distinct learning style patterns don't necessarily fit a specific cultural group. York (1995) supports the fact that there is a correlation between student's cultural background and their preferred learning style and has identified a number of variables that may influence the extent to which a student exhibits the learning style associated with his/her culture. Guild (1994) examines the relationship between culture and learning style and concludes that the only way to meet the learning needs of culturally diverse college students is to intentionally apply diverse teaching strategies. Likewise, Bennett (1986) emphasizes that the concept of learning styles offers a value-neutral approach for understanding individual differences among students from various cultural backgrounds. The assumption is that everyone can learn, provided professors respond appropriately to individual learning needs.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research field of learning styles is both extensive and conceptually diverse. With learning styles models being developed simultaneously and relatively autonomously within departments of business, education, law, science, and psychology in universities throughout the world there are over 100 models in existence (Mitchell 1994).

To gain some insight regarding the learning style preferences of students compared to their cultural backgrounds in the basic marketing course the Felder-Soloman Index of Learning Styles (2006) was used. This particular instrument was chosen for various reasons: the questionnaire is available on-line, free, simple to use and interpret, and has good validation results (Felder and Spurlin 2005; Litzinger et al. 2005; Zywno 2003; Livesay et al. 2002).

The current version of the ILS consists of four dichotomous dimensions and a student's learning style can be defined in terms of the answers to the following questions

(Felder 1993): How does the student prefer to process information: *actively* – through engagement in physical activity or discussion, or *reflectively* – through introspection? What type of information does the student preferentially perceive: *sensory* – sights, sounds, physical sensations, or *intuitive* – memories, ideas, insights? Through which modality is sensory information most effectively perceived: *visual* – pictures, diagrams, graphs, demonstrations, or *verbal* – sounds, written and spoken words and formulas? How does the student progress toward understanding: *sequentially* – in a logical progression of small incremental steps, or *globally* – in large jumps, holistically?

The ILS was administered during the 2007 spring term to 80 students in the basic Marketing course. Of these 80 students, 42 were American students and 38 were international students representing the countries of China, Japan, Poland, Germany, Italy, Taiwan, and Singapore. Each student was given a printed version of the ILS questionnaire that consisted of 44 incomplete sentences to which an “a” or “b” response could be selected to finish the statement. The questionnaire took approximately 10–15 minutes to complete. The responses of students were submitted on-line and a profile for each student was returned with scores on all four dimensions.

Each learning style dimension was scored on a scale from -11 to +11 and showed an emerging preference for the given modality. For statistical analyses it was convenient to calculate only the “a” responses so that a score on a dimension would be an integer ranging from 0 to 11 (Felder and Spurlin 2005). Using the visual-verbal dimension as an example, 0 or 1 “a” responses represented

a strong preference for visual learning, 2 or 3 a moderate preference for visual learning, 4 or 5 a mild preference for visual, 6 or 7 a mild preference for verbal, 8 or 9 a moderate preference for verbal and 10 or 11 a strong preference for verbal learning.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE USING FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS

Data presented in Table 1 shows the frequency distributions for the active-reflective learning style preference divided between American students and international students. Of the 42 American students four students represented strong active, 17 students moderate active and 6 students mild active. Mild reflective and moderate reflective responses combined represented 15 students, and no student fell into the strong reflective category. None of the 38 international students were in the strong active category. Six students fell into the moderate active group and nine students in the mild active group. The mild reflective category represented 14 international students with nine students in moderate reflective and no student representing the strong reflective learning style preference. Thus, 64 percent of American students preferred some degree of active learning (strong, moderate, or mild) compared to 39 percent of international students.

Table 2 shows the frequency distributions for the sensing-intuitive learners. For the American students six recorded strong sensing, nine students moderate sensing and 12 students mild sensing. On the intuitive side seven students were mild intuitive, four students moderate intuitive and four students strong intuitive. For the international students, three were in the strong sensing cat-

TABLE 1
Frequency Distributions for Active-Reflective Learners

Preference	Number of American Students	Number of International Students
Strong Active	4	0
Moderate Active	17	6
Mild Active	6	9
Mild Reflective	11	14
Moderate Reflective	4	9
Strong Reflective	0	0
Total	42	38

egory, eight in moderate sensing and 18 in mild sensing. Nine students represented mild intuitive and zero students fell into either the moderate intuitive or strong intuitive class. Sixty-four percent of American students preferred some degree of sensory learning and 76 percent of international students preferred sensory learning.

The frequency distributions for the visual-verbal dimension are shown in Table 3. Twelve American students prefer strong visual, 13 students were moderate visual and eight students were mild visual. Mild verbal, moderate verbal, and strong verbal represented four, five, and

zero students respectively. Of the international students six were strong visual, 14 represented moderate visual and 12 mild visual. Mild verbal, moderate verbal, and strong verbal represented zero students, six students and zero students respectively. For visual-verbal learners, 79 percent of American students preferred some degree of visual learning compared to 84 percent of international students in this same category.

In the sequential-global dimension zero American students were strong sequential, 15 students were moderate sequential and 9 students were mild sequential. The

TABLE 2
Frequency Distributions for Sensing-Intuitive Learners

Preference	Number of American Students	Number of International Students
Strong Sensing	6	3
Moderate Sensing	9	8
Mild Sensing	12	18
Mild Intuitive	7	9
Moderate Intuitive	4	0
Strong Intuitive	4	0
Total	42	38

TABLE 3
Frequency Distributions for Visual-Verbal Learners

Preference	Number of American Students	Number of International Students
Strong Visual	12	6
Moderate Visual	13	14
Mild Visual	8	12
Mild Verbal	4	0
Moderate Verbal	5	6
Strong Verbal	0	0
Total	42	38

number of American students in the mild global category was 7, with 9 representing moderate global and two students in strong global. Of the international students, three were strong sequential, nine were moderate sequential and 18 were mild sequential. On the global side, five international students were mild global, three were moderate global and zero students were strong global. Fifty-seven percent of American students preferred some degree of sequential learning compared to 79 percent of international students.

ADDITIONAL DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL RESULTS

The means and standard deviations were recorded for each of the four learning style preferences divided by

American students and international students. Table 5 illustrates the results. The smaller the value of the mean the more students prefer active, sensing, visual, and sequential learning. The larger the value of the mean illustrates a preference for reflective, intuitive, verbal, and global learning.

For the active-reflective learning style preference the mean for American students was 4.17 compared to a mean of 5.97 for international students. Active learners tend to understand and retain information best by engaging in hands-on activities. Unlike reflective learners who like to study and solve problems alone, active learners like group work where they discuss material with others. The difference between the two means was statistically significant at the .01 level.

Preference	Number of American Students	Number of International Students
Strong Sequential	0	3
Moderate Sequential	15	9
Mild Sequential	9	18
Mild Global	7	5
Moderate Global	9	3
Strong Global	2	0
Total	42	38

	American Students (n = 42)		International Students (n = 38)	
	Mean	Standard Dev.	Mean	Standard Dev.
ACT-REF*	4.17	2.347	5.97	2.047
SEN-INT	4.71	2.916	4.29	2.065
VIS-VRB	3.45	2.734	3.71	2.556
SEQ-GLO*	5.92	2.578	4.34	1.977

*Difference between means statistically significant at .01 level.

In the sensing-intuitive learning style category both American students and international students showed a preference for the sensing learning style. The mean for American students was 4.71, and the mean for international students was 4.29. Sensing learners understand information better with real-world applications. They like learning facts, brainstorming solutions with group members and solving problems in a methodical way. The intuitive learners are comfortable with abstract ideas, mathematical formulas and reflecting on creative methods of problem solving. The difference between means was not statistically significant at the .01 or .05 levels.

The difference between means was not statistically significant at the .01 or .05 levels between the two groups for the visual-verbal learning style dimension. American students as well as international students prefer a classroom environment where visual learning is emphasized. The mean for American students was 3.45, and the mean for international students was 3.71. Visual learners learn and remember information best when they see diagrams, pictures, videos, and demonstrations unlike their verbal counterparts that learn best by reading written material from textbooks or handouts and listening to class lecture and discussion.

For the sequential-global learning style dimensions, American students tended to be global learners whereas international students tended to be sequential learners. The mean for American students was 5.92 compared to their international counterparts with a mean of 3.71. Sequential learners first understand logical sequential steps that comprise the whole picture rather than global learners who need to grasp the whole picture first before understanding the individual steps. The difference between means was statistically significant at the .01 level.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This exploratory research has been an attempt to compare learning style preferences and culture differences in the basic Marketing course. Eighty students enrolled in Marketing were given the Felder and Soloman's Index of Learning Styles questionnaire during the 2007 spring term. Overall, American students preferred learning styles that were active, sensing, visual and global. International students preferred learning styles that were reflective, sensing, visual, and sequential.

The small sample size was a major limitation to this research. Differences in gender were not taken into account. Other statistical tests such as chi-square could be used to analyze the data, but was beyond the scope of this paper.

As the number of international students continues to rise, it is important to create a classroom environment where both American and international students can thrive. What is presented in the classroom will be of little use to students if it cannot be applied in real life situations-particularly to the learner's cultural circumstances. As professors work with increasingly diverse college-student populations, an awareness and understanding of how culture relates to learning style preferences is vitally important. Further work should be undertaken to address the appropriate pedagogy used in college classrooms populated by international students.

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GMATOEFL

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ABSTRACT

Students wishing to study in the U.S. are now faced with additional costs and layers of bureaucracy as new entry procedures are implemented by the Department of Homeland Security. These act as barriers to the student, as the more difficult and costly the process becomes, the more likely it is that the student will elect not to study in the U.S. Alternate locations are aggressively competing with the U.S. One way of reducing the costs is to eliminate the TOEFL requirement for MBA applicants. This paper looks at some preliminary data which would support such an action.

INTRODUCTION

Since 2001, the Department of Homeland Security has instituted new procedures (one being the SEVIS database) to process student applications. Congress mandated that the cost of this system can be recovered by charging the users – in this case, the applying student. All students are now required to personally appear at a U.S. consular office; while previously this was a step that many students could complete by mail. Depending on the country, a trip to the nearest consular office can be a time consuming and expensive process, often involving travel and hotel expenses.

However, the benefits for encouraging international students to come to the U.S. remain unchanged. Studying in the U.S. allows the student to experience a capitalist economic system, a democratic political system, gain experience which may help both to improve the student's career development and to develop relationships with persons of different cultures. Long term benefits may accrue to the "sending" country because returning students are citizens who can contribute to the development of their country after being exposed to "cutting edge" education and technology while overseas.

If students elect to remain in the country of study after graduation, the "receiving" county can gain. The U.S. has gained productive immigrants from such students who remain in the country after completing their studies. In a global sense, international cultural exposure may con-

tribute to better political understanding and in the long term, greater peace, cooperation and harmony between nations.

As the language of commerce remains strongly English, foreign students seek countries in which the primary language is English. Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, as well as Britain and Ireland, are alternatives to the U.S. As barriers to entering the U.S. have risen, applications to competing countries have tended to rise.

Additionally, as educational standards and opportunities increase in traditional "sending" nations, many students simply find it easier to stay at home and study rather than face first, the daunting bureaucracy of getting a visa, and then, the resulting perception of a possible uncomfortable welcome once they arrive in the U.S. Many overseas universities are now conducting some or all of their MBA program components in English, yet another reason for students to stay at home. Campuses of U.S. and Australian universities, in particular, are common throughout Asia and the Middle East. This further reduces the attractiveness of studying overseas, as students can study in their home country.

International student enrollment at U.S. colleges and universities dropped 2.4 percent in 2003–2004, the first decline in more than 20 years. Of the 25 largest foreign student enrolment universities in the U.S., 15 have reported international enrolment declines, some as large as 20 percent (NAFSA 2005).

Another undesirable side effect of the increased cost of foreign students obtaining U.S. student visas is the retaliatory actions of some foreign governments, thus increasing barriers to U.S. students who want to study overseas. This particularly hurts reciprocal exchange programs where parity must exist between students-out and students-in. In addition, universities can look to foreign students to boost enrolment at a time when, demographically, enrollments are expected to fall. Not only does the marginal revenue from paid tuition increase funds, it also helps contribute to fixed cost operations such as dormitories, etc.

UNIVERSITY RESPONSE

Lobbying efforts, both directly and through various organizations, may be helpful in bringing pressure on the Department of Homeland Security to streamline the processes that are imposed on international students applying for a visa. Already some progress is being made:

“I have a special message for young people across the world” said Karen Hughes, the new U.S. undersecretary for public diplomacy and public affairs, at her Senate confirmation hearing July 22. “We’re improving our visa process, and we want you to come and study in America” (Star Tribune, August 6, 2005).

However, closer to home, the university may be able to streamline its own processes to reduce application frustration. Some universities have started providing financial incentives to foreign students. These range from refunding some visa fees after they have enrolled or successfully completed a period of study, to offering tuition discounts. Some universities allow (some) foreign students to enroll and pay in-state rates. However, these options require earmarking of funds to help with international enrollments, and on many campuses faced with tight budgets, such initiatives can be a hard sell.

Action may also be taken at the level of the Business School. One way of reducing costs for the incoming international graduate business student is to change admission requirements. Currently, most MBA programs require incoming international students who come from a non-English speaking country to take the TOEFL – Test of English as a Foreign Language – and the GMAT – Graduate Management Admission Test. Are both tests really necessary? Could the GMAT alone be used?

WHAT IS THE GMAT?

The Educational Testing Service (ETS), the world’s largest private educational testing organization, administers both the TOEFL and GMAT tests. Since they have a vested interest in universities requiring both tests, they have not released any data to support (or not support) the idea of using the GMAT as a substitute for TOEFL.

- ◆ The GMAT exam is administered only in English and consists of three sections, measuring “basic verbal, mathematical, and analytical writing skills.”
- ◆ The Verbal Section – consists of 41 multiple choice questions of three types – Reading Comprehension, Critical Reasoning and Sentence Correction.

- ◆ The Quantitative Section – consists of 37 multiple choice questions.
- ◆ The Analytical Writing Assessment – includes analysis of an issue and analysis of an argument. (Educational Testing Service).

From the above descriptions, it is clear that the GMAT exam does measure the student’s ability to communicate in English. The ETS website goes on to explicitly state what the GMAT does not measure:

- ◆ your knowledge of business,
- ◆ your job skills,
- ◆ specific content in your undergraduate or first university course work,
- ◆ your abilities in any other specific subject area,
- ◆ subjective qualities – such as motivation, creativity, and interpersonal skills.

Therefore, the ETS’s own discussion of what the test does not measure includes learned subject-specific knowledge, but it does not suggest that it is unsuitable for measuring English skills. In fact as we noted, they implicitly state that it is indeed effective in that area.

What would this mean for a student? Currently ETS charges \$250 for a student to take the GMAT and \$140 for TOEFL. Elimination of the dual requirement would save the student over 35 percent of the test fees, plus reduce the cost of commuting to take the tests by 50 percent, as they would now have to take only one test.

Many students coming to the U.S. for graduate studies are coming from countries with much lower levels of disposable income. A savings of at least \$140 would be considered significant to these students. Furthermore, a university allowing students to avoid taking the TOEFL may be perceived to have a differential recruiting advantage and be able to attract a greater number of international students.

ETS recently revamped its TOEFL test to incorporate speaking components. This would differentiate the test from the current GMAT, which is in written format only. However, as the written-only TOEFL was deemed acceptable for almost all of the last century, an argument could be made that the speaking component is not really essential to measure English proficiency.

A PILOT STUDY

Using a database of MBA applicants at our University, we compared GMAT and TOEFL scores for all MBA applicants that had completed both tests. The list consisted of 42 students. A simple correlation analysis yielded a Pearson correlation coefficient with a p-value = 0.000, indicating strong significance at the $p < 0.01$ level. Therefore, our preliminary results indicate that there is a strong correlation between the GMAT and TOEFL scores.

The table below shows the results from our pilot group:

	TOEFL Below 550	TOEFL 550 +
GMAT below 400	0	2
GMAT 400+	0	40

This data set indicates that no student would have been admitted based solely on the GMAT that would not have been admitted based on both scores, based on threshold MBA admission requirements of a minimum equivalent score of 550 on TOEFL and 400 on GMAT. In other words, according to these results, the GMAT was a more

discriminating test than the TOEFL. The TOEFL test scores did not add any information that was useful in the admission process.

SUMMARY

Graduate schools should consider eliminating the dual requirement of TOEFL and GMAT. A small pilot study showed that no improperly prepared student (at least based on these tests) would be admitted by using the GMAT alone compared to using both tests.

It is likely the same argument could be made for the GRE (Graduate Record Examination) for graduate students in other disciplines. Clearly more study is required with larger sample sizes. If, as expected, larger data sets reveal a similar trend, then elimination of the dual graduate school admission requirements of GMAT and TOEFL should become common practice.

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YOUTUBE.COM: A FRANCHISE PLAYER IN TEACHING SPORTS MARKETING

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ABSTRACT

Practical suggestions and guidelines for the pedagogical use of YouTube.com, a Web site that offers visitors views of a large number of video clips, by instructors and students in the teaching of undergraduate level courses in sports marketing.

Introduction

The first days of teaching a course in marketing research and sports marketing – what a difference! Marketing research typically starts with warnings about the dire consequences of falling behind in the reading, while in sports marketing, class begins with analyzing the marketing implications of the Boston Red Sox winning another World Series.

The purpose of this paper is to provide practical suggestions and guidelines for using one of the fastest growing Internet sites in the teaching of courses in sports marketing in an effort to more effectively and efficiently meet the learning objectives of the course and to satisfy the expectations, needs, and learning styles of a generation of students who have grown up with computers and embrace their use.

According to Google, Inc., who bought YouTube in November 2006, less than a year after its launch for approximately \$1.65 billion, the media company delivers more than 100 million video views and receives 65,000 new videos each day. <<http://www.google.com/intl/en/press/pressrel/youtube.html>; July 11, 2007> At YouTube.com users can search video clips using key words or choose among different categories to search, including “sports,” which offers about 278,000 video clips. Within each category viewers can use key-word searches or browse by viewer feedback and time parameters. To help select a preferred clip viewers are provided each video’s description, length, date added, number of views, and rating (out of 5 stars). <<http://youtube.com/browse?s=mp&t=m&c=17&l=;> July 7, 2007>

The following topics are typically taught in an undergraduate sports marketing class and are areas where an

instructor can use YouTube.com for purposes of illustration and explanation during class lectures and discussions. I also discuss how students might use YouTube.com as a learning aid and research tool.

Width and Breadth of Sports

Introducing a course on sports marketing often starts with discussing the width and breadth of particular sports, from the popular to the obscure. Most students are familiar with sports such as baseball, boxing, tennis, golf, lacrosse, soccer, hockey, football, and basketball. But what about the other sports? Showing video clips of sports such as badminton, croquet, table tennis, curling, cricket, wakeboarding, jai alai, street luge, and bobsledding, rather than describing them in lecture format can be very effective and often leads to class discussion. Taking it a step further, YouTube.com can serve up videos on zorbing, tall bike jousting, cliff diving, log rolling, elephant polo, and slamball.

Sports as Entertainment

An early concept in the study of sports marketing is the notion of sports as entertainment – but entertainment unlike that one experiences while attending an opera or visiting a museum. “What makes sports different?” is easily illustrated by showing YouTube.com clips of the spontaneous and unexpected events following walk-off home runs, tie-breakers, shoot outs, final rounds, and half-court shots. Video clips from YouTube.com are particularly effective at demonstrating the positive level of arousal felt by spectators during exciting moments in sports. Watch students sit up in their seats and become animated as they view clips of classic sporting moments such as Willie Mays making “the catch” during the first game of the 1954 World Series, Doug Flutie’s “Hail Mary” pass to Gerard Phelan in 1984 to give the Boston College football team a win over Miami in the Orange Bowl, Bobby Orr scoring the overtime goal for the Boston Bruins to win the 1970 Stanley Cup, and Billie Jean King defeating Bobby Riggs in 1973. Clips such as these never fail to generate students’ suggestions for other notable moments in sports and are fertile ground for research projects.

The entertainment value of sports (and an element in price determination) goes beyond the actual game, race, or contest. YouTube.com offers a variety of video clips of pre-game tailgating, remote-controlled blimps navigating through arenas' upper reaches, between period chuck-a-puck contests, and fans creating waves as they stand and sit on cue. The pervasiveness of sports in popular culture can be exemplified with segments from popular movies such as *Jerry Maguire*, *Million Dollar Baby*, *Major League*, *Cool Runnings*, and *Friday Night Lights*.

Understanding Sports Consumers

A critical part of a course in sports marketing is devoted to analyzing consumers as sport participants and/or spectators. YouTube.com can be used as a resource for video clips of participants and spectators of all interests, ages, and abilities in events such as the Boston Marathon and activities such as evening softball leagues. By watching the video clips, students gain greater understanding of what satisfies spectators and the marketing research necessary to understand consumers from various demographic attributes, behavioral tendencies, and socioeconomic backgrounds. Students, for example, can compare and contrast video clips of fans at a professional baseball game and avid football fans in South America. Segmenting consumers of sports products and services is an important concept and more easily grasped by students as they watch video clips of tractor pulls, NASCAR races, and golf tournaments.

Borrowing from the field of service marketing, customers (spectators) often interact during an event and have a direct impact on each other to heighten or diminish their sense of satisfaction with the event (service received) and can, in fact, directly affect the outcome of a game or an event. Nothing illustrates this better than watching video clips of football hooligans and incidents of fan interference during hockey games, tennis matches, and basketball games.

Sports Products

Marketing sports involves more than thinking about a family of four attending a minor league baseball game on a warm night in July. The topic of sports products encompasses a multitude of want-satisfying objects and intangible, heterogeneous services. YouTube.com offers video clips of stadiums crowded with avid fans, wintry mountain slopes, road race courses empty of spectators, and scoreboards lighted by background fireworks. Information services is a category of sports product, and at the

click of a mouse sports marketing students can watch sports commentators offering news and opinions, highlights reels (and lowlights) of possibly every sport ever played, and the intended and unintended consequences of using particular types and brands of sports equipment.

The critical success factors for new sports equipment such as trialability, observability, perceived complexity, relative advantage, and compatibility can be topic of a lecture but are better understood by students as they watch videos of professional and amateur sports participants in action.

Event Planning

Sports marketers must understand the theory involved in planning sporting events – from a local 5K charity run to the next Olympics – and the practical considerations that go into analyzing the internal and external contingencies surrounding every contest, race, or game. Likewise, sports marketers must implement their plans and establish assumptions, processes, and contingency control mechanisms to ensure that goals and objectives are met. YouTube.com makes available video clips that exemplify and address many of these planning issues and practicalities, such as larger than expected crowds descending on a NASCAR race course, overly exuberant fans confronting authorities after a game, wardrobe malfunctions, and opening ceremonies that go exactly as planned. Dramatic examples of teams and players who are willing to take extraordinary risks or “bend the rules” in keeping with team cultures can be easily found on YouTube.com.

Promotional Activities

Sports marketers spend considerable effort to determine the optimal marketing mix, including activities in sales promotion and advertising: identification of objectives, matching benefits to target markets, and setting advertising appeals. Looking for examples of sports celebrities endorsing products in top-rated television commercials? Students can watch them on YouTube.com: Larry Bird challenging Michael Jordan to a shooting contest for his Big Mac in the 1993 McDonald's advertisement, Mean Joe Green giving his game jersey to a young boy in the 1980 Superbowl advertisement for Coca-Cola, and Tiger Woods bouncing a golf ball on his club during a Nike Golf Commercial filmed in 1999.

Teaching sports marketing can be a challenge, perhaps not like teaching marketing research, but one made easier with a franchise player on your team: YouTube.com

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TECHNO-ETIQUETTE

Linda Pettijohn, Missouri State University

Various types of high tech communication such as cell phones, voice mail, and e-mail are creating new etiquette rules for students. As students prepare for their career positions they need to be reminded that the way they handle high tech communication not only reflects on their professionalism in the workplace but also on the company's reputation. Sometimes by being connected . . . we disconnect from manners and respect for others. The following paper is designed to provide insight to students regarding how to be respected and to benefit in a connected world.

As many readers can remember, telephone booths were developed to keep street noises from disrupting a conversation and to keep the conversation private. Even without a telephone booth the same consideration needs to be practiced today with cell phones. As a cell phone carrier, one needs to ask the following three questions:

- ◆ Why am I carrying a cell phone?
- ◆ Will receiving a call disturb others around me?
- ◆ Is there another way to receive messages?

Cell Phones

Cell phone "do's" will show respect for others around you:

- ◆ Be in the moment,
- ◆ Excuse yourself,
- ◆ Keep it private,
- ◆ Learn to vibrate,
- ◆ Send a message.

Likewise, there are seven "don'ts" when speaking on a cell phone:

- ◆ Walk around on a cell phone,
- ◆ Carry on multiple conversations with caller and onsite companions,

- ◆ Discuss sensitive matters,
- ◆ Cuss,
- ◆ Cell yell,
- ◆ Drive and dial,
- ◆ Put your phone on the table.

Cell Phone Voice Mail

- ◆ Speak slowly,
- ◆ Beginning: Identify yourself,
- ◆ Ending: leave your name, company, best time to call back and repeat phone number 2x's,
- ◆ Do not call back the same day.

Email

Read the following email and identify the techno-etiquette mistakes.

Hey,

MSU WILL BE SPONSORING A CONTINUEING EDUCATION SEMINAR ON TECHO-ETIQUETTE. MSU PROFESSOR LINDA PETTIJOHN, WORKING FROM THE NATIONAL STREET IVORY TOWER, (lol) WILL BE THE GUEST SPEAKER. She has TAUGHT HUNDREDS OF PEOPLE THE PROPER ETIQUETTE TECHNIQUES TO USE IN THE BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT ;)

ttyl,

JANE SMITH

In composing an email one should follow the basic etiquette for written correspondence.

- ◆ Subject line – be specific,

- ◆ Salutation,
- ◆ Body of email
 - Start with a rapport-building 1–2 sentences
 - Use please and thank you
 - Emoticons: ;-)
 - Abbreviations: LOL, TTYL
 - In responding to an email – copy
- ◆ Sign off with your name and relevant business info.

Email Tips

- ◆ Emails from clients received late in the day can be answered during the p.m. and sent in the a.m.

- ◆ Limit email to ½ a screen,
- ◆ 24 hour turnaround.

Group Email

- ◆ Outside office: email addresses are public,
- ◆ Inside office: only email individuals on a need to know basis.

In summary, students using the above techno-etiquette techniques will be respected and benefit in a connected world.

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LIABILITY CONCERNS WITH INTERNSHIPS

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ABSTRACT

With greater numbers of students working as interns, the issue of legal liability is one that cannot be ignored. This panel will conduct an interactive exercise with participants to discover the extent to which legal issues have arisen in supervised Marketing/Management internships. Panelists will discuss the various types of claims that occur in an internship context and the various parties involved when students participating in an internship sue. Results of the interactive exercise will be shared along with data supporting or refuting the results. A thorough discussion of duty, who owes it and when it is

owed will be presented. General rules from court cases will be introduced and concepts such as “special relationships,” “*in loco parentis*,” “duty to warn,” “sexual harassment,” and “fiduciary relationships” will be explained. Matters that complicate liability issues, such as voluntary vs. mandatory internships, credit/no credit vs. graded internships, and paid vs. unpaid internships will be addressed. In the case of intern incompetence or misconduct leading to employer claims, the panelists will explain who is liable and why. Finally, university policy recommendations will be presented in an effort to minimize a university’s exposure to internship liability.

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USING MARKETING RESEARCH TO BETTER IMPLEMENT AN ALUMNI RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT (ARM) SYSTEM

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ABSTRACT

Past research has identified several organizational behavior antecedents including organizational distinctiveness, organization prestige, tenure, and satisfaction with the organizations that contribute to greater support for the organization. This paper takes a marketing approach to developing an Alumni Relationship Management (ARM) Model that can be used by universities to help generate financial support from their alumni. It is hoped that alumni associations and their directors will benefit from this holistic approach.

INTRODUCTION

Over the past three decades, many public universities in the US have evolved from “state” universities to “state-supported” universities. Most states today are experiencing a decline in overall revenues, a constitutional requirement to balance budgets, stronger lobbying from other organizations, and other efforts that serve to diminish the level of financial support for education. Therefore, the public universities of the future will predominately be “state-assisted” universities. A “state-assisted” university is one that receives less than 50 percent of the university budget by the state (Archibald and Feldman 2003). As universities struggle to generate additional revenues to mitigate the negative impact of ebbing state support, universities are developing creative ways of raising money. These methods include, but are not limited to, selling rights to name stadiums and buildings, increasing tuitions and fees paid by students, using differential pricing models to charge different rates depending on ones major, etc. Probably one of the best and most successful methods of generating additional revenues is soliciting former students. Since these students hold diplomas that bear the name of the university, it is believed that they may have an affinity toward the institution.

The word *alumnus* has a Latin origin and means “a former student or graduate” of the university. Most universities

today are investing millions of dollars on their alumni associations. While some of this money is being spent in improving infrastructures (i.e., building better and bigger Alumni Centers), most of it is being spent on building better relationships with past graduates. While Alumni Relationship Management (ARM) is not a new concept, its importance today cannot be understated. To assist alumni directors better implement ARM, this paper will undertake this issue as a marketing research problem rather than an organizational behavior problem. More specifically, the widely used and practiced principles of marketing research will be used to develop a testable ARM model. In turn, this holistic model will help practitioners to better understand the dynamics underlying their alumni relations activities. Several hypotheses will also be stated and empirically tested using surveys.

THE PROBLEM

The alumni association of a “state-assisted” university in Texas is facing numerous problems, including low involvement, low participation, low membership renewal rates, few participants at events (football games, basketball games, and parades), and low levels of donations. Therefore, the primary research question that the alumni association wanted the authors to answer was: How can the Alumni Association get greater support? To help answer this research question two types of exploratory research techniques were deployed.

EXPLORATORY RESEARCH

Focus Groups

Four focus groups were conducted among senior students on campus. Two groups consisted of students near graduation who were “most likely” to join the alumni association upon graduation (i.e., answered a 9 or 10 on a 10-point scale on a screener). The other two groups consisted of students near graduation who were “least likely” to join the alumni association upon graduation (i.e., answered a 1 or 2 on a 10-point scale on a screener).

Some of the main issues that were discussed during the sessions included memorable experience at the university, involvement in clubs and associations, and the value proposition to joining the alumni association.

Literature Review

Second, a literature review was conducted. Numerous library databases were searched, utilizing key words from the focus groups sessions, including commitment, involvement, prestige, number of years at the university, and satisfaction with the institution.

The outcome of the above stated exploratory research methodologies resulted in the development of the proposed “ARM” model. A major portion of the proposed model is derived from the work of Mael and Ashforth (1992), who successfully laid out a model that explained the antecedents to organizational identification and its consequences. Previous work by Diamond and Kashyap (1997) provided insight into the measurement of obligation and attachment to the institution. Finally, previous research by Martin et al. (2000); Schertzer and Schertzer (2004); and Russell (2005) assisted in the specification of the various aspects of student satisfaction with the university.

Independent variables (Antecedents)

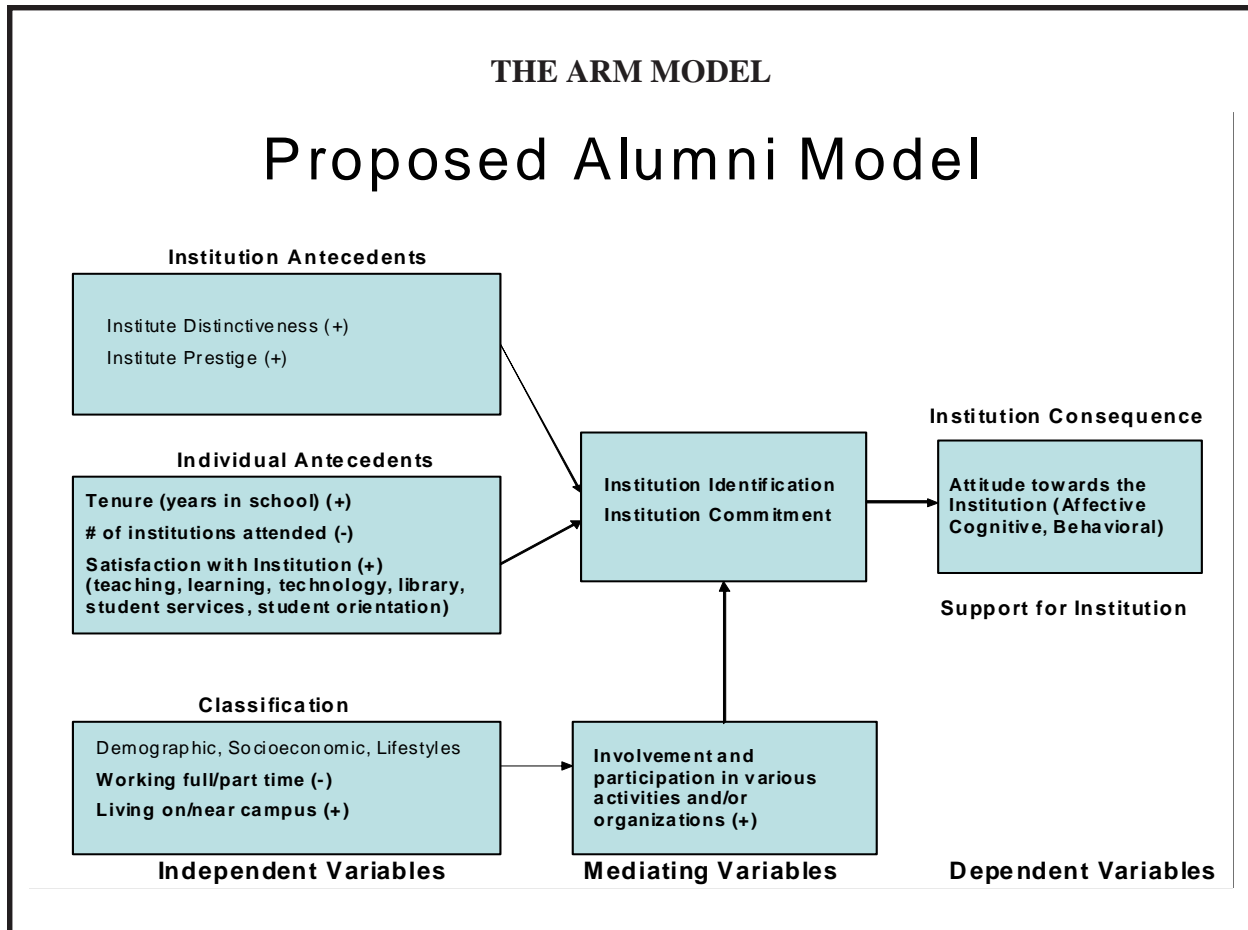
Antecedents are factors that come first (independent variables) and produce consequences/outcomes (dependent variables) through mediating variables (ones that link the independent and dependent). In designing the instrument that will be used for a follow-up descriptive research study, here are some of the key constructs and their conceptual definitions that were identified in the literature (Mael and Ashforth 1992; Mavondo et al. 2004).

Institution Distinctiveness. These are things that differentiate the University from other institutions (e.g., unique programs, small classes, attractive campus, etc.)

Institution Prestige. These are things that students would like to identify with the University so as to boost their individual self-esteem (e.g., reputation, would recommend to others, etc.)

Satisfaction with the Institution. This is a cumulative measure that deals with five aspects of the university:

- a. Satisfaction with the teaching includes quality of faculty, faculty commitment, challenging courses;



- b. Satisfaction with the learning environment includes a supportive environment, attitudes toward the students;
- c. Satisfaction with the technology available in the classroom, labs, up-to-date hardware and software;
- d. Satisfaction with the library in terms of providing added value to the experience, quality of service provided, hours of operations, technology available;
- e. Satisfaction with several student services including financial aid, parking, boarding, meals, intramural sports, student orientation.

Other Independent Variables. Some of these were measured using single item measures. These include years at the institution, number of institutions of higher education attended, whether working full or part time during the school year, and living on or near campus. Finally, there are several demographic, socioeconomic, and lifestyle issues that the authors feel have a direct impact on student's involvement and participation in various university activities (Mehta and Newbold 2008).

Mediating Variables

Just as antecedents are critical in measuring consequences, so are the mediating variables. Mediating variables are impacted by antecedents, and, in turn, have an impact on the dependent variables (or consequences). The mediating variables for the proposed model are briefly described below:

Institutional identification. How strongly students identify (i.e., proud, embarrassed, critical) with the university.

Institutional commitment. How committed is the university to its students (e.g., mentoring and interaction with faculty, extracurricular activities).

Involvement. Generally this refers to time and effort invested. Here it refers to participation in organized activities (e.g., intramural sports, lighting of the Christmas tree) offered by the institution.

Dependent Variables (Consequences)

Dependent variables, or consequences, are the outcomes that are observed as the result of the antecedents and mediating variables. For the purposes of this model, the consequences are three-dimensional. To tap into the construct well, it is best to measure each of these components separately. According to Fishbein, attitudes tend to be a function of three components:

Cognition. What beliefs students hold about the university;

Affect. What students feel and like about the university;

Behavior. Whether student intent to join the alumni association after graduation and donate money to the school.

HYPOTHESES

Given the proposed ARM model, the following hypotheses are posited:

Hypothesis 1: Students who find the university to be distinct are more likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide future financial support to the university.

Hypothesis 2: Students who find the university to be prestigious are more likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide financial support to the university.

Hypothesis 3: Students who have been at the university longer are more likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide financial support to the university.

Hypothesis 4: Students who have attended multiple universities (i.e., transferred) are less likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide less financial support to the university.

Hypothesis 5: Students who have had a positive experience and are satisfied with the various aspects of the university (i.e., teaching, learning environment, technology available, library, and student services) are more likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide financial support to the university.

Hypothesis 6: Students who work during the school year are less likely to be involved with various university activities and therefore less likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide less financial support to the university.

Hypothesis 7: Students who live on or near campus during the school year (not commuters) are more likely to be involved with various university activities and therefore more likely to identify with and be committed to the university and therefore will provide financial support to the university.

QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

Since no secondary data exists to answer the stated research question, test the stated hypotheses, and validate the proposed ARM model, primary data will be collected for this study utilizing survey research methodology. The survey will be a self-administered, structured (mostly close-ended), undisguised instrument. Besides the fact that these types of instruments are the fastest, cheapest, least expensive, and most popular (Aldreck and Settle 1995), the primary motivation for selecting this form of instrument is that it is the most appropriate. The instrument will be designed so that all of the critical data integrity issues are addressed (e.g., funnel approach, categories must be mutually exclusive and collective exhaustive, multiple scales are used, appropriate formatting, grammatically accurate, etc.).

SAMPLE SELECTION

The population under study will be seniors (those expecting to graduate within one year) at a mid-size “state-supported” university in Texas. To guarantee representation from the population, stratified sampling (versus simple random) will be used. Both gender and ethnicity will be used to create the strata. Every potential respondent will be asked a screening question to determine if they are a senior and are qualified to participate in the study.

STUDY ADMINISTRATION

For generalizability and elimination of any type of bias in the responses, students of an undergraduate marketing research course will be trained to each complete the survey with eight respondents. Based on the pilot study and preliminary analysis, it is anticipated that the questionnaire will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. To ensure accuracy of data collection and completion, 5 percent of each student’s course grade will be tied into this process. To encourage participation, all respondents completing the survey will be eligible for participation in a lucky draw. Twelve prizes totaling \$500 will be randomly given to subjects that participated in the study (these prizes include an Ipod, digital camera, flash drives, etc.).

DATA QUALITY

To ensure data quality, extra care will be taken in the actual designing of the questionnaire in terms of proper phrasing of the questions, a neat layout of the various sections, consistent use of 7 points scales, etc. (Chruchill and Brown 2007). Several items will be reverse coded in the instrument. Participation will also be checked by conducting “call-backs” among a random sample of respondents. Chi-square “goodness of fit test” will also be performed on the sample to determine the accuracy and representation of the sample to the population proportions. Finally, reliability measure will be done on each construct using Crobach’s alpha.

METHODOLOGY

While the model may seem appropriate for causal testing using a structural equation modeling approach, it is the author’s belief that given the cross-sectional nature of the proposed data, it is best to use correlations. We find support for our recommended analysis from previous studies (Mael and Ashford 1992).

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APPENDIX

SHSU Alumni Survey

Sections A-D are intended to help the Alumni Association determine: what makes SHSU **distinct and unique** (section A), students beliefs about its **reputation and prestigious** (section B), how much students **identify** with SHSU (section C), how **committed** students are to SHSU (section D). Please use **1 (strongly disagree) thru 7 (strongly agree)** to answer the following questions.

1=Strongly Disagree, 4=Neutral (neither disagree or agree), 7=Strongly Agree; NA=Not Applicable

A STUDENT'S OPINION ABOUT SHSU'S DISTINCTIVENESS

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. The <i>history</i> of SHSU is unique when compared to other universities. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. The <i>degree programs</i> available at SHSU are unique when compared to other universities. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. The <i>social activities</i> at SHSU build long-term friendships and connections. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 4. In general, SHSU gives me greater <i>flexibility</i> (location, schedules) when compared to other universities. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 5. On average, SHSU has <i>small class sizes</i> compared to other universities. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 6. On average, SHSU is <i>cheaper</i> (less expensive) when compared to other universities. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| <hr/> | |
| 7. Overall , I consider SHSU to be <i>distinct</i> and <i>unique</i> . | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |

B STUDENT'S IMPRESSIONS OF SHSU'S REPUTATION

- | | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. It is considered <i>prestigious</i> to be an alumnus of SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. SHSU is considered one of the <i>best schools</i> in the region. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. People from other comparable universities look up to SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 4. SHSU Alumni would be <i>proud</i> to have others attend SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 5. SHSU has a good <i>reputation</i> in my community. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 6. When employers are <i>recruiting</i> new graduates, they would want students from SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 7. Overall , I consider SHSU to be a <i>prestigious</i> institution with a good reputation. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |

C STUDENT'S LEVEL OF IDENTIFICATION WITH SHSU

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. When someone criticizes SHSU, it feels like a personal insult. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. I am very interested in what others think about SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. When I talk about SHSU, I usually say "we" rather than "they." | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 4. SHSU's successes are my successes. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 5. When someone praises SHSU, it feels like a personal compliment. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 6. I feel a sense of pride to be affiliated with SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 7. Overall , I tend to identify with SHSU and what it stands for. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |

D STUDENT'S COMMITMENT TOWARDS SHSU

- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. If I could start college over, I would choose to <i>attend</i> SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. I am a strong <i>supporter</i> of SHSU and what it represents. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. I feel a sense of <i>belonging</i> to SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |

APPENDIX (CONTINUED)

4. I feel a sense of *loyalty* towards SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 5. **Overall**, I feel committed towards SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA

Sections E-I are intended to help determine the level of **SATISFACTION** with various aspects and departments at SHSU, including: **Quality of teaching** (section E), **Learning environment** (section F), **Availability of technology** (section G), **Library facilities** (section H), and **Student services** (section I). Please use **1 (strongly disagree) thru 7 (strongly agree)** to answer the following questions.

1=Strongly Disagree, 4=Neutral (neither disagree or agree), 7=Strongly Agree; NA=Not Applicable

E STUDENT'S SATISFACTION WITH THE TEACHING AT SHSU

1. I am pleased with the *personalized attention* I receive from the faculty at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 2. The faculty at SHSU is committed to providing me with the *best education* possible. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 3. **Overall**, I am satisfied with the quality of teaching at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA

F STUDENT'S SATISFACTION WITH THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT AT SHSU

1. I am satisfied with the range of *course* available at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 2. I am satisfied with the quality of *facilities* (classrooms, buildings) at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 3. I am satisfied with the current *faculty/student ratio* at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 4. **Overall**, SHSU provides a satisfactory *learning environment*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA

G STUDENT'S SATISFACTION WITH THE AVAILABLE TECHNOLOGY AT SHSU

1. I am satisfied with the *computer labs* on campus. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 2. I am satisfied with the SHSU *website* and its features. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 3. I am satisfied with the *wireless services* available at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 4. I am satisfied with the *software* available at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 5. **Overall**, I am satisfied with the quality of service provided by *Computer Services*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA

H STUDENT'S SATISFACTION WITH THE LIBRARY AT SHSU

1. I am satisfied with the *resources* offered by the SHSU library. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 2. I am satisfied with the *staff* of the SHSU library. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 3. I am satisfied with the types of *services* the library offers. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 4. **Overall**, I am satisfied with the *quality* of the library. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA

I STUDENT'S SATISFACTION WITH THE STUDENT SERVICES AT SHSU

1. I am satisfied with the *Campus police* (security) at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 2. I am satisfied with the *Parking situation* at SHSU. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 3. I am satisfied with the *Financial Aid Department*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 4. I am satisfied with the *Bearkat OneCard* (id, debit). 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 5. I am satisfied with the *Student Advisement & Mentoring (SAM) Center*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 6. I am satisfied with the *Undergraduate Admissions Department*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 7. I am satisfied with *Residence Life*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 8. I am satisfied with *Career Services*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 9. I am satisfied with *Student Health Services*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 10. I am satisfied with *Recreational Sport*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 11. I am satisfied with the *Registrars Office*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 12. I am satisfied with *Alumni Association*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA
 13. **Overall**, I am satisfied with the *Student Services Department*. 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA

Section J are questions that deal specifically with **your level involvement and participation** in various activities on campus. Please use **1 (strongly disagree) thru 7 (strongly agree)** to answer the following questions.

1=Strongly Disagree, 4=Neutral (neither disagree or agree), 7=Strongly Agree; NA=Not Applicable

J INVOLVEMENT AND PARTICIPATION IN VARIOUS ACTIVITIES

- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. I am involved with my <i>religious organization(s)</i> (church) at SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. I am involved with my social <i>sorority/fraternity</i> at SHSU. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. I am involved with <i>professional organization(s)</i> related to my field of study. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 4. I participate regularly (every semester) in <i>programmed physical activities</i> on campus (e.g., intramurals). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 5. I participate regularly (about 2-4 times a week) in <i>unprogrammed physical activities</i> on campus (e.g., working out, jogging). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 6. I participate regularly (about 2-4 times a week) in <i>off-campus social activities</i> (e.g., going to clubs & bars, going to the movies). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 7. I regularly (more than half) attend <i>SHSU athletic events</i> (e.g., football, basketball, baseball, soccer). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 8. I regularly attend other <i>SHSU sponsored events</i> (e.g., Christmas tree lighting, parades, job fairs, guest speakers, plays, concerts). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 9. Overall , I am involved and participate in <i>various activities</i> . | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |

Sections K-L are questions that deal with the **SHSU Alumni Association**. These questions are designed to determine your **intentions** (section K), level of **familiarity** (section L) with the various services. Please use **1 (strongly disagree) thru 7 (strongly agree)** to answer the following questions.

1=Strongly Disagree, 4=Neutral (neither disagree or agree), 7=Strongly Agree; NA=Not Applicable

K GENERAL ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE SHSU ALUMNI ASSOCIATION

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. I would like the SHSU Alumni Association to offer <i>networking opportunities</i> . | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. I intend to join the SHSU Alumni Association <i>after</i> graduation. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. I would join the SHSU Alumni Association <i>before</i> graduation. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 4. After graduation, I intend to <i>provide financial support</i> (i.e., outside of membership dues) to the SHSU Alumni Association. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |

L FAMILIARITY WITH VARIOUS ALUMNI SERVICES CURRENTLY OFFERED

- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| 1. I am familiar with <i>Sam Works</i> (a social networking event). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 2. I am familiar with <i>Alumni Receptions</i> (formal networking event). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 3. I am familiar with the <i>Football Tailgate Parties</i> (food and festivities before home games and some road games). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 4. I am familiar with the <i>Scholarships</i> offered by the Alumni Association to current SHSU students. | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 5. I am familiar with the <i>Official Ring Ceremony</i> . | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 6. I am familiar with the <i>Distinguished Alumni Awards</i> . | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |
| 7. I am familiar with the <i>discounts</i> Alumni Association members received (Raven Nest Golf Club, tickets to sporting events). | 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....NA |

Section M consists of demographic questions that are strictly for classification purposes. *Please check the box(s) that applies to you.*

- | | |
|-----------------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. What is your GENDER? Check one box. | |
| 1. Male | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Female | <input type="checkbox"/> |

APPENDIX (CONTINUED)

2. What is your AGE? _____ in YEARS.
3. During the time school is in session, about how many HOURS PER WEEK do you generally spend WORKING at a job for pay? **Check one box.**
- 1. None ("I don't work")
 - 2. 1–10 hours/week
 - 3. 11–20 hours/week
 - 4. 21–30 hours/week
 - 5. 31–40 hours/week
 - 6. Over 40 hours/week
4. AFTER GRADUATION, where do you intend to work and live? **Check one box.**
- 1. Within the Houston Metropolitan Area
 - 2. Outside the Houston Metro but within Texas
 - 3. Another state besides Texas
 - 4. Foreign Country (outside the USA)
5. Which of the following best describes your ETHNIC ORIGIN? **Check one box.**
- 1. Caucasian (White)
 - 2. Hispanic (Non-White)
 - 3. African-American
 - 4. Asian-American
 - 5. Other
6. What is your current ACADEMIC CLASSIFICATION in college? **Check one box.**
- 1. Freshman
 - 2. Sophomore
 - 3. Junior
 - 4. Senior
 - 5. Graduate
 - 6. Other
7. Did you begin your college here at SHSU or did you transfer here from another institution? **Check one box.**
- 1. Started here
 - 2. Transferred from another institution
(Name of institution _____)
8. How many YEARS have you been attending SHSU? Check one box.
- 1. Less than 1 year
 - 2. 1–2 years
 - 3. 3–4 years
 - 4. 5–6 years
 - 5. 7 or more years
9. How many different universities/community colleges/trade schools have attended to date (i.e., after high school)? _____ DIFFERENT institutions.

APPENDIX (CONTINUED)

10. How many college credit hours are you CURRENTLY registered/enrolled for (i.e., Spring 2007)?
_____ Semester HOURS.

11. What is your current OVERALL GPA? _____

12. WHERE do you live DURING THE SCHOOL YEAR? **Check one box.**

- 1. Dormitory or other campus housing
- 2. Fraternity or Sorority house
- 3. Residence within Walker County
- 4. Residence outside Walker County

13. Did either of your PARENTS GRADUATE from SHSU? **Check one box.**

- 1. Both parents
- 2. Father only
- 3. Mother only
- 4. Neither

14. Which of the following college does your MAJOR fall in? **Check one box.**

- 1. College of Arts and Sciences
- 2. College of Business Administration
- 3. College of Criminal Justice
- 4. College of Education
- 5. College of Humanities and Social Sciences
- 6. None of the above

Please write your specific major in this space _____

15. Where are you taking your classes this semester (i.e., Spring 2007)? **Check All Boxes That Apply.**

- 1. On the main campus at Huntsville
- 2. At the University Center
- 3. Correspondence courses
- 4. Via the Internet (not including Blackboard)

16. Which of the following best describes **your own personal** income for 2006? **Check one box.**

- 1. Less than \$10,000
- 2. \$10,001 - \$15,000
- 3. \$15,001 - \$30,000
- 4. \$30,001 - \$45,000
- 5. More than \$45,000

17. If you have any *general comments* about this study, please feel free to share your opinion with us in the space below:

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THE FOG OF (MARKETING) WARS: THE NEED FOR ASSUMPTION-BASED DECISION MAKING PROCESSES

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ABSTRACT

Military strategists talk of the fog of war, the period of confusion early in a war during which it is not clear what is going on. This paper provides several anecdotes from the author’s work experience that illustrate the fog of war concept applies to marketing decisions. Making decisions is not easy in the fog. Because of the lack of clarity, decision makers revert to their own personal beliefs and experience, and interpret, and misinterpret, the confusing signals coming from the war front. Such decisions may be sub-optimal because they are based on erroneous assumptions. This paper proposes a modified version of Mason and Mitroff’s Strategic Assumption Surfacing and Testing as the optimal way to make decisions in the fog of war.

INTRODUCTION

Clausewitz. No one name is more associated with strategic thinking in the military as that of Carl von Clausewitz. He started his career in the Prussian military as an enlisted person before he rose through the ranks to become a General and the leading military theorist of all time. He served in many military campaigns, mostly against French forces, including those of Napoleon. He also was instrumental in shaping the coalition of Prussia, Russia, and the United Kingdom which ultimately defeated Napoleon. In the 10 years he headed the Military Academy at Berlin in the 1820’s he wrote his famous book, *On War* (Von Clausewitz and Rapoport 1968), which has had a profound impact on military and corporate strategy.

Among his famous sayings is that of the “fog of war.” By that he meant that military decision makers cannot see clearly the situation that is facing them because it shrouded in a twilight or fog. This is particularly true early in a campaign, when it is difficult to get a good picture of what is happening based on fragmentary, ambiguous reports from the front.

Less well known is his advocacy of dialectical argumentation (pros and cons) as an aid in the decision making

process. Dialectical argumentation is one of the approaches advocated by some current management theorists (Cosier 1981; Schweiger et al. 1986; Schwenk 1988 and 1989) as being suited for making decisions in uncertain situations. The dialectical argumentation approach, however, is limited because it operates within a single loop environment that is typical of virtually all companies (Argyris 1977).

This paper describes several “marketing fog of war” situations, and the limitations imposed on decision making process by single loop decision making process. It proposes a “double loop” approach based on Mason and Mitroff’s (1981) Strategic Assumption Surfacing and Testing approach that is arguably superior to other decision making approaches.

EXAMPLES OF THE FOG OF MARKETING WARS

The following are two examples of the fog of war from my own experience as a marketing researcher at a consumer products division of Bristol-Myers in the 1960s. It is interesting for me to reflect on these decisions, now that I have a background in decision making processes.

Congespirin

In the early 1960’s it was not clear whether there was a market for a children’s cold tablet. There were several brands of children’s aspirin, lead by St. Joseph’s Children’s Aspirin, which were the main product given to children who had colds. Some competitors had made attempts to market a children’s cold tablet, but were unsuccessful.

Within this foggy situation, we “knew” several things: (1) children had colds, a lot of them, and (2) aspirin did not contain a decongestant that would relieve cold symptoms better than aspirin alone. We did not know other things. It was questionable whether there was a market for children’s cold remedies other than aspirin. After all, there might be some reason grounded in consumer psy-

chology that was inimical to the concept. For example, were cold tablets perceived by mom's as being too strong to give to kids?

While we in marketing division were grappling with these issues, our R&D Division developed a tablet for children that combined aspirin with a decongestant. The question was then how to market it.

There were two schools of thought regarding how to position this product in the marketplace. Some of our executives thought that it should be positioned as a children's cold tablet. This was understandable given the fact that our company was the leading producer of cold tablets with our 4-Way and Bromo-Quinine brands.

Other of our executives thought that, in light of the fact that competitor's attempts to market a children's cold tablet were unsuccessful, and given the success of children's aspirin, that the new product should be positioned as close to an aspirin as possible, such as with a name like "Aspirin-Plus."

I was in charge of doing the consumer in-use test of this new children's product. Using Home Testing Institute's panel of consumers, we did a blind monadic product placement in which a sample of homes received our new product and the second sample received children's aspirin. Packaging was generic and as identical as possible. Results were very favorable. So we knew we had a product that would work.

The next question was the product positioning and name, either as a children's cold tablet or as an aspirin plus a decongestant. We assumed we had several months to resolve this issue with appropriate marketing research. However, when the executives at Bristol-Myers headquarters saw the very favorable results of the consumer in-use test, they wanted a crash project to get the product into test markets during the then current cold season rather than waiting for the next cold season as we had originally planned. This meant making important positioning, naming, and marketing decisions rapidly.

I learned of the urgent need to put the product into test markets from our new products marketing guy who said, "Dave, I just found out that New York wants us to move into test markets immediately. Our divisional president has decided that the product will be named "4-Way Children's Cold Tablets." The ad agency will be in next Tuesday to present the storyboards for the TV campaign." I expressed my concerns that we had not done a name study, and reviewed our mutual concerns about positioning it as a "children's cold tablet." He shrugged his shoulders and essentially said, "What can I do? The divisional president has already made the decision re-

garding the name. Besides, it is now Thursday and the agency is coming in next Tuesday with the storyboards."

I was not happy with the decision. I went to my boss, and he essentially shrugged his shoulders and said, "The divisional president has made the decision, and we are stuck with it. Besides, it is now Thursday and the agency is coming in next Tuesday with the storyboards." I went back to my desk and stewed about this for an hour or so, and went back to my boss and said, "What if we did a name study over the weekend and had the results by Tuesday." He checked with the vice-president of marketing and got approval for the name study.

The challenge was how to do a name study in just several days. The normal cycle for a name study would be weeks if not months. I was able to convince a marketing research house here in St. Louis, Peters Marketing Research, to get fired up to do the name study in several cities in the midwest. I designed the questionnaire on Friday morning, they sent them to their people in several cities, and their field people did the interviews on Saturday and Sunday. Monday the results were tabulated and slides prepared for the Tuesday meeting.

The Tuesday meeting was interesting. The ad agency from New York had their usual gaggle of people, and they went through their presentation of the storyboards for "4-Way Children's Cold Tablet." Then I got up and presented the results of the name study that indicated that "4-Way Children's Cold Tablet" was a terrible name for a children's product because it was perceived as being too strong and unsafe for children. The name study also indicated that another name we tested, Congespirin, would be a very good name for this product.

It was an awkward moment. The marketing vice-president was between a rock and a hard place. On one hand, the agency had already put together the advertising program for the four test markets for "4-Way Children's Cold Tablet." Time had already been bought in all the markets. The production and the sales force were ramping up to get the product into distribution on time in the test markets. On the other hand, the results of the consumer survey were clear. With the wisdom of Solomon, the marketing vice president made the decision on the spot that we would go into two test markets under the "4-Way Children's Cold Tablet" name and two test markets under the "Congespirin" name.

The agency modified the commercials and (rather crudely) inserted the name "Congespirin" in what was originally prepared as a 4-Way commercial. It will come as no surprise to you as marketing people that test markets using the 4-Way product failed and that the two test markets with Congespirin were very successful. Al-

though it was a very expensive way to confirm the results of the name study, the decision making process reflected several points:

1. The fog of war obscured the nature of the market for products to treat children's colds. Decisions were made based on subjective opinions and experience, in this case decades of experience with adult cold tablets.
2. There were decision dynamics occurring that we can look back now and say "Gee, this is typical single loop stuff." The characteristics of single loop are described in more detail later in this paper, but for now, it is quite clear that there was a unspoken factor "Thou shalt not confront the policies and objectives that top management are excited about."
3. The erroneous assumptions made that were typical of single loop cultures.

Contac

In the early 1960's, the Grove Laboratories of Bristol-Myers was a major player in the over-the-counter cold tablet market, with 4-Way Cold Tablets, Bromo-Quinine Cold Tablets, and Congespirin, a children's aspirin/decongestant. These cold tablets were relatively inexpensive to make, with a corresponding low retail price of about \$.25 per tablet in current dollars.

One of our sales reps found out that Smith Klein and French (SKF), a pharmaceutical manufacturer, was test marketing an over-the-counter timed-release cold tablet called Contac. This caused a flurry of activity in the home office for several reasons:

1. The concept of a "timed-release" medication was unheard of.
2. The price of each Contac capsule was priced at \$1.00, which was four times that of our cold tablets.
3. An analysis of their advertising expenditures revealed their Advertising to Sales ratio for Contac that was substantially higher than any other known advertising effort in the history of consumer marketing.
4. SKF was a pharmaceutical company that was competing in the consumer market for the first time.

Enter the fog of war. In a series of meetings to try to figure out the implications of the entry of Contac into the market, we decided Contac could not possibly succeed. For one thing, the head of our R&D division said that the

time release concept was bogus, and could not work. Second, we decided that consumers would never pay so much money for a cold tablet. Third, we determined that their Advertising to Sales ratio was unsustainable, and with the inevitable reduction of their advertising expenditures their sales would dry up. It was clear to us that SKF did not know what they were doing in the sophisticated consumer marketing arena, and that Contac would fail.

Based on these considerations, it was decided not to develop our own timed-release product to compete with Contac. Two years later, after it became clear that Contac was a phenomenal success, we decided to purchase a timed-release product from a third party, rebrand it, and market it under our name. It failed in the marketplace and was discontinued after a short time.

Meanwhile, Contac became the leader in the non-prescription cold remedy market. Once again, we see that in the fog of war decision makers make bad decisions based on faulty assumptions.

ASSUMPTION-ORIENTED DECISION MAKING

Clausewitz was on the right track when he suggested a dialectical, pro and con, approach to making decisions. The purpose was to clarify as much as possible the assumptions underlying a proposed course of action. Indeed, modern organizational theorists such as Cossier (1981) have advocated for similar processes.

Unfortunately, there is a problem with those approaches to decision making. They do not factor in cultural predispositions that in many cases nullify the good intentions of those who are using the techniques. Indeed, it appears that virtually all organizations suffer from a decision making process that is deficient in its ability to surface and validate assumptions, a requirement of cutting through the fog of war (Argyris 1977; Argyris 1985; Argyris and Schon 1978). This flawed decision making process was dubbed "single loop" by Harvard's Chris Argyris and MIT's Donald Schon who first described it in detail (Argyris and Schon 1978).

The term "single loop" refers to feedback loops within a system. For example, a furnace thermostat that is set at 70 degrees has a single feedback loop that regulates the furnace to keep the temperature at 70 degrees. The thermostat has no ability to question the assumption that the proper temperature for it to be set at should be 70 degrees. Similarly, single loop organizations are "programmed" to try to attain the goals set by management, and are deficient in their ability to question fundamental assumptions about those goals.

Single loop decision making is part of the broader work of Argyris and Schon on organizational learning and the defensive routines that inhibit learning (Argyris 1977; Argyris 1985; Argyris 1999; Argyris and Schon 1978). The characteristics of their work that are most relevant for understanding single loop decision making are:

- ◆ A single loop organization may espouse open communication, but in reality operates on a principle that “Thou shalt not confront the policies and objectives that top management are excited about.”
- ◆ Those who violate this rule are labeled “troublemakers” and are subject to subtle and not-so-subtle forms of punishment.
- ◆ Decisions are heavily influenced by subjective opinions rather than objective facts, resulting in failure to adequately surface and validate underlying assumptions. When used, facts are frequently generated to support decisions that have already been made on a subjective basis. This factor is consistent with other reports from business researchers who talk of top management manipulating their research findings to coincide to their own preconceived opinions (Clarke 1999; Cullen 2000; Radford 1978; Wiseman 1988).
- ◆ A gap exists between what the organization espouses and what it practices.
- ◆ Bad news is camouflaged.
- ◆ The upward flow of information is edited so as not to upset top management.
- ◆ There is a win/lose culture within the organization.
- ◆ Individuals play organizational games that everyone knows but no one discusses.
- ◆ Denial that the above single loop behavior exists.

The combination of the fog of war and the dysfunctional single-loop decision process is not a good one. It results in decisions that are based on the personal opinions of decision makers, with the bottom line usually being a poor job of surfacing and evaluating assumptions, and an unwillingness to question the wishes of top management. For important decisions or crises with potentially serious consequences, a mediocre single loop decision process is not good enough. What is needed is a decision making process that openly examines the assumptions underlying proposed courses of action. Dialectic and other argumentation-based techniques such as Devil’s Advocacy feed into these dysfunctional characteristics of single loop process.

The key to making good decisions in important situations is the temporary substitution of double loop decision processes for the single loop process normally used.

Fixing Single Loop Processes: Double Loop

The characteristics of Argyris and Schon’s work that are most relevant for understanding double loop decision making are shown below, with the most important feature being the willingness to question underlying assumptions.

- ◆ Everyone is encouraged to uncover hidden assumptions, especially their own implicit assumptions.
- ◆ Facts are used to make decisions rather than subjective opinions.
- ◆ There is no gap between what the organization says it does and what it actually does.
- ◆ Individuals are rewarded for uncovering performance gaps or hidden assumptions.
- ◆ Participation in decisions is based on knowledge, especially the ability to identify underlying assumptions and help validate them with facts.
- ◆ There is a win/win ethic within the organization.

The question is how to implant double loop decision process in an organization. This is easier said than done. Even Argyris encountered problems in his attempts to change the culture of organizations from single loop to double loop (Argyris 1977). This paper posits that the answer is Streamlined Assumption Surfacing and Testing technique (S-SAST). Rather than attempting to change the culture of an organization from single to double loop, S-SAST temporarily implants a pocket of double loop decision making within the single loop organization. Essentially, we don’t care if the culture changes to double loop. All we want is that important decisions be made in a double loop manner.

S-SAST ASSUMPTION SURFACING TECHNIQUE

S-SAST is a streamlined version of Mason and Mitroff’s (1981) Strategic Assumption Surfacing and Testing technique. S-SAST is grounded in organizational behavior and strategic decision making, and is essentially a non-quantitative approach to generating and evaluating alternative solutions with a particular focus on the assumptions underlying a proposed solution. The objective of S-SAST is to generate a realistic understanding of the situation so that the best possible decision can be made.

The qualitative approach of S-SAST uses an iterative group-oriented process in which a group formulates a proposed course of action and then proceeds through a series of steps that identify the key assumptions underlying the likely success of the proposed solution. The key assumptions are then researched in order to determine if they should be accepted, rejected or modified. The objective is not to “prove” that the proposed course of action is a good one (as would be done in a win/lose single loop environment), but to illuminate faulty assumptions and change the proposed course of action as necessary prior to the implementation of the proposed solution. There is wisdom in the old saying, “An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure.”

S-SAST can be executed in face-to-face meetings, over the Internet using word processing and electronic spreadsheet software, or with a combination of teleconferencing and the Internet. Sophisticated collaborative software could also be used but is not required. S-SAST can be done synchronously or asynchronously, the latter having the advantage of capturing input from contributors in different time zones and those who might not be available for synchronous meetings.

S-SAST is ideal for pulling into focus fuzzy situations in which there is disagreement regarding the nature of the problem and/or possible solutions. In crisis situations, in a matter of hours S-SAST can generate alternative solutions and illuminate the key assumptions underlying the proposed solutions. S-SAST is a self-correcting, adaptive process, which is a major benefit in situations that are rapidly changing. In retrospect, one can see how S-SAST would have helped in the Congespirin and Contac situations by illuminating and investigating key assumptions.

Steps in the S-SAST process

S-SAST Step 1: Generation of alternative solutions. The first step is to have the facilitator lead the group through a brainstorming process to develop alternative solutions. The most promising alternatives would be selected for in-depth analysis with S-SAST.

S-SAST Step 2: Stakeholder identification. Stakeholders are individuals, groups or systems that affect, or are affected by the proposed solution.

S-SAST Step 3: Listing of assumptions. The facilitator leads the group through the listing of assumptions for each stakeholder. The general question is, “What do we need to assume about this stakeholder in order for the proposed solution to be successful.”

S-SAST Step 4: Rating on Importance and Certainty. After all assumptions have been listed, the facilitator

leads the group through a process of voting on “Importance” and “Certainty” for all assumptions. The voting process varies. It could be a simple manual process, or a more sophisticated electronic one. In face-to-face settings, a non-electronic way to vote is to have the facilitator ask participants to vote by holding up 1 to 5 fingers, with 5 being high. The facilitator can visually scan the group, estimate the mean, and write it on the flip chart alongside of the assumption. Ratings could also be done using electronic keypads if available. For asynchronous meetings, the ratings on Importance and Certainty can be done with an electronic spreadsheet that is emailed to each participant. Participants fill in their votes on importance and certainty and email it back to the facilitator who consolidates the votes. Voting could be done using more sophisticated collaborative software if it is available to all of the desired participants.

S-SAST Step 5: Plotting on a two-dimensional matrix. The facilitator directs the preparation of a two-dimensional matrix (Importance on the vertical axis and Certainty on the horizontal axis). Each assumption would be plotted on the matrix, using each assumption’s unique number.

S-SAST Step 6: Research assignments. The group then examines the matrix with the assumption numbers plotted on it. The group then decides which assumptions need further research. Those assumptions that are rated high on importance and low on certainty are always considered for additional research. Those assumptions that are rated high on importance and high on certainty should also be scrutinized carefully in case the ratings on certainty are too optimistic. Assumptions that are rated relatively low on importance are not normally considered for further research, except for those that any group member feels should be examined. For example, a group member might say, “I believe our collective rating of Importance for Assumption 42 is too low. Although it isn’t in the list of assumptions to be checked out, I will volunteer to do some research on it.”

Research could be gathered by personal contact with knowledgeable individuals, telephone calls, research via the Internet, engineering analyses, systems dynamics models, review of reports, surveys, or other appropriate means. In crisis situations, the objective is to gather information and reconvene the group as soon as possible, preferably in hours rather than days.

S-SAST Step 7: Reporting on the results of the research. As the group reconvenes, members take turns reporting on the results of their research. In the S-SAST process, it is important that the facilitator not allow general discussion by the group until all reports are heard because premature discussion delays the process. Open discus-

sion follows the reporting of results. The focus should be on deciding the next steps.

S-SAST Step 8: Deciding on the next steps. After all reports are heard, the group decides what the next steps should be. There are three basic options:

1. Trashcan the idea. No further work on the topic would be done.
2. Make a significant modification to the proposed solution. This is a typical course of action selected by an S-SAST group because problems with the original proposal frequently are illuminated, and additional creative ideas generated as tacit and explicit knowledge (Nonaka and Konno 1998) is shared in the group. The new options are then evaluated with the S-SAST process.
3. Continue to examine the originally proposed solution, e.g., revising existing assumptions, preparing new assumptions, adding or deleting stakeholders, re-voting on importance and certainty.

DISCUSSION

Making decisions is not easy in the fog of war. Because of the lack of clarity, decision makers revert to their own personal beliefs and experience, and interpret, or misinterpret, the confusing signals coming from the war front. In real wars and marketing wars such as those illustrated with the Congespirin and Contac situations, such decisions may be sub-optimal because they are based on erroneous assumptions. Almost all organizations do a poor job of surfacing and validating assumptions underlying a proposed course of action. This deficiency is caused by the single loop culture found in virtually all organizations.

As Argyris points out, some single loop decisions are not entirely bad (Argyris 1985). Single loop processes, with their top-down rules-and-regulations orientation, provide stability and permits organizations to function efficiently.

Although there are some advantages to single loop processes, there is a major problem with using single loop decision processes for important decisions. That problem is the poor way that single loop decision processes surface and validate assumptions, which results in bad decisions such as those involved in the Congespirin and Contac situations. Dialectic and other argumentation-based techniques such as Devil's Advocacy feed into the dysfunctional characteristics of single loop process.

Failure to surface and validate assumptions is not a major concern with most decisions, because most decisions are not critical decisions. It is only a serious problem when making decisions about important issues. For important decisions, double loop processes should be used. The relationship between single loop and adaptive double loop decision processes is this: The efficient single loop infrastructure provides a stable foundation for the innovative, double loop adaptive processes that are critical to the organization's survival.

CONCLUSION

The prospects for improving decision processes in a "fog of war" are good if S-SAST is used. S-SAST is a technique that can counter the dysfunctional characteristics of single loop cultures. Those organizations that "fix" their dysfunctional single loop decision process will help ensure that they can see more clearly through the fog of war.

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SPECIAL SESSION

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS STUDY ABROAD: A DISCUSSION OF THE VALUE OF SUCH TRIPS, WHOM TO PARTNER WITH, AND HOW STUDENTS CAN BENEFIT

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THE VALUE OF TEACHING AN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS STUDY ABROAD COURSE

ABSTRACT

College students in the United States have historically had multiple international study abroad opportunities available through their universities. Many of these opportunities are organized for each student individually, are not necessarily focused on international business practices, and are not chaperoned by Business school faculty. This presentation will discuss how to organize an effective study abroad experience for both undergradu-

ate and graduate students, how to arrange for international business visits and coursework, and how to integrate business faculty into such programs. The challenges in establishing such a program will also be discussed, such as initiating faculty involvement, gaining support from the Dean's office, and using travel companies or international partner schools for support. Audience members will also be invited to discuss their experiences.

PROVIDING INTERNATIONAL STUDY ABROAD OPPORTUNITIES TO U.S. COLLEGES: A PARTNER'S PERSPECTIVE

ABSTRACT

The global nature of today's marketplace and the rise of international business programs make collaborative efforts among schools to create study abroad opportunities more attractive to both partners. This presentation will discuss how Grenoble Ecole de Management (GEM) in Grenoble, France has created such programs with U.S.

universities and will detail the various types of study abroad opportunities that GEM offers. The benefits to the students at GEM, as well as the benefits to US students who study in Grenoble, will also be discussed. Audience members will be asked to suggest additional ways that international schools can provide customized study abroad opportunities to U.S. universities.

INCORPORATING AN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS STUDY ABROAD COURSE INTO STUDENTS' CAREER DEVELOPMENT

ABSTRACT

Many U.S. college students who study abroad describe their experience as a rite of passage into adulthood. Whether they go for a year, a semester, or a few weeks, many study abroad participants agree that their trip was a life-changing experience. Although most students gain college credit toward their degree for their study abroad experience, few students know how to incorporate the trip into their career development. This presentation by a

professional in Human Resources will show how study abroad participants can edit their résumés and can incorporate their international experiences into job interviews. Study abroad opportunities that specifically focus on international business practices would maximize the integration between the trip and the student's career development efforts. Audience members will be invited to discuss additional ways for U.S. college students to use an international business study abroad for career placement.

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HOW TO EFFECTIVELY USE STUDENT GENERATED CONTENT?

Rama Yelkur, University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire

I have taken the tools and techniques of teaching online and applied them to face to face classes. All of my on-campus classes are hybrid courses, I have integrated virtual tools to engage students and teach using student generated content. In my on-campus, hybrid classes students actively participate in D2L discussions outside of class (of course they get credit), initiate conversations on current topics related to the class, collaborate in small and large groups outside of class on a multitude of assignments, to name a few activities. Most of the work that I assign to students requires work beyond the textbook, each group is given a piece of the puzzle on an assignment and they bring it together in the classroom. Students work in their small groups and large groups virtually, ahead of class time. I actively participate and guide their small group and large group discussions related to any particular assignment. The key is to have each group have distinct parts of the assignment, so that there is motivation to listen to each other's findings. It is

also crucial to clearly describe the expectations of the assignment and have a grading rubrics laid out in order to monitor the quality of the material that students deliver. Although it requires a lot of effort and advanced preparation in thinking through class activities, it generates and enhances class discussion, increases student curiosity and shifts some responsibility for learning to the student. I am able to better play my role as "facilitator of learning" as opposed to "deliverer of information." It appeals to students as they are more comfortable with digital tools and are willing to engage in this method of learning to supplement and enhance traditional classroom learning. It is also time-consuming, as it involves a variety of assessment and feedback methods as well as continuous interaction with students outside of class. I do think it is worth it; not only is it a refreshing change, it gets students excited about learning as they are involved in the teaching as well!

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BETTER NEW PRODUCT IDEAS THROUGH BETTER SCREENING PEDAGOGY THE EVOLUTION OF REVOLUTION

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The idea of screening new product ideas is not new (Crawford and Di Benedetto; Clark and Wheelright). It is found in many discussion of the new product process. The problem has always been the teaching the screening process. This paper explores what happens when you stop teaching it and let the students do it. The authors, through a series of graduate and undergraduate course in this country and in Central America, have found that there is much to be learned from the students to improve the process. Improvements have occurred in introducing the concept, in screen development, and in screen application. Evolutionary changes in the presentation of screening have lead to revolutionary improvements in the quantity and quality of ideas for new products.

WHY USE A SCREEN?

You may be asking what is a screen and why do you want to use one. If you are teaching New Product Development, Entrepreneurship, Innovation, or Portfolio Management then the concept of screening can improve your course. A screen is used to identify ideas or concepts that merit the commitment of scarce resources to develop and bring to market. A screen consists of a group of criterion that is used to rank or compare ideas. An example of a critiereon is "The product is environmentally friendly." Each criterion has a Likert scale attached to it. For the environmentally friendly criterion a version of a five-point Likert Scale is shown below:

- 2 Strongly Disagree
- 1 Disagree
- 0 Niether Agree nor Disagree
- 1 Agree
- 2 Strongly Agree

Crawford and Di Bendetto recommend ranking ideas or concepts using the following criteria: (Crawford and Di Benedetto, p. 221).

1. Market Size

2. Market Relatedness
3. Market Growth
4. Market Regularity
5. Distribution Capability
6. Competitive Status
7. Regulatory Freedom
8. International Potential
9. Marketing Capability
10. Manufacturing Capability
11. Financial Capability
12. Engineering Capability
13. Vendor/supply options
14. Technical uncertainty
15. Strategic Fit

Of course this list is not exhaustive.

In the author's experience, students often find it easier to construct screens by starting with a list of functional areas of business. Such a list might include:

1. Target Market
2. Channels
3. Customer Needs
4. Competition

5. Financial Capability
6. Technical Capability
7. Ease of Communication

To avoid cumbersome screens, screens should contain about 10 criterion. Remember screens are employed to objectively select which ideas to pursue given scarce human and financial resources.

When the authors started teaching the concept of screening they were following the model of the beginning of the new product development process shown below.

Management Brief → Ideation → Screen Development → Screen Application → Concept Development

The authors made several observations while teaching this traditional model to a class of graduate engineers and business students. The first class, when management or the company sponsors of the projects presented their design brief, motivated the students. The process of ideation was exciting and fun. Unfortunately the development and application of the screen was not productive or satisfying for the students. After an exciting evening of ideation students were not interested in developing a screen, they wanted to begin designing and surveying customers. Second, developing a screen after ideation was a mistake. Once students had a favorite idea they often slanted the choice of criterion in the screen to support their favorite idea. Finally, the application of the screens was a painful, slow and contentious experience. Students were trying to apply poorly worded criterion to the ideas to fragments of concepts. Many of the ideas from the ideation sessions were not complete concepts. Teams struggled to understand the criteria and evaluate the incomplete concepts in terms of market, financial, and operational viability.

WHAT WERE THE PROBLEMS?

It was clear that there were problems with the pedagogy. First students cannot learn if they are not interested and paying attention. The process needed to be interesting for students and have value in their eyes. Second the screen needed to be objective. The purpose of a screen is to provide an objective ranking of concepts by considering the concept from many perspectives. The screening process should build consensus among the diverse members of a product development team. Finally many product development team members could not apply the criteria that they did not create. For instance an engineer had trouble applying the criteria constructed by a marketing student. Although this is logical because the people who

constructed the criteria used language and ideas from their functional areas, the frustration created did not help teams have confidence in the process or arrive at consensus.

IMPROVING THE PEDAGOGY

Introduce Students to the Concept of Screening

To introduce students to the concept of screening have students apply an existing screen to a list of new products. The authors start the exercise by asking students to identify their favorite products. Cell phones, MP3 players or robot vacuums; the products named do not matter. Then the students receive a screen and asked to use the screen to pick which product their “company” should develop. The exercise always provokes discussion on the construction and application of a screen. Some example student questions are listed below:

1. Who is the organization?
2. What market are they trying to serve?
3. Who will use the product?
4. Does the organization have money to invest?
5. What about the competition?
6. What does management want to accomplish?
7. Does the organization have the technical ability?
8. Are there questions of intellectual property?

This process is best done in class where you can spend time with each team.

Create the Screen

All members of the teams need to participate in developing the screen. First referring back to the previous experience teams are encouraged to develop screens of approximately ten criteria. In order to create a list of potential screening criteria, the teams are encouraged to think the characteristics of the “perfect” solution, the “worst” solution and an “acceptable” solution in terms of the functional areas of the business. Second, they prioritize the screening criteria. Finally they eliminate or modify criteria that cannot be evaluated at this stage of the new product development process, that do not fit into a Likert scale or that cannot be understood by everyone on the team. Several common problem areas that teams will face include the development of yes no questions. In lower

level courses with specific groups the facilitator may have to prompt the engineers to add the customer criteria, or conversely the marketers to add technology criteria.

Pretest the Screen

Pretesting the screen is one of the most recent additions to the process but is probably the most obvious. It is a very powerful change in the process. Currently each student on a team takes the screen and a few product or service ideas to at least five people and asks them to apply the screen. Then the teams refine the screen based on their collective results. Doing the revisions in class time provides the faculty facilitator a chance to join in the discussion. There are usually questions that people did not understand, could not answer or did not fit the Likert scale. This is feedback can be used to improve the screen.

Ideation

The authors have learned much from facilitating many ideation sessions with students ranging in age from traditional freshmen to older graduate students. Introduce the process of ideation and model the process for the students before requiring students to lead an ideation session. The faculty facilitated sessions is best done at a separate class session so that students will have time to think about what they might do to generate ideas. Keep the ideations sessions moving. Announce a topic and give participants a minute or two to think about the topic and write down their initial ideas. Then, to inspire lateral thinking, start announcing the ideas. Hopefully, one participant's idea will trigger another idea from another participant. Participants can write their ideas on self sticking note paper so the ideas can be easily maintained and manipulated. In case the flow of ideas wanes, have several questions or topics ready to reignite the session. A relaxed process and a sense of humor seem to work the best for students. Make it fun: Dig deep for the brightly colored sticky notes, bring a snack, students are not creative on demand.

Grouping Ideas into Concepts with Sketches

After the team has completed the ideation process they should have more than 100 ideas. This can be an overwhelming amount of information. In the past the authors would have the students apply the screen to each unique idea. More recently the authors ask the students to group similar ideas together. Ideally they should end up with 15 to 25 groups. Some teams will try to fit all of their ideas into four groups while other teams will see each idea as fitting into its own group. The facilitator must coach the teams through the process.

Developing Full Concepts

In this step the teams use the groups of ideas to form complete concepts. The concepts consist of a description of the idea and a rough sketch. The description and sketch on four inch by six inch note cards. Although the students resist the idea of sketching, the sketches force the students to complete their concepts and help them communicate the concept to the other team members. Also the sketching is often a chance for a different person to lead the team.

Preparing for Screen Application

One of the important steps to screen application is the preparation. First the groups need to think about how many screeners there will be. Assuming that will be five the group needs to make five copies of each idea card and in some way label them as idea 1,2,3 etc. The authors have had the experience of screeners not using the cards in the same order. This makes all of the results useless. Once their concept cards are properly copied and labeled, the group needs to recheck their screen form. Is there a place to put what idea is being worked on? Is there a place to identify the screener? Is it set up so that screeners can efficiently score? Does the group have a plan to process the data when it is available? Finally groups need to bring enough copies of the screen so if you are going to have four people screen fifty ideas you need 200 copies of the screen. This is the group's responsibility to have it all together.

Apply Someone Else's Screen

This has been a big move to change to having another group; hopefully an objective group applies the screen. It may seem a little threatening at first as a particular member cannot push for their own idea. The advantages are, found in objectivity, forced organization, and speed. So far this has been done in meeting or class room. People are serious and the facilitator can remind them this is not a group project but an individual task. The facilitator must allow plenty of time as some groups will have more questions and more concepts than others to be screened. This process works well as an in class activity.

Processing the Data

When the screen is done the teams or groups need to spend time processing the data. The authors used to spend class time discussing how to process the data. Today most students can quickly organize the data in a spread sheet or similar form and determine which concepts scored the highest. While students compile the data, the facilitator

can observe, comment and answer questions about the process. The students should look at the results critically. Were the scores consistent between screeners? This session is often completed with simply revealing what concepts scored the highest. The teams should also analyze why some concepts scored better than others.

Final Selection

Some teams will not agree with the results of the screening process. They may want to lobby for a favorite concept that did not score high. Some teams will argue that the top concepts are not feasible or appropriate. In these cases the teams should analyze what happened. Was their screen not clear or complete? Were their descriptions of the concepts not clear? In some cases iterating through the process can improve the results. The facilitator should remind the students that new product development is an iterative process.

THE EVOLUTION OF REVOLUTION

The process of screening concepts has been improved by making many incremental changes to the traditional approach. Each change was motivated by the author's frustration at a less than satisfactory process student's suggestions. The result has been that semester by semester the evolutionary changes have added up to a revolutionary result.

It is important to remember that this paper is not only about the development and use of a screen to select product concepts. It is about a style of facilitating student's learning that works well as an approach to the fuzzy front end of new product development. This approach has applications in new product courses in marketing, engineering, design, product management courses and entrepreneurship.

NEXT STEPS

The authors are in the process of completing an assessment of the new process with business students, engineering students, entrepreneurship students from across the campuses of the university. The student input will help refine and improve the process further. Further industrial trials will provide additional opportunities for learning.

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STUDENT PERCEPTION RATINGS OF ACTIVITIES THAT SUPPLEMENT MARKETING COMPUTER SIMULATIONS

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Timothy E. Burson, Queens University of Charlotte

David V. Rudd, Lebanon Valley College

ABSTRACT

While computer marketing simulations offer a variety of educational benefits, many marketing professors also incorporate additional supplemental activities to enhance the learning experience as well as to enhance student satisfaction levels. This research offers summary perceptions of certain supplemental requirements in enhancing learning and in enhancing satisfaction when coupled with two widely used simulations (The Marketing Game! and CapSim) by undergraduate, MBA, and Executive MBA students. The supplemental requirements that were measured include periodic meetings with the instructor; conducting financial analyses; developing customer profiles; developing competitor profiles; and presenting post-simulation oral presentations that analyzed the simulated marketplace.

INTRODUCTION

Since the dawn of marketing education, marketing professors have continually sought new ways to assist their students in learning more than just basic marketing concepts both within the classroom and beyond. While classroom settings are well suited for learning concepts or terminology, marketing is a discipline that also requires the student to move from concepts to application and experience before it can truly be mastered. Effective marketing education requires that students learn how to analyze complex situations, apply marketing concepts, and synthesize proposed solutions all within a marketplace filled with multiple interdependent decision points. Each of these decision points must be considered within the framework of an organization's objectives and each is fraught with great risk. The marketing professor, therefore, takes responsibility for this unenviable, yet rewarding, challenge of teaching students (who often have varied marketing experiences and backgrounds) to begin applying marketing concepts when making actual business decisions.

THE COMPUTER SIMULATION EXPERIENCE

The classroom setting is not quite so ideal for leading students beyond conceptual understanding and into the integrated, applied understanding required for making effective real world marketing decisions. Such learning cannot be memorized but requires active participation in order to be fully grasped. Marketing educators have embraced several tools for increasing active participation among students including case studies, essay assignments, actual business projects, and computer simulations. Although many research studies have documented that each of these tools has its own advantages, computer simulations seem to be gaining in popularity among marketing professors for a myriad of reasons. Computer-based marketing simulations require students to make decisions within a complex environment. As such, simulations offer a particularly active tool for students while providing them potentially immediate feedback on their decisions. Previous research has illustrated computer simulations' advantages in areas such as enhancing forecasting and decision-making skills (Herche and Fox 1994) as well as enhancing teamwork and group decision-making (Lamont 2001) all within an active learning environment, (see also Burns and Gentry 1992).

A review of available marketing simulations also shows a wide range of complexity and sophistication that allow simulations advantages in addressing diverse learning objectives. Advances in computer technology, in communications technology, and in systems modeling have led to the development of rich, responsive, and interactive simulations with complexity levels that can be adjusted depending on the level at which the simulation is employed. As such, varying complexity levels allow for the use of simulations with students at varying levels of marketing sophistication.

When used as part of introductory marketing principles, for example, simulations tend to be simple (few operative

variables, competitors, and markets). Their main purpose is to enliven, enrich, and extend the students' knowledge of marketing concepts and their comprehension of how marketing knowledge fits together into a cohesive whole. In essence, simulations in introductory courses focus on the first two levels of Bloom's (1956) classic Taxonomy of learning objectives: knowledge and comprehension.

When used in an undergraduate capstone marketing strategy course or in a master's level marketing management course, however, simulations tend to employ a particularly complex range of variables, markets, and competitors. The simulation is designed at these levels to foster an understanding of the application of marketing theories, the analysis of complex marketing situations, the synthesis of strategies to solve problems or capture opportunities, and the evaluation of strategic decisions. These learning objectives exemplify the four higher levels of Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy.

“SUPPLEMENTS” TO THE COMPUTER SIMULATION EXPERIENCE

Despite growing popularity and widely acknowledged benefits, empirical studies examining various approaches to utilizing computer simulation options have been somewhat limited. With a plethora of options from which to choose, Brooks, Burson, and Rudd (2006) point out that marketing professors would benefit from empirical studies examining how various aspects of computer simulations impact such dependent outcomes as student learning as well as student and/or professor satisfaction. One area within such a research stream that has received very little attention is the study of various activities that marketing professors utilize to augment their students' computer simulation experience. The purpose of this study, therefore, is to examine student perceptions on the various additional activities that a marketing professor may choose to augment the simulation experience. Such possible student activities that have been identified in previous literature include developing oral and/or written presentations analyzing the simulation variables (Alpert 1995); developing profiles of competitors and/or of customers (Brooks et al. 2006); incorporating exams/quizzes on the simulation parameters (Brooks et al. 2006); incorporating case studies that illustrate concepts consistent with the simulation (Zych 1997); and periodically scheduling required meetings with the course professor (Alpert 1995). This research extends each of these previous studies by comparing student perceptions of several of these additional activities from students who have recently completed a simulation experience. In so doing, summary statistics are provided for student perceptions of each activity.

METHODOLOGY

Respondents

This study surveyed a total of 63 marketing students attending a private southeastern university. Within the business school, this sample represented a widely diverse student population consisting of both undergraduate and graduate marketing students. Each respondent had just completed a marketing simulation that served as a major component for completing a specific marketing course. Thirty-six undergraduate students from three different sections of the capstone course for marketing students reported on their experience with The Marketing Game. Twenty-seven graduate student respondents had just completed the capstone MBA marketing course. The twelve evening part-time MBA students and fifteen Executive MBA students (from a single cohort) reported on their experience with the CapSim simulation. Note that while CapSim is a general business simulation, these MBA students took part in this simulation with the marketing component of the simulation having been advanced to provide a strong focus on marketing within the overall business framework.

Concurrent with the simulation, each of these students had been required to complete several of the additional activities listed previously including developing oral and/or written presentations, developing both competitor profiles and customer profiles, periodically scheduling required meetings with the course professor, and developing an internal financial analysis (based on analyzing a break-even point format).

Measures

After having fulfilled all simulation requirements, participants completed a survey that identified each of the activities that they had completed concurrent with their simulation experience. Using five-point Likert-type scales the survey measured each respondent's overall perceptions of the marketing simulation in terms of enhancing learning and in terms of satisfaction with the simulation exercise. Using these same five-point Likert-type scales the survey also measured each respondent's perceptions on five different simulation-related activities that had been required: developing customer profiles; developing competitor profiles; developing a financial analysis based off of a break-even point for each brand that the student offered in the simulation; periodically meeting with the instructor; and delivering an oral presentation after the conclusion of the simulation. The survey measured the respondents' perceptions of how each activity affected their learning as well as how it impacted their satisfaction

with playing the simulation game itself. The impact of each additional simulation-related activity on learning was measured in two ways: how each activity increased understanding of marketing concepts as well as how each activity increased understanding of developing a marketing strategy.

Each of the undergraduate students and each of the evening MBA students completed the survey during class time after all simulation-related activities had been completed. The executive MBA students received the survey via e-mail.

RESULTS

Overall Simulation Experience

Summary statistics of student perception ratings for the overall marketing simulation are presented in Table 1. Overall, students indicated that the simulation enhanced their learning of the marketing concepts that were otherwise discussed in the course. They also indicated that the simulation increased their understanding of how marketing is integrated within the other business functions. The other two items regarding the overall simulation experience – if the simulation impacted the students’ satisfaction on the overall course and if it enhanced understanding of additional marketing concepts not discussed in the course – received lower sample means.

Enhanced Learning from Additional Activities Related to the Marketing Simulation

Summary statistics on student perceptions regarding how each of the five additional simulation-related activities enhanced their learning are presented in Table 2. The two activities that the student sample rated the highest were the periodic meetings with their instructor and conduct-

ing the financial analysis. Of note, these two activities also received the highest sample means in terms of increasing understanding of developing a marketing strategy as well.

Satisfaction from Additional Activities Related to the Marketing Simulation

The summary statistics of student satisfaction ratings from each of the five additional simulation-related activities are presented in Table 3. Meeting with the instructor received the highest overall sample mean while making a final oral presentation received the second highest sample mean.

DISCUSSION

Each professor utilizing a marketing computer simulation is faced with decisions on what, if any, additional activities to incorporate with the simulation experience. In making such decisions, each individual professor must make his/her own personal evaluation as to the importance of student perceptions of each activity – both on their learning process as well as on their satisfaction level. Some professors, for example, may weigh student satisfaction as being very important believing that it further enhances motivation and learning, while others may weigh student satisfaction as being of little importance, preferring to focus solely on student learning perceptions. Either professor should consider these results and weigh these findings accordingly in making their own course decisions.

As such, these findings should also serve as a starting point for research on how marketing professors can maximize their objectives through these experiences. Meeting with the professor during the simulation experience, for example, seemed to be particularly important

TABLE 1
Marketing Student Perceptions Regarding Computer Simulations

Item	Mean	S.D.
The Marketing simulation increased my understanding of the marketing concepts discussed in this course.	4.44	0.78
The Marketing simulation increased my understanding of how marketing is integrated with other business functions within an overall business structure.	4.37	0.77
The Marketing simulation increased my satisfaction with this course.	4.19	0.51
The Marketing simulation increased my understanding of additional marketing concepts not discussed in this course.	3.97	0.88

TABLE 2
Marketing Student Perceptions of How Course Activities Related to Computer Simulations Enhanced Learning

Item	Mean	S.D.
. . . increased my understanding of marketing concepts.		
Meeting with the instructor	4.27	0.89
Conducting the financial analysis	4.24	0.77
Conducting the competitive analysis	4.10	0.88
Conducting the customer profile	4.04	0.77
Making a final presentation	4.00	1.14
. . . increased my understanding of developing a marketing strategy.		
Conducting the financial analysis	4.46	0.62
Meeting with the instructor	4.26	0.92
Conducting the competitive analysis	4.23	0.83
Making a final presentation	4.21	1.02
Conducting the customer profile	4.13	0.82

TABLE 3
Marketing Student Satisfaction Ratings of Course Activities Related to Computer Simulations

Item	Mean	S.D.
. . . increased my satisfaction of playing the marketing (simulation) game.		
Meeting with the instructor	4.08	0.97
Making a final presentation	3.94	1.15
Conducting the financial analysis	3.89	.088
Conducting the competitive analysis	3.69	0.95
Conducting the customer profile	3.52	0.97

both for the student's learning process and his/her satisfaction level. This finding is consistent with Baglione, Tucci, Talaga, and Burson's (2003) conclusions that a professor's willingness to be actively involved with the student's simulation experience will significantly enhance the student's simulation experience.

While this research offers insight into student perceptions, any research must also be considered within its own limitations. This research study is limited by its design as well as by its sample size and construction. Since each of the undergraduate students participated in the same simulation (The Marketing Game!) and each of the graduate

students participated in the same simulation (CapSim with an advanced Marketing component) the procedures suffer a potential confound from the simulation selection.

Furthermore, with a myriad of potential supplemental activities, the sample could only respond to measures regarding those activities in which they actually participated. Additional research is needed to evaluate how students would rate other potential simulation-related activities. Additional research is also needed to confirm how well these sample results can be generalized to other students and other simulations as well as how students would rate other potential supplemental activities.

As additional empirical research is conducted to examine computer simulation usage, it is not just the marketing professor who benefits, but also his/her students. This study should serve as one component of an on-going research stream to additional insights into maximizing the effectiveness of utilizing simulation exercises.

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CHINA: AN EMERGING ECONOMIC POWERHOUSE IN THE GLOBAL ECONOMY

Sid Konell, University of Wisconsin – Barron County

January 1–13, 2007

Shanghai, Hangzhou, Guangzhou, and Hong Kong

A Faculty Development Program Sponsored by U.S. Department of Education

Centers for International Business Education and Research (CIBERs) at
University of Colorado at Denver and Health Sciences Center
and
University of Southern California

In collaboration with CIBERs at

Brigham Young University
Michigan State University
Texas A&M University
The Ohio State University
University of Connecticut
University of Hawaii at Manoa
University of Kansas
University of Maryland
University of Memphis
University of Pittsburgh
University of South Carolina
University of Wisconsin at Madison

January 1, 2007 (Monday)

Participants will arrive in Shanghai on or before January 1, 2007

Hotel Check in: Le Royal Meridien Shanghai
789 Nanjing Road East
Shanghai 200001 China
Phone: +86.21.3318.9999
Fax: +86.21.6361.3388
Website: www.starwoodhotels.com/lemeridien/property/overview/index.html?propertyID=1945

January 2, 2007 (Tuesday)

9:00 A.M. Introduction and Program Orientation
Meet at the Le Bistrot restaurant at the hotel
Chen, Ji
University of Colorado at Denver and Health Sciences Center

10:00 A.M. Shanghai Urban Planning Museum
Shanghai Museum

P.M. Free to explore Shanghai

Evening Welcome Dinner (COSCO revolving restaurant)

January 3, 2007 (Wednesday)

A.M. Briefing from U.S. Foreign Commercial Service
 Mr. Yu-Chien Chen
 Senior Commercial Specialist
 American Consulate General in Shanghai
 E-Mail: Yuchen@mail.doc.gov

Mr. Mark Edmund Schaub
 Barrister and Solicitor
 King & Wood
 E-Mail: schaub@kingandwood.com

P.M. Visit Old Shanghai City (Yuyuan)

Evening Dinner on your own

January 4, 2007 (Thursday)

A.M. School of Economics and Management, Tongji University
 Dr. Wu Sizong
 General Director and Chairman of School Council
 School of Economics and Management, Tongji University
 E-Mail: wsz001@263.net

P.M. Baosteel Company visit

Evening Group dinner at "Red Baby Chicken" Restaurant

January 5, 2007 (Friday)

A.M. Harvest Fund Management Co. Ltd.
 Ms. Chen Wenhong
 General Manager of Shanghai Region
 E-Mail: chenwh@harvestasset.com

Bus tour to Pudong new district

Noon Lunch at Great Brand Mall

P.M. Shanghai Grand Tower Steel Structure Co, Ltd.
 Mr. He Mingxuan
 Vice President and Chief Engineer
 E-Mail: Mingxuan.he@grandtower.com

Travel to Hangzhou via bus transfer

Evening Group Dinner in famous Hangzhou restaurant

Hotel Check in: Sofitel Westlake Hangzhou
 333 West Lake Avenue
 Hangzhou 310002 China
 Zhejiang Province
 Phone: +86.571.8707.5858
 Fax: +86.571.8707.8383
 E-Mail: sofitel@sofitelhangzhou.com.cn
 Website: http://www.sofitel.com/sofitel/fichehotel/gb/sof/5554/fiche_hotel.shtml

January 6, 2007 (Saturday)

A.M. Bus Transfer to Yiwu
 Yiwu Small Commodity Market

Evening Explore Hangzhou and dinner on your own

January 7, 2007 (Sunday)

A.M. Bus transfer to Yuyao
 Visit Ningbo General Bearings /UBC Bearing Company
 Mr. Rong Weijun
 President of the Board and General Manager
 Ningbo Gengda Group Co., Ltd.
 E-Mail: rong@ngtb.cn

Mr. Domingo Penaloza
 Chairman and President
 UBC Bearing of America, Inc,
 E-Mail: DPS@ubc-bearing.com

P.M. Fly from Hangzhou to Guangzhou
 China Eastern 5215 (MU5215)

Hotel Check in: White Swan Hotel
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 Guangzhou China
 Phone: +86.20.8188.6968
 Fax: +86.20.8186.1188
 E-Mail: swan@whiteswanhotel.com
 Website: www.white-swan-hotel.com

Evening Group dinner in a seafood restaurant

January 8, 2007 (Monday)

A.M. School of Business, Sun Yat-Sen University
 Dr. Fu, Zheng Ping
 Associate Dean, Professor of Economics
 E-Mail: mnsfzp@mail.sysu.edu.cn

Tour of Campus and Library

Noon	Working lunch in Sun Yat-sen University	Evening	Dinner on your own
P.M.	Tour of Guangzhou University City Chen Family Museum	January 11, 2007 (Thursday)	
Evening	Explore Guangzhou and dinner on your own	A.M.	InvestHK Mr. Simon Galpin Associate Director – General E-Mail: sgalpin@InvestHK.gov.hk
January 9, 2007 (Tuesday)		Noon	Group lunch at Hong Kong Vocational Training Center
A.M.	Midea Group Shunde District Government	P.M.	Hong Kong Stock Exchange Ms. Bonnie Chan Vice President Investment Services Corporate Communications Department Hong Kong Exchanges and Clearing Limited E-Mail: bonniechan@hkex.com.hk
Noon	Group Lunch in Sun Feng Restaurant in Shunde		
P.M.	Pearl River Piano Group Mr. Tong, Zhi Cheng Chairman of the Board Pearl River Piano Group Ltd.		
January 10, 2007 (Wednesday)		Evening	Dinner on your own
A.M.	Wanli Tire of Guangzhou South China Rubber Company	January 12, 2007 (Friday)	
	Transfer to Shenzhen via bus	A.M.	Hong Kong University of Science and Technology Dr. K.C. Chan Dean
Noon	Lunch ordered from KFC in Dongguan City	Noon	Group dinner at faculty lounge of HKUST Program Evaluation
2:00 P.M.	Yantian International Container Terminals Ltd. Alan Y P Au Assistant General Manager Port Marketing and Solution Department E-Mail: Au.alan@pms.hit.com.hk	P.M.	Explore Hong Kong by yourself
5:00 P.M.	Bus cross the border to Hong Kong, Special Administration Region (SAR)	Evening	Farewell Banquet at China Club Program Adjournment
Hotel Check in: City Garden Hotel 9 City Garden Road, North Point Hong Kong Phone: + 852.2887.2888 Fax: + 852.2887.1111 Website: www.citygarden.com.hk		January 13, 2007 (Saturday) Check out of hotel Depart Hong Kong to the U.S.	

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TEACHING ONLINE: 10 LESSONS LEARNED FROM THE TRENCHES

Michelle B. Kunz, Morehead State University

Teaching an online course presents both opportunities and challenges. These ten tips come from more than five years of teaching courses online, and more than ten years teaching distance learning courses, using online course support for web assisted, web enhanced, and hybrid courses. Even then, taking a class to the online only environment can be daunting. So let me share a little of what I've learned, and my recommendations to everyone teaching courses online.

1. Planning

Planning is essential. In spite of all the years' of experience one can bring to the classroom, using "fillers" when in a pinch for time to fully develop a lesson or class activity, when you move your course totally online – you need to plan far, far in advance. I think the first time you're going to teach, you should begin building that course a full semester in advance of when you plan to actually offer the course. More time would be even better, but probably not very realistic. Be prepared to get inquiries about your textbook, syllabus, projects, expectations, etc. before the pre-registration process for that term the course will be offered. I usually use mid-term as my guide to have my syllabus prepped, and this means I've selected my text, and have pretty much outlined what the projects, assessments, and schedule will be. If at all possible, post your syllabus online in an open environment for students to "browse." If that's not possible, be ready to send an email reply with attachment as soon as you receive inquiries. Many online students, especially graduate students, but undergraduates as well, are "shopping" other institutions for elective courses that will transfer to their home university for fulfill requirements and graduate early, or on schedule. Thus, I'll have inquiries from "visiting" students who need a copy of the syllabus to get prior approval that the course will transfer for the credit they need. Begin posting your course materials, perhaps basic at first, by mid-term, and then "flesh the course out" as the remaining of the semester progresses. This way, you'll have time to think about the course design, layout, etc. Begin with the basic materials you already use, then see what of your "traditional" course materials might need to be adapted. Don't think that you have to wipe the slate clean, and start from scratch. However, realize that

it really will be a building process. After three or four offerings of a course, I feel like I've gotten lined up pretty well, and that hopefully it won't need major changes. However, the online environment will by default mean that the course must be continually updated to remain current and fresh.

2. Develop a Standardized Backup Plan

Post this on your course site, and in the syllabus. Indicate what procedure students should use in the case the course platform/system fails, an unannounced downtime/maintenance occurs, etc. My standard plan is to email the documents as an attachment to my Yahoo email address. This is also a standard "backup" I use: an alternative email, other than my university account. I can keep ALL the emails, along with attachments there until the end of the term, and attachment size is not as limited as my university account. However – I have colleagues who feel it is unprofessional NOT to use the university email – so this may be personal preference, or might be dictated by university policy. You may also want to investigate backup support sites available in addition to the university server. Many if not all of the publishers have study guides, quizzes, support materials, and activity links to accompany texts. I personally prefer to "pick and choose" what pre-published materials I use. I usually do NOT choose to use a course cartridge supplied by the publisher for Blackboard (they are available for WebCT too) simply because I find it more work to remove or turn off the parts of the course content that I don't want to use. However, other faculty have found the cartridge system very helpful, especially early in their course development process.

3. Use the "Kitchen Sink" Approach

In other words, when you begin posting materials on your course site, post everything you think might possibly help students understand you, your teaching style, your expectations, as well as full and complete information for assignments. I post my teaching philosophy, my perspective on team assignments, why and what I expect from students on group/team assignments. I post information on how the course will progress, regular weekly sched-

ule/due dates/times, standard procedures for submitting materials, posting to the discussion board, courtesy and professionalism, etc. Write out all project descriptions in detail. Be sure to post the due date. Also, post all of this important information in multiple locations, or post info about WHERE the particular item is, in multiple locations. I have discovered, students don't seem to look where I would logically expect them to, and in particular – they RARELY read specific details that I post in the announcement section of the course – which is where I would expect them to read/look first! So I always try to remember to post in the announcements, WHERE, something is posted.

4. Develop a FAQ (Frequently Asked Questions) Document

I call mine Dr. K's Tip Sheet. I might actually want to rethink that – and call it a FAQ document. This document gives basic guidelines for the course, netiquette expectations (I'm finding I have to caution students NOT to use text message shorthand), pet peeves, etc. I have found that in spite of all of this, most students won't actually read this document, UNLESS, I do something sneaky – like give them a quiz on it! Establish a standardized format for naming files that they will submit to you. ALMOST without fail, they won't use their name in the file, nor will they type their name inside the document, unless you require it up front. I also ask that they use page numbers and a running header or footer to help identify electronic documents. I discovered a few years ago that my printer was actually “dropping” pages in my file printouts, and the only way I found out was when I was actually comparing the printed version of a file with the electronic file. Having them include page numbers also helps them track if their paper/assignment is getting close to meeting my length requirements for many assignments.

5. Do NOT Lower Expectations

I am very adamant about this. I post this statement in my course requirements, classroom expectations, and just about anywhere I can. I explicitly state that this is NOT an electronic correspondence course. I have the same requirements and rigor in an online course as a face-to-face class. In fact, it's probably more rigorous, since the students don't have a required class meeting, and my “fly arm movements” to express how important getting their work done on time, or reading the assignment is. Rather, the student has to take the personal responsibility, and have the self-discipline to do these things on their own time/schedule. It takes personal fortitude to do all this, especially for undergraduate students.

6. Be Vigilant for Plagiarism and Academic Dishonesty

If it is available to you, avail yourself of a service such as Turnitin.com. I used to submit my students' work myself, and then send them a copy of the report that was generated. Lately, I've set the system so that students submit their work themselves. After they realized it generated a report, I had to explain what that report meant. I subsequently set up a “free submission” for them to “pre-test” their papers, and determine if they have appropriately cited their material. I also give a portion of the assignment grade, based upon the report. Primarily, this helps the students understand how to correctly cite materials, NOT necessarily preventing dishonesty, but rather showing them how and why appropriate/correct citation of reference materials is imperative. Discourage test cheating. There are several ways to do this, depending upon the course platform. Basic things such as randomizing the question sequence, randomly selecting questions from a pool, so you're not using the same questions every time you offer the course, as well as setting a timer/time limit for taking the course, setting the system to post one question per screen, and entering a “no print” command all will help discourage cheating. Be realistic, you can't totally prevent all cheating. However, by designing your assignments with unique requirements, you make it more difficult for students to “buy a paper” or reuse one from previous classes. Give exams that require application of course materials, or higher-order thinking. Essay, short answers, or even “take-home” formats will also discourage students who think it will be easy to cheat. Be upfront with the students about your due diligence regarding academic dishonesty. Post a definition of plagiarism and/or academic dishonesty in your syllabus. Also post what the penalty/consequences for such actions. Mine is full and complete failure of the course. Be prepared to stand by that position. You must also be sure that you are in compliance with university requirements and procedures. Finally, don't think that the online course is any different than the traditional course when it comes to “beating the system.” On our campus, instructor manuals and test banks are readily available across campus. As such, this makes me begin to rethink the use of publisher-supplied/generated materials for my classes. At the very least, I will probably look to a different test bank, rather than using the one that comes with my textbook!

7. Set Aside Time for the Online Class, Equal to “Meeting Class Times”

Plan this based upon your schedule. The first time or two you teach any class online, it will be very labor intensive. Then, it will probably become easier, and you'll be more

efficient with many of the tasks. Any time I teach a course for the first time, it means I have to devote extra time for preparation, grading, and development, just as I would for a new face-to-face class. I still prefer to grade papers from the printed copy, rather than on screen, via the electronic versions. It seems that I can do it faster this way, but it is really a matter of personal preference. Plan due dates for assignments and the overall semester schedule to fit with your other obligations such as conference attendance, heavy committee load (tenure or promotion portfolios), etc. Give yourself the necessary block of time to devote to grading assignments. I find that students in the online environment really do expect more “instant gratification” than even in the traditional classroom. Therefore, prompt grading, posting and return of assignments and other papers is critical. I generally expect that I’ll grade assignments, post and return within one week, or the next “regular” time I’m online for the course. Thus, I may spend my entire weekend working to get them done, but my students are always very appreciative of getting their work back promptly. Set up a standard response time to answer email and inquiries from students. For me, I tell them I’ll reply within 24 hours. If they don’t hear from me by then – resend email. I know that many professors set timelines to perhaps two hours to reply, even including the weekend. Others, don’t check their university email over the weekend at all. Whatever works for you – or is established by your university, FOLLOW IT. I do try to check email several times during the day, but there are some days when you’re just not able to give a question your full attention. If that is the case for me – I send a quick reply, that I’ve received the inquiry, but just can’t devote my attention until. . . . And then tell them when I’ll officially give them an answer. The 24-hour rule applies to this, UNLESS I’m traveling. I let my classes know when I’m on the road, and if I know I’ll be checking email, or if it’s uncertain. I do think that in many instances, students will expect you to be at “their beckon call” 24 hours a day, and that’s unrealistic. I deserve some down time for myself – and I let them know it! Finally – I set up a discussion board item that is an “off assignment” forum. It’s usually titled something like the “Water Cooler.” I tell them this is a place to post interesting thoughts, news items, or questions that others in the class may be able to answer. I also try to have my teaching assistant (assuming I have one) monitor this forum. If there are lots of questions about a similar aspect of an assignment – I know my guidelines in the assignment aren’t clear or sufficient, and then I go in and address this on the system. Finally, be flexible. If there are system/platform problems, it may behoove you to delay or postpone a due date. If my schedule changes, and it often does mid-term, I’ll postpone a due date by a couple of days. I also tell the students WHY I’m delaying the assignment: that I won’t have the time available to grade the project, and therefore, I see no need for it to just sit and

wait for me to get to it; I’d rather they have the extra few days to polish the paper to be its best. However, take this “flexible” attitude with caution. Don’t let lack of planning on the part of individual students allow you to delay assignments on a regular basis. I do however, make allowances for personal/family emergencies, as with all my courses.

8. SAVE! SAVE! SAVE!

Keep a backup copy of EVERY document you post, in Word, Excel, PowerPoint, etc. Backup your backup!! I refer to old class offerings when I teach the course a year or two later. What worked, what didn’t work, how I designed a project, or the grading rubric that I used. I download and save all student documents submitted. My Yahoo email lets me keep these all semester, and several times I’ve had to refer to the original document sent to me when a student disputes a grade/ or content evaluation. I also remind students to keep a backup of everything they submit. The old, my disk crashed excuse doesn’t cut it with me. Archive and/or Export your course at the end of the term, and burn it to CD-Rom. You have it to “reload” back to the server at a later date, and you have a backup of everything should a grade dispute arise.

9. Be a Real Person

Post an introduction about YOU, not just what you teach; what you like, dislike, favorite movies, TV shows, activities, etc. I tell my students where I grew up, how many pets I have, etc. Be present in your class discussion. This is a fine line to walk – between being too visible – “hovering over everything” and being invisible. However, undergraduate classes may need more “visible presence” than graduate classes, but each and every individual class has its own “personality” just like the face-to-face classes do. If the students interact with each other, you can “lurk” more and participate less visibly, but if they don’t – you may need to be more actively involved. Provide students tools for success. I post PowerPoint slides for the chapters – as these serve as a good outline. Some students use them, others don’t, but that’s the same as my traditional classes. I try to post chapter summaries – or at least an outline of what I perceive to be the MOST important points of the chapter, along with links to the textbook support sites. Post debate-types of questions on the discussion board, NOT just definitions or yes/no types of questions. Ask them to give a personal example, etc. applying an aspect of the chapter for the discussion board. I ask my student to post a response to my question/post, as well as two comments to classmates that have “substance” not just “fluff” responses. Also – find out how your students are connecting to get to the course. I usually still have one or two students in a class of about 20 that have dial-up internet

access – and therefore if I have a large file for them to download – I let them know it’s big.

10. The Virtual Environment

Have office hours posted – even if your office hours are just email. I don’t like the “virtual classroom, chat” tool, as it is time/place bound, and I think that defeats the purpose of asynchronous learning. However, I will readily admit that students often enjoy “chatting” in the virtual chat room – as they find it is less formal than email. Virtual discussion and interaction will help build a sense of community and belonging. But – you **MUST** consider different time zones that you may encounter, especially if you have students in other countries – a couple times I have individuals on the other side of the international date

line!! Be vigilant about copyright requirements. Rather than posting full “copied” documents, why not post links to the source online at its origin? Help students understand this concept by setting a good example. Learn to grade papers online and electronically. It’s environmentally friendly and responsible. However – I still find it difficult, and when pressed for time, rely on hardcopy papers first. If you insert comments in the document you can set it to “track changes” or type your comments in different font/color so students can easily see what you insert. However – it’s often difficult to determine if they really read the returned document. Sometime, I just list the page, paragraph, line number and then comment on the information presented there in my Excel rubric that I use to evaluate the assignment.

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CREATING EXPECTATIONS: THE KEY TO SUCCESSFUL ONLINE TEACHING

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Teaching online has its learning curve for both instructors and students. I have taught online courses both undergraduate and graduate for the past seven years and it has been quite a journey! Not only does it take advance preparation, new challenges seem to surface every time you teach a course. One of the keys to success in online teaching is creating expectations for your students, if this is established upfront and throughout the course, it makes a big difference in the smooth running of the course. Below are a few policies regarding expectations that I highly recommend be included in an online course.

Student Expectations

It is extremely important to create very clear student expectations. Even though online teaching and learning have been around for many years now, many students continue to perceive online courses as “correspondence” courses. In my courses, I have a document titled “The Online Playing Field: The Yelkur Doctrine,” that includes the following:

- ◆ On-Campus vs. Online classes: Myth vs. Reality
- ◆ How often should you be in the course?
- ◆ Web-Based Platform requirements for Communication
 - Computer Requirements
 - Internet access
 - An email account
 - A D2L (web-based platform) account
 - Microsoft Word for all submissions
- ◆ Technology
 - Establish a reliable Internet connection (dial-up connections may not be reliable).

- Have a back up plan, such as using the Internet at a public library or on campus.
- When you post discussions, compose in Microsoft Word and then copy and paste the material into your discussion message. That way if your browser crashes, you can just open it up again and re-paste the message.
- Don't wait until the last minute to post your work--the technology gods almost never smile on students who do this, and their computers almost always crash.

◆ Due Dates

◆ Discussions and Group Work

- The dates and times of your posting are an indication of the amount of time and consideration you have given your classmate's contributions.
- Submit all discussion postings and assignments on time.
- Group discussion assignment grades will be unique to each individual,

◆ Your Professor's Response Time

◆ Communications

- Communicate with me and your classmates in a way that is professional, respectful, and consistent with standard English grammar and usage. Avoid chat slang and acronyms used in chat rooms, instant messaging, and email.
- One of the keys to your success in any course is the interaction you have with the instructor and with other students.

In addition to this, students are sent a “Student Code of Conduct and Expectations” that they read and sign of on before the start of the course.

◆ Faculty Expectations

As a faculty member teaching the online course, I sign off on a faculty code of conduct and what students can expect from me. This document includes the following:

- ◆ Post a welcome to students that
 - engages them
 - provides them with a sense of direction (is the calendar their “focal point” in the class? Should they check the news area daily?)
 - gets them started in the class
- ◆ Post an entry in the news area a minimum of twice weekly; these can vary from directing students to a location within the course, citing some recent event that ties to the course content, reminding students of a deadline, announcing grade postings (or the reason they are delayed), commenting on the weather giving them a sense of instructor presence.
- ◆ Visit the Ask the Professor/Raise Your Hand section of the course and check for questions daily
- ◆ During the M-F workweek, respond to questions in Ask the Professor or in email within 24 hours
- ◆ Explicit weekend policy (varies from instructor to instructor)
- ◆ On average, return graded assignments to students within one week after submission
- ◆ Publish exceptions to the norm as soon as the professor is aware of them

- ◆ Provide insight into grades
 - A letter grade or % is not sufficient, nor is a “good job” type comment
 - Some overall comment to the class is appropriate (not necessarily on every assignment)
- ◆ Provide a legitimate means for students to interact through such things as
 - True discussion, not just 30 identical short answers
 - Opportunities to describe, compare and contrast and comment on each other’s work and personal experiences as they relate to the course material
 - Evaluations or comments on each others entries
 - Group projects
- ◆ Completion of the class
 - Complete grading within a week after the class final submissions are due
 - Contact the program coordinator if a student is receiving an incomplete so the class can remain available
 - Submit grades to the contact persons at each of the partner schools
 - Notify the coordinator or director if a student is receiving a less than satisfactory grade and provide some rationale
 - Follow UW System policy with regard to student academic misconduct and notify Program Management of any incidents of misconduct that occur.

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CYBER CHEATING: HOW RAMPANT IT HAS BECOME AND WHAT WE CAN DO TO STOP IT

Janie R. Gregg, University of West Alabama
Wayne Bedford, University of West Alabama
M. Suzanne Clinton, University of Central Oklahoma

Technology has led to creative new ways in which students from kindergarten through college can enhance their cheating abilities. Any child who has a cell phone, PDA, or I-Pod, and knows how it works, can use any of these devices as savvy means to enhance cheating.

In this session, we will discuss why students feel it is so very necessary to cheat to get ahead of other students in today's competitive environment. We will look at how creative the cheating process has become with the use of

several technological devices that all students seem to carry. We will also offer ways in which professors can use some of their own technology, new and not-so-new, to combat the problem.

This session should be of interest to professors in all disciplines, and we will encourage a dialogue between the participants in the session. All of us have encountered special problems with cyber cheating and learning from each other is critical.

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GENERATING CLASS PARTICIPATION AND ENGAGING STUDENTS

Larry Zigler, Highland Community College

Class Participation

- ◆ All students should make a contribution to the class.
- ◆ Actively participating in class and group discussion.
- ◆ Keep abreast of current topics that pertain to the class that you are teaching.
- ◆ Using a point's basis when it comes to grading.
- ◆ Writing a one paragraph summary of the previous day's lecture.
- ◆ Measuring a student's performance based on attendance.
- ◆ How many times they answer a question in class.
- ◆ Turning in class assignments on time.
- ◆ Being prompt and on time for class.
- ◆ Put students in groups depending on the subject matter.
- ◆ Bring in articles that pertain to the subject matter being discussed.

Engaging Students

- ◆ Reward and repeat (words such as good, that's correct).

- ◆ Randomly select to students to answer previous days lecture material.
- ◆ Talk about other events to break the boredom of the subject matter you are discussing.
- ◆ Learn the first name of each student depending on the class size.
- ◆ Give students ample time to answer a question.
- ◆ Have an open mind and don't be judgmental.
- ◆ Learn something about the students likes and dislikes.
- ◆ Speak to them outside of class.
- ◆ Praise them in class.
- ◆ Ask them how they learn certain materials that are presented in class.
- ◆ Let them know that you may ask them for help on occasion if you become brain dead.
- ◆ Make the material you present challenging to them and look at their non-verbal cues.
- ◆ Tone of voice makes students feel more at ease in the classroom.

These are some of the ideas from the topic areas listed above. I will have more thought and ideas at the Fall conference.

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TEACHING WITH THE CASE METHOD: BEYOND KNOWLEDGE AND COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT

“Analysis,” the core of graduate business education, is probably one of the least understood and most misrepresented learning activities. Many people seem to claim that they know it, yet most seem unable to actually define it or practice it. This paper reviews Bloom’s taxonomy of learning objectives with a special focus on “analysis.” More specifically, the paper seeks to present a more profound perspective of “analysis” and “synthesis” as taught and learned in a typical business course that utilizes case studies to enhance the learning process. The authors take more of an epidemiological perspective to case analysis which goes beyond the mere rehash of case facts to developing a clear understanding of all communication elements in the case and the relationship between the elements for the purpose of synthesizing a new picture that was not obvious before. This paper presents a useful framework for analyzing business cases and recommending and implementing viable strategic options.

INTRODUCTION

One of the most common words in business is “Analysis.” It is no surprise then to see the word creep into every area of business education. Courses, textbooks, chapters, journal titles, and published literature present analysis as an important staple of every area of business decision making. Marketing, Management, and other business strategy courses utilize case studies to simulate actual business experiences and give students an opportunity to apply knowledge and practice decision making. In real life, as it should be in the classroom, analysis is a crucial component of effective decision making. It could be said that analysis is the core of business education. Whether it is in Marketing, Finance, Personnel, General Management, Information Technology, or any other area, students are trained to analyze the situation first, understand the issues, identify the alternatives and then select and implement the best options applicable. As Hill and Jones (1998) confirm, the effectiveness of the whole process

depends on the person’s ability to effectively and thoroughly analyze the situation (Hill and Jones 1998, p. C6). We should hasten to note however that effective analysis does not in and of itself guarantee good strategic decisions.

Despite its noted significance, analysis itself receives very little attention from modern academia. A general survey of business textbooks of all various disciplines (Marketing, Management, Finance, and Information Management) failed to produce a single appropriate definition of “analysis.” Where the term “analysis” is presented or discussed, it is typically described rather than defined in such terms as “assessing,” “identifying,” “examining,” or “evaluating.” Many of these text books ask students to begin by identifying issues or by completing a brief company overview followed by a SWOT analysis. These approaches generally lead students to focus on the symptoms instead of the true problems and yet authors describe this process as “analysis” instead of what it truly is, rehash. Overall, it seems that either the authors of the textbooks assume students are already familiar with the concept of analysis or the authors do not feel elaborating on analysis is worth much ink. So what is analysis? And how best could analysis be taught or learned in business education?

THE NATURE OF ANALYSIS

One of the most useful discourses on analysis remains that of Benjamin Bloom, who in 1956 – presented it in the context of the hierarchy of learning objectives. Concerned about the changes produced in individuals as a result of educational experiences, Bloom (1956) developed a taxonomy comprised of six major levels of learning: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Knowledge

Knowledge as defined by Bloom involves the recall of specifics and universals, facts and observations, patterns,

structure, or setting. It is the most basic level of learning that involves primarily the psychological processes of remembering and does not require further intellectual abilities or skills.

Comprehension

Comprehension represents the lowest level of understanding. It connotes the learner's ability to make use of the material being communicated without necessarily relating it to other material or even understanding its full implications. At its best, comprehension requires the skill of interpretation which involves recognizing the essentials and differentiating them from the less essential portions or from the relatively irrelevant aspects of the communications. This process requires some capability for abstracting generalizations from a set of particulars as well as for weighing and assessing the relative emphasis to be given the different elements in the communication. In these respects, interpretation becomes synonymous with analysis and has characteristics in common with evaluation. One can argue that any significant learning through case studies requires the student to develop a much higher level of comprehension than the mere understanding of words and their meanings. The student must be able to distinguish between what is relevant and what is not in the context of a particular decision-making situation.

The third class in the hierarchy is Application – the use of abstractions in particular and concrete situations without having to be prompted as to which abstraction is correct or without having to be shown how to use it in that situation. In Comprehension the emphasis is on the grasp of the meaning and intent of the material. In Application it is on remembering and bringing to bear upon given material the appropriate generalizations or principles. It could be argued that the underlying learning premise from case studies is the application of learned cognitions and relationships to specific decision-making situations. Thus, the company and the decision situation become the theatre in which strategies, plans, and tactics are tried or tested. The fact that one may never be able to find exactly how those proposed strategies, plans, and tactics will fare in that situation, this remains the major caveat of case study learning. On the other hand, this pseudo-applied perspective remains one of the next-best approaches to learning by trial and error in a true decision making role.

Analysis

Analysis, the focus of this paper, emphasizes the breakdown of the communicated material into its constituent parts and detection of the relationships of the parts and of the way they are organized (Bloom 1956, p. 144). To achieve its intended objective in the learning process,

Analysis must help the learner achieve the following three tasks:

1. Break the whole communication down into its constituent elements.
2. Examine relationships of the elements to each other or elements to the main idea (thesis). The purpose of this step is to determine the connections and interactions between the various parts.
3. Analyze the structure and organization (e.g., asking what is the form, pattern, or structure used?) and identify the purpose of the message. Recognize the organizational principles, arrangements and structure which hold the communication together.

Athanassiou and McNett (2003) utilize Bloom's taxonomy as a learning tool in business management classes. However, they only mention the first task of analysis in their brief overview of Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives (Athanassiou and McNett 2003, p. 536). While the first task of analysis is important, the other two tasks are critical in effectively and adequately applying the next parts of Bloom's taxonomy.

The last two classes of the taxonomy are Synthesis and Evaluation. Synthesis pertains to bringing together all the elements and parts of the case study material to form a new whole. This process involves arranging or re-arranging of the pieces into a new mosaic that was not present before. It requires well developed written and oral communication skills as well as organization capabilities.

At the top of the hierarchy is Evaluation. This process involves the learner making judgments about the value of the information in the case, or processes and methods cited in the case, utilizing specific criteria or established standards. The criteria or standards may be determined by the learner or could be provided by the originator of the case study.

APPLYING THE MODEL TO CASE ANALYSIS

A case study, as often written in a business text book, is a historic account of a decision situation as seen through the eyes of the writer. More often than not, the writers of the cases are second hand observers or researchers of the reported scenario. While text book cases may not be ideal, there is good reason for their utilization. It is generally not feasible to have students assigned to real life companies where they could learn by both trial and error or by observing others make decisions. Additionally documented, real-life decision situations are more efficient venues for teaching business decision making than mere-book learning from typical academic prose.

Harrison and St. John (2008) assert that “case analysis, to some extent, mirrors the processes managers use to make real strategic decisions. The main advantages managers have over students who analyze cases are that they have more information and more experience.” Nevertheless, both must learn to make decisions without full information (Harrison and St. John 2008, p. 179).

Case analysis also helps students become familiar with the dynamics of team work. Hill and Jones (1998) argue that the case method of learning aids students in the group process. It helps them learn scheduling, work allocation and responsibility (Hill and Jones 1998, p. C3). Fred David (2003) notes, “In the business world, important decisions are generally made within groups; strategic management students learn to deal with overly aggressive group members and also timid, noncontributing group member” (David 2003, p. 36). Case analysis provides this unique level of interaction with other people which is absent in most teaching/learning methods.

Some of us who utilize the case method of learning/teaching in our classroom often experience the frustration of having student groups turn in lengthy reports or make case presentations that are replete with recitation of case facts but are void of analysis beyond what is obvious. Another major weakness often cited-observed is the attempt on behalf of the students to mix description and prescription together without much of an attempt to diagnose, examine, or evaluate the elements of the case or the relationships between the various elements. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to provide a framework for teaching a marketing strategy course utilizing the case method.

Analysis of Case Elements

Case reports are often composed of a large number of elements. Some of the elements are explicitly presented as in history and background information about the case, the names and roles of the major players, the decision situation facing the decision maker, past and current strategies, performance data – financial, sales, etc., information on competition, industry, customers, and other such explicitly presented communication. These rather conspicuous components are easily recognized and classified by the students as to their true nature: information about customers, competitors, the market, company performance, past strategies, and so forth. Often in his or her case analysis, the student can note with ease the type of corporate culture the company manifests, as well as develop a fair picture of the decision situation by rehashing such case information as who the customers are, where they are, and what they seem to want or not want.

There are many elements in the case report that are not so clearly labeled or identified by the case writer. In their marketing management textbook, Dalrymple and Parsons (2000) emphasize to students that sometimes the most important facts in a case are buried in a chance remark or a seemingly minor statistical exhibit (Dalrymple and Parsons 2000, p. 24). Many of these elements may be of great significance to the process of identifying the case’s strategic issues along with the best solutions to those issues. Kerin and Peterson (2001) emphasize that students need to distinguish between supposition and fact (Kerin and Peterson 2001, p. 58). Suppositions treated as facts can cause confusion and lead to issues which are ignored. Unless the student is able to detect, comprehend, examine, and evaluate these elements, he or she may never be able to articulate a plan or strategy that could actually achieve the managerial objectives implicated in the case.

A notable element that is often ignored by students is that of the people within the case. People determine the philosophy of the corporation. For instance, students are quick to prescribe investing heavily in R&D to try and produce a better quality product instead of addressing the real issue that the people in charge have a strong finance orientation that impacts the overall corporate philosophy away from investing in a strong R&D effort. In the end, it is people who make the final decisions about implementation strategies and so it is crucial to analyze the human element of the cases.

In a typical case study, the analysis of the elements involves having the student achieve the following cognitive and behavioral objectives:

1. The ability to develop a short Historical Perspective of the case, the company and the decision situation.
 - a. Short history of the company.
 - b. Corporate culture: Mission, super-ordinate goal, communication networks, rites and rituals, distinctive competencies, and organizational dynamics.
 - c. Corporate business model
2. The ability to perform an external situation assessment:
 - a. Customer Analysis: Segments profile, motivation, unmet needs.
 - b. Competitor Analysis: Profiles, strategic groups, performance, strengths, weaknesses, and distinctive competencies.

- c. Market Analysis: size, projected growth, profitability, entry barriers, cost structure, trends, Past and Current, Key Success Factors, and driving forces in the industry.
 - d. Environmental Analysis: Legal, Economic, Technological, Socio-Cultural, and Demographic.
3. The ability to perform an internal Situation Assessment:
- a. Performance Analysis: Profitability, sales, customer satisfaction, marketing mix assessment, employee capabilities, and skills, etc.
 - b. Determinants of strategic options: Past and current strategies, resource analysis, strengths and weaknesses.
4. TOWS Summary of threats, opportunities, strengths and weaknesses.

It should be noted that the authors digress from the usual SWOT analysis in which strengths and weaknesses are examined first, and instead introduce the TOWS approach where the external environment takes precedence. This approach is applied because strengths and weaknesses should be examined relative to the opportunities and threats a company faces. The strengths and weaknesses should show how a company can overcome a threat or capitalize on an opportunity.

It is fair to surmise that a useful textbook case report may have a number of unstated or implicit assumptions, elements, or relationships which can only be inferred from an analysis of both explicit and implicit case information to achieve the desired results from the exercise. Some of these elements are statements of facts, others may be statements of values and others may be statements of personal values or organizational norms and intent. As in the case of a medical exam, more complex analysis may be necessary to identify all the elements in the case and to assess the relationship between the various elements.

Completing this level of analysis involves an understanding of managerial decision making as well as the comprehension of the data and other information presented in the case. For the most part, the outcome of this level of analysis is descriptive with some minor deductive reasoning relative to the decisions to be made in the case.

ANALYSIS OF RELATIONSHIPS

Having identified the elements in the case, the student or decision maker still has the task of determining the

relationships among the various elements as well as the relationships among the various parts of the case. The basic task of analysis at this level is that of identifying the strategic issues facing the organization, and the strategic options available for dealing with the strategic issues. At this level of analysis, the main question for the students to answer is: "so what?" The question should be asked relative to each key fact or element in the case, as well as combinations of elements that could be significant. For example, a student could ask: So what if the consumer tastes have been shifting and the company does not have any new products in the pipeline? So what if competitors have excess capacity and the company decides to increase its prices? So what if the market is demanding energy-efficient products; and the company does not have any in its product line?

Answering the "so what?" question demands more than the comprehension of the information in the case, and more than the mere description of the various elements identified in the case. Much of the analysis of relationships may deal with the consistency among the elements, and the relevance of the elements or key facts to the strategic issue or issues that must be addressed in the case. Strategic issues are best stated in the form of a question. For example: how can a company increase its profit if it is forced to match the prices of competition? How can a company maintain quality customer service with declining supply of qualified labor? Or, how can a company meet the challenge of developing new energy efficient vehicles with nonexistent cash reserves. All of these stated issues represent relationships between two or more elements of analysis in the case. There may be a relationship between a consumer trend and an insufficient resource, between an environmental threat and a relative weakness of some sort, or between an emerging key success factor and a major strength or weakness. This level of analysis demands a lot more than mere description, and involves the use of diagnostic tests or implements.

Like most health care professionals, business strategists and decision makers must consistently perform their duties under conditions of uncertainty, and therefore they have to weigh various probabilities and possible courses of action before making crucial decisions. Many of these decisions are not straightforward because neither medicine nor business is an exact sciences. The factors that affect decision making have more than evidentiary value; such factors, including both social and psychological, may actually affect which decisions are put up for consideration as well as determine the ultimate form of the final decisions.

When a physician examines a patient and hears his or her complaint, the physician will then have to make a deci-

sion on what is wrong. The diagnosis is based on answers to questions asked of the patient and on tests that are performed. Even at this stage a physician has to weigh the risks inherent in a particular diagnostic procedure against the risks of following a treatment plan without the information that would result from performing the diagnostic procedure. In prescribing treatment, the physician also knows that the treatment for one illness may aggravate another illness. Furthermore, many factors must be taken into account, such as the patient's characteristics, ability to tolerate pain, allergies to certain medications, living conditions, and etc. Physicians and health care professionals develop judgment from three sources. First, during medical training, they study anatomy and physiology to understand the various parts of the human body and the "relationships" between these parts. Second, these developing professionals observe assessments made by people more experienced in their field. And third, health care professionals learn directly through trial and error – they diagnosis issues, prescribe a treatment, and observe the results. It is important to note, however, that there is a great deal of disagreement among health care experts regarding particular treatments or the use of certain drugs for the cure of some ailments.

As in the case of health care decisions, business professionals must understand the elements of a decision situation and the linkages between the various elements in order to make any useful diagnosis. As in medicine, diagnosing the main issues or problems to be addressed in a particular case requires the knowledge of the possible diagnostic tests, the relative costs and benefits of such tests, and the ability to interpret the results of those diagnostic tests. Because the root cause of a problem or issue could be difficult to identify, this level of analysis could require multiple tests of multiple elements and relationships. Some of these tests could be quantitative and objective. Others may involve the use of social and psychological metrics or criteria. It is crucial to keep in mind that issues can often be directly related to a certain action or lack of action from people within the case. These relationships should be identified so that the heart of the problem can be addressed and dealt with adequately. Whatever the case, the analysis of relationships requires going beyond the obvious. This is by far, the greatest caveat in case analysis reports or presentations by student groups. Often this section is a mere rehash of case facts and summary of case parts. Instead of repeating the fact that sales have been declining for the past five years, the students should be examining the trends to answer the question: Why have sales been declining for the past five years, and what can be done to arrest that decline or reverse it? Just as physicians distinguish symptoms from the disease itself, students should be able to identify core problems separately from their effects. Whenever data is available in the case, whether of

financials, market research findings or time series data from one source or another, every effort must be made to break this data into its relevant elements and use it to help answer the question: "so what?" Authors often flood cases with data and statistics that must then be examined and broken down to convert the data into information. As Dalrymple and Parsons (2000) state, "Rarely are the data supplied in the case in the form most appropriate to finding a solution," (Dalrymple and Parsons 2000, p. 24).

Analysis of Organizational Principles

The highest level of analysis is the task of analyzing the structure and organization of the case. Rarely would a case writer state up front the underlying managerial principles or assumptions underlying the decision making situation. Thus, the reader may be unable to develop any type of prescription or treatment plan for the organization until he/she fully comprehends the purpose, point of view, antecedent, or the specific decision to be made. The purpose of business education is to help learners develop a "sense of smell" as to what the real bottom line is in a particular case.

It is imperative that the students ~~understand~~ why the textbook included the case in the first place. Moreover, it is essential that they identify the true "antecedent" for the decision situation. In other words, why are consultants (students) called upon to participate in this decision situation? Why now and not a month, or a year ago? What has happened inside or outside the organization to require such attention? Understanding the antecedent of the decision situation assists the consultant/ or student to identify the psycho-social elements that may confound the decision situation and makes him or her aware of the expectations of management with respect to the prescribed treatment plan. Here again, the best way to grow this high-level analysis skill is by trial and error in a classroom setting.

Synthesis and Evaluation

Synthesis in learning is defined as the putting together of elements and parts so as to form a new whole. This is a process of working with elements and parts and combining them in such a way as to constitutes a pattern or structure not clearly there before (Bloom 1956, p. 206). This form of cognitive learning provides for creative behavior on the part of the learner. However, it should be noted that the student does not have a free reign with creative expression since generally he or she is expected to work within the limits set by specific problems, managerial principles, and methodological frameworks.

It should be noted that comprehension, application, and analysis also involve the combining of elements and the

construction of meanings. However, they tend to be more partial and less complete than synthesis. Moreover, in synthesis, the student must draw upon elements from many sources and put them together into a structure or pattern not clearly there before – something new. Thus synthesis, to some extent, may well require some or all of the previous categories.

In case analysis, synthesis is best captured in the selection of strategic options, and the presentation of a specific detailed implementation plan. While no two strategists or students of strategic management would weave the same mosaic of a plan or strategy, such plans or strategies selected must be bound by information gained or deduced from the case write-up and any other relevant source of information. Thus, a useful plan or strategy must be consistent with the noted corporate culture, the TOWS summary, and the strategic issues identified. Students must examine the determinants of strategic options before seeking to implement a plan of action. Students have been known to make recommendations that do not align with the current situation of the organization. One of the most frequently observed weaknesses in student case reports is that of a prescribed plan or strategy which seems to completely ignore what has been discussed in the analysis section. Hill and Jones (1998) asserts, “Recommendations should be in line with your analysis; that is, they should follow logically from the previous discussion” (Hill and Jones 1998, p. C6). Students should be questioned as to where their suggested options came from, along with how will the proposed plan address the identified strategic issues and assist with the managerial decisions at hand while keeping the determinants of strategic options in mind.

In general, a synthesis is faulty if it lacks “goodness of fit” with the requirements of the decision problem. Faulty synthesis may be the result of inadequate comprehension or inadequate analysis, or both. For instance, if the decisions to be made are misidentified, or if the antecedent is improperly identified, omitting important elements of the analysis such as the impact of the environment, or the resources of the company. Focusing on irrelevant elements or applying improper tests to the elements could easily result in a faulty strategy or a faulty implementation of that strategy. If the analysis component is done properly, the synthesis of the strategy and implementation plan would be sound and relevant.

Last but not least, is Evaluation defined as “the making of judgments about the value, for some purpose, of ideas, works, solutions, methods, material, etc. It involves the use of criteria as well as standards for appraising the extent to which particulars are accurate, effective, economical, or satisfying” (Bloom 1956, p. 207). Such judgments may be either quantitative or qualitative, and

the criteria could be those determined by the students or those which are given to them.

Evaluation is placed at the top of the learning hierarchy because it requires to some extent all the other categories of behavior, however it is important to note that evaluation will in some cases be the prelude to an acquisition of new knowledge, a new attempt at comprehension or application, or a new analysis and synthesis. In the context of a case analysis, the student who attempts to analyze financial or performance-based data may form a judgment about the accuracy of the data, the appropriateness of the data gathering methods or the design instrument, or even the fundamental assumptions of decisions made in the case. And although it is recognized that an individual is entitled to his/her own opinion as well as his/her own judgments about the value of specific information elements, one major purpose of business education and the use of the case method is to broaden the foundation on which judgments are made.

In the Strategic Market Management framework, students are called upon to use their judgment in evaluating the viability of strategic options under consideration, and also to develop an evaluation component that will be invoked as part of the implementation process to help assess the effectiveness or lack thereof of proposed strategies. Following are some factors that could be used in evaluating strategic options:

1. Cost/Benefit analysis: Do the financial benefits of the proposed strategy outweigh the financial costs?
2. Compatibility with the company’s mission and strategic goals? Does the pursuit of a given strategy protect other company strengths or neutralize weaknesses?
3. Implementation viability: Will the company be able to implement such strategy in a timely manner and with ease given the demand on resources? Does the strategy fit the capabilities, organization, structure, processes, and overall culture?
4. Ethical/Moral viability: Is the strategy consistent with the core values of the organization and its major stakeholders?
5. Durability of returns: Does the viability of the strategy extend beyond the current cycle? Are there potential synergies from our selected strategy and anticipated competitive responses or emerging market or environmental forces?

In addition to the above set of metrics, the students could use such tools as Pay-off Matrix or a numeric scorekeeping

system to assess the acceptability of each potential strategic alternative. The result of any evaluation utilizing these and other similar metrics should be a set of recommendations that the company should pursue (Harrison and St. John 2008).

UTILIZING GUIDELINES

It is often beneficial for teachers as well as students if the latter are presented with some guidelines to enhance the

case method approach. This provides students with a general overview of the material that should be included in their exploration and analysis of cases. Some teachers provide rigid outlines that students must follow. This can lead to lengthy reports consisting of high amounts of rehash since the focus is on completing the outline instead of presenting the important issues at hand. Exhibit 1 is an example of an outline that applies the six levels of Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives. As a result of the outline, students often went section by

EXHIBIT 1 Strategic Analysis of Marketing Cases: A Process Approach

1. A short Historical Perspective of the case, the company and the decision situation.
 - a. Short history of the company.
 - b. Corporate culture: Mission, super-ordinate goal, communication networks, rites and rituals, distinctive competencies, and organizational dynamics.
 - c. Corporate business model.
 - d. What is the antecedent of the decision situation?
 - e. What is/are the decision(s) to be made?
2. Situation Assessment – External Analysis.
 - a. Customer Analysis: Segments profile, motivation, unmet needs.
 - b. Competitor Analysis: Profiles, strategic groups, performance, strengths, weaknesses, and distinctive competencies.
 - c. Market Analysis: size, projected growth, profitability, entry barriers, cost structure, trends, Key Success Factors.
 - d. Environmental Analysis: Legal, Economic, Technological, Socio-Cultural, and Demographic.
3. Situation Assessment – Internal Analysis:
 - a. Performance Analysis: Profitability, sales, customer satisfaction, marketing mix assessment, employee capabilities, and skills, etc.
 - b. Determinants of strategic options: Past and current strategies, resources, strengths, and weaknesses.
4. TOWS Summary of threats, opportunities, strengths and weaknesses.
5. Identify 4–6 Strategic issues the company faces at the time of the decision situation.
6. Identify strategic alternatives to address the strategic issues identified in #5
 - a. Product/Market investment strategies
 - b. Marketing function-specific strategies
 - i. Market segmentation strategies
 - ii. Marketing Mix strategies
 - iii. Assets, Competencies and Synergies.
7. Evaluate the viability of strategic alternatives to resolve the strategic issues.
8. Select your strategy.
9. Present a detailed implementation plan.
 - a. Be specific
 - b. Remember that Marketing effort costs money!
 - c. Remember that PEOPLE matter the most in determining the success or failure of any strategy.
 - d. Allow for contingencies
 - e. Include some form of a review or evaluation process to assess the effectiveness of strategies.

section through the outline. There was no sense of excitement as one could always predict what would come next no matter how trivial the element was to the issues in the case. In an attempt to inspire creativity on the part of the students and to seek an emphasis on that which is important, Exhibit 2 was utilized instead of the traditional outline approach. Exhibit 2 provides students with a general framework to perform the case analysis but it is not presented in the traditional structure that seems to create the perception of rigidity. It is crucial to emphasize to students that this is not meant to be a blueprint for examining the cases. Elements can be filtered out if they

do not pertain to the issues or additional information not listed on the guideline may be necessary. Students should find their case analysis progressing through the various levels of Bloom's taxonomy as they explore the case, but they should not feel or appear as though they are constricted to a specific outline.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper was to explore the true nature of "analysis" when using the case method in business education. As evident in most textbooks and the general

EXHIBIT 2			
The Hierarchy of Learning Objectives: A framework for Analyzing Cases in Marketing			
Knowledge:	Case Facts Past Strategies Decisions to Be Made	Current Strategies Chief Complaint(s)	Major players Performance data
Comprehension:	Corporate Culture: Mission, Super-ordinate goal, Rites & Rituals, Distinctive Competencies, Communication Networks, and Organizational Dynamics Business Model Short History The Antecedent Answering the question of Why?		
Application:	Bringing in relevant information, and proper evaluation tools, i.e.: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ Performance metrics and financial analysis tools ◆ Criteria for evaluation of Market Segments ◆ Organizational Behavior Theories and frameworks ◆ Consumer Behavior Theories and frameworks ◆ Market Research tools and statistical measures 		
Analysis:	Situation Analysis: Customers, Competitors, Markets, Environments. Self Analysis: Performance, Resources, Skills and Capabilities. Breaking down the case into the various individual elements Evaluating the relationship between the elements Performing diagnostic tests as needed - , i.e., Financial Analysis, Making necessary comparisons and contrasts Completing the TOWS analysis Attempting to answer the question: So What? Understanding the Antecedent of the decision situation. Identifying the Strategic Issues in the Decision Situation.		
Synthesis & Evaluation:	Identifying the Determinants of Strategic Options Identifying the Strategic Options Evaluating Strategic Options Selection of Strategies Implementation Plan		

literature, -Business educators have not seen it necessary to explore the true meaning of analysis and to require its true manifestation in the classroom. Accordingly, many of us go on teaching and evaluating grading at the lower levels of Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning Objectives.

This paper reminds us that proper analysis goes beyond mere comprehension, interpretation and application to involve breaking the given whole into its component elements, and assessing the relationships between the elements as well as the true purpose of the case and the general antecedent. A complete and relevant analysis should result in relevant strategic issues, and a set of relevant strategic options. Beyond analysis, the learner must be encouraged to manifest a measure of creative expression in the synthesis and integration of learned cognitions in a new whole. In the context of case analysis this involves the presentation of a set of alternative options that are internally consistent with the analysis, and a comprehensive implementation plan that incorporates a viable evaluation component.

While Bloom assigns Evaluation the top position in the hierarchy, it is nonetheless important to note that in the proper process of case analysis, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation are intertwined to provide a relevant learning experience. Moreover, one should note that the process is by far more important than the report or the actual presentation, and thus we must place emphasis ~~must be~~ on assisting the students to develop higher learning skills beyond mere knowledge and comprehension.

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MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTION SEQUENCING AND STUDENT OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

Marketing educators often use multiple choice exams with various versions of question sequencing to minimize cheating with little consideration for its influence on student performance. This study replicates prior research; however, consideration is also given to academic achievement as a contributing factor. General academic achievement is measured by cumulative GPA whereas marketing academic achievement is measured by student performance on short answer questions. The results indicate that student scores on multiple choice exams in the Principles of Marketing course differ significantly based on academic achievement, not question sequencing. This paper describes the research design, findings and implications for marketing educators.

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTION SEQUENCING AND STUDENT OUTCOMES

Marketing educators often utilize multiple choice exams to assess student mastery of content. This is an efficient and objective form of assessing student learning, particularly in courses with larger sections. Various versions of the same exam are commonly used to minimize the possibility that students collaborate on selecting their answers. Each version usually contains the same questions with exam questions presented in a different order. Intuitively one might assume that students do better on exams with questions appearing in the same order that material was covered in class. However, randomizing the order of test items is a fair and simple approach given the automated process provided by test bank software that accompanies most marketing texts.

Does randomizing the order of test items put students at a significant disadvantage? Research results regarding question sequencing are mixed. Some studies find no significant difference while others cite marginal or significant improvement in student scores based on a particular sequence of test items. However, there is little to no research in marketing education that considers other factors along with question sequencing that might influence student performance on multiple choice exams.

The purpose of this research is to investigate such influences in the Principles of Marketing course. Specifically, this study considers general academic achievement as measured by cumulative GPA and marketing academic achievement as measured by student performance on the short answer portion of exams in the Principles of Marketing course. Exam version is also considered as a differentiator of student performance on multiple choice questions. The results of the analysis are consistent with several previous studies and provide meaningful insight for marketing educators.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The study of question sequencing on student performance on multiple choice exams is not new (Hughes, Prytula, and Schnelle 1974; Norman 1954). In fact, this line of inquiry has expanded to include testing time (Geiger and Simons 1994; Marso 1970), test anxiety (Burns 2005; Neely, Springston, and McCann 1994), and test item difficulty (Gerow 1980; Laffitte 1984; Skinner 1999). However, the work in marketing education has focused primarily on test item order.

Petit, Baker, and Davis (1986) examined test item order with class standing, college major, and test paper color as covariates in a Principles of Marketing course. After controlling for college major (marketing majors performed significantly better than non-majors), students who received the forward-sequential version scored significantly higher than those who received the random-sequential version. A number of studies support the finding that students perform significantly better on a forward-sequential than a random-sequential version of a multiple choice exam (Balch 1989; Howe and Baldwin 1983; Carlson and Ostrosky 1992; Stout and Wygal 1990; Taub and Bell 1975).

Chidomere (1989) also used a Principles of Marketing course to investigate test item order and student performance. He concluded from his study, which included four multiple choice exams with forward and random-sequential versions, that there was no significant difference in student performance based on test item order.

This supports previous studies by Sax and Cromack (1966) and Schmitt and Scheirer (1977). A more recent study focused on marketing courses also shows inconclusive results regarding question sequencing and student performance (Russell, Fisher, Fisher, and Premo 2003). Similar results are common in other business disciplines as well (Geiger and Simons 1994; Heck and Stout 1991; Peek 1994).

It is clear that there are mixed results regarding student performance and question sequencing for multiple choice exams in the Principles of Marketing course. However, only the work of Russell and his associates (2003) considered academic achievement as well. In their study, students in two sections of an Advertising course and one section of a Sales Management course as well as students in three sections of management courses were administered three multiple choice exams over one semester. Each student took one exam with exam questions in forward order, one in reverse order, and one in scrambled order. The researchers controlled for academic ability in their research design by averaging each student's mean score on the multiple choice questions across all three exams and used it as a blocking variable in their statistical analysis. Although students scored highest on the forward order exam, the difference in student performance across the three exam versions was not significant.

A more comprehensive approach to considering prior academic achievement is to utilize student cumulative GPA in the design of the study. This was the approach taken by Paretta and Chadwick (1975) and Canlar and Jackson (1991) in their research on academic achievement, test item order, and student performance on multiple choice exams with accounting students. In their work they used cumulative GPA to divide students into three groups, namely highest third, middle third and lowest third. Canlar and Jackson (1991) then randomly assigned students from each group to one of the exam versions (forward, random, reverse test item order). The results of their analysis showed that there was no difference in student performance based on academic achievement for students in the highest or lowest third but that students in the middle third performed significantly better on the reverse order version compared to the other two versions.

A similar approach is utilized in this study with some modifications. In this study, each student takes three exams with multiple choice questions over the semester rather than just one exam. Thus each student is exposed to each kind of exam version (forward, random, reverse) once and grouping students based on cumulative GPA is used for exam version assignment. Actual cumulative GPA, rather than a contrived blocking variable as was the case in the Russell and his associates study (2003), is used

in the analysis of variance to compare general academic achievement and student performance on multiple choice exams. Since cumulative GPA includes academic achievement in courses from a variety of disciplines unrelated to business another measure is needed. Marketing academic achievement is measured by student performance on short answer questions on the same exams to reflect academic achievement in a similar content area as the multiple choice questions.

METHOD

This study was conducted at a small public institution in the north east. Question sequencing was manipulated on three exams in two sections of the Principles of Marketing course taught by the same instructor. The course is required of all Business Management majors. In each case, multiple choice questions were placed at the beginning of the exam followed by five or six short answer questions requiring answers of two to three paragraphs each. Other assessment measures in the course included weekly quizzes, four short written case studies, and two group presentations.

There were three versions of each exam. In the first version, multiple choice questions were placed in forward order, that is, questions appeared in the same order that material was presented in class. In the second version, multiple choice questions were placed in random order, that is, the order that the questions appeared was unrelated to the order that the material was presented in class. In the third version, multiple choice questions were placed in reverse order, that is, questions appeared in the opposite order that material was presented in class.

Students in each section were divided into three groups based on cumulative GPA. On the first exam, the instructor administered the random order version of the exam to students in the highest third, the forward order version to students in the middle third and the reverse order version to students in the lowest third. Over the next two exams students were administered the exam versions to which they had not been previously exposed. Thus, every student took three exams and was exposed to each exam version (forward, random, reverse) once throughout the semester. Exposing each student to all three version types ensured that the final grade earned by a certain student had not been skewed by the test item order of one particular exam. All exams, regardless of version, were printed on white paper, so students had no visual cues as to the order of test items.

There were 24 multiple choice questions and six short answer questions covering five chapters on the first exam. There were 20 multiple choice questions and five short answer questions on the second and third exams

covering four chapters of material each. The difference in the number of multiple choice questions on each exam was a reflection of the number of chapters covered on each exam with approximately five questions per chapter. As a result, percentages were used as the measure for student performance rather than raw scores to account for the variance in the number of multiple choice items on each exam.

Short answer questions were the same for both sections and appeared in the same order. Although multiple choice questions varied between sections, everyone in the same section was administered an exam with identical multiple choice questions. All multiple choice questions in both sections were selected from a test bank and were of equal difficulty. Having questions on the exam for one section that differed from those on the exam for the other section did not result in a significant difference in student scores for the multiple choice portion with an average of 75.1 percent for one section and 75.4 percent for the other. The examination periods were timed, but in each testing situation every student completed the exam in the time allotted.

Cumulative GPA and question sequencing were recorded with the student scores on the multiple choice and short answer questions to allow for further analysis of the results. Analysis of variance was utilized to determine if student performance on the multiple choice portion of the exams in the Principles of Marketing course differed significantly based on general academic achievement, marketing academic achievement or question sequencing.

RESULTS

There were 57 students enrolled in the course; however, only the results of 50 students were recorded for the purpose of this study since two students withdrew from the course before taking all three exams, four students were transfer students in their first semester of attendance and thus had not established a cumulative GPA at the institution, and one student was a postmaster's student seeking continuing education.

Of the 50 students observed in this research 22 percent were seniors, 38 percent were juniors, and 40 percent were sophomores. Eighty percent of the students enrolled in the course were business management majors, 12 percent were sport and recreation management majors, and 8 percent were from other disciplines.

An analysis of variance was conducted to see if marketing academic achievement and general academic achievement are consistent measures. The analysis found that

students in the highest third based on cumulative GPA scored significantly better on short answer questions than students in the middle and lowest thirds ($p = 1.72E-07$). The average scores for the three groups on short answer questions were 85.7 percent, 70.1 percent, and 66.4 percent respectively with an overall average of 74.2 percent. This suggests that there is a positive relationship between marketing academic achievement and general academic achievement in that students who score high on general academic achievement also score high on marketing academic achievement.

An analysis of variance was also conducted to see if student performance on multiple choice questions differed significantly based on academic achievement or question sequencing. The dependent variable in the analysis was the percentage of correct answers on the multiple choice portion of the exams. The independent variables included question sequencing, general academic achievement represented by cumulative GPA and marketing academic achievement represented by student performance on short answer questions. The analysis was conducted at the .05 alpha level.

Table 1 shows that students scored highest overall on the reverse version and lowest on the forward version. There was no significant difference in student performance based on question sequencing in the analysis of variance ($p = 0.49$). Table 1 also shows the average student performance on multiple choice questions based on general academic achievement. It is clear that students with the highest cumulative GPAs performed the best on each of the exam versions used. When considering academic achievement based on cumulative GPA students in the highest third scored significantly better in average multiple choice exam scores compared to students in the two other groups ($p = 8.22E-05$).

Table 2 shows the average student performance on multiple choice questions based on marketing academic achievement. When academic achievement is defined by student performance on short answer questions an analysis of variance shows that those in the highest third performed significantly better on multiple choice questions than those in the middle third ($p = 0.02$). Interestingly, those in the lowest third also performed better than those in the middle third but the difference was not significant ($p = 0.13$).

These two tables show that those students in the highest third based on general or marketing academic achievement consistently scored better than other students on the multiple choice questions regardless of question sequencing.

TABLE 1
Student Performance and General Academic Achievement

Test Item Order				
General Academic Achievement	Forward	Random	Reverse	Overall
Highest Third (17)	81.8	78.2	84.1	81.4*
Middle Third (17)	66.7	75.3	76.2	72.7
Lowest Third (16)	72.8	71.9	69.8	71.5
Overall (50)	73.8	75.2	76.8	75.3

* Highest third is significantly different than both middle and lowest third ($p = 8.22E-05$).

TABLE 2
Student Performance and Marketing Academic Achievement

Test Item Order				
Marketing Academic Achievement	Forward	Random	Reverse	Overall
Highest Third (17)	77.4	78.8	80.0	78.8*
Middle Third (17)	69.9	73.1	72.1	71.7
Lowest Third (16)	74.1	73.5	78.5	75.3
Overall (50)	73.8	75.2	76.8	75.3

* Highest third is significantly different than middle third ($p = .02$).

DISCUSSION

The results of this research support those of previous studies which show that question sequencing does not significantly influence student performance on multiple choice exams in the Principles of Marketing course (Chidomere 1989; Russell, Fisher, Fisher, and Premo 2003). Even though the difference is not statistically significant, consistent with the findings of Gruber (1987), students scored highest on the reverse order version. This suggests a recency effect where students more readily recall information presented most recently in class. Successful completion of these initial items may provide confidence to better address the remaining test items on the exam.

In this study student performance varied significantly based on general academic achievement. Intuitively this makes sense given that academically stronger students are more likely to be the best prepared for exams regardless of version and therefore are least sensitive to test item order. Moreover, weaker students are also not as likely to be affected by question sequencing given their overall difficulty with objective exams.

Student performance also varied significantly based on marketing academic achievement. This is a more relevant finding given that general academic achievement is a reflection of student performance in a variety of courses from a number of disciplines. However marketing academic achievement is based on similar course content

and therefore provides a more applicable result. Taken together, the two measures for academic achievement suggest that question sequencing is not a significant differentiator of student performance compared to the influence of past performance in other courses and current performance in other assessments in the Principles of Marketing course.

When looking at student grouping based on cumulative GPA and multiple choice exam score it is clear to see that students in the highest third scored lowest on the random version, students in the middle third scored lowest on the forward version, and students in the lowest third scored most poorly on the reverse version. This is interesting because these respective versions for each group represent the first exam students took in the course. Given that the overall average for all students was lowest on the first exam this finding may be due to students not being familiar with the instructor's testing style or the type of content that appears on multiple choice exams.

The results of this study and those of previous research (Canlar and Jackson 1991; Paretta and Chadwick 1975) suggest that students in the middle third are the most susceptible to the influence of question sequencing given the highest third view exams as easy and the lowest third view them as challenging regardless of familiarity with the instructor's approach to testing or the order in which test items appear on the exams.

When students were grouped based on marketing academic achievement students in the lowest third actually performed better than those in the middle third on all three exam versions, particularly those in forward and reverse test item order. Although the difference was not statistically significant, this result does raise an interesting point. Students in the lowest third based on marketing academic achievement likely do not retain comprehensive data as effectively and do not have writing skills as strong as those in the other two thirds who perform better on short answer questions. Perhaps the students in the lowest third are better able to recall related information represented by multiple choice questions formatted in sequential order, whether in forward or reverse order. Thus, multiple choice questions in forward or reverse order, as opposed to short answer questions, tend to favor the poorest academic achievers while not significantly disadvantaging the highest academic achievers.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The results derived from this study should be viewed as suggestions rather than definitive conclusions given that the research was conducted at one institution with one instructor. Although the students in this study are repre-

sentative of students at many institutions, there is likely to be differences based on institutional size and selectivity. Also, no consideration was given to student test anxiety or attitude toward marketing as a field of study or career. Perhaps those students who wish to pursue further coursework in marketing better prepare for exams than those who take the course simply to fulfill the requirement for the Business Management major. The findings by Petit, Baker, and Davis (1986) showed that marketing majors perform better than non-majors on multiple choice exams. However that type of analysis was not possible since the marketing major is not offered at the institution in this study.

Rather than matching general academic achievement groups with a particular question sequencing version from the outset, some students from each group should be administered a forward test item version, some a random test item version, and some a reverse test item version on each of the three exams. This will mitigate the influence of maturation particularly on the first exam. However, each student should still be exposed to each question sequencing version once so that the influence of test item order and academic achievement on student performance can still be analyzed. This approach is also most fair for students so that their grades in the course are not needlessly influenced by the question sequencing on one exam.

Test items used in this study were all categorized as moderately difficult so no consideration was given to the order of test items and their level of difficulty. Students completed the exams in this study within the time given, but it would be interesting to see if there is any change in the influence of the factors listed above with significant time constraints placed on the exam administration. Time limitation is quite relevant to the study given the myriad of situations that students will face after graduation when time is of the essence in making effective business decisions.

The influence of question sequencing may have been reduced in this study given the limited number of multiple choice questions included in each exam (24, 20, and 20) and by the fact that the two sections did not have the exact same questions on their exams. Perhaps increasing the number of multiple choice items and administering exams with identical questions to multiple sections in a future study might highlight the possible differences that were not perceptible given the brevity of the multiple choice portion of the exams in this study. Increasing the number of students and including marketing majors is worthy of consideration.

The marketing academic achievement variable could be expanded to include student performance on other mea-

asures of assessment in the Principles of Marketing course such as written case analyses, group presentations, and quizzes. This would better illuminate any differences between the general academic achievement measure based on cumulative GPA and the marketing academic achievement based on performance solely in Principles of Marketing. Future studies could also consider the influence of text anxiety, time constraints, student major, or volume of material, as measured by the number of chapters covered, on student performance on multiple choice exams in the Principles of Marketing course.

CONCLUSION

Student performance was not affected by question sequencing rather academic achievement in prior courses as well as the Principles of Marketing course played a more significant role. Therefore, marketing educators should not hesitate to utilize the randomizing function of testing software that scrambles the order of questions to make several versions using the same questions for a selected multiple choice exam. This is an efficient and fair approach which serves as an effective deterrent to student cheating. It may also be a more accurate measure of student learning given the absence of cues from preceding or following questions in the random version. The random version does not favor any student group based on academic achievement and it better represents how knowledge is used in business practice when related information is not readily available.

Educators with larger sections should not hesitate to use multiple choice questions instead of short answer questions on exams. As demonstrated in this study, students who perform well on questions in short answer format are just as likely to excel at multiple choice questions. This will reduce the time marketing professors have to spend on grading without compromising a student's ability to excel in the course. This is particularly true when students are also given the opportunity to demonstrate their learning via written assignments such as case analyses, critiques, or marketing plans.

However, educators may want to consider using the reverse question sequence on the first multiple choice exam in a given course since the benefits of the recency effect may mitigate the detriments of student unfamiliarity with the professor's approach to testing. This may also encourage students who might otherwise do poorly on the first exam to not withdraw from the course prematurely. Professors should also consider lowering the weight of the first exam or administer several exams in the course to reduce the influence of initial student unfamiliarity with the professor's testing style. Given the pervasiveness of multiple choice exams administered in Principles of Marketing courses continued research in

question sequencing should enhance marketing pedagogy and student learning.

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STUDY SKILLS (TACTICS) AND PERFORMANCE OF BUSINESS STUDENTS

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Not every learning strategy or study habit will produce useful results in terms of academic achievement. However, one can expect that in general, students who possess good study skills will be better performers than students with poor study skills. In this study, we operationalize effective study habits or tactics to include such behaviors as the ability to pay attention while reading and listening to lectures (Concentration), having access to a good set of notes (Notes), scheduling regular review periods (Sched-

uling), and time spent outside of class studying (Study Time). Using a sample of business students, the study investigated the relationship these study tactics have with academic performance as measured by semester grade point average (SGPA) and cumulative grade point average (CGPA). The study also investigated if students vary the frequency of use of these study tactics based on different levels of motivation and drive. Summary results are as follows:

		Mean Use of Study Tactics and Performance Based on Student Ability and Motivation	
Ability	High	Notes = 3.99 Scheduling = 2.02 Concentration = 2.57 Study time = 19 SGPA = 2.99 CGPA = 3.18 <i>Low use of all study tactics</i>	Notes = 3.69 Scheduling = 2.28 Concentration = 2.84 Study time = 26 SGPA = 2.60 CGPA = 2.78 <i>High use of time but low use of all other study tactics</i>
	Low	Notes = 4.32 Scheduling = 2.82 Concentration = 2.94 Study time = 24.3 SGPA = 3.44 CGPA = 3.46 <i>High use of all study tactics</i>	Notes = 4.02 Scheduling = 2.98 Concentration = 2.99 Study time = 33.5 SGPA = 2.96 CGPA = 2.98 <i>Highest use of all study tactics including time</i>
		Low	High
		Motivation (Drive)	

Based on pairwise correlations, results show study tactics notes and concentration to have a significant positive impact on SGPA and CGPA. In addition study results show students to vary their use of study tactics based on their level of motivation and ability as seen in the above table. Clearly students who are motivated use all study

tactics more often than students who are less motivated. Using effective teaching techniques such as action oriented learning and experiential learning (Kolb 1976) will keep these students more intellectually engaged. These techniques will help those students who are high in ability but low in motivation to be better motivated. It may be

prudent for those students who are both low in ability and motivation to consult a counselor. They are most likely to be in academic trouble if the reason for low motivation is not addressed.

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ILLEGAL QUESTIONING: A STUDY OF MARKETING STUDENTS' RECENT INTERVIEW EXPERIENCES DURING THEIR CAREER SEARCHES

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ABSTRACT

This study presents marketing students' interviews, relevant marketing literature, and survey results collected from a group of undergraduate marketing students represented by four universities throughout the United States. Specifically, this study examined whether marketing students were asked illegal questions during their most

recent face-to-face interviews and the students' reactions to these questions. The results suggested that, overall, the students from the four universities *are* being asked illegal questions during job interviews and, surprisingly, *are not* uncomfortable being asked inappropriate and often illegal questions. Discussed are reasons why students appeared to be unconcerned about answering questions with potential legal ramifications.

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UNDERGRADUATE RESEARCH IN MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT: CLARIFYING DEFINITIONS AND MEASURES OF VALUE AND ASSESSMENT

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Undergraduate research has been increasingly valued at institutions of higher education in recent years (Lopatto 2005; Chapman 2003). There are a variety of reasons for this trend. One, it provides an outlet for highly driven students who desire to extend their college experience beyond the typical undergraduate curriculum. Consequently, this has become an increasingly popular option, as graduate programs tend to look favorably upon students who undertake such programs. Two, for primarily undergraduate institutions where instructors carry heavy teaching loads, these students represent a viable pool of trainees. Thus, these students permit faculty members to undertake larger scale research projects than would be possible on their own. Lastly, involving undergraduates provides faculty members with greater sources of research funding. In recent years, both institutional and external agencies have begun offering novel grants specifically for research projects involving undergraduates.

As a result of that presented above, there has been greater emphasis placed on undergraduate research by a number of constituents including students, faculty, administrators, and various other university stakeholders. Increasingly, students are seeking out opportunities to become involved in faculty/student research projects in order to improve their marketability upon graduation. In a related vein, faculty are seeking out undergraduates to increase their success in procuring research funding, to share their intellectual passion with their students, and to increase the likelihood of achieving tenure and promotion. Additionally, university administrators are seeking faculty who will participate in engaging undergraduates in order to attract and retain high quality, motivated students.

However, despite the significant attention undergraduate research is receiving from a number of sources, what exactly constitutes undergraduate research in the area of business, (specifically within the disciplines of marketing and management), is still rather vague. For example, there seems to be little agreement as to exactly what level

of involvement is required for a student experience to be recognized as undergraduate research. Similarly, how faculty should be recognized/rewarded for involving undergraduates in research is poorly established. Overarching all of this is the question of what must be achieved in order that the undergraduate research experience be declared a success. Even broader than these questions is how undergraduate research differs between the traditional sciences (i.e., physics, chemistry, biology, etc.) and the social sciences (i.e., marketing, management, sociology, etc.). Recent involvement in the Symposium for Scholarship and Research at Slippery Rock University in Pennsylvania, (a mid-size, four-year public institution), has revealed that undergraduate research between the aforementioned disciplines seems to be both viewed and valued quite differently.

Thus, we pose a number of significant questions that are designed to provoke inquiry at individual institutions of higher education with the expectation that the answers to these questions will guide strategic planning in building and maintaining strong undergraduate research programs in the marketing and management disciplines. A sampling of select lines of inquiry which we wish to open up for discussion include the following:

1. Collectively, how do business disciplines (e.g., marketing, management, finance, accounting, etc.) define undergraduate research? Is there consensus amongst these various business disciplines?
2. Does the aforementioned definition differ from the model followed by those in the traditional sciences? If so, how?
3. Is undergraduate research in business valued from a faculty perspective? If so, why? If not, why?
4. What are student expectations regarding undergraduate research in business?

Moreover, the answers to these questions are extremely valuable to ascertaining the following broader questions:

1. Is there cohesion or disconnect between faculty and student expectations regarding undergraduate research in business? The answer to this question could have significant ramifications for the future success of various programs within specific disciplines.
2. How should faculty be recognized for engaging undergraduates in assorted research projects? Recent literature supports the idea that research involving undergraduates is much slower and takes dramatically longer to reach a level suitable for publication in peer-reviewed journals (Chapman 2003). Consequently, should business departments not adequately value and recognize faculty efforts in the

area of undergraduate research, faculty mentors may be unintentionally punished for delays in their progress.

3. Do committees overseeing faculty progress need to account for differing opinions on undergraduate research in the business disciplines? At present, it appears that at the vast majority of universities, faculty from diverse disciplines are assessed using the same instrument.

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FROM INDUSTRY TO ACADEMIA: PREPARING NEW AND TEMPORARY PROFESSORS FOR THE CLASSROOM

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SUMMARY

Given the demand for educated and experienced business faculty, the need for adjunct or visiting professors is a consistent reality for most universities. However, the transition for these new teachers from industry to academia can be challenging. This session will offer a “what I wish I knew” perspective on that transition and serve as a refresher for the audience on what industry experts need to know to be more successful in the classroom.

Further Description: Oftentimes those filling visiting and adjunct positions within a business faculty come directly from industry. They are considered experts in their fields and can effortlessly add illustrations, anecdotes and examples to any related text book. Yet, ask them to write a syllabus or a lesson plan and it is likely you will receive a blank stare. It’s a transition that can be daunting and frustrating for both the professor and the institution without proper training and preparation. The surprises,

challenges, rewards, and need for basic training will be explored to help ensure an institution’s academic standards are upheld and to create a positive experience for new and temporary professors.

Various topics will be explored including:

- ◆ Preparing for Class: Arming new professors with teaching basics (how to organize a class session, create a syllabus and lesson plans, use university technologies, make a positive first-impression with students, etc.).
- ◆ Understanding the Target Audience: The shift from customers, suppliers and employees to students.
- ◆ Optimizing Work Experience: How a new professor can integrate his/her work experience with course materials.

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BY ADOPTING ENTREPRENEURIAL AND MARKETING STRATEGIES UNIVERSITIES CAN PLAY A MAJOR ROLE IN COMMUNITY AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: A RESULT ORIENTED PRACTICAL APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

Management and Entrepreneurial Education contributes directly to the society by facilitating economic development and service. One of the special characteristics of humans is their ability to develop complex, purposeful organizations that enhance quality of life. Management education develops that characteristic and produces leaders capable of creating organizations that provide significant value to society. Such organizations create electricity, scientific instruments, transportation, food, cures for diseases, education, retail goods, entertainment, and almost everything else that enables civilization beyond a tribal level. Management education unquestionably prepares people to participate meaningfully in these organizations and gives them the tools to enhance their effectiveness. In addition to individual and organizational contributions, management education makes other contributions to society – contributions that have a significant impact on communities.

Management education has revitalized and bolstered economic development in communities by involving students, faculty, and other resources in resolving real-world problems. It is this form of societal development that best exemplifies the connection between management education, management research, and society. For example, Michael Porter of Harvard Business School has conducted research on business opportunities of the inner city; and his activity has led to a nonprofit organization, the Initiative for a Competitive Inner City. Professor Porter's premise is that "No matter what amount of social intervention we engage in, whatever kind of philanthropy

or charity there is, communities can't possibly be healthy unless the economy works." Management education produces individuals and research that fuel the economic growth of communities. As part of their business school experience, many students also work directly with individuals to implement local business projects. These projects often have significant societal benefit, especially since student collaboration and involvement extend to communities in many different parts of the world. Such projects are incredibly diverse.

For marketing education to remain viable, both the process and content of marketing curricula must be changed to meet the needs of American businesses. Innovative teaching techniques must be adopted to provide a grounding in the skills that are central to students' effectiveness in the organizations of the 1990s and beyond. And courses that address the new knowledge requirements must join or supplant traditional courses that limit the marketing mix to the "4 Ps" and view manufactured goods as the typical offering.

Helping to establish programs like daycare or eldercare centers that enable others to join the workforce is only one example. Through such initiatives, management education not only provides an educationally rewarding outlet for students but also endows and enriches communities. The management education experience creates leaders capable of inspiring greater benefit from the work of individuals and of developing organizations that are more effective at fulfilling their purposes. As a result, societies can achieve greater productivity and support human needs at a higher level.

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SUCCESS IN THE COLLABORATIVE CLASSROOM: BUILDING RELATIONSHIPS IN ADVERTISING PRINCIPLES

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Don Dickinson's book *The New Account Manager* reminds us that "[advertising agencies] are organized, staffed, and managed to serve the marketing communications (MarCom) needs of clients with whom they have an ongoing working relationship."¹ If one concurs, then the advertising classroom must be a place where "ongoing working relationships" are practiced. It seems appropriate to include practice in working together as a part of the toolkit for developing and nurturing working relationships.

Following principles of Russ Edgerton's "pedagogies of engagement"² I determined that cooperative learning and problem-based learning practices would be the basis for my experiment in practicing ongoing working relationships. "Cooperative learning is instruction that involves people working in teams to accomplish a common goal, under conditions that involve both positive interdependence and individual and group accountability."³

The Advertising Principles class is typically composed of students from the majors of marketing and other business programs, advertising, graphic design and journalism. Students may be at the sophomore, junior or senior level. Each subgroup approaches the study of advertising from their own perspective. The mix fairly resembles a mix of talents found at an ad agency.⁴ While there is great value in assembling such varied backgrounds, my experiences have been difficult when students without a generous spirit toward collaborative work are enrolled.

I chose to experiment with small-group collaborative learning strategies in my Advertising Principles class. Enrollment for this course typically finalizes at 50–70 students per semester, which is a large enrollment compared to other classes at my university. I chose a model researched by Karl A. Smith pertaining to in-class project work,⁵ and planned to assign students to triads. I also had to increase the complexity of the project due at semester's end, to justify group activity.

In an effort to avoid complete randomization and to simulate real-world conditions, I prepared a job applica-

tion for the students to submit at the start of the semester. Rather than requesting lists of courses completed or jobs held, my course job application asked students to identify their strongest skills/talents in areas as diverse as finance, print production, music composition, and arbitration. My goal in constructing the application was to empower even the youngest, least experienced student with responsibility as an active knowledge constructor.⁶ I used this information in tandem with the student's major(s) and minor(s) and expected graduation date to "hire" each student into an "ad agency" for the semester. Using Myers-Briggs typology as a model, I categorized students listing skills such as finance, bookkeeping, research and programming as sensing/thinking and students listing skills such as painting, sketching, music composition and design as intuiting/feeling. My goal in constructing triads was to have one member a sensing/thinking person, one-member an intuiting/feeling person, and the third was based on years of study, as I tried to select each member of the triad from a different graduating class.

I presented the class with the agency list during the second week of the semester. Through small in-class assignments, the groups began working collaboratively using bookends procedures.⁷ They gained confidence in each other as valuable group members and as active knowledge constructors. As the semester progressed I introduced the groups to their semester project – a collaborative effort. I encouraged the five critical elements for success: **positive interdependence, individual accountability, promotive interaction, social skills, and group processing**.⁸ These elements point to the ownership students took of the course material – it was not just me lecturing, but it was the students who encouraged and activated the learning for their own group. I prepared a rubric, timeline and peer evaluation to aid in group progress/goal-setting and evaluations.

Not only did I find the projects of a higher quality than previous semesters, but students also were more satisfied with the project and the class, as evidenced by much more positive course evaluations. Additional benefits included

my knowing each student's name much earlier than usual in the semester (a result of breaking it down as 17 agencies instead of one large class), better attendance and student engagement when attending, and less antagonism between student factions by major/year. Some students remarked informally that they came to realize through the group interaction the value of another person's point of view and skillsets. While the text was not completely covered, the experience proved more successful overall. We cannot ignore the additional benefit of experiencing the nurturing of Dickinson's "ongoing working relationships" so critical to ad agency personnel.

I recommend to faculty that collaborative learning practices should be explored and planned out well before implementation. Collaborative learning does not mean less work for the professor; rather, it is a process that I found needed more preparation and a willingness to allow learning to take place in a student-accountable way.

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DEFINING FACULTY SERVICE EXPECTATIONS AND MEASUREMENT: A MODEL DEVELOPED BY, OF, AND FOR FACULTY

Alfred G. Hawkins, Jr., Rockhurst University

Colleges and universities attempt to define service in a variety of ways. There is no consensus on what constitutes service nor on what are the dimensions of service. At Jesuit universities, there is the Ignatian call to service. Service is a very important part of the curriculum and the mission. At some public universities, the culture defines service as an impediment to teaching and especially, scholarship. Service is often used as a form of punishment rather than as an integral part of a performance evaluation system.

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ON BECOMING “TRI-FECTIVE”: MAXIMIZING THE SYNERGY BETWEEN TEACHING, RESEARCH, AND SERVICE ACTIVITIES

John J. Newbold, Sam Houston State University
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There is ample evidence that courses incorporating service-learning and/or experiential activities involving real-world businesses offer advantages to the students, in terms of higher involvement, greater learning, opportunity to translate theory to practice, and course enjoyment (Eyler and Giles 1999; Waldstein and Reiher 2001; Eyler, Giles, Stenson, and Gray 2001). However, it is also noted that courses of this nature can be disadvantageous to the instructor. They are very time-consuming for the instructor (e.g., grading, constant questions from students), making it even more difficult to complete the research and service components of their job descriptions.

The challenge for faculty lies in becoming more efficient with their time, as well as becoming increasingly effective in their teaching, research and service activities. The authors refer to being effective on all three dimensions as being “tri-fective.”

Stumbling Toward Efficiency

Over the past five years, the authors have been modifying their marketing courses to provide more experiential or service-learning components. Over the years, the courses have been modified in the following key areas:

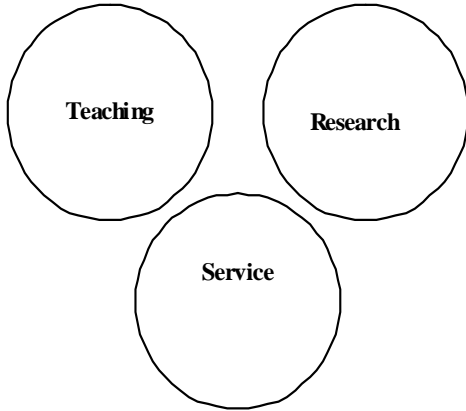
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The images above describe the challenge of becoming “tri-fective.” In the current situation what we find is faculties trying to slice the pie (i.e., their time) into three parts. The size of the slice is heavily driven by the type of institution they work at (i.e., research versus a teaching institution). The key here is to recognize that the three activities are disparate and therefore counter-productive. Alternatively, the desired situation is of the kind where “one can kill three birds with one stone.” Here the three activities are synergistic and lead one to become more productive. Basically, what we are proposing here is working smarter versus harder. While not a panacea, becoming increasingly “tri-fective” is a win-win-win proposition for all stakeholders (i.e., instructor, students, institution, and community).

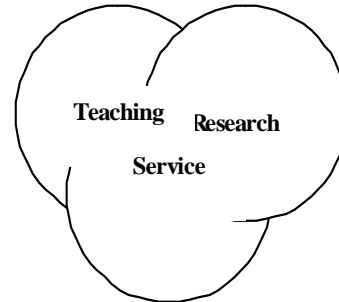
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DEFINING FACULTY SERVICE EXPECTATIONS AND MEASUREMENT: A MODEL DEVELOPED BY, OF, AND FOR FACULTY

Alfred G. Hawkins, Jr., Rockhurst University

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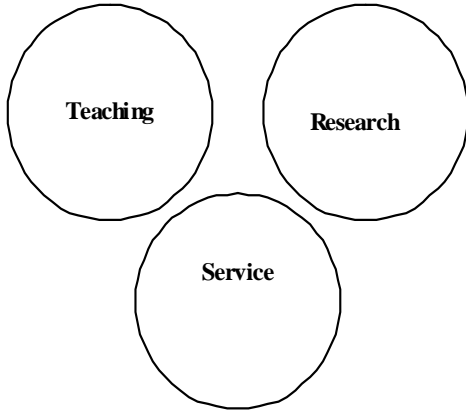
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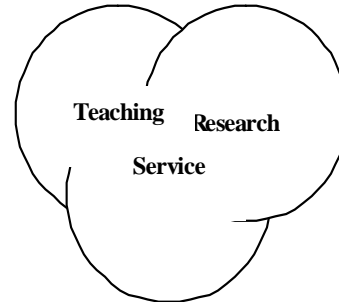
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