Collaborative Learning: Enhancing Student Performance In A Basic Course In Marketing Communications.

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ABSTRACT

Because important elements of marketing practice have shifted more heavily to team formats, marketing students may benefit from greater emphasis on collaborative or group learning, an approach widely employed across academe with substantial evidence of enhanced educational outcomes. More than 600 studies have been published thus far with encouraging results.

Three types of learning environments have been identified: individualistic, cooperative and competitive. In individualistic situations, student learning objectives and outcomes are unrelated to the achievements of their colleagues, as is the case with courses organized around preset, established grade criteria. Competitive environments result in outcomes that may be beneficial to some students, but detrimental to others. Curve graded courses are in this category. The collaborative approach is based on the premise that individual learning goals are more efficiently achieved when the learning goals of others in the group are also met.

Collaborative learning involves the use of small groups so that by working together, students enhance their own learning as well as that of their peers. It implies a significant level of interdependence such that students promote each others learning, hold each other personally accountable for shared assignments and develop interpersonal and group skills. Its foundation resides in each student's commitment to the success of the other members of his or her learning team.

A trial of the collaborative format was conducted in a section of a beginning course in marketing communications with promising results as compared to similar sections employing the lecture/discussion format.

Though the shift from lecture/discussion to the collaborative format at first appeared daunting, the transformation was relatively painless for both professor and students. The course reorganization involved the following tasks: 1) reconsider the overall and weekly learning objectives; 2) translate these to weekly class assignments; 3) modify the character and length of the lecture materials; 4) establish policy concerning the groups (number, size, selection of members, group management); 5) develop measurement and incentive systems.

One of three sections of marketing communications was randomly chosen for the trial. Students were unaware of changes in the course organization until the first meeting. They were assigned to learning teams based on zip codes, then randomly within zip codes.

The course met twice each week for 75 minutes. The first meeting included an abbreviated version of the lecture material. During the second meeting, student teams discussed topics from the course outline with the assistance of discussion guides supplied at the beginning of the semester. Some cases were also assigned

During the discussion period, the instructor served as a consultant, visiting the student teams, raising questions, underscoring and clarifying as necessary. At the end of the discussion meeting, a student from each group was randomly selected to present his/her study guides for instructor evaluation; the resulting grade was then applied to the entire group.

Incentives included a ten-point bonus which was awarded to each team when all members scored at the "B" level or higher on the first midterm. Students with a "B" average on all work up to the last week of class were exempt from the comprehensive final examination.

Measures comparing team and lecture sections taken from essay midterm examination total scores and item analysis as well as formal student course evaluations support the team format.

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LIVING CASES AND THE REAL WORLD EXPERIENCE

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ABSTRACT

This paper's goal is to describe the use of living case projects in a one term undergraduate capstone marketing course or a graduate level marketing course. The case-project is used to supplement the text and lectures with the purpose of providing a vehicle for applying marketing concepts to contemporary/live situations. It can be applied to target consumer and industrial products and services to give the students a more complete experience in marketing. Information on case-project planning, case-project development, out-of-class activities and expectations, reporting requirements, and student benefits are presented in this manuscript.

For the past ten years, senior students enrolled in a capstone Marketing Management course at Oregon State University (OSU), OSU and University of Oregon MBA students, and Oregon Executive MBA (OEMBA) program participants enhanced their learning through the use of the case-project method. Recently, the students in a graduate level marketing course in Sydney, Australia also used the living case method. The courses have ranged in length from a seven week executive course to a thirteen week graduate class. The term-long project used in these courses requires the student to work with selected products to develop data for a situation analysis, marketing critique/audit, and a marketing proposal/plan for the assigned product. Texts are typically heavily laced with consumer product examples thus the case-project experience provides a vehicle for gaining insights to other marketing applications, especially those in the industrial product/service, consumer service, and not-for-profit areas. It has great potential for making marketing more relevant and "alive" for students.

This paper examines the preparation required for, the content of, the expectations for, and the student benefits realized in a major contemporary/live marketing case-project. The course objectives are reviewed in the paper's first section. Information on the development and organization of the living case-projects are presented in the second section of the paper. Student participation and case-project grades are explained in the third section. The last section summarizes the educational benefits and career rewards a student may appreciate after participating in the case/project assignment.

LIVING CASE PROJECT OBJECTIVES

Five objectives of a living case project are:
- To provide an environment for obtaining a more complete comprehension and possible use of the marketing tools introduced in the text;
- To provide an experience in gathering and analyzing both secondary and primary market data for conducting a marketing audit or analysis;
- To develop verbal and written communication skills and tailor them for use in making presentations to practitioner/professional audiences;
- To develop an appreciation of the complex relationships existing in a comprehensive marketing mix; and
- To encourage the student to develop, expand, or advance career interests.

OVERVIEW OF A LIVING CASE PROJECT

Case-Project Selection

Case-project selection is a major determinant to success of the project. To conserve time and quickly move to the core of the project it is necessary to select candidate products/services or brands before the term starts. In my experience, it is best if products where there are abundant information sources are selected by the faculty member. The information does not have to pertain to a particular brand but, for comparison purposes, information on the industry, market and competition will be needed to develop a useful data base and an understanding of the product's market environment. Experience has shown that if this is not done, excessive time is spent at the beginning of the course bringing focus to the term-long efforts.

The case-project breakdown is usually half consumer goods or services, half industrial goods or services and an occasional not-for-profit service. From a list that includes over fifty companies who have been

used, example product topics include: Motorola (cellular phone), Starbucks, Tektronix (oscilloscopes), Harley Davidson, Boeing (commercial aircraft), Compaq (notebook PCs), US West (yellow pages), Federal Express, Time Magazine, First Interstate Bank (commercial loans), Freightliner (trucks), and the University's Athletic Department.

Class Organization

The first class period is spent discussing the course syllabus and expectations for the term and organizing the project groups of 3 to 5 students. Students are assigned to projects that compliment their career interests. Exhibit 1 contains a modified version of the syllabus explaining many of the course details. This exhibit presupposes a 13 week term but the methodology has been used in seven and ten week terms. Time is spent with each of the 6 to 8 groups in the class providing them with background on the development of their specific project.

The products representing consumer products, heavy industry durables, consumer services, and business supplies/services are placed on the board and the instructor reviews each one showing the possible career related experiences a student could obtain from a particular selection. Eight products are usually listed and the students are asked to select their first and second choice. At times seven or nine students have a common interest in one particular case/project area, say United Airlines. This larger group is divided into two groups and the second group is assigned to another firm in the same industry such as American Airlines. Each group then meets to name their consulting practice and assign responsibilities for the informal assignments for the next two weeks and the first paper. While they are holding their group meetings the professor visits each group and gives them data/materials that were obtained by the instructor (ABI abstracts, advertisements, and news articles). This is intended to demonstrate that there is ample information available and that the instructor is committed to assisting each project group.

During the first 8 weeks or 2/3s of the term, both the macro and micro marketing environments of the company are studied along with the basic marketing mix (Exhibit 1, page 1). On a weekly basis for the first three weeks, the six domains of the macro environment (economic, demographic, technological, social/cultural, political/legal, and natural environments) and micro environment are detailed informally and in report form. Initially the focus of the informal and formal periodic reports are to become acquainted with the environment of the firm, its customers, and its markets. This is followed by a review of the marketing variables of product, place

(channels and physical distribution), price, and promotion (4 Ps), with personal, physical facilities, and processing (7 Ps) are added to better reflect the characteristics of the service sector (Mcgrath 1986) in making marketing decisions. At the end of this section of the course students should be able to identify:
- The options available in regard to each "P" (4 or 7) relative to their case situation;
- The situational/environmental factors that might surround decision areas affecting their product;
- Uncomplicated models that may be used to present information or situations affecting decision considerations; and
- Targeting opportunities with decision options or alternative marketing programs for their product.

Using the collected information, students appraise the product's marketing program, identify new opportunities and possible threats, critique each feature in the program (strengths and weaknesses), and then develop an annual marketing plan to leverage the strengths and correct weaknesses in the face of current opportunities and threats (SWOT).

Weekly Preparation

Five papers and seven presentations on current customers, potential customers, competition, marketing environments, existing products, distribution channels and or processing, prices and pricing, promotion and personnel are completed during the first eight weeks (2/3s of the term). Lectures on related text material are given in the first class period each week. The second class period is used for class presentations of the material collected and/or paper developed for the session and the discussion of future case/project assignments. Each group gives a eight to ten minute presentation on their data, data interpretations and case findings. They usually introduce exhibits/overheads (ie, listing direct and indirect competition and market shares) that condense their information to a decision supporting format. Beginning with the fourth week (1/3 of the term), the first paper is used to provide details of the findings (Exhibit 1, page 2). The students are told that they are not responsible for covering the entire text of any written assignment in their class presentations but to present a novel observation on the use of a marketing concept or something that would be of interest for the class members. When they are more familiar with the project expectations and after completing the product and channels audit papers during the sixth week (1/2 of the term), they are encouraged to begin critiquing the remaining variables, pricing and promotion. In other words they are beginning to interpret their findings in terms of a situation

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analysis or SWOT. Support for this appraisal usually comes from the group's examination of practices elsewhere in the industry, competition, trade material, and/or market observations. Students generally have difficulty developing the first paper because they are just becoming acquainted with the product's market, the marketing environment, the product, their group members, and the instructor's expectations. It is necessary for the instructor work very closely with the students at this time as it will set the tone for future papers and assist the students to get off to the best possible start for the term's efforts. If needed the instructor meets individual groups and assist in their initial data gathering, answering questions concerning expectations, and brainstorming with the students on how and where to obtain information.

Preparation for the Plan and Final Presentations

After completing the review of the product's marketing environment and marketing program through the five descriptive papers the students prepare individual evaluations of the product's marketing program through an evaluation form (Exhibit 1, page 6). The evaluation must be supported with evidence coming from the market observations, trade publications, comparisons with competition, extensions of text materials, casual market surveys, and/or materials from literature review. Having each student in a group treat this individually provides a basis for getting four to six strong and weak features in the product's marketing program.

Upon completing the background material and to provide closure for the case-project, each group develops a set of recommendations incorporated in a marketing plan for their product. The recommendations are based on the SWOT established in the earlier papers and evaluations. The students are encouraged to use an established planning format included in many texts (see Exhibit 1, page 4). The plan should include a calendar, usually an exhibit, for implementing one proposed change along with select details for implementation. Proposals are presented to the entire class during the final class periods - or sometimes during the period reserved for the final examination. The fifteen minute presentation includes a description of the plan, rational for the plan, and some details on select elements of the plan (see Exhibit 1, page 4). After the formal presentation, the class is invited to question the project group on their findings and suggestions. This informal part of the presentation gives the class an opportunity to obtain information on the material not necessarily included in the report. It also gives the case-project groups a chance to present and defend some of their more

incidental observations or extend the explanation of their proposal.

CASE-PROJECT/STUDENT EVALUATION

One half of the course grade is based on the project. This grade is divided between the five audit papers (5% each), the final plan (20%), and class participation (5%). Through the term the instructor frequently visits each group immediately before or at the end of the class to ask group representatives for an evaluation of each group member's participation. At the end of the term, as part of the final report, the students are required to evaluate each member's participation. Thus, to encourage equal participation on the part of all group members, each group completes and turns in an evaluation of their group members. This evaluation indicates the percentage of contribution of group members to the groups over-all performance on the project. This evaluation accompanies each written case-project presentation. This gives the instructor feedback concerning each individual's participation and is used in student evaluation.

EXPECTED OUTCOMES OF THE LIVING-CASE METHOD

A general or fundamental objective of most marketing courses is to provide an acquaintance with the material in a particular area of study. In more advanced courses, the project supplements this education by providing a hands-on experience with a real-life marketing situation and the tools for responding to this marketing challenge. The project requires the students to apply the text and lecture material by describing their project inputs (data) in weekly reports before constructing and presenting a marketing plan in their final report. As students transform their observations and data into a concise audit, critique and plan they gain a better understanding of the material and gain confidence in their "marketing" savvy. The students also have chance to test and apply core marketing concepts and tools to the situations they encounter during term and gain further appreciation of the course and their education.

The living case projects provide an opportunity for the student to gather, interpret and organize vast amounts of information on an industry, industry participants (including competition), and general industry marketing practices. Frequently they are exposed to internally generated data used by marketing personnel in their project area. Conversations with the marketing professionals in an industry broaden the student's understanding of the organization's position in an industry and internal

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operations of the organization. The students should obtain a clearer view of the applicable macro and micro marketing environments affecting the organization's decision making process.

The living case project also allows the student to gain experience as communicators in the business world. For instance, in asking business professionals questions related to their data gathering the students learn to recognize and develop questions that can be answered by the business professional. Their written communication skills are developed through their five page preliminary reports; their oral communication skills through their weekly class presentations. Industry representatives associated with the projects have reported that, "the oral presentations were competent and the written reports were not only accurate but also very astute in observations and recommendations."

The living case-project helps the student understand the breadth of the marketing responsibility. It serves as a foundation for recall of the total number of variables in a marketing program, marketing's association with the market, and capabilities of the organization. Retention lasts well beyond the end of the course as evidenced by the fact that alumni frequently identify themselves by the name of their project group or product. Employers of students, in the MBA and OEMBA programs, have commented that their employees gained appreciation of their company's comprehensive marketing program through the project.

There are numerous advantages in using such a project. In some instances, the living case project method may be superior to the case method in that it requires the students to identify and fully articulate the environment surrounding the project area. To understand and fully interpret a problem's existence, students have to find and use data from sources not normally available to many practitioners, typically smaller practitioners, in the form of ABI Inform and/or other data bases through Mosaic and Internet. Traditional information sources such as industrial trade associations, trade publications, annual reports, government statistics, popular news magazines, and computerized news services are also used. Typically this exercise provides an opportunity to envision, with a hands on experience, the vast amounts of information that might be useful in making a marketing decision.

An obvious short run outcome from the student's standpoint is that the project requires each individual to be current with respect to the text readings as they will be applying the material in preparation for the next period's paper and presentation. The concept from the text are immediately verbalized and applied

to their project. The re-enforcement extends beyond the term with instructors in more advanced instructors indicating that the students are well prepared in the basic concepts.

A last benefit of the living case method is that the case-project can compliment career interests. For instance, an MBA student from the financial industry can be assigned to a project related to that industry or an undergraduate with a computer science minor can be assigned to high-tech project. These students have had an opportunity to learn about marketing in their chosen industry and develop a portfolio material to use in their respective careers. This benefit has generally resulted in improved student evaluations of the course.

Below are samples of comments coming from students who have completed the class with a living case project:
■ "Overall this is the best course I have done to date with relevance to my work and interest."
■ "This class gave me confidence in presenting and using my marketing skills."
■ "Great class. I learned more by studying one specific company throughout the term."
■ "Excellent course. I learned more about marketing in this class than all others combined."
■ "I learned more than any other class."
■ "I was much more interested in the text because of the continuous application to the project."
■ "The work was overwhelming but I highly recommend the course."
■ "The project inspires the student to think on their own. It really provides incentive to do well."

REFERENCE

Mcgrath, A.J. (1986). When Marketing Services, 4 Ps Are Not Enough. Business Horizons. May/June: 44-50.

EXHIBIT 1
Sample Schedule of Living Case Assignments
Advanced Marketing Management

<u>Course Description</u>:   This course provides an educational experience which will enable the student to understand and deal with the managerial problems of marketing at the strategic and policy-making level.

<u>Text</u>:   The text assignments can come from the instructor's preferred book in the field of Marketing Management, Marketing Strategy, or Strategic Marketing.

<u>Case-Project Assignments</u>:

Week 1	Case-Project	Living case - Group assignment
Week 2	Case-Project	Informal discussion on project expectations Demonstration of literature and field research
Week 3	Case-Project	Informal class report on competition and market environment
Week 4	Case-Project	Class reports & memo on customer, competition and market environment
Week 5	Case-Project	Class reports memo on product
Week 6	Case-Project	Class reports & memo on channels, intermediaries, and physical distribution
Week 7	Case-Project	Class reports & memo on price practices and price strategies
Week 8	Case-Project	Class reports & memo on promotion mix
Week 9	**First Exam**	
Week 10	Case-Project	Informal class SWOT and critique presentations
Week 11	Case-Project	Final plan submission
Week 12	Case-Project	Final class report (15 minutes each)
Week 13	Case-Project	Final class report (15 minutes each)
Week 14	**Second Exam**	

LIVING CASE-PROJECT: Question Guide

The five preliminary memos (each 5% of grade) are used to describe the marketing practices currently used by your company. These preliminary memos should be limited to one page

of text with attachments that have been referenced in the memo's text. It is to be assumed that your group is evaluating the entire question listed below unless you have indicated otherwise in the title or leading sentences of your memo. The last memo (20% of grade) should present recommended changes in the marketing program that you described in the previous memos. Text of the final memo should not exceed four pages (double spaced). <u>Meaningful attachments (referenced in the text) can add a lot of depth to a memo's text.</u>

1. "Who" memo. Prepare a one page memo in accordance with the "Guidelines" describing the market for your product. The market should be stratified into major market segments such as different categories of manufacturers, retailers, contractors, professional offices, consumers group I, consumer group II, etc. In an exhibit identify unique purchasing considerations for each segment. Differences in buying considerations/habits of each segment may be caused by the economic size of the purchase, the structure and policies of the buyer's organization, differences in education and/or available information used by each segment, the use of the product, the nature of the industry (sometimes regulated by the government or professional organization), brand or source loyalty. At the end, you should begin to understand why different marketing programs are used for each segment.

   List the major direct, substitute and indirect competitors and approximate market share for each of the direct competitors (including your organization).

   Select exhibit(s) will be useful in listing the direct, substitute, and indirect competitors and market shares for the direct competitors. Exhibits will also be useful in listing the market segments and the characteristics of each segment.

   Someone in the project group should be prepared to make a brief presentation during class. The goal of the presentation is to quickly introduce your product and organization before explaining important and interesting findings.

2. "What" memo. Prepare a one page memo describing your selected product. Include detailed information on the core benefits, actual product, and augmented product.

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Product line information should be included demonstrating alternative variations of the product that are available. Is the product modified for different market targets or segments? If so, this should be recognized in your memo and/or attachments. Use an exhibit to compare your offering with the competition's product offering.

3. "Channels and Physical Distribution" memo. Prepare a one page memo describing the marketing channels used to sell and deliver your product. Describe the changes (repackaging, assembling, etc.) in the product/service that take place in each channel level. What means of physical distribution are used? Where is inventory maintained? The modes of transportation between your organization and the final customer, and example inventory locations (warehousing) should be identified. The different intermediaries (i.e.: referrals, wholesalers, distributors, agents, brokers, etc.) involved in the sale of the product should be described in terms of their intermediary services (locations inventory, services, etc.). Any attachments that provide clarification will help. A diagram displaying the marketing channel members may be helpful to identify the different intermediaries involved in the ultimate sale to the consumer. You may also want to develop a diagram of the product's physical movement to the market, identifying all of the steps in the process.

4. "Price" memo. Prepare a memo describing various prices of your product. A price list that includes the suggested list price, different consumer prices (if any), and the various discounts (volume or quantity, trade, seasonal, periodic close-out) used to market the product. Prices for extra features, accessories, and intangibles that add to the basic price should be listed separately. There may be different prices (with reason) for each of the market segments. Another exhibit comparing the competition's product and accessory prices should be part of the memo.

5. "Communication" memo. Prepare a memo describing the promotional program used to support the marketing of your product. How are the sales of your selected product/service facilitated by the promotional program? What promotional tools are used in each stage of the adoption process (awareness, knowledge, liking, trial, purchase, and post-purchase cognitive dissonance)? Show how the promotion program (personal sales, advertising, sales

promotion, and publicity) is used to move the customer through stages of your suggested purchase process. Provide one example of an advertising and a non-advertising (personal sales, publicity, or sales promotion) type of promotion.

Attachments are helpful (i.e., example advertisements, a chart of the adoption process along with descriptions of the promotional methods(s) used at each stage of the process) and can be used to consolidate a lot of material.

6. **Final Memo** - What changes would your group recommend in the marketing program? Support your arguments with evidence from previous memos which should be summarized to form the background for the critique and recommendations. The critique and recommendations should follow the summary and may reference the summary and meaningful exhibits attached to the report. The note at the end contains some ideas that may be used in preparing the final memo.

The text of the memo is limited to 4 pages with standard one inch margins. A standard font size should be used. The reader will not tolerate exceptions. Attachments are recommended but should be referenced in the text. If exhibits are not referenced there is no reason to look at them. There may be a number of major sections of the memo separated by major headings. You should be careful to keep the content of the section clear and concise pertaining to the heading of the section. Use your creativity.

EXAMPLE OUTLINE OF FINAL MEMO

Memo heading

Executive summary - basic and brief description of your marketing proposal.

Evaluation - identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the current marketing mix and strategies. Be specific.

Recommendations - how you would take advantage of the strengths, correct the weaknesses, respond to observed opportunities and threats?

Example plan - specifically list various activities needed to implement at least one major recommendation. Be sure to include a time table (schedule) of appropriate actions.

Endnotes - Sources of information used in the development. This will include references to library material, formal interviews, and any other marketing research data (primary or secondary) gathered for the memo.

Attachments - Tables, exhibits, graphs, etc. used to support and/or extend concepts or ideas presented in the memo.

FINAL CLASS PRESENTATIONS

Each group will be responsible for a fifteen minute presentation briefly describing the highlights of their living case project, their major criticisms of the current marketing program, their recommendations and a plan for one of the recommendations. Do not read your memo, but provide the highlights. The goal is to have the listener want to read the memo. It is also a chance to extend beyond the memo's content in select areas. VCRs, overhead projectors, slide projectors, and computer equipment may be available, but have to be scheduled for the room.

Let the professor know well in advance to schedule any special equipment.

GUIDELINE FOR MEMO WRITING

Each memo should be presented in a standard format with referenced attachments. Groups should name their consulting enterprise and develop a letterhead with their logo or organization name along the top or side.

Single copies of the first five memos are to be handed in at the end of the class period of the in-class report. Two clean copies of the final four page memo are to be handed in. Only one will be returned.

Consider the following in preparing and editing each memo:

1. Good exhibits, as extra pages, are encouraged. A picture is worth 1000 words. A good exhibit should be titled so the reader understands the presentation's content. Appropriate legends are a must. Exhibits must be referenced in the text to bring it to the reader's attention. Data sources used to develop the exhibit should be referenced at the bottom of the exhibit or included as part of the endnotes.

2. Document statement of fact contained in the text via endnotes. The endnotes should give reference to the sources of material which might range from interviews, personal observation, to written material (i.e., annual reports, sales literature, news articles). These endnotes should be included as an extra page(s). Be sure to document the data sources used to form any exhibits. The bibliography and displays (exhibits, charts and figures) can be included as extra pages. These additions can become very important extensions of the text.

3. All memos must be precise and to the point. Careful selection of the wording can be helpful in condensing many ideas. It may be helpful to use some of the terms introduced in the text to keep the memo's content precise and accurate.

4. Reread the question guide and your total memo before final preparation to make sure that you have responded to the entire assignment. Possibly have someone else critique the memo and attachments before final preparation. Then proofread the final draft.

5. Late assignments will be penalized. (Normally the highest possible grade on a late assignment is the lowest grade received by those handing it in on time).

EVALUATING YOUR MARKETING PROGRAM

For your evaluation you may want to develop and use a spread sheet listing all of the components of the marketing program and then your assessment of each component. In the text or as an extended part of the evaluation exhibit you should describe any information that you have obtained that would support your evaluation score for a particular component.

Have each group member independently rate the marketing mix for your program before meeting to develop and discuss supporting data for the group evaluation. The final evaluation should be a consensus.

INTEGRATING PRACTICAL MANAGERIAL SKILLS INTO THE BUSINESS CURRICULUM: IMPLICATIONS FOR MARKETING EDUCATORS

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ABSTRACT

This study reports the results of a survey that investigated the perceptions of business practitioners and educators concerning the need for a course on practical managerial skills. Results of the study indicate contemporary business graduates do not have many of the practical managerial skills necessary to secure entry-level business positions. Business practitioners and educators agree business schools should consider adding a practical managerial skills course to their curricula.

INTRODUCTION

Contemporary business graduates require more than book knowledge to successfully compete in today's business world. A baccalaureate or graduate-level degree in business no longer is the quid pro quo that guarantees a student employment upon graduation as the caliber of student graduating from business schools has come under increased fire in recent years by corporate America (Mason 1992). A major criticism leveled at business schools is the failure to adequately prepare students for the "real world" of business, especially in "practical skills" areas, such as workplace issues, career planning and development, and job candidate skills (Kelley and Gaedeke 1990).

Competition among business schools is becoming more aggressive as they vie for a shrinking pool of students. The business schools that will succeed in the coming years will do so because they are market driven. In order to survive, academic institutions, while sensitive to student interests, must listen and respond to the changing needs of their customers; the businesses that provide employment to students upon graduation. Mason (1992) suggests that without a customer focus, students will not be able to get jobs, and without jobs, student enrollment will continue to decrease in business schools. Arora and Stoner (1992) state that graduates will be pursued by successful organizations only if universities ensure their graduates possess the training and skills required by prospective employers. In a recent poll conducted by the Angus Reid Group (Litchfield 1993), only 30% of the respondents felt that business schools were turning out a better-quality graduate compared to five years ago.

The purpose of this study is to examine two basic issues related to the preparation of business school graduates. First, the preparedness of today's business school graduates for entry into the business world relative to the possession of practical managerial skills will be evaluated. Second, the viability and content of a course that emphasizes practical managerial skills will be determined.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Corporate America's disillusionment with current business graduates has resulted in more companies pursuing internal education programs. Company executives are hiring professionals to instruct their employees on workplace issues, such as leadership skills, organizational transformation, and corporate culture. In response to this trend, reform of business school curricula is predicted only after business schools lose significant market share to corporate training programs (Deutschman 1991).

Corporate recruiters complain that students lack creativity, people skills, aptitude for teamwork, and the ability to speak and write with clarity and conciseness (Deutschman 1991). Kelley and Gaedeke (1990) discovered that prospective employers seek candidates who possess oral, written, interpersonal and leadership skills. Without effective communication, leadership, and teamwork skills, a business student is of little value to an organization (Mason 1992).

Business etiquette is another area which has been discovered as noticeably lacking in business graduates. Schaffer, Kelley and Goethe (1993) reported business students often lack such basic business skills as the ability to write a letter, talk on the telephone, conduct a meeting and introduce business associates.

The importance of business graduates being versed in workplace issues, career planning and development, and job candidate skills is receiving more attention in today's workplace. Not enough exposure to the "real world" is still a concern of company recruiters. Gaedeke, Tootelian and Schaffer (1983) reported a lack of work experience was cited by 12% of the manager respondents as being the greatest weakness of entry-level job-seekers. When asked how business schools

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could improve the quality of their graduates, 46% stated through more co-operative and internship programs. Deutschman (1991) reported a large majority of recruiters responded that there needed to be more emphasis on teaching practical skills when asked what one improvement they would suggest to deans concerning their business programs.

What previous research reveals to business schools is that, aside from being well versed in the subject areas affecting the business climate, business students also need the practical skills to apply their knowledge. Emphasis needs to be placed not only on displaying knowledge of the content of the courses, but in ensuring students develop certain personal characteristics and problem solving, communication and technical skills that are required for an entry-level business position (Kelley and Gaedeke, 1990).

METHODOLOGY

A mail questionnaire was developed to obtain responses from business professionals and educators concerning the preparedness of business students for entry-level positions and the need for a practical managerial skills course.

Practitioner Sample

A sample of 300 business practitioners dispersed throughout the United States was divided into four major business disciplines: accounting, management, marketing and human resource management. Seventy-five questionnaires were sent to respondents in each of these disciplines. Respondents were selected using systematic random sampling from The Academy of Management 1993 Membership Directory, Who's Who in Finance and Industry, The 1993 Marketing News International Directory of the American Marketing Association, and The Marketing Yellow Pages.

Out of the 300 surveys mailed, 18 were returned undeliverable. Of the remaining 282 surveys delivered, 117 usable surveys were returned. The overall effective response rate was 41 percent. The following response rate of practitioner by discipline was: accounting 56%; human resource management 37%; marketing 32%; and management 32%.

Educator Sample

A sample of 300 business educators dispersed throughout the United States also were selected from the disciplines of accounting, management, marketing

and human resource management. Seventy-five questionnaires were sent to educators in each discipline. Respondents were drawn from The Academy of Management Membership Directory, Prentice Hall 1993 Accounting Faculty Directory, and The 1993 Marketing News International Directory of the American Marketing Association.

Out of the 300 surveys mailed, five were returned undelivered. Given the 295 surveys that were delivered, 107 usable surveys were returned, resulting in an effective response rate of 36 percent. The following response rate of educators by discipline was: accounting 29%; human resource management 29%; marketing 55%; and management 29%.

RESULTS

The majority of the respondents were male (71.6%), 66.4% were in the 36-55 age category, and 55.8% had an annual household income of over $70,000. Middle and top management positions accounted for 79.4% of the respondents. Among educators, 44.8% were full professors and 65.7% taught at AACSB accredited institutions. Thirty-nine percent had between 10 and 19 years of teaching experience.

An open-ended question asked, "How do you think business school graduates are prepared for entry into the business world as compared to 10 years ago?" Only 32.5% of the respondents rated business school graduates as better prepared than those graduates of 10 years ago. The remainder of the respondents rated business school graduates as staying the same (41.9%) or getting worse (25.6%).

Next, respondents were asked to rate the importance of 23 items developed from the literature. Each item was evaluated on a five-point Likert-type scale with the endpoints anchored as 1 = not important and 5 = important. Table 1 reports the relative importance of nine skills that may be needed for a successful business career. The areas receiving the highest ratings were those of business communication skills, business presentation skills, and conflict resolution with over 90% of the responses being rated either important or very important. Health issues in the workplace were rated to be of little or no importance to a successful career in business.

A MANOVA was used to test for differences between educators and practitioners and the four business disciplines. The interaction and both main effects were insignificant.

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Table 2 reports the relative importance of fourteen skills that are often listed as needed to secure an entry level business position. The areas receiving the highest ratings were those of interviewing skills, appropriate business attire and pre-interview preparation with over 90% of the responses being rated either important or very important. Salary negotiation was rated to be of little or no importance to job candidate skills in securing an entry-level position possibly because most graduates do not have a salary history.

A MANOVA was used to test for differences between the respondents' profession and business discipline. The interaction (Wilks λ = .7334; $p \leq 0.845$) and business discipline main effect (Wilks λ = 1.124; $p \leq 0.246$) were insignificant. There was a significant difference between educators and practitioners (Wilks λ = 2.097; $p \leq 0.004$). Differences existed on the items of interviewing skills (F = 10.987; $p \leq 0.001$), knowledge of interviewing company ((F = 9.206; $p \leq 0.003$); and job search methods (F = 5.338; $p \leq 0.022$)

Given the responses to the first open-ended question indicated the respondents believed business school graduates were not well prepared to enter the business world, a second open-ended question asked whether they believed a course emphasizing practical managerial skills should become part of a business school's curriculum. A chi-square test determined that there was a relationship between how practitioners and educators responded to this question (χ^2 = 22.42; df 2, $p \leq 0.000$). Sixty-five percent of the practitioners answered yes compared to 44% of the educators.

Practitioners were asked if the business schools they attended (if applicable) offered such a course. A very small number of respondents (7.8%, n = 7) indicated their schools offered such a course. Of those whose schools offered such a course, 83.3% (n=5) took the course. When asked, "Was the course helpful in advancing your career," 80% (n = 4) answered yes.

Educators were asked whether their business school offers a practical managerial skills course. Only 12.6% of the respondents indicated their school offered such a course. In addition, educators were asked the following question, "What problems/obstacles do you think might occur in adding this course to the business school's curriculum?" The primary concern was the lack of academic content. Another reason the number of courses already required to graduate. These concerns suggest the course might be included as a continuing education course that does not draw faculty and resources away from the existing curriculum.

TABLE 1

IMPORTANCE OF SKILLS/ISSUES FOR A SUCCESSFUL BUSINESS CAREER

Item	Very Important	Little Importance	Unimportant
Business communication skills	96.9%	0.9%	2.2%
Business presentation skills	95.9%	0.9%	3.1%
Conflict resolution	90.2%	0.9%	9.0%
Business etiquette	76.9%	5.9%	17.2%
Organizational transformation	69.6%	6.3%	24.0%
Understanding workplace diversity	68.0%	9.5%	22.5%
Corporate culture	67.7%	7.2%	25.1%
Office politics	61.0%	7.6%	31.4%
Health issues	51.1%	14.8%	34.1%

DISCUSSION

Consistent with previous studies the results of the current study indicated a growing dissatisfaction of today's prospective employers with business school graduates. Academic institutions and business schools must start listening and responding to their market's needs by designing a business school curriculum that is more applicable to today's business environment. The respondents strongly supported (60%) the need for a practical managerial skills course.

The results have important implications for marketing educators. In an era of tight budgets it is unlikely that a separate course similar to the one suggested here could be established. Practically speaking it would make more sense to provide business students with multiple exposures to practical managerial skills. Marketing courses are well suited to include many of these skills with little change in the conduct of a course. For example, career planning could be incorporated in the basic marketing course as an assignment for students to write a marketing plan using themselves as the product. The capstone marketing course would be a place to include business etiquette and interviewing skills as seniors would be in the process of interviewing for entry-level positions. Oral and written communication skills, as well as presentation and leadership skills, can be honed in most marketing classes using class projects. The starting point is for educators to acknowledge practical managerial skills are important and need to be addressed somewhere in the curriculum.

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TABLE 2

IMPORTANCE OF JOB CANDIDATE SKILLS IN
SECURING AN ENTRY-LEVEL BUSINESS POSITION

Item	Very Important	Little Importance	Unimportant
Interviewing skills	94.6%	1.4%	4.0%
Appropriate business attire	91.9%	1.4%	6.7%
Pre-interview preparation	90.1%	0.9%	9.0%
Skills assessment	88.5	2.3%	9.2%
Establish career goals	87.4%	3.6%	9.0%
Resume preparation	86.9%	1.8%	11.3%
Job search methods	82.2%	2.3%	15.5%
Career marketing strategy	81.8%	3.7%	14.6%
Post-interview follow-up	80.0%	3.6%	16.4%
Knowledge of interviewing company	77.6%	4.0%	18.4%
Career evaluation	75.4%	5.6%	19.0%
Co-op/Internship experience	70.8%	4.5%	24.7%
Leadership skills	68.9%	4.5%	26.6%
Salary negotiation	45.4%	11.8%	42.7%

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SELF AND PEER EVALUATIONS IN GROUP CLASS PROJECTS: A COMPARISON OF SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL AND CONSTANT SUM SCALES

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ABSTRACT

A comparison of the semantic differential and constant sum scales in the making of peer and self evaluations of group contributions revealed that both were equally effective in revealing social loafers. However, the constant sum scale was found to be superior in the identification of break-through performers. To address the typical truncation of response in the semantic differential scale, a new scale based on the meeting of group expectations was developed and discussed.

Introduction

With the increasing emphasis on skill development among business school students (e.g., analytical, written and oral, interpersonal, problem solving, critical thinking, integrative and planning), greater attention is being given to group projects and team assignments. Such assignments are quite compatible with modern management thinking and they indicate a concern over relevancy in business education and a desire to bolster collaborating and team-building skills among students. However advantageous that team assignments are, they do create a problem for instructors with regard to the evaluation of team member contributions. Typically, instructors use attribute dimensions presented in a semantic differential scale format to evaluate how a group member perceives other group members with respect to group contributions. Haas and Sciglimpaglia (1994) have also called for self evaluations which in turn are contrasted with the group's perception of a given group member. An analysis of these evaluations thus allows the instructor to more efficiently discriminate between group members as to individual team member contributions.

Given the prevalent use of the semantic differential scale in my evaluations of team member efforts, I have found that the most positive scale position is used by team members to signify a meeting of expectations or a fulfillment of an individual's obligation to the group. Even an average or below average team will assign top-end scores to team members if team expectations have been met. Consistent with the work of Haas and Sciglimpaglia (1994), I have also found that semantic differential scales can readily reveal the presence of a social loafer (Harkins and Jackson 1985; Jackson and Williams 1975), or a nonconforming group member with respect to group expectations. However, I have also found that the truly superior group member is not typically recognized in the application of the semantic differential scale format. In this regard, group members assign this individual top-rated scores, yet they also give top evaluations to their fellow team members. Moreover, I have found that a truly superior group member will assign fellow group members a top-scale position as long as those group members meet group expectations. My experience thus indicates that the semantic differential scale is useful for revealing nonperformance, yet it falls short with respect to revealing a truly superior individual performer. This may not be surprising when it is considered that the use of the semantic differential scale does not force comparative judgments. In essence, team members are evaluated individually with respect to the designated criteria and anchoring to a truly superior performer may easily be ignored.

To help address the above indicated problems with the semantic differential scale, I decided to test an alternative approach for the measurement of individual team member performance. This alternative involves the use of a constant sum scale. In this scaling approach, one-hundred points are allocated among team members in terms of each of the following criteria: the extent, quality and overall contribution of a team members's efforts. For a five-member team, a perceived equal performance among group

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members should produce an evaluation of twenty points for each team member on the attribute dimension in question. If a five-member team contains a social loafer and assuming equal performance among the remaining four group members, each of them could assign a weight of twenty-five to contributing members and a score of zero to the loafer. Clearly, such a scaling approach has the potential to not only reveal the loafer, but also the superior group performer, as it requires group members to think of relative or comparative performance. This study is thus concerned with a comparison of individually-based versus comparatively-based team member evaluation scales.

The Study

To meet the study's objective of scale comparisons, I informed my six, five-member student teams at the initiation of their project that they were to be evaluated on a number of key criteria and I informed them as to what the criteria were. At the end of the project, I gave each team member two peer rating approaches, which were alternately rotated to control for order bias. One of the approaches was the semantic differential scale advocated by Haas and Sciglimpaglia (1994), while the other was the a priori mentioned constant sum scale. For a presentation of these scales, see Figures 1 and 2, respectively. My purpose in using these two scaling approaches was to compare their results under the following conditions: (1) the revelation of a known social loafer; (2) the disclosure of a known superior performer; and a determination of how the scales would compare when group members generally met group expectations.

To expedite this end, I selected a marketing research project that required a break-through effort from a team or at least one team member. In this regard, the project contained a critical juncture, which if not addressed, would result in team failure. More precisely, the project involved explaining some aspect of consumer behavior (e.g., beer consumption) through the selection of ten life style statements that were neither redundant or totally unrelated to the dependant variable under study (Wells 1975). Additionally, a number of demographic variables were measured. The project's major purpose

was to determine if the life style responses co-varied with the dependant variable response as revealed through a multiple regression analysis. To produce this outcome, each team was required to select a dependant variable that was unique to that group; develop the life style statements; prepare a questionnaire; collect data from fellow students with a sample size exceeding thirty; code the data; enter the data on a file; use SPSS to run a multiple regression analysis; secure a printed result; interpret the results; and prepare a report that explained R^2, F and t values, as well as beta coefficients and beta weights, along with the rationale for the study, why the life style statements were selected and what was learned. Finally, each team made a presentation to the class of their findings. In this assignment, the critical area involved getting the SPSS project to run in our laboratory's network system and interpreting the results. As might be expected, the project was quite challenging to the students and team visits at my office permitted me to assess team member performance. From these assessments, I observed one team that contained a social loafer and I observed another team that totally floundered with SPSS until one team member took control and personally ran the SPSS program and interpreted the results. In turn, I viewed this student as the break-through performer. The other teams worked as a group and surpassed the critical juncture.

Of the six teams, one contained the loafer, while one contained the break-through performer. It was these two teams that I singled out for comparison and contrast between the semantic differential and constant sum scales.

A Priori Known Social-Loafer

The results of peer and self-evaluations of the team that contained the social loafer appear in Table 1, and confirm the presence of this individual (Jim). As can be seen from the evaluations in Table 1, both David and Joe rated the social loafer low in both the semantic differential and constant sum scale evaluations. Clearly, both scales have targeted Jim for nonperformance. Claudia also identified Jim as being a below average group performer through her semantic differential scale evaluations, yet

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rated him equal to the group through a constant sum scale evaluation. Jeff also rated Jim as being somewhat lower than the group through his semantic differential scale evaluations, yet he identified him as a social loafer in his constant sum scale evaluations. Not surprising, the social loafer evaluated himself as well as his teammates as being superlative contributors.

In this context, both measurement approaches reveal Jim as not meeting group expectations. The two approaches also reveal the high performance levels of the balance of the group members, with a slight slippage for Jeff, as revealed by two group members using the semantic differential scale with one of these two group members also revealing a slight slippage for Jeff through the constant sum scale. Joe is also perceived as slipping somewhat by one group member on the constant sum scale. All in all, the results suggest that a meeting of group expectations results in the assignment of high scores (7s) on the semantic differential scale and equal weightings to performing members on the constant sum scale. Also, the nine attribute dimensions in the semantic differential scale format permit greater insights into the "why" behind individual differences when contrasted to the limited attribute dimensionality of the constant sum scale approach. Of course, this could be remedied by measuring the nine attribute dimensions in a constant sum scale format. Overall, both measurement approaches appear to be equally effective in capturing the performances of a social loafer. Of course, a highly cohesive group could decide to protect the social loafer and such protection could be manifested regardless of the measurement scale approach utilized. This is also an issue that is bothersome to instructors as some social loafers are penalized while others are not. Students should therefore be made to realize that in the "real world" team members are reluctant to tolerate nonperforming group members.

A Priori: Known Break-Through Performer

The results of peer and self-evaluations of the team that contained the break-through performer (Grady) appear in Table 2. What is immediately noticeable about this group is the peer and self evaluation of this group member. In this regard,

he viewed the team as being equal contributors to the group assignment and did not signify himself as the break-through contributor. Chad also perceived a balanced group effort and merely gave Grady a score of 7 on the "did more than fair share" attribute, while assigning the value of 6 to himself and the remaining group members. However, Grady emerges as the break-through contributor in the constant sum scale evaluations of Steve, Vickie and Gina. Still, an evaluation of the these member's semantic differential scale evaluations fails to reveal the break-through performance of Grady. Again, this appears to be due to a tendency to evaluate a meeting of group expectations with high-end scale evaluations (i.e., 7s and 6s). As a result, the high-performing group member may not be utilized as an anchor in semantic differential scale evaluations. In essence, each group member appears to be evaluated individually with respect to group expectations. However, the constant sum scale encourages comparative judgments and allows the break-through performer to be revealed. As a result, the latter scale appears to offer greater flexibility in the evaluation of team-member performance. Moreover, it can be applied to numerous attributes if insights into the "why" behind individual team-member performance are desired.

Helping to confirm the use of group expectations in team evaluations was the almost universal practice among the remaining four, five-member teams to evaluate both self and peers with top-end scale positions (7s) and equal weightings for the semantic differential and constant sum scales, respectively. Basically, these teams did not recognize the presence of either break-through performers or social loafers. Basically, group performance typically truncated toward the top-end of the semantic differential scale and equal team member weightings were assigned through the use of the constant sum scale.

New Measurement Scale

In an effort to develop a better spread among team member performance, a new scale is presented in Figure 3. This scale is anchored to a "meeting of expectations" as the central scale position and proceeds to reveal the extent of

supra normal performance and nonperformance among group members. The scale also carries a caveat which states that deviations from the central scale position should be employed only when justified by superior or inferior group member performance relative to that group. Otherwise, all team members would reflect a meeting of expectations. It is hoped that this scale can be utilized in self and peer team evaluations and the results compared with the known presence of break-through performers and social loafers. Comparisons with constant sum scale results should also prove to be fruitful. By developing a literature stream of findings, our team member performance evaluations may be further refined and improved.

Study Limitations

Although this exploratory study is not generalizable, it does reveal systematic patterns in both peer and self evaluations of team member performance. These patterns have been interpreted and they may be utilized to suggest problems with popular semantic differential measurement scale approaches. They may also be used to suggest scale improvements. Hopefully, the issues raised in this study can be confirmed in other studies, thus revealing convergent validation (Lykken 1968) and a sounder basis for scale selection.

Conclusions

A comparison of the semantic differential-based Hass and Sciglimpaglia (1993) peer and self evaluation measurement scale with the constant sum scale revealed that both scales were equally effective in revealing an a priori known social loafer. However, a one-hundred point constant sum scale was found to be superior in the identification of an a priori known break-through performer. Thus, in this limited study, the constant sum scale emerged as offering greater flexibility in team member evaluations.

In an effort to address the typical truncation toward the top-end scale position within the semantic differential scale, a new measurement scale was presented in which the central position is anchored to a meeting of group expectations. It is hoped that this new scale will be compared

with the constant sum scale and the semantic differential scale in an effort to build a better theory for evaluating team member performance in student groups. By so doing, team member evaluations may be further developed and enhanced.

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Note: Figures and tables may be attained by contacting the author.

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EMPOWERING MARKETING STUDENTS IN THE EVALUATION PROCESS OF THEIR ORAL PRESENTATIONS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses a method for empowering students in the evaluation of oral presentations. We begin by discussing the theory and importance of empowerment, and how students can be given an enriched learning experience by being empowered to participate in the process of their course evaluation.

Next, we discuss the value of oral presentations as part of undergraduate and graduate marketing courses, and how important it is for students to be competent at this skill. Employers, students and educators all agree that mastering the art of oral communication is extremely important in today's workworld.

The evaluation of oral presentations can be difficult for those of us who have not been trained in the field of communication. Oral presentations represent complex knowledge and communication, requiring carefully designed assessment methods and instruments. We found only a few articles giving guidance for this difficult task, although we did find oral presentations as part of several different learning assignments.

We conducted a study that 1) involved students in the evaluation of their oral presentations, 2) determined students' perceived importance of evaluation criteria, and 3) compared the weightings assigned to the evaluation criteria by undergraduate students, graduate students, and faculty.

Marketing students (two undergraduate classes, two graduate classes) were given a list of twelve evaluation criteria and asked to assign the weights they would like the criteria to have for their class oral presentations. The mean weight of each criteria were used in the evaluation of the oral presentations at the end of the course.

Meanwhile, the faculty from the business schools of our two universities were given the same twelve criteria and asked to assign weights according to how they felt oral presentations should be evaluated.

We compared the mean weights of the twelve criteria from the three groups. Faculty felt that "Clarity of Presentation' was the most important criteria, graduate students felt that 'Keeps Audience Interested' was most important, and undergraduate students felt two criteria were most important: 'Clarity of Presentation' and 'Use of Appropriate Data'.

We conducted an ANOVA to determine if the groups differed significantly in the weightings they assigned to the evaluation criteria that could lead to troublesome differences between students and faculty. Although there were some statistically significant differences, they were minimal, and, we feel, not problematic enough to prevent use of the students' self-weighting evaluation procedure. We feel that the benefits of empowering students in the evaluation of their oral presentations far outweighs any differences in opinion between faculty and student.

ROLE OF NATIONAL AND REGIONAL PROCEEDINGS
IN THE FACULTY EVALUATION PROCESS

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ABSTRACT

As the importance of publishing continues to increase, the role of national and regional proceedings in the evaluation of faculty for promotion and tenure will also receive additional attention. This research indicated the quality of national proceeding publications are equivalent to the second tier of marketing journals. National proceedings appear to be a viable representation of scholarly activity. However, regional proceedings were not considered as viable outlets of scholar activity in terms of promotion and tenure decisions.

INTRODUCTION

Promotion and tenure are topics of vital concern to every marketing professor. Lack of clear cut guidelines has lead most institutions to regard research as the primary dimension for the evaluation of marketing faculty (Lusch and Laczniak 1976). This may be due, in part, to the fact that less than 50% of the marketing departments have actual written policies and guidelines concerning promotion and tenure (Beltramini, Schlacter, and Kelley 1985).

The `publish or perish' pressure on marketing faculty appears to be increasing as more schools seek ACCSB accreditation and the schools which have accreditation strive to improve their standings among business schools. For many of these schools, only publications in the first or second tier of marketing journals are seen as being prestige enough for promotion and tenure (Beltramini, Schlacter, and Kelley 1985). Although discrepancies occur among which journals are second tier, first tier is almost always considered to be the Journal of Marketing, the Journal of Marketing Research, and the Journal of Consumer Research.

Ninety-two percent of the marketing chairs at ACCSB institutions reported that the importance of both quality and quantity of publications has increased over the last ten years and is expected to continue increasing in the future (Coe and Weinstock 1983). Because space is limited in the premiere journals, the competition among marketing scholars has increased reducing the accep-

tance rates. As marketing faculty face increasing pressure to publish and as acceptance rates of marketing journals continue to decline, increased pressure is and will be applied to marketing chairpersons, deans, and other individuals on promotion and tenure committees to consider proceeding publications in the evaluation of marketing faculty's scholar contribution. The addition of a number of marketing-related journals available for research publication has not decreased the pressure to utilize proceedings as part of the faculty evaluation processes (Jeon and Brazeal 1989).

The purpose of this research was to investigate the attitude of marketing faculty towards both national and regional marketing proceedings and their use in faculty evaluations for promotion and tenure decisions. If national and regional proceedings are to be used for faculty evaluation, how much should they count and how do they compare, in quality, to the marketing journals available for publication? Finally, what impact do marketing faculty have on their dean's evaluation of marketing proceedings and does the size of school impact the opinions of marketing faculty towards the use of proceedings in faculty evaluations?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Attendance at national and regional conferences is motivated by at least four factors. First is the presentation of a paper. Second, conferences provide the opportunity to interact among colleagues. Third, conferences become a source of new ideas for future research or modification of current research. Fourth, for individuals working together on research who teach at different institutions, conferences often provide the opportunity to work out research agenda items that are difficult to do over the telephone.

Authorship in the top marketing journals appear to be dominated by a select list of schools (Mobley and Ibrahim 1989). For example, 60% of the articles in Journal of Marketing and 58% of the articles in Journal of Marketing Research were authored by professors from only 27 different schools. All are schools with prestige schools of business, large number of students, and relatively large business and marketing

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faculty. However, schools vary in terms of importance of research, which journals are acceptable for evaluations, and the importance of quality versus quantity (Burnett, Amason, and Cunningham 1989). Because the number of articles accepted by first and second tier journals are limited and tend to be dominated by the larger schools, the attitude of faculty towards both national and regional proceedings should be effected by school and faculty size. The larger schools, if proceedings are allowed as acceptable outlets, will value national proceedings higher than regional proceedings. The reverse should be true for smaller schools.

If proceedings are viable outlets for marketing research, then the relative quality of these proceedings should be ascertained. Publication acceptance rates and studies conducted on the quality of the various marketing journals would indicate that national proceedings would probably not be on the same level as either the first or second tier marketing journals (Michman, Greco, and Hocking 1989; Browne and Becker 1992).

As the evaluation of national and regional proceedings by marketing faculty increases, the push to use these proceedings in promotion and tenure decisions should also increase. In addition, as the evaluation of national and regional proceedings by marketing faculty increases, it should impact the rating their deans have for the respective proceedings.

What impact do marketing faculty have on the attitudes of deans toward national and regional proceedings? What effect will this impact have upon the dean's opinion towards the use of proceedings in the evaluation of marketing faculty up for promotion or tenure? Both questions are vital, especially since the majority of business deans do not have marketing backgrounds and may be unfamiliar with marketing journals and proceedings. If proceedings are to be used in faculty evaluations, what percentage should they count? Is this percentage effected by the attitude of the dean or marketing faculty towards the use of national proceedings for evaluations?

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Two hundred and fifty questionnaires were mailed out to colleges and universities. A total of 115 useable responses were obtained resulting in a response rate of 46% percent. The data were analyzed using the econometric procedures of LISREL 7 as outlined by

Joreskog and Sorbom (1989). Although the data is not time series, the econometric procedure was deemed appropriate. First, the questionnaire design limited the development of latent constructs. Second, and more importantly, the relationships of individual test items were desired which is permissible only with the econometric procedures of LISREL. Third, the simultaneous equation procedures permit the analysis of very complex models with many inter-relationships among individual test items. (See TABLE 1 for identification of exogenous and endogenous variables). Fourth, the holistic theoretical foundation of the simultaneous equation procedures allows for the testing of theories and hypotheses with all factors considered. Often relationships can be found when variables are examined in isolation but when considered holistically, the relationship may be overpowered by other much stronger relationships or they may not exist at all.

TABLE 1
Exogenous and Endogenous Variables

Greek Identification	Description
ξ_1	Attendance at national conferences
ξ_2	Reading national proceedings
ξ_3	Number of students at university
ξ_4	Number of students in business school
ξ_5	Number of students in marketing
ξ_6	Number of faculty in business school
ξ_7	Number of faculty in marketing department
ξ_8	Attendance at regional conferences
ξ_9	Reading regional proceedings
η_1	Rating of national proceedings by faculty
η_2	Should national proceedings count in evaluations (marketing faculty)
η_3	Rating of national proceedings by dean
η_4	Should national proceedings count in evaluations (dean)
η_5	Percentage proceedings should count (faculty)
η_6	Percentage proceedings should count (dean)
η_7	Rating of regional proceedings by faculty
η_8	Should regional proceedings count in evaluations (marketing faculty)
η_9	Rating of regional proceedings by dean
η_{10}	Should regional proceedings count in evaluations (dean)
η_{11}	Rating of national proceedings to 1st tier journals
η_{12}	Rating of national proceedings to 2nd tier journals
η_{13}	Rating of national proceedings to 3rd tier journals

RESEARCH RESULTS

The Γ and β standardized coefficients from the

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LISREL analysis are reported in TABLE 2. The goodness-of-fit index (GFI) of .819 and the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) of .776 would appear to be adequate for hypotheses testing in terms of significant paths. The Chi-Square value was 323.65 with 164 degrees of freedom.

TABLE 2

Lisrel Parameter	Standardized Solution	T-Value
γ_{11}	0.018	0.194
γ_{12}	0.213**	2.185
γ_{13}	0.149	1.322
γ_{14}	0.320**	2.287
γ_{15}	0.089	0.581
γ_{16}	-0.276	-2.291
γ_{17}	-0.191	-1.235
γ_{73}	0.008	0.065
γ_{74}	-0.216	-1.477
γ_{75}	0.264*	1.647
γ_{76}	-0.049	-0.384
γ_{77}	-0.102	-0.620
γ_{78}	0.138	1.275
γ_{79}	-0.171*	-1.735
B_{21}	0.597***	7.620
B_{31}	0.556***	6.857
B_{111}	-0.110	-1.138
B_{121}	0.229**	2.414
B_{131}	0.015	0.156
B_{42}	0.193**	2.059
B_{43}	0.208**	2.217
B_{52}	0.460***	5.615
B_{58}	-0.287***	-3.506
B_{62}	0.009	0.106
B_{64}	0.264***	2.988
B_{68}	0.315***	3.130
B_{610}	-0.101	-1.005
B_{87}	0.221**	2.321
B_{97}	0.004	0.046
B_{108}	0.471***	5.983
B_{109}	-0.317***	-4.029

γ^2 = 323.65 with 164 df
GFI = 0.819
AGFI = 0.776

* Significant at $p < .10$
** Significant at $p < .05$
*** Significant at $p < .01$

In terms of national proceedings, actual reading of the articles published in the proceedings had a positive impact on how national proceedings were rated in terms of quality. The more an individual read national proceedings, the higher they rated the quality of the articles.

With regional proceedings, an interesting phenomena occurred. The more the published regional proceedings were read, the lower the rating of quality. It would appear that the overall quality of material in the proceedings of regional conferences is considered to be inferior to that found in national proceedings.

The number of students in business schools was positively related to the quality rating of the national proceedings. In addition, marketing faculty at schools with a large number of marketing majors evaluated regional proceedings higher than schools with less marketing majors. Thus, it would appear that ratings of both regional and national proceedings are effected by school size. A very interesting corollary to this was the relationship of the size of business faculty to quality ratings of national proceedings. As the number of faculty in the business school increased, the quality ratings of national proceedings decreased. The number of marketing faculty had no impact on either the national or regional proceeding quality rating.

The quality of national proceedings was not seen as approximately equivalent to the third tier marketing journals. Surprisingly, national proceedings were ranked with the second tier journals such as <u>Journal of Retailing, Journal of Academy of Marketing Science,</u> and <u>Journal of Public Policy and Marketing</u>. In terms of faculty promotions and tenure decisions, this finding may be very significant in evaluating the quality and quantity of scholar research. It certainly adds credibility to using national proceedings in faculty evaluations.

As the marketing faculty ratings of both national and regional proceedings increased, the opinion that the respective proceedings should be used in the faculty evaluation process also increased. In looking at what impact marketing faculty had upon their dean's opinion of proceedings, mixed results were obtained. For national proceedings, the dean's rating of quality was positively impacted by the rating of the marketing faculty but for regional proceedings there was no impact. For both national and regional proceedings, the stronger the marketing faculty felt towards use of these proceedings in the faculty evaluation process, the more inclined the dean was to agree.

The last part of the study examined the percentage proceedings should count. For the marketing faculty the mean was 27.99. For the deans, it was 23.60. But in looking at how this percentage was arrived at sheds some light into what may be occurring in institutions concerning the use of proceedings for promotion and tenure decisions. For marketing faculty, the percentage proceedings should count was positively effected by how strongly they felt about national proceedings being used in evaluations but inversely effected by how strong they felt about

regional proceedings being used in evaluations. Marketing faculty who placed a high emphasis on national meetings in comparison to regional meetings believed the percentage proceedings should count was higher than faculty who placed more emphasis on regional proceedings. This would appear to be consistent with other results obtained in this research.

In looking at the percentage indicated by deans, even more interesting results were obtained. First, the percentage indicated by the deans was positively affected by the strength of their own opinion in the use of national proceedings for faculty evaluations but was not impacted by their attitude towards using regional proceedings in the evaluation process. The stronger the dean felt about using national proceedings for promotion and tenure decisions, the higher the percentage he or she indicated they should count.

In looking at the impact of the marketing faculty upon the dean's percentage amount, the marketing faculty had no impact in terms of national proceedings but a positive impact in terms of regional proceedings. The stronger the marketing faculty felt towards using regional proceedings in the evaluation process, the more deans were willing to count proceedings for promotion and tenure decisions but it appears the proceedings being considered by deans are not the regional, but the national. It may be that as they face intensified pressure to consider regional proceedings in the faculty evaluation process, they counter with greater use of national proceedings in promotion and tenure decisions.

DISCUSSION

As pressure to publish continues to increase, pressure to accept both national and regional proceedings as part of the faculty evaluation process will continue to increase. This research substantiates the premise that proceedings should be considered in promotion and tenure decisions. Both marketing faculty and deans of business schools indicate the percentage these proceedings should count is somewhere between 23 and 28 percent.

This research indicated that national marketing proceedings are evaluated, in terms of quality, on the same level as the second tier marketing journals. This makes national proceedings a viable outlet for scholar research activity and valid criteria in faculty evaluations for promotion and tenure.

Getting deans of business schools to agree with the use of proceedings as part of the faculty evaluation process is not always an easy task. This research indicated that marketing faculty who put pressure on deans to use regional proceedings in their promotion and tenure decisions may be not be successful in terms of gaining acceptance of regional proceedings but may be successful in greater acceptance of national proceedings. It would appear the best strategy for marketing faculty is to stress with the deans the high quality of national marketing proceedings in comparison to the marketing journals.

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DIFFERENCES IN LEARNING STYLES WITHIN A CULTURALLY DIVERSE STUDENT BODY

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ABSTRACT

The learning styles of 386 students were assessed and the styles of the 277 international students compared to those of the 109 Americans. The learning styles of American and international students differ considerably when compared using three well known learning models. Implications and recommendations are made for teaching within a culturally diverse student body.

INTRODUCTION

International students are attending American business schools in increasing numbers. With them comes a refreshing impetus to internationalize the Marketing curriculum as well as new experiences for American students. They also bring challenges. Information commonly held by Americans, such as the Tylonol experience, draws blank stares. Cases interwoven with American life ways, such as the classic Edwater Marina, pose unique problems for students raised in cultures with little leisure for the middle class. With time and sensitivity these problems are overcome. Marketing professors incorporate cultural appreciation and analysis of cultural differences into their syllabi. Exposure to American ways leads to increased understanding of the American marketing context. Yet differences remain between the education experienced by American students and by International students. Professors familiar with the multicultural classroom know they are teaching to different sets of learners.

Three models were used to access learning styles. These were Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives (Bloom 1956), the Kolb learning model (Kolb, 1976), and a commonly used communications flow process model. The levels of knowledge in Bloom's taxonomy are shown in Figure 1, together with the types of learning techniques associated with each. The Kolb Model is shown in Figure 2. Learning techniques are placed consistent with Ronchetto, Buckles, Barath and Perry (1992). The Communications Process Model used is shown in Figure 3 below. These three models have all appeared in the Marketing Education literature. See Dickenson (1991), Ronchetto (1992), and Pride and Ferrell (1991), respectively.

FIGURE 1
BLOOM'S TAXONOMY OF LEVELS OF KNOWLEDGE

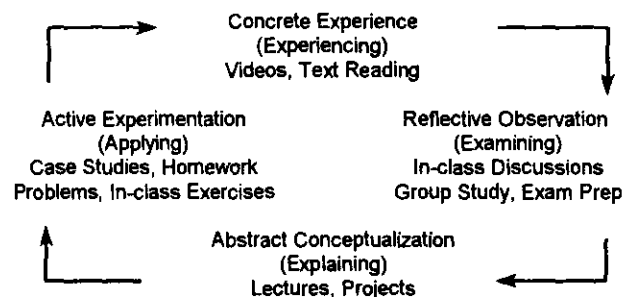| Levels of Knowledge	Learning Techniques
Synthesis, Evaluation and Judgement	—
Analysis of Relationships	Exercises
Application of Abstractions	Case Studies, Projects and Homework
Translations, Interpretations and Extrapolations	Lectures, Discussion
Knowledge of Ways and Means of Dealing with Specifics	Exam Preparation Text Reading
Knowledge of Terminology and Facts	Memorization, Videos

FIGURE 2
KOLB LEARNING STYLES

Concrete Experience
(Experiencing)
Videos, Text Reading

Active Experimentation
(Applying)
Case Studies, Homework
Problems, In-class Exercises

Reflective Observation
(Examining)
In-class Discussions
Group Study, Exam Prep

Abstract Conceptualization
(Explaining)
Lectures, Projects

FIGURE 3
THE COMMUNICATIONS PROCESS

Source → Coded Message → Medium of Trans- mission → Coded Message → Student

BACKGROUND

The international student faces unique challenges. These can include language barriers and unfamiliarity with American higher education practices such as class-room participation and frequent tests (Selvadurai, 1991-1992). Research has shown the relationship among demographic variables and performance (Hanson and

Swann, 1993), and that high-performance minority students favor certain learning techniques (Kerr, 1992). Nagasawa and Espinosa report that Asian Americans behave in distinctively different ways as college students which may enhance their academic success, but may hinder their acquisition of needed social skills (1992).

Students vary in what they believe learning to be. Some hold that learning is the accumulation of facts; these wish for simple, unambiguous knowledge. Others stress understanding. Students also believe that learning is accomplished in different ways. According to Schommer, these differing perceptions are influenced by family structure, rule conformity and encouragement toward independence (1993). All of these vary as a function of culture. What are the implications of these cultural differences in learning style for the classroom teacher?

METHODOLOGY

A survey was administered to 386 upper division and graduate students at a multicultural university. The survey captured attitudinal data on learning techniques. Two hundred and ninety-one of the respondents voluntarily provided student I.D. numbers which permitted linking of university registration background and academic performance to the attitudinal measures. The data were collected during the 1993–1994 academic year.

The first section of the questionnaire was composed of 13 statements that students rated on a five-point Likert scale. These tapped student attitudes at various points in the three learning models mentioned above. The second section gathered information on learning activity and included a self-evaluation of learning success. The third section contained three forced ranking/choice exercises on the amount of time spent on various academic tasks and their value as sources of knowledge and information. The last section included demographic information, prior academic experience and self-reported performance measures such as cumulative GPA.

RESPONDENT PROFILE

Population Characteristics

The respondent population was composed of 386 university students enrolled in bachelors and masters degree programs. One hundred and nine were U.S. citizens (US). The 277 students of other nationalities (Int) were from Hong Kong (62), Malaysia (48), Singapore (36), Taiwan (28), Indonesia (24), Japan (12), Thailand (12), Korea (6), and the Philippines (2). The average entering TOEFL score was 569 and ranged from 450 to 900. Seventy percent were the sons or

daughters of business executives or government officials. Genders were equally represented. The average age was 26 and the average work experience was 5.44 years.

Study Habits and Sources of Knowledge

Respondents reported an average of 7.51 hours a week studying and preparing for one class. Study and preparation time was spent as follows:

Writing case analyses	22	%
Reading cases	17	
Exam preparation	14	
Reading text material	13	
Doing projects and working in groups	10	
Doing homework problems	8	
Other	3	
Out of Class	87	%
In-class time	13	%
Total	100	%

The best to the least valuable sources of knowledge and information were rank ordered and the percentage of knowledge and information gained by source was estimated by the respondents. The results are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
LEARNING SOURCE VALUE

Rank Avg.	Activity	Avg. % of Knowledge Gained From Source	US	Int	F	Sig
1	Lectures	25	29.10	23.50	6.22	.0130
2	Case readings	10	9.50	10.00	–	n.s.
3	Case analyses	13	11.10	13.20	–	n.s.
4	Text readings	12	13.10	11.80	–	n.s.
5	In-class discussions	7	5.70	7.20	–	n.s.
6	Homework problems	5	6.00	5.50	–	n.s.
7	In-class exercises	6	6.80	6.20	–	n.s.
8	Projects	6	6.10	5.40	–	n.s.
9	Group study	4	3.70	3.80	–	n.s.
10	Exam preparation	7	4.45	7.68	11.62	.0007
11	Videotapes	5	3.90	5.70	4.63	.0320

Students report that they expend only 13% of their time in class activity, yet report that 38% of the knowledge and information are gained from this activity. In-class activity may be a culminating event where students reap the reward of preparation.

RESULTS

The American and international students were compared using crosstabs χ^2 tests and differences between means F tests. Factor analysis and discriminant analysis were used to collapse the variables and to test the supposition that there are fundamental differences between the two groups. A comparison between the Americans (US) and international students (Int) of study and preparation time is shown in Table 2.

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TABLE 2

STUDY AND PREPARATION TIME

Activity	% of Time Spent US	Int	F	Sig
Reading cases	14.9	17.5	–	n.s.
Writing cases	25.6	20.0	9.7	.0020
Reading text	15.3	12.2	6.0	.0145
Group study	.9	2.5	10.1	.0016
Projects	9.4	7.0	–	n.s.
Homework	5.7	8.6	–	n.s.
Studying for exams	10.3	15.8	17.3	.0000
In-class time	12.7	12.9	–	n.s.
Other	5.2	3.5	–	n.s.

The international students are spending their time on the traditional lower-level activities on the Bloom taxonomy, whereas the American students are devoting more time to the analytical work of case analysis. In addition, the international students require greater time to comprehend the case readings.

International students judged their memorization skills to be better than their analytical skills. Americans believed the opposite (χ^2 = 17.2, 4, .001, n = 386). International students had less confidence in their ability to understand lecture material (χ^2 = 30.7, 4, .0000, n = 386) and in their ability to arrange the course material into an organized outline (χ^2 = 10.55, 4, .03207, n = 386). Not surprisingly, the international students strongly believed that better English ability would significantly enhance their academic performance (χ^2 = 99.0, 5, .00000, n = 386).

There was no significant difference between the two groups in the students' confidence in their ability to master the course material. The international students were not as confident in their ability to participate in a discussion about the major course topics, however, (χ^2 = 14.75, 5, .01146, n = 386) or in their ability to apply the material learned in the course to actual business situations (χ^2 = 9.69, 5, .04590, n = 386). There was no difference between the groups in their enthusiasm for learning more about the topics covered in the course, nor was there a difference between the groups on the number of study hours devoted to the course.

There was no difference in average class performance (US – 88.92%, Int – 88.90%), or in average self-reported GPA. There was a strong correlation between the students' confidence in their higher order learning skills and their performance (r = .2897, p = .000, n = 245) and there was a significant relationship between it and actual GPA (r = .1500, p = .017, n = 251). There was a significant negative correlation between lower order learning skills and performance (r = –.1458, p = .022, n = 245). Similarly there was a negative correlation

between lower order learning skills and actual GPA (r = –.1329, p = .033, n = 251). Lecture comprehension was predictive of performance (r = .2335, p = .000, n = 254).

Stepwise discriminant analysis yielded consistent results. The two groups are different on the amount of time they spend studying in groups (Int more, US less), doing homework problems (Int more, US less), and studying for exams (Int more, US less). They also differ on the importance they place on project work (US more, Int less) (χ^2 = 25.878, 5, .0001, n = 97). Cluster analysis using these variables correctly classified 70.60% of the students.

Factor analysis of the Likert scales yield three factors. One of these describes higher order analytical reasoning skills, another describes understanding and motivation, and the third the ability to understand the material. When used as dependent variables to discriminate between the two student groups, 90.4% of the international students were correctly classified, and 44% of the American students were correctly classified for an overall correct classification rate of 77.96%.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The three models provide insights into the differences in fundamental learning processes between the two groups. The locus of the international students on the Bloom taxonomy of levels of knowledge is at the levels which emphasize specificity and the accumulation of knowledge, whereas the locus for American students is at greater levels of abstraction. In the Kolb model, international students appear to use reflective observation and abstract conceptualization to a greater extent than American students who appear to emphasize active experimentation and concrete experiences.

The communications process model also shows substantive differences between the two groups. The international students, comprehending far less of the lecture material they highly value, substitute other sources they can eventually understand through time and effort. These include homework, additional reading and exam preparation. They also use alternative methods of transmission by more extensive group study. Without the requisite skills to comprehend more sophisticated reasoning concepts due to a lack of English proficiency, the international student increases his or her efforts on the more comfortable skills of memorization, exam preparation and compliance with specific homework instructions from the teacher. They may find comfort from the stress of lack of comprehension in group study. They may hope that these will be acceptable substitutes to make up for their

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difficulty in handling the complexities, subtleties, and ambiguities of case analyses.

There is little question that international students will continue to highly value an American university degree. According to this study, the credential is very important to these students. But they also value the opportunity to obtain the skills necessary for a successful business career. What can American business schools provide these students? English comprehension difficulties limit them to the lower orders of intellectual abstraction of the concepts and the ideas presented to them. If these were presented in their native language, no doubt they could master them as American students do in their native tongue. Given in English, however, they may only be getting the credential and not the higher knowledge skills required to succeed in their careers. Their overall academic performance on a par with American students can be attributed to their ability to substitute certain academic skills for others, a student evaluation system that measures performance on a broad range of intellectual tasks, and sheer hard work.

At its worst, a multinational class degenerates into a group of talkative Americans hotly debating an issue embedded in the American culture, while uncomprehending international students desperately try to hear the instructor interject something they can put in their notebooks and memorize. At its best, it becomes a platform for mutual respect and understanding and source of advancement for everyone's set of meaningful skills and abilities. What should the teacher do?

1. Recognize the English language limitation and make adjustments. Use the written word more rather than less. Allow tape recorders; provide lecture outlines.

2. Allow greater cycle time between assignments to permit the international student to substitute hard work for English skills.

3. Set the stage for a case discussion by explaining its cultural context. Alternatively, try to take any classic case, e.g., Wall Drug, out of its American context. It is an enlightening experience.

4. Practice thinking in the cultures and languages of the students. Ideas which may sound rudimentary when expressed in simple English may, in fact, be complex and sophisticated when put in the student's cultural context.

5. Stretch the abstract reasoning skills of the international students by providing a wide variety of in-class challenges that can be done in the relative safety of groups.

Lastly, recognize the tremendous asset that these international students represent. Properly integrated into the American business classroom, they can be the windows through which everyone in that classroom can fully appreciate the global village in which we live.

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SELLER ROLE PERFORMANCE IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS RELATIONSHIPS: A FOCUS ON CULTURAL SENSITIVITY

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ABSTRACT

Remarkably little effort has been devoted to understanding cultural sensitivity and its role in international business relationships. The authors draw on existing research and 52 in-depth field interviews with Mexican managers to provide a working definition of seller role performance which includes cultural sensitivity as a key dimension. A conceptual framework is presented that identifies the antecedents and consequences of seller role performance as a guide to future research efforts. Implications for U.S. managers are discussed.

OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this paper is to delineate the domain of the cultural sensitivity construct, provide an operational definition and embed the construct in a theoretical framework. As developed in this paper, cultural sensitivity is conceptualized as an important dimension of seller role performance. The result is that normative statements about cultural sensitivity can now be operationalized and implemented. To this end, several literature streams and field interviews are integrated to specify the antecedents and consequences of seller role performance. A propositional inventory with seller role performance as the focal construct is presented as a guide for future research.

In addition to advancing theory, the paper outlines the factors managers should consider to increase seller role performance in international business relationships. Specifically, our model has important implications for the selection and training of international salespeople. The importance of creating an organizational climate that supports the efforts of personnel devoted to building international relationships is recognized.

METHOD

The field research consisted of in-depth telephone interviews with 52 purchasing managers located in Mexico's largest cities. Mexico was chosen because it is the United States' third largest trading partner and a member of the North American Free Trade Agreement (Business Week 1993).

All interviewees were responsible for the importation of products from the United States. Their organizations ranged in size from small privately owned businesses to very large chains with over 1000 employees. Most companies had several stores or field offices.

The personal interviews averaged 45 minutes and ranged from 30 minutes to 90 minutes in duration. All but one respondent agreed to be audiotaped and most managers expressed great enthusiasm for the issues explored.

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GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE SALARY EXPECTATIONS
OF MARKETING STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

This research examined gender differences in salary expectations of students enrolled in Principles of Marketing courses (N = 201). Students (115 men and 86 women) were asked about salary expectations, salary information search, work experience, and wage discrimination. Results indicated that women and men had similar salary expectations. However, women's salary expectations declined with increased investigation into salary levels while men's stayed the same or increased. Male and female students also held differing beliefs about salary equity.

INTRODUCTION

Business in general and marketing in particular has become an increasingly popular major for women. More women are occupying management positions today than in the past, partially as a result of better business training. In 1992, for example, 42% of management positions in the United States were held by women in contrast to 16% of positions in the 1960s (Alpern 1993). However, women have continued to lag behind men in compensation for work, in both management and nonmanagement positions. It is well known that, depending on the occupation, women earn between 50% and 75% of what men earn (Fisher 1992; U.S. Bureau of the Census 1992). According to a recent survey (Gaines 1994) wage discrepancies are also faced by marketing graduates. The continuing question is: what factors account for the persistent gender gap in wages?

There is a large body of research that addresses the wage differential between men and women in the United States. One set of research blames women's lesser investment in their own human capital through obtaining less advanced education, interrupting employment, and being less aggressive in seeking promotions (e.g., Olson and Frieze, 1987). Other, dual market explanations, propose that women, more than men, tend to concentrate in lower-paying fields (e.g., Roos 1985). Although these factors certainly account for some of the variance in wages, research has shown that when they are factored out, a wage differential still remains. Browne and Brown (1994),

for example, investigated salary differences among 293 male and female college graduates in Business Administration from a single institution. The men and women in the study graduated between 1984 and 1990 with very similar preparation in their major fields of study. In every cohort and every concentration, including marketing, women received less pay than men, even though there were no differences in work tenure, occupational choice, or job status (number of promotions or level in the corporate hierarchy) that were related to income.

Two factors that may contribute to wage differences between men and women are self-pay expectations and willingness to negotiate for salary. Using a simulation paradigm, Major, Vanderslice and McFarlin (1984) found that job applicants who communicated lower pay expectations did obtain lower pay offers from employers. Other research indicates that gender influences salary acceptability (e.g., Major and Konar 1984; Tomski and Subich 1990). Jackson, Gardner, and Sullivan (1990) found that regardless of occupational field, women had lower entry level and career-peak pay expectations than men and this difference was particularly marked for career-peak pay levels. Contrary to some earlier research, the women studied by Jackson et al. did not actually value pay less than men even though they were willing to accept jobs for less compensation. Studies of gender differences in willingness to negotiate for salary and the effect of this factor on actual salary are rare. However, Gerhart and Rynes (1991) recently investigated this topic by surveying MBA students. Their results suggested that negotiation differentially improves starting salaries. Although both men and women were equally likely to negotiate for salary increases, men achieved greater salary increases for negotiation efforts.

Wage differentials constitute an important problem for women because they affect salary progressions and salary-linked benefits across the course of a career. Differing conditions for men and women in the workforce should also concern marketing educators because increasing numbers of their students are women. If it is true that female students, more than males, lack information or

bargaining ability, it is possible and legitimate to address these deficiencies in the university setting. Efforts in this direction have the potential of increasing student occupational success, creating more satisfied customers of business education, and providing a competitive edge in promoting marketing programs.

The current study replicates previous work on salary expectations, and extends that work by examining information search, propensity to negotiate, and job selection criteria. Several questions were asked. Do female business students today expect to earn less than male students, a factor which could predispose them to accept lower salaries? Do female and male students seek different amounts of information about appropriate salary levels for alternative positions? Are there gender differences in the willingness of students to negotiate for salary or benefits? Do female and male students differentially weight job characteristics such that salary assumes a higher importance for male students than it does for female students?

METHODS

Sample

The sample was composed of 115 men and 86 women who were enrolled in an introductory marketing principles course. The respondents were primarily undergraduate students, born in the United States, and were, for the most part, unmarried. Seventy-nine percent of students were concentrating in business administration; the remainder were enrolled in merchandising, engineering, or a liberal arts program. The sample ranged in age from 18 to 49 years ($\underline{Md}$ = 21 years). Eighty percent of the respondents were under 24 years-old. Most of the students were not currently employed although most had worked at casual jobs at some time or another. Spouses or defactos of respondents had a similar pattern of employment, primarily in casual positions (for example, gas station attendant, waitress, student aide).

Instrumentation and Procedures

Students were administered a questionnaire that asked about personal demographics, salary expectations and information, job selection criteria, expectations about negotiation and feelings about gender discrimination in compensation for work. The questionnaire was delivered to the students in their various sections during a class period (by both male and female instructors) and they received a small amount of course credit for returning the

questionnaire. Although completing the questionnaire was voluntary, very few students refused to participate or offered partial data.

The survey instrument contained a series of possible career positions for business students together with a set of salary categories for each position. Positions listed were accountant, administrative clerk, advertising sales, retail sales representative, industrial/technical sales representative, marketing manager, high school teacher, and bank manager. Positions were chosen from job placement advertisements on the basis of employing differing proportions of males and females and representing a range of salaries. Thus, the category "industrial/technical sales" traditionally attracts more men whereas the category "retail sales" typically employs more women. The career of "teacher" and "administrative clerk" served as anchors for primarily female positions. Salary categories began at $15,000 to $20,000 and increased at $5,000 increments up to over $60,000. Students were asked to check the category that they believed would be the acceptable starting salaries for each position. They were told that they probably would not know the exact entry level salary of each position, but that they should check the salary category that they thought would be appropriate. Students also rated their willingness to negotiate for salary and benefits on a five point Likert-type scale (1 = not at all; 5 = always).

In addition, the questionnaire asked about past investigation into salaries paid to employees in various jobs. Students were asked whether they had sought information about salary and which sources they consulted. Categories of information source were provided and included newspapers/magazines, personal contacts, college consulting, professional agencies, and "other sources." Students were also asked to rate their amount of investigation into wages on a five point Likert-type scale.

Information about previous personal employment and employment of spouses and defacto partners was queried. The rationale behind asking about personal and partner's employment was that these can be sources of information about actual salary levels. Thus, one could expect a student who is employed in a sales position or in an advertising firm to have a better idea of salaries in those areas than students with no relevant work experience. Similarly, if a student's spouse was employed in a relevant position, that student would be likely to have additional knowledge about salary, at least for the spouse's occupation.

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Salary is only one reason for choosing one job over another. Therefore, students were also asked if they would take a position at a less-than-expected salary if it had other attractive features. In order to further examine student criteria for employment, students were provided a list of possible job features to rank in terms of importance to job choice (1 = most important; 7 = least important). These features included salary, promotion, flexible hours, interesting work, sense of accomplishment in work, ease of entering and leaving the work force, and competent and friendly co-workers. They were also invited to provide, in a free response question, other job selection criteria.

Finally, students were asked about gender discrimination in the workforce. First, they were asked to rate the degree of discrimination (1 = not a problem now; 2 = there is some discrimination but it is not extensive; 3 = there is extensive discrimination). Second, they were asked to rate their degree of agreement with the statement that, on the average women in the United States earn equal pay for the same work as men (1 = disagree; 5 = agree). Third, a similar statement about women in management positions was provided and students rated their degree of agreement with that statement.

RESULTS

In order to determine whether males and females differed in the acceptability of starting salaries over-all, the salary rankings for the separate job categories were combined into an index. Student work experience was divided into two categories: (a) no work or only casual work and (b) previous career or business-related experience. The salary index then was used as the dependent variable in a 2 (sex) x 2 (work experience) ANOVA. This analysis revealed no difference in over-all salary expectations attributable to gender, previous work experience, or the interaction between the two. Other analyses conducted on salary ratings for individual job categories yielded similar results. Relevant to the research questions, there were no gender differences in salary expectations in either traditionally male-dominated or traditionally female-dominated jobs. Because few students had a spouse or defacto who was employed, a similar analysis, using spousal employment as an independent variable, was not conducted.

When investigation into salary was examined, it was found that the primary sources consulted by both genders were magazines/newspapers and personal sources. Few students claimed to look to university sources for career information. Men's ratings of their information search were higher than women's, $\underline{M}$ = 4.12 (men) and $\underline{M}$ =

3.56 (women), $\underline{F}(1,198)$ = 4.68, $\underline{p}$ < .03. However, the number of sources of information consulted was not correlated with the ratings of amount of investigation. For example, a student who claimed to use only one source of information might rate his/her degree of investigation to be extensive. Another student who claimed to use all sources of information might give him or herself a low rating on information search.

To further investigate these issues, the number of sources of information were additively combined. The rationale for this procedure was two-fold: (1) that students with more interest in salary would be likely to consult more sources of information; and (2) that, in comparison with a direct rating, demand effects would be less. A median split was then conducted on the information index ($\underline{Md}$ = 2 on a 5 point scale). This variable together with sex was used in a 2 (sex) x 2 (information) ANOVA on salary expectations. The analysis produced a significant interaction between sex and amount of information search indicating that consulting more sources of information had different effects on women than it did on men, $\underline{F}(1,168)$ = 5.68, $\underline{p}$ < .02. These results are depicted in Figure 1. Further analyses conducted for the separate job categories showed a similar pattern of lower salary expectations among women who consulted more information sources. Expectations for marketing management salaries showed a main effect of gender in the nonhypothesized direction, $\underline{M}$ = 3.69 (men) and $\underline{M}$ = 4.25 (women), $\underline{F}(1,168)$ = 5.167, $\underline{p}$ < .03).

FIGURE 1

RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF COMBINED
ENTRY-LEVEL SALARY EXPECTATIONS OF STUDENTS

NUMBER OF INFORMATION
SOURCES
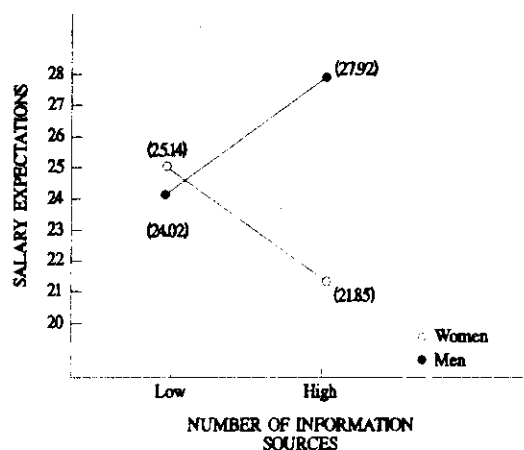
Similarly, there were no gender differences in students' willingness to negotiate for salary and to take a job at a lower-than-expected salary. Both male and female students indicated that they would negotiate and would accept less salary if the job had other attractive aspects. Examination of the criteria for job selection also indicated few differences between male and female marketing students. Both men and women ranked interesting work as the most important criteria for taking a job with salary being the second most important criteria. The only observed gender difference was in the importance ranking of the possibility of promotion which women considered to be more important than men did. Flexible hours and ability to enter and leave the workforce were received the lowest rankings from both men and women. The most frequently cited additional decision criteria for job selection was location (40% of the sample). However, this was a complex response as students often attached different meanings to the word (e.g., rural/urban, area of the country or world, travel time to work, and as an aspect of the work environment).

Feelings of discrimination in the workforce were also examined. The majority of women and men believed that, although there might be some gender discrimination in employment, it was less than in previous years. However, when students were asked specifically about wage discrimination, female students believed that women in general were paid less than men, $F(1,198) = 9.38$, $p < .003$, and that women in management were paid less than men, $F(1,198 = 11.36$, $p < .0009$. Men, on the other hand, did not believe there were any significant salary discrepancies in the current employment market.

CONCLUSIONS

A primary conclusion from this study is that male and female marketing students are similar in their compensation expectations and criteria for employer selection. In this salary was ranked second in importance by both genders; interesting and challenging was ranked first. Male and female students also indicated equal willingness to negotiate for pay. These findings support other studies (e.g., Jackson, Gardner, and Sullivan 1992) that have shown that women and men place value on salary and that it is an important reason for choosing one employer over another.

Amount of information search did differentially influence salary expectations in that women who consulted more sources of information about salaries were more pessimistic about likely future earnings than their less

investigative colleagues. If knowledge closes the gap between expectations and reality, such a finding could explain the "paradox of the happy working woman" who expresses satisfaction with work even though the conditions are inequitable. The one exception to the pattern, in expectations of marketing management salaries, is difficult to explain and does not reflect actual conditions in the workforce. According to the survey described by Gaines (1994), for example, women earn substantially less than men at all levels of marketing and are under-represented in higher management positions. Attempts to explain this anomaly are pure supposition but it may be that female students are less likely to target marketing management positions as a career option and investigate these positions less. Thus, they may peg their salary expectations on what they believe male managers earn. They might also suppose, given the gender ratio in marketing management, that a woman has successfully cracked the glass ceiling in obtaining such a position and would not face salary discrimination.

The results of the study has several implications for marketing faculty. The first has to do with the responsibility to share information about marketing positions with students. The study suggests that marketing faculty should not depend entirely upon college placement/counseling services to provide student job information. Very few students cited university counseling and placement services as a source of information about jobs. It could be that these services are not well known or thought to be ineffective information sources by students. If so, the implication is that attention needs to be given to improving career counseling on university campuses and marketing faculty have a general role doing this.

Marketing faculty could also assume a direct role in improving student awareness of employment conditions through including discussion of these issues in their marketing classes. Incorporation of current career-related information in marketing classes could help all students become better aware of workforce conditions and better able to make academic decisions related to future work. Avenues to providing career information might include mini-lectures delivered by the professor, invited guest speakers from industry (which should include successful women), or through a career exploration assignment. For example, students might be asked to choose a career area of interest to them (e.g., advertising) and explore the parameters of that area through library and other sources. These parameters might include specific career paths, expected preparation, job availability, promotion tracks,

and average salaries and salary progressions. An additional benefit of such a project would be to increase student knowledge of job information sources. Mini-job fairs offered by colleges or departments might also be an avenue to disseminate information. Internships, which provide experiential knowledge, be should encouraged among female, as well as male students.

Some limitations to the study need to be cited. First, willingness to negotiate and actual negotiation are different. Varying skill levels and differing acceptance of negotiation behaviors of men and women also influence the effectiveness of pay bargaining. These factors were not addressed here. Second, consulting a large number of sources (possibly in a cursory manor) is not equivalent to obtaining accurate or in-depth information, which could be obtained from one source. The robustness of student information about marketing positions and salaries was not directly tested in this study. Third, the salary categories used in the study increased at $5000 increments. It may be that there are differences in expectations but that they are smaller than this amount. These issues should be investigated in future research.

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ADD AN INFLUENCING EXPERIENCE TO YOUR GRADUATE MARKETING COURSE: A RECOMMENDATION BASED ON FIVE YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

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ABSTRACT

This paper argues that an experiential exercise in influencing strengthens the introductory Graduate Marketing course in important ways: students learn Marketing more thoroughly because they *practice* it in addition to learning *about* it and sometimes they accomplish a mutually beneficial exchange. A classroom-tested set of suggestions for the influencing experience is presented, including an outline for the student report.

INTRODUCTION

"Influencing" is defined as changing another person's actions without using force or authority. Synonyms for influencing include: persuading, motivating, selling, convincing, winning over. To influence someone, you have to convince the other party that accepting your proposal will help him (her) to satisfy his (her) needs.

Influencing plays a major role in business: in selling to customers, managing subordinates, gaining support from superiors and in advancing one's career. It seems reasonable to suggest that business schools should help students to develop their influencing skills. The question is whether the introductory Graduate Marketing course is a proper home for an influencing experience. The answer proposed in this paper is positive, as follows:

1. When students perform the influencing experience they actually *practice* the Marketing Concept of seeking to achieve their goals by helping others to achieve theirs by engaging in a mutually beneficial exchange. If we subscribe to the idea that experience is a good teacher, it would seem reasonable to supplement traditional teaching methods with some experience.

2. Students have applied the methodology described in this paper to a variety of situations, many of them job related. Examples include: asking for a raise or a promotion, securing the cooperation of a peer for some important activity, motivating a subordinate to improve his or her performance, closing a sale, securing a new customer. Consequently, students appreciate this experience and this improves their evaluation of the course. It may be worth noting that even professional sales representatives with several years of experience have reported that the discipline imposed by the method presented in this paper has improved their performance.

The following discussion of influencing is based on the author's experiences and observations, as well as published sources: Boyen (1989) and Russell (1982). This material may be used as the basis of a lecture or as a handout or as a combination of lecture material and a handout.

1. DETERMINE WHOM TO INFLUENCE

Determine exactly what you need from the people you will influence. To explore your needs, list all your objectives and rank them. For your Top Rank Objective (TRO), discover your SWATs (Strengths, Weaknesses, Auspicious Conditions and Threats):

Strengths = your attributes that are helpful to achieving your TRO.

Weaknesses = your attributes that are harmful to achieving your TRO.

Auspicious Conditions = outside conditions helpful to achieving your TRO.

Threats = outside conditions harmful to achieving your TRO.

Identify the people who can best help you to achieve your TRO, in view of your SWATs. Think of these people as your clients.

2. WHAT ARE THE NEEDS OF YOUR CLIENTS?

Figure out the needs of your clients (the persons you will influence). You will be able to explore the needs of your clients when you meet, but thorough preparation increases your success rate. Evaluate the objectives and strategies of your clients:

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a) What are your clients' objectives?

b) What are their SWATs? (their Weaknesses and Threats are your Auspicious Conditions.)

c) Considering your clients' SWATs, will they be able to accept your offer? Do they have the resources needed? If the answer is "yes," continue. If the answer is "no," identify better clients and repeat the process.

d) How can you help your clients to:

(1) Stop their Weaknesses?

(2) Defend against their Threats?

(3) Exploit their Auspicious Conditions?

e) Anticipate risks your clients may see in your offer and modify your offer to avoid these risks. Examples of risks your clients may perceive include:

Perform the first two steps very carefully to avoid making a time consuming influencing effort, only to discover later that the effort should have been directed at someone else, with a different offer. The term "offer" is used on the assumption that any time you use influencing (as opposed to demanding) you present an offer to the client (person to be influenced) and if the offer is accepted an exchange of money and/or goods and services will occur and objectives of both parties will be achieved.

3. HUMAN BEHAVIOR CONCEPTS

Keep these human motivators in mind when you develop your offer:

• People want to *increase*: income, security and esteem and to *decrease* expenses, costs and risks.

• Even more strongly, people want to *avoid*: monetary loss, fear, anxiety, criticism and ridicule and to avoid increases in expenses and costs.

Also, expect these two common obstacles:

• Most people *are unwilling to change* their thinking and their behavior. They resist (and even reject) constructive recommendations that may help them to achieve their goals or to avoid problems.

• Most people *distrust strangers*. If you approach clients who do not know you, don't take it personally if they try to avoid you. It's human nature.

4. ESTABLISH YOUR CREDIBILITY

Two components of credibility are good intentions and character. All of us are struggling to make our way in the world, so that no one expects you to be a complete altruist. But there must be no question about the sincerity of your offer.

Competence and pleasing personality are other components of credibility. You should always be working to increase your competence through study and practice and as for personality, networking and formal evaluations will help you to determine whether you need to change.

An effective strategy for building credibility is to become a source of helpful information for your client. In time, your client will think of you as a friend and advisor and will also tend to feel indebted to you. This will help you when you influence your client.

Other useful tactics, perhaps obvious, are to always be friendly, never combative or grouchy and to buy lunch once in a while.

5. PREPARE FOR INFLUENCING

Plan your opening statement, plan answers to negative responses, engage in role-play and engage in imagery. If your offer is fairly complex, it may also be a good idea to plan a formal presentation.

Plan Your Opener. The opening statement should suggest the benefit that the client will obtain by accepting your offer. The opener should also include supporting information to make the benefit credible. The best supporting information is a disclosure of goal-satisfying results that have been obtained by people or organizations, that are similar to your client. *Quantify the benefit that your offer will deliver.* An example might be: "Ms. Smith, I would like to show you an idea for a 20% cost reduction obtainable with a new process. Mr. Jones at XYZ Company is already benefiting from this new process. Your company, should also be able to obtain these benefits because your company is similar in many ways to the XYZ Company."

If your offer is so novel that comparable experience has not yet been recorded, an alternative is to cite a unique feature of the offer that supports the claimed benefit, for example: "Ms. Smith, I would like to show you an idea for a 20% cost reduction obtainable with a new process. This process is so successful because it uses a patented alloy that allows a 40% reduction in processing time."

Plan Answers to Negative Responses. What if your client expresses disbelief or tries to cut your visit short or tries to shuffle you off to a subordinate? Anticipate all the reasonable possibilities and prepare your reactions as follows:

Client expresses disbelief. Your correct response is to probe by asking "Why do you say that?" This gives the client a chance to clarify whether the disbelief applies to the claimed benefit or to the supporting evidence. It may also turn out that the client did not hear you properly or misunderstood what you said. The feed-back you receive will help you to clear up misunderstandings or to offer additional proofs to support your claims.

Client tries to cut the visit short. Ask for an appointment at a better time. Offer the client two choices, for example, this afternoon at 1 p.m., or tomorrow at 10 a.m.

Client tries to shuffle you off to a subordinate. Ask whether the subordinate has authority to make a commitment on his (her) own. If the answer is yes, accept. If the answer is no (which is the more likely situation) point out that the potential benefits from your offer will be delayed without any corresponding gain.

Role-Playing consists of practicing your influencing effort with an associate before doing it in the real world. You have to prepare your role-playing partner by telling him or her how tough you want the responses to be. The more you role-play, the more confident you will be when you do it in reality.

Imagery. Imagine yourself in the influencing situation. You enter the client's place of business, deliver your opener, respond successfully to objections, probe for needs, attempt the conditional close, give your presentation and ask the client to accept your offer. You hear objections, reformulate your offer and again ask for the order. (See the sections that follow for details.)

As you imagine the situation many times, trying different approaches to different obstacles, always with a successful conclusion, you gain familiarity with the entire process and build up your confidence and thereby increase your probability of success at the real influencing encounter.

A Formal Presentation should be prepared if your offer is complicated. Your offer may be accepted immediately, but if your client needs, or expects a presentation, you should be ready. The purpose is demonstrate the benefits in convincing detail and to explain how the benefits are realized. Diagrams, tables, charts, and videotapes make a presentation more interesting and understandable.

6. PRESENT YOUR OPENER

You have prepared thoroughly and now you are face-to-face with your client. Previous research may have revealed possibilities of establishing rapport by citing some common bond (same school, town, avocation, etc.) or recognizing a significant accomplishment of the client. The advantage of trying for rapport is that it may result in a favorable predisposition toward your offer. Next, make your opening statement: introduce the benefits others have experienced, in similar situations by accepting offers like yours.

7. GET THE CONDITIONAL "YES"

After your opening statement, let your client's response guide your next steps. The client might agree to your offer, in which case you should document the acceptance in some appropriate fashion, express thanks and take your leave. Alternately, the client may show interest but express doubts as to whether the offer you described actually fits their needs. In that case, ask the client to tell you about their needs. Listen for a need to which your offer will be a magnificent response. Ask questions, probe and paraphrase.

For example, let's say the client is your boss' boss and she expresses concern with costly delays in completing certain types of projects and your planned offer is to reorganize the department with you in charge of a major section. Your goal at this point is to get the client to start saying "Yes" to your suggestions. That will make it easier for her to say "Yes" when you present your offer and "ask for the order." Your paraphrase would then be: "In other words, you are considering the possibility of changing the organization if that would lead to cutting out the delays."

As long as your paraphrase has a conditional tone (the "if" in the middle), it should not be difficult for your client to agree with your paraphrase.

If the client does not appear to be responsive, you are not addressing an important need. Try moving upward on his (her) hierarchy of objectives by asking "Why is that important to you?" Keep probing until you feel you have a good understanding of your client's objectives hierarchy. Compare these objectives with your offer. When you feel that you have a good fit between the client's needs and your offer, try the conditional close: "If I could show a

way of satisfying your objectives, would you be interested?" This is another way getting to "Yes." Of course, the better your preparation, the quicker and more certain will be your voyage to "Yes."

8. MAKE THE ACTUAL OFFER

Make the offer, show that your offer will satisfy the client's needs and ask the client to accept it. If the client says "Yes," express your thanks, complete any paperwork that might be necessary, say "Good-bye," and leave. Do not feel compelled to do or say anything else, regardless of how fine a presentation you have or what excellent stories you might tell. If, on the other hand, the client declines to say "Yes," go on to the next step.

9. DEAL WITH OBJECTIONS

If the client declines, one reason could be that they do not understand the offer well enough to appreciate its value to them. Encourage them to ask questions that may enable you to clarify the issues. Another possibility is that you have not responded to his (her) objectives. Go back to discovering needs and ever higher level objectives in the client's hierarchy of objectives and strategies. Listen carefully. When you feel that you have enough new information to try to ask for the order, present your offer, modified so that it responds to the newly discovered objectives and go for the close.

10. APPEAL TO EMOTIONS

If the client still declines, try some of the following tactics: report testimonials from satisfied clients and then try to close; describe the goal achievement your client will experience by accepting your offer and then try to close; refer to respected people or organizations that do what you recommend and are obtaining good results; stir up fears by pointing out what may happen: rising costs, missed deadlines, lost sales, lost customers, if your offer is not accepted. Then try to close.

If nothing works, say "Thank you" and "Good-bye" and leave. Then try again another time and/or find a better client.

OUTLINE OF AN INFLUENCING EXPERIENCE

I. Evaluate your objectives and SWATs.
    A. What do you need that you might reasonably get from other people?

II. Prepare a list of your clients - the people you influence or try to influence.
    A. What can they give you?
    B. What do you offer them?
III. Select a client from Step II. Evaluate objectives and SWATs of this client.
IV. Prepare for an influencing encounter with this client.
V. Conduct the influencing encounter.
VI. Prepare a report on the entire influencing experience, covering these topics:
    A. Your objectives and SWATs.
    B. List of clients, as defined above.
    C. Objectives and SWATs of one client selected from the list.
    D. How you established and maintain credibility with this client.
    E. How you prepared for the influencing encounter.
    F. What happened at the influencing encounter? Were there any surprises?
    G. The three most important things you learned from this exercise.
    H. Plans for future influencing encounters.

CONDUCTING THE INFLUENCING EXPERIENCE

In Graduate Marketing courses at Pace University, the author has assigned the material presented in this paper as homework. Students read the suggested approach, performed the required steps and brought in their written reports on the assigned date. In small classes (12 to 15 students), it was possible to have all students give oral presentations of their experiences to the entire class and to have a brief discussion of each report. In larger classes (16 to 25 students), the class was organized into groups of four and students gave simultaneous presentations to their groups. Then, volunteers from each group gave their reports a second time to the entire class. A strong majority of the students found the influencing experience useful and encouraged the instructor to continue to assign it.

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SPREADSHEET ANALYSIS IN CASE TEACHING

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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the usefulness of spreadsheet analysis in case teaching. Considerable emphasis is placed on discussing why the match between marketing cases and spreadsheet analysis makes good pedagogic sense. Issues related to how spreadsheet applications can be applied to case teaching are similarly explored. The authors identify certain limitations encountered in traditional case teaching and argue that spreadsheet analysis can offer considerable help in overcoming these problems. Thus, spreadsheet applications are conceived as an important means to improving case teaching rather than an end in themselves.

INTRODUCTION

The integration of microcomputers into the marketing curriculum is proceeding along several avenues. In a survey of AACSB-accredited colleges and universities, Kurtz and Boone (1987) found that microcomputer applications had made deepest inroads into marketing research courses, followed by principles of marketing courses and courses labeled "cases and marketing." Additionally, software requirements apparently mirror these usage patterns with respondents indicating high levels of usage with statistical packages, spreadsheets and marketing simulations. However, the usage of spreadsheet analysis in an absolute sense remains relatively low. In a subsequent survey of AACSB-accredited business schools, McNeely and Berman (1988) found that some microcomputer applications were used in about 19 percent of all undergraduate and graduate marketing sections. Further, over 50 percent of the responding schools reported that they did not use microcomputer-based exercises in their marketing courses at all. In examining student perceptions on the integration of microcomputer technology into business schools, Saltzman (1990) uncovered a large similarity across majors for mainframe and PC usage, but that marketing majors in particular had the lowest (38%) reported usage of spreadsheet software.

This paper draws attention to how spreadsheet analysis can be usefully applied to *case method teaching*, and perhaps more importantly, considers why the combination make good pedagogical sense. Much of the literature in this area is either anecdotal in its approach, relating successful computer applications in specific marketing courses (Ganesh 1987) (Gentry, Jackson and Morgan 1988), or descriptive, summarizing adoption and usage patterns (Kurtz and Boone 1987) (McNeely and Berman 1988) (Rogers, Williams and McLeod 1990). Less reflection is evident on broader issues of pedagogic philosophy and effectiveness.

CASES AND SPREADSHEET APPLICATIONS

Although not the most popular microcomputer application in the marketing curriculum, the use of spreadsheet applications in case analysis is well established. There are several reasons for this. Winer (1989) observes that cases afford a realistic occasion for computer usage, as opposed to certain simulations and specialized exercises. In a survey of business, Rogers, Williams and McLeod (1990) argue that universities should offer not only training in basic computer tools and applications such as spreadsheets, but should also use casework in the higher level marketing courses to help students synthesize their knowledge and apply the basic tools and applications they have learned. This is a logical response to the increasing proliferation of microcomputer usage in the marketing departments of *business*.

Marketing educators (Dodds 1989) (Wilson and Grunenwald 1989) have also commented on the effectiveness of using spreadsheet analysis with cases fostering a more inter-functional approach to marketing. Cases typically are rich with data, and students doing spreadsheet analysis find that they must apply concepts and techniques from accounting, finance, economics, and information management to their "marketing problem." Concern for inter-functional business has of course been

expressed by the AACSB (Porter and McKibbin 1988), and marketing managers in general have been criticized as being unsophisticated in their understanding of the financial dimensions of marketing decisions (Webster 1981).

Reports on spreadsheet applications in case teaching point out that cases dramatically demonstrate the power of this software tool. Among the benefits cited are relief from the drudgery of repetitive calculations, the ability to organize, reduce and present data in dramatic and vivid ways, and the analytic freedom to vary the assumptions upon which many decisions and recommendations depend (Dodds 1989) (Ganesh 1989). Barnes and Smith (1992) view the issue from the other side, arguing that spreadsheets can be effective tools in standardizing and facilitating the case *evaluation* process undertaken by educators when grading students' case writeups.

A QUESTION OF WHY

The gradual adoption of spreadsheet applications into our case teaching stemmed less from the desire to impress upon students the power and versatility of this software tool than from an effort to overcome some of the obstacles faced in teaching case method. The case method is employed in courses for both undergraduate and graduate students. Typically, these are advanced marketing management courses, offered to students who have fulfilled certain marketing prerequisites.

Cases are especially appropriate for students at this level. The best cases offer students a sense of what it is like dealing with problems and issues that confront managers on a regular basis. Thus, the intention in using this approach is to focus the attention of marketing students more on the *marketing management process* and less on the principles or basic concepts of marketing. Further, the decision focus of many cases encourages students to turn their insights and analyses into specific recommendations and plans of action. Emphasis on class discussion similarly places a premium on active participation in the learning process and the development of strong communication skills.

The Problem: Gaps in Preparation

The instructor must be flexible and thoroughly prepared to teach a case. But this is not enough.

The success or failure of case method depends in large measure upon the quality of preparation done by the students. There is little the instructor can or, for that matter, should do to compensate for a group of ill-prepared students.

There are several measures available to instructors to insure adequate preparation on the part of the students. These range from setting clear expectations to heavily weighting the class participation component of student grades to meting out appropriate rewards and punishments. While on balance, most students are conscientious and well-intentioned in case preparation, their analyses are typically deficient in one important respect: *they largely neglect any substantial economic and mathematical quantitative analysis.* Though frequently insightful and wide-ranging in discussing important aspects of a marketing case, students often stall in deepening these contributions with much analytic rigor. There are at least three arguments that lend some credence to this hypothesis.

First, "running the numbers" is seldom a straightforward task. Quantitative analysis requires a lot of hard sifting and much of the typical yield can be rather unproductive. Second, it is important to note that even when quantitative analysis proceeds productively, it is frequently a laborious, repetitive and time-consuming task. Third, any one piece of mathematical or economic analysis a student does in connection with a case study proves of limited use. Often students must see several calculations or points of reference before some true perspective on the case develops.

The Solution: Spreadsheet Analysis

Spreadsheet analysis offers some important ways to both improve the benefits and decrease the costs students associate with quantitative case work. The speed and scope of analysis with spreadsheets not only offer relief from the otherwise mind-numbing drudgery that attends calculations done by hand or by hand-held calculator, but also encourages playful exploration of data that frequently yields important insights. There is little penalty in time lost for pursuing the wrong leads, and of course there are many features and options that encourage the relaxation or alteration of restrictive or ill-advised assumptions. These features of spreadsheet programs are well known. Indeed, the purpose of this paper is not to discuss the capacities of

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spreadsheets, but rather to argue that they are invaluable tools that can be enlisted in accomplishing some important pedagogic objectives connected with case teaching.

To summarize, there is a certain synergy arising from combining cases and spreadsheets. On one hand, the requirements of case analysis powerfully showcases the capabilities of current spreadsheet applications. The benefits of computer use are made vivid and realistic when applied to case analysis. On the other hand, case method joined with spreadsheet analysis should ultimately foster an appropriate view of the computer as a tool -- *as a means to an end.* Although others have advocated that cases can be used as a vehicle for teaching microcomputer skills, this would be a misplacement of priorities -- at least in the marketing curriculum.

IMPLEMENTING SPREADSHEET ANALYSIS IN CASE TEACHING

Although spreadsheet analysis is a powerful complement to case teaching, there are practical problems that hamper the effective integration of the two. Such obstacles include: (1) uneven student access to computers and software, (2) wide variations in spreadsheet software abilities, and (3) selective preferences that students have for hardware, operating systems and spreadsheet products. In all this, it is easy to lose perspective and fail to appreciate the role of spreadsheet analysis as a means to an end and not the end in itself.

Nevertheless, the personal computer is being integrated into the curriculum of business schools and the work patterns of students. As this happens, these obstacles are being overcome. In some cases, technology itself offers solutions to the problems it originally engendered. The advent of networked computer labs, laptop or notebook computers and projection systems mean the actual use of the PC in the classroom need not be a heroic effort. Further, the increasing proliferation of multimedia applications and CD-ROM technology only serves to enhance the quality and creativity of in-class presentations.

Computer-aided instruction and other self-paced tutorials are readily available and capable of relieving instructors from the need to cover mundane matters as hardware and software operation. Computer applications to case teaching are similarly facilitated by publishers who now routinely provide case data in CD-ROM format with multiple hardware and software configurations.

Case-Oriented Templates

While having case data spreadsheet-ready is enormously helpful, students frequently need a further nudge in the direction of quantitative analysis. We provide this by constructing basic templates for individual cases that outline the structure for various analytic procedures. Just as written discussion questions are frequently given to students to guide or assist their case preparation, so too are the templates distributed as basic study tools.

For some. this approach may seem too directive. Experience shows, however, that by providing the structure for analysis in the form of a *template*, students still have many substantive issues to handle. The template points to considerations and connections, but requires students to make them explicit. Instructors can, in fashioning templates, determine precisely how much direction to provide to students. Dummy tables with fairly detailed labels are often utilized, but leave to students the determination of the values and formulae necessary for completion.

Instructors pressed for preparation time or with limited experience in teaching certain cases or even with rudimentary spreadsheet skills are not precluded from creating and using spreadsheets in the manner described here. Teaching notes and instructor's manuals often provide the necessary resources for relatively quick and easy template preparation. The quantitative analysis frequently provided by the case authors in these teaching notes is an invaluable aid in understanding the dynamics of a case. But since students achieve this level of analysis only rarely, the instructor is left with the choice of either neglecting this dimension of the case or introducing the material him- or herself -- both largely unacceptable alternatives since they effectively relieve the student of any obligation to do the analysis. Templates offer a middle ground; they make clear the instructor's expectation that the student will do the analysis and then also allow the instructor to provide the tools necessary to actually do it.

Increasingly, cases now being published include diskettes that hold exhibits, charts, and tables in spreadsheet format. In some cases, actual templates are provided by authors or publishers. There are also

a few cases now available in CD-ROM format in which the case is supported by pre-loaded data in spreadsheet format, and the text is vividly supplemented by video and audio clips.

The Payoff: Better Discussions

By coupling this type of spreadsheet analysis with case method teaching, classroom discussions are both better focused and deeper. Prior to using this approach, quantitative-oriented discussions were frequently difficult to manage. Students who had not done the analysis would naturally have trouble following the discussion, while others who had done the analysis would likely find within the class a considerable degree of variance in both how the problem was structured and the rigor with which it was pursued. By incorporating spreadsheet analysis, class discussions are brought back to the inferential, decision-making orientation fundamental to the case study method and marketing management.

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MARKETING EDUCATION IN A LIBERAL ARTS SETTING: A PRACTICAL APPROACH USING EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

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ABSTRACT

Marketing educators have an arsenal of instructional techniques available to aid student learning. The traditional format of the university lecture can be augmented or replaced by a combination of pedagogical tools such as guest speakers, videotapes, marketing films, field trips, computer-based cases and projects. Experiential learning is recognized as an effective means of exposing students to real-life problem solving. Research has shown that experiential learning is utilized in a variety of college marketing courses.

Although experiential learning techniques are widely used and an extensive body of literature exists concerning the use of group class projects, research is limited in terms of inter-university comparative studies. Little work has focused on the environment that is conducive to maximizing the effectiveness of experiential learning. Few studies have examined the issue of department size and the effect that it has on the ability to undertake live-case projects. This paper discusses limitations associated with using experiential projects in the marketing program at a small liberal arts university. Examples are cited of successful projects and suggestions offered to overcome limitations inherent in a small business program.

The definition of "small" or "large" has no common standard in the research. A number of studies have explored the interrelationships between factors such as research productivity and faculty size, presence of a graduate program and number of graduates. The little work done in terms of size, does not directly relate to marketing programs but indicates that differences do seem to exist between various large and small sized university programs. These findings may be extrapolated to the situation found within marketing departments.

Although a small institution may be more teaching oriented and thus a suitable environment for client-based projects, numerous obstacles must be overcome to implement such pedagogical methods on an ongoing basis. It has been pointed out in the literature that

professorial administrative workload tends to decrease as the size of the department increases. The implications are that an instructor in a small sized marketing program will have less time to spend on teaching and research activities and will experience time limitations when implementing live-case projects.

Resource constraints such as limited staffing contingents, lack of graduate students, and, financial constraints can all impinge upon the ability to offer experiential learning. A supportive Dean can assist in delivering such pedagogical methods, but if they come from outside the business area, as often occurs in small institutions, they may not assign sufficient resources to allow for such projects. In addition, the geographical location of the institution may work against it. An isolated community may result in a smaller base of clients from which to draw. Local businesses may also be relatively small in size. Research has pointed out that the degree of cooperation increases along with the size of the organization.

Due to problems associated with offering a marketing program in a small post secondary institution, extra effort must be expended to nurture successful experiential projects. The instructor must be committed to the pedagogy in order for it to succeed. As a result, leadership and support are needed from both the instructor, Dean, and/or department. The department should recognize the extra efforts of the instructor, understanding the benefits that accrue to the university as a whole. Coordination with other faculty members is important. With a finite pool of clients to draw from, the small department needs to discuss pedagogy amongst courses. Experiential projects cannot be attempted in all courses. Not only is the instructor restricted in terms of time commitments, but the base of potential clients will quickly erode.

Both environmental effects and the large versus small department dichotomy are two areas needing further research in marketing education.

THE RESEARCH PAPER IN THE PRINCIPLES OF MARKETING COURSE

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes techniques, adapted from the "Writing across the Disciplines" movement, by which students in the basic marketing course are required to revise the standard research paper before handing it in for grading.

IMPROVING STUDENT WRITING

Teaching students to revise their writing is a task that most professors today have abandoned. Two techniques that I have used for several years in the Principles of Marketing course are, first, to break the standard research project into two papers with two separate due dates, then to require the students to review each other's drafts before turning in a revised version for grading. I learned the techniques in a "Writing across the Disciplines" workshop and have used them successfully in sections as large as 160 students. The students are apprehensive at first but declare the effort well worth it after the second "peer review" session.

"Writing across the Disciplines" is a movement of English professors who have organized workshops to encourage their colleagues in other disciplines to teach writing skills as an integral part of all courses (Emig 1977) (Odell 1980) (Herrington 1981). Their premise is that writing is a learning process as important, if not more important than, reading, listening, and talking. As an expression of our thinking, writing draws together in coherent, organized form what we have read, heard, and discussed. Teaching such a skill, say these professors, must not and cannot be left to the English teachers alone; we all share the responsibility of developing in our students the ability to write. (See Zinsser 1988 for his view on the subject of "writing to learn.")

The purpose of the workshops is to motivate faculty to find ways to teach writing without succumbing to the onerous feeling that the grading of writing seems to evoke in many of us. Thus, workshop leaders provide tips and techniques by which to teach writing effectively, even in the least likely of courses, such as mathematics and finance. Two of these techniques are what I adapted to the Principles of Marketing research paper.

Breaking the assignment into two parts both distributes the time required for grading and increases student learning. Breaking the paper into two parts enables students to better distribute their own energies throughout the term—instead of concentrating (or cramming) them into the last week—and to focus more directly on the portion of the paper that is immediately due. Further, returning the first graded paper in a timely manner enables students to learn from their mistakes before they have to write the draft of the second paper.

The draft–and–peer–review technique accomplishes several objectives. One is that it requires students to revise something that they have previously written. A second is that it enables students to get feedback from someone other than the instructor—the drafts are not collected or graded, thus making the peer review sessions an ungraded exercise. It also enables students to read what fellow students have written, which often is illuminating to novice writers. Finally, it leads to better overall papers than would otherwise occur under the cram and spit approach and a more pleasant reading session for the instructor.

Now let me explain the details of these two techniques. Under the subheading "Required Papers," a portion of my Principles of Marketing syllabus reads as follows:

> Two two–page papers plus endnotes (typed, double–spaced) are required for this course. Each paper will go through draft and revision stages. (Actually, you should think of these as one paper, broken into two parts.)

> These are descriptive papers—essentially exercises in library research, although you may support the research with interviews and other information collected from business people. Your assignment is to select a specific product, company, or industry, such as the Macintosh computer, the Los Angeles Dodgers, or subcompact cars, etc., then describe the marketing strategy practiced today by the marketers of your selected product, company, or industry. The assignment is broken into two papers to correspond to the two major functions of marketing: innovation and delivery. Consequently, your first paper should focus on the market definition (or target market), the product strategy, and the pricing strategy of your product, company, or industry. Your second paper should focus on promotion and distribution. Each of these components, incidentally, must be *labeled* as subheadings in your papers;

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in other words, your final copy should look like a business report, rather than a literary essay. The papers are exercises in application—application of the concepts and principles of marketing to the topic or area you have decided to study.

I require at least five published references in the papers, to expand somewhat on the slogan "two references are research, but one is plagiarism." I allow papers to spill over by one–third to one–half of the third page (especially on the first paper, which usually covers more material than the second). Thus, I usually tell the class to think of the papers as a four– to five–page assignment, broken into two parts. (I also limit typefaces to ten points in size and margins to one inch all around.)

Early in the course, when first discussing the assignment, I usually show the students one of my own drafts—well marked up with red ink. As the "Writing across the Disciplines" instructors point out, students often experience revision as punishment, rather than as a natural part of the writing process. This is largely because they tend to think that professional writers somehow always manage to write perfect prose when their fingers first touch the word processing keyboards. Showing students my own false starts and awkward, unclear sentences goes a long way toward reducing their anxiety and encouraging them that revision might actually be fun (or at least possess some value).

The assignment of short papers obviously reduces the grading burden relative to long papers. And, I should point out, these are all *individual*, not group, papers. But on principle I disapprove of assigning long papers to students—fifteen pages and up—because such assignments only increase what English teachers call the "lard" factor; they most assuredly fail to teach good writing. Further, long papers do not simulate real–world business writing, except the bad kind. Managers do not have the time to read dissertations; what they want are the models of concise writing found in the well–known Procter and Gamble one–page memos and the Conference Memos of advertising agencies. As many professional writers have attested, it is more difficult to write a short paper than a long one. Thus, the skill that my students are learning is how to essentialize their thought and data into two readable, highly concise pages. And, indeed, I am amazed at how much detail some of my "A" students can put into two pages.

Exhibit I, "Checklist for Marketing Papers," is also included in my syllabus. I have found over the years that this checklist is a valuable aid to Principles of Marketing students who, coming into the course, know nothing about marketing. Some students even include the checklist questions on their drafts, writing their answers below each question; I do not discourage this at the

draft stage because it does ensure that nothing has been left out. I do tell students to write their final versions using good transitional prose, omitting the questions. The checklist also is a valuable aid in grading the papers. In the organization of the checklist, note that I disagree with the traditional McCarthy/Stanton ordering of the marketing 4Ps; logically, I think it should be as listed, dividing marketing into two main functions: innovation or creation of the product (at a price the consumer can afford and based on market research) and delivery (of both information and product).

Scheduling of the papers is as follows: a one–paragraph, ungraded proposal, including preliminary reference list, is required to be handed in during the fourth week of the quarter. The primary purpose is to ensure that students begin to think about the project. A few students actually give me an extremely concise five-sentence paragraph that describes their product's target market and 4Ps; that is, they have already done most of their research. The draft of Paper I is due during the sixth week of the quarter; this occurs after target marketing, marketing research, and product and pricing strategies have been discussed in class. The revised paper is due one week later. Graded papers are returned during the eighth week. The draft of Paper II is due during the ninth week, after discussion of pricing and distribution have been completed, and the revision is due one week later. Graded second papers are returned at the final exam.

On the day that drafts are due, students choose a partner with whom to exchange drafts. I hand out Exhibit II, "Guide Sheet for Peer Review of First Draft of Papers," which the students complete after reading their partner's draft. (This guide sheet is adapted from one used by history professor Henry Steffens at the University of Vermont; I acquired it at one of the two "Writing across the Disciplines" workshops that I have attended.) I tell the students that the peer review will take about ten to twenty minutes at the beginning of the period—it usually takes thirty minutes, because students discover that it is interesting to read the product of someone else's research, and I often hear questions from one partner to the other like "Where and how did you find that information on pricing?"

For the next week, students revise their papers in accordance with peer comments and, sometimes, their own desire to improve their thoughts on paper. I require the draft, peer review guide sheet, and final version all to be handed in on the day that the papers are due for grading. Some students, for whatever good or bad excuses they come up with, inevitably miss draft day. When that occurs, I give the students a peer review guide sheet and tell them to have someone—preferably a member of the class, but a roommate, friend or relative being acceptable, too—read their

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draft and complete the guide sheet. This is not ideal, but it is expedient, given the problems of the non–residential education that we have today. In any event, I require without exception all students to have their drafts peer reviewed.

When grading, I first check to make sure that the draft and peer review guide sheet are attached, but I mark and grade the final version only. I do glance at the peer's comments, but because suggestions are uneven from student to student, I do not always mark down for failing to follow a peer's advice. Occasionally, however, I cannot resist writing this obnoxious comment on student papers: "You would have gotten a better grade if you had followed your peer reviewer's suggestions!"

This brings me to the quality of suggestions made by peer reviewers. They are uneven, because students are uneven in ability and motivation. Weak students reviewing the drafts of other weak students will not raise a "C" paper to an "A," but they will improve each other's papers. Strong students reviewing each other's papers either make few comments, because the draft is excellently written, or make detailed, almost professional suggestions. The weak student who has a strong peer reviewer, of course, learns the most. Overall, however, I think everyone does learn something, not least of which is that revision is a natural part of the writing process and that it is not as painful as students might have thought it was. By the end of the quarter, students testify that they did learn by having to write drafts and revisions.

One point that the instructors of "Writing across the Disciplines" workshops pointed out about the use of these two techniques—breaking the assignment into components and requiring peer reviews of drafts—is that plagiarism and the use of purchased papers is naturally discouraged. (On the latter, see Sipchen 1989.) This has been my experience, because the assignment does not fit the standard purchased paper and the student must look a peer in the eye on draft day. (Nevertheless, I still occasionally receive a ten–page, obviously purchased paper intended to count for a two–pager!)

I stated earlier that I have used this approach to the Principles of Marketing research paper in sections as large as 160 students. I have done so while hardly missing a beat, although a graduate assistant has been an invaluable aid in managing the details of such a large section. The assistant and I each grade half of the papers—eighty twice a quarter. Their brevity is what minimizes the grading burden, while the benefits of peer review and revision are maintained for the students.

One additional technique learned in "Writing across the Disciplines" workshops that I have used in the past is the personal conference. During the third or fourth week of the quarter, I have required all students to meet with me for five to ten minutes in my office to discuss their proposals. The benefits of this are many, not least of which is that the students and I get to meet one on one. In addition, I can clarify the students' thinking and direct their research, sometimes saving them much grief from spinning wheels over a misconceived project. I have not always used this technique because it is time consuming, requiring about seven hours of appointments per forty–student class outside of class time. (I do not cancel classes in order to substitute appointments.) The experience nevertheless is extremely rewarding, and I think it encourages students, who otherwise would not do so, to come back later in the term during office hours to ask questions and sometimes just to talk.

It is my hope that this description of how I have adapted "Writing across the Disciplines" techniques to the research project in the Principles of Marketing course will encourage other marketing faculty to explore creative methods of teaching writing. As Herrington (1981, p. 387) puts it: "No matter what our discipline, we should be using writing in our courses, as one student commented, 'not for writing improvement, but for focus on course material.' Writing has an integral role to play in any course as a medium for learning and for teaching how to learn. For these goals to be realized, we as teachers must first believe in the value of writing as a discovery process and be willing to commit our efforts to teach this process to our students."

Exhibit I

Checklist for Marketing Papers

I. First Paper:

   A. Target Market
     1. What is the size of your market (and of the total market you compete in)?
     2. Who is the competition of your product? What market share does each hold?
     3. What legal and other environmental variables affect your product?
     4. What demographic and psychographic variables describe your product's typical customer? I.e., who is your target market? Why do they buy your product?

B. Product strategy
   1. How would you classify your product? Why?
   2. What are your product's primary features and benefits?
   3. What stage of the product life cycle is your product in? Why?
   4. What branding (national or private, family or individual) and packaging strategies does your product exhibit?

C. Pricing strategy
   1. What pricing objectives are relevant to your product?
   2. What method of pricing is used by your company to set an approximate price?
   3. What pricing tactics and final adjustments are made to the price of your product? Give examples of actual prices.

II. Second Paper

   A. Promotion strategy
      1. Which of the four methods of promotion is used most heavily by your product? How is it used?
      2. What positioning theme or unique selling message is communicated by the promotion strategy of your product?
      3. How is this theme executed? For example, what are the ads like and which media are used? Or, if personal selling is the primary method of promotion, how large is the sales force and how is it structured?
      4. How are the other methods of promotion used to support the major method?

   B. Distribution strategy
      1. Is your product distributed through middle-men? If so, what kind and how many in a given area? Name some of the middlemen, also. That is, how long and how broad is the channel system?
      2. What kind of target market exposure is practiced?
      3. How is physical distribution used to move the product from producer to consumer? If the transportation function, for example, is extremely important, which mode of transport is used? And why?

III. Both Papers – does each paper have at least five published references?

Exhibit II

Guide Sheet for Peer Review of First Draft of Papers

Please fill out this sheet completely. Be as helpful as you possibly can. (Use the back of this sheet, if needed.)

1. List the points in the draft that interested you the most.

2. List the points about which you would like more information, or that you would like to know more about.

3. Write down your suggestions for better development of the topic, or for better organization.

4. Write down your suggestions to the writer for adding more information, or for better use of supporting information.

Please be sure to discuss all these points fully with your classmate. Give this sheet to your classmate, to be turned in with the final version of the paper.

YOUR NAME: _____

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INDUCTIVE PROCEDURES IN BUSINESS EDUCATION: THE MARKETING RESEARCH CLASS

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ABSTRACT

Increasingly, inductive procedures are becoming a part of today's business college curriculum. However, little use has been made of the inductive method in the marketing research class. First, we provide a brief comparison of the deductive and the inductive modes of inquiry. Next, we present a method of using the inductive procedures in the classroom. Finally, we examine the advantages of inductive procedures over the traditional deductive approach in the context of a marketing research class.

INDUCTIVE PROCEDURES IN BUSINESS EDUCATION: THE MARKETING RESEARCH CLASS

Educators and practitioners alike express concern that the emphasis in many college classrooms is on the theoretical and conceptual side of business education, rather than the pragmatic and vocational (Malhotra, Tashchian, and Jain 1989; Barnes and Byrne (1990). Similarly, others believe that the attention given to testing and proving abstract theoretical paradigms does little to provide students with the competitive leverage they will need in an increasingly volatile job market (e.g., Behrman and Levin 1984). In a corresponding manner, Ramocki (1994) argues that educators should place more emphasis on teaching creativity in the classroom.

Accordingly, many conventional business colleges have begun to shift attention away from the philosophical and scientific nature of business thought and toward application-centered learning (e.g., Parasuraman and Wright 1983). Methods facilitating such learning are essentially experiential, and include the live case, the project method approach (PMA), and narrative modes such as in-depth interviewing and analysis of business encounters (Malhotra, Tashchian, and Jain 1989).

Approaches to experiential and application-centered learning entail a shift in educational methods from deduction or logic-driven reasoning to a process of inference drawn from "real-world" data. This method of implying meaning from a set of raw data has been called the "inductive procedure" (Hunt 1991). The procedure provides categorization by analysis of a specific set of data (Hunt 1991), allowing students to inductively group cases based on their own assessment of similarities among a large number of cases.

We propose that the inductive procedure provides advantages over deductive methods in the pursuit of teaching objectives. Because of the emphasis placed on inference-drawing by the students, this method adds a critical dimension – the ability to make decisions in an uncertain environment with limited information. The method also addresses the need for students to develop the salient characteristics related to creativity (e.g., tolerance for ambiguity, willingness to persevere and grow, risk taking, and courage of conviction (Ramocki 1994)). While the inductive method offers advantages to the student to foster creative skills, deductive methods such as exploratory data analysis will continue to have a place in the pedagogy of statistical applications.

To understand the inductive procedure and its application in the marketing research class, we must first understand how this method differs from the more traditional deductive approach. Because both deduction and induction represent inquiring *modes*, or paths to knowledge (Churchman 1961, 1968), we will first examine the deductive inquiry process, and then the inductive. We follow this discussion with a presentation of our method for the classroom.

DEDUCTIVE MODES OF INQUIRY

Inquiry is the process of selecting among choices in the pursuit of a goal or objective (Churchman 1961; Ackoff and Emery 1972). Deductive inquiry is best illustrated by prevalent inquiry modes that rely upon the development and testing of *a priori* premises and hypotheses. Two such modes are Leibnitzian and Hegelian inquiry.

Leibnitzian.

Developed from the deductive philosophy advanced by the German mathematician Leibnitz, this mode maintains that events can only be assessed through a process of pure reason and deduction (Mokwa and Evans 1982; Mitroff and Kilmann (1978). Leibnitz held that assessment requires a premise, which is reasoned through to a logical conclusion. This mode is centered on theory development: once theoretical hypotheses are developed, they are validated or denied through testing (Churchman 1961). The efficacy of the mode lies in its ability to determine how well the hypothesis is specified (i.e., how well the hypothesis holds under validation/falsification tests) (Mason and Mitroff 1973). Because the testable strength or accuracy of a premise drives this mode of inquiry, empirical observation is not germane.

Hegelian.

The German philosopher Hegel maintained that the understanding of events is best achieved through simultaneous evaluation of opposing (i.e., dialectical) hypotheses or models (Mason 1969). Theories or models that are in conflict (i.e., antithetical) may be tested to determine the "one best" model that fits a given set of data.

These two deductive philosophies contain three common elements: (1) in both cases, an original premise, theory, or model replaces empirical observation; (2) there is one "best" model or explanation that fits the available data, and (3) confirmation or disconfirmation through testing is required to find that model.

INDUCTIVE MODES OF INQUIRY

Unlike deductive inquiry, induction relies upon investigation into often complex and ambiguous phenomena that may result in several, one, or no explanations of the phenomena. To achieve these explanations, generalized conclusions may be reasoned from facts drawn from empirical observation (Mokwa and Evans 1982). Two important inductive modes are Lockeian and Kantian inquiry.

Lockeian.

The English philosopher Locke reasoned that empirical judgments, or fact nets may be drawn from observation of empirical phenomena (Churchman 1961, 1968). Assessment of fact nets is then achieved through a consensus among experts (i.e., those already familiar with the phenomena in question). Because this method relies upon *agreement* rather than hypothesis testing, several possible explanations may result, none of which may represent the best model. The use of focus groups in qualitative marketing research illustrates this approach.

Kantian.

The Germany philosopher Kant believed that events are best understood by evaluating several different, but complementary *a priori* models (Churchman 1961; Mitroff and Kilmann 1978). In this sense, Kantian inquiry might be thought of as deductive, but the mode also allows the use of alternative models to examine fact nets *post hoc*, making it inductive. Like Hegelian inquiry, the Kantian mode relies on *synthesis* among different viewpoints. However, this synthesis may be achieved inductively rather than deductively, because it is driven by *consensus*, rather than by forcing a deductive conclusion from antithetical explanations of the same event.

COMPARISON OF INDUCTIVE AND DEDUCTIVE MODES

Inductive processes therefore differ from deduction in several key areas: (1) they rely upon observation of empirical events rather than the development of premises *a priori*; (2) they allow for the development of different explanations of the same event, rather than attempting to "prove" the superiority of a single model; (3) they rely upon a consensus among observers of the event, in hope of better *understanding* the event, rather than attempting to justify a particular explanation; and (4) observers of the event are experts in the sense that they are already familiar with the phenomena and have greater understanding than do *naive scientists* who rely on deductive processes to validate a premise-driven theory.

The above discussion suggests that deductive processes may be more appropriate than the

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inductive method for structured problem solving in a classroom environment (i.e., problems that may be systematically evaluated, in which one best answer is possible). Nevertheless, many problems encountered by marketing organizations in today's complex and uncertain business environment do not lend themselves to deductive processes. In such cases, creative, unstructured problem solving is required, necessitating the use of inductive procedures to best understand the problem in the face of limited and perhaps contradictory information.

Because of demands from the business community for creative graduates who can *identify* and solve problems, inductive procedures have found their way into business classes such as marketing strategy. On the other hand, the marketing research class, following the classic deductive mode, and relying on theory and abstract concepts has frequently been regarded as a home for positivist, quantitative decision-making (Malhotra, Tashchian, and Jain 1989). While such an approach may follow a deductive inquiry path, from many students' perspective the educational experience is less interesting and meaningful (e.g., Parasuraman and Wright 1983). We believe that the following method provides an interesting, meaningful, and creative experience for the marketing research students.

THE SETTING

The marketing research course is taught every semester at a southwestern university located near the U.S.- Mexico border. The classes typically consist of two sections, each containing twenty to twenty-five upper level undergraduate male and female students. Many of the students represent the first generation of their family to attend a college or university. The class follows a format of lecture and discussion. As a critical part of this format, a two-phase marketing research project is assigned. Phase one involves the traditional deductive approach. In this phase, the students conduct and prepare a written transcript of open-ended interviews with subjects. Phase two focuses on students using inductive procedures to categorize the interviews into meaningful groups (i.e., Lockeian fact nets). The project culminates with the students preparing and submitting a complete research report detailing the project.

THE PROJECT

The project is introduced to the students after one third of the semester has elapsed. This timing allows the class to develop understanding of research designs, qualitative data, and probing techniques before beginning the project. Because the critical incident technique (CIT) forms the basis for the data collection portion of the research project, CIT as applied in marketing by Bitner, Booms, and Tetreault (1990) is introduced through lecture and discussion. Areas of current interest to marketers are chosen for the project topics. Completed projects have focused on customers' and service providers' most satisfactory and most dissatisfactory service encounters. However, many other areas of interest may be studied using this method.

Phase One - The Interviews

The first phase of the research project requires that each student interview five subjects using the CIT. To facilitate the interviewing process, the students are provided with an open-ended questionnaire (see Exhibit 1). In-class role playing familiarizes the students with probing methods and the interviewing process. Students form dyads with one student role-playing the subject and the other playing the role of the interviewer. Then the roles are reversed. These interviews are observed by the professor and feedback provided to the students. The students are then given one week to conduct and submit their first interview. The professor then critiques each interview and provides the student with written and verbal instructions on improving the interview process. Careful reading and prompt feedback by the professor are necessary at this point to guide the students on the interviewing and recording process. The students are then given two weeks to recruit and interview four additional subjects.

EXHIBIT 1

SERVICE PROVIDER INTERVIEW

DESCRIPTION: Each student is to interview a minimum of five (5) service providers concerning interactions with customers. Each service provider should be interviewed about their most satisfying and their most dissatisfying experiences with customers. DO NOT INTERVIEW OTHER STUDENTS FROM THE CLASS. READ THE FOLLOWING TO

THE SERVICE PROVIDER:

I am, _____, a marketing research student at
_____. Our class is doing research concerning
service providers' perceptions. I would like your
permission to ask you a few questions. Your
responses will be kept strictly confidential. If you
have any questions concerning this study, you may
contact _____.

The objective of this research is to gain under-
standing of services providers' perceptions of
particularly satisfying or dissatisfying encounters
with customers.

We are asking about the normal events that you
have with customers. We want to recall incidents
which were very satisfying or very dissatisfying to
you. That is, we are interested in events which
represent the interactions with customers that
resulted in you feeling very satisfied or very dissatis-
fied.

To begin, would you please recall an encounter with
a customer that resulted in you feeling very satis-
fied. (Pause) Now I will ask you a few questions
concerning that encounter. The more specific and
detailed you can be in describing your thoughts and
observations regarding the encounter, the better.

1. When did the incident happen?
2. What specific circumstances led to the
    situation?
3. Exactly what did the customer say or do?
4. Exactly what did you say or do?
5. What resulted that made you feel the inter-
    action was satisfying?
6. Describe the parts played by the customer,
    yourself, and the rules and procedures of
    your firm.
7. How were you treated by the customer?
8. What were your reactions to the manner in
    which you were treated?
9. Why do you think the customer treated you
    in this manner?
10. Did your reactions to the encounter result
    in particular actions (e.g., sale/no sale,
    treating the next customer differently, etc.)?

Now, would you please recall an encounter with a
customer that resulted in you feeling very dissatis-
fied. (Pause) I will ask you the same questions
concerning that encounter. Again the more specific
and detailed you can be in describing your thoughts
and observations regarding the encounter, the
better.

1. When did the incident happen?
2. What specific circumstances led up to the
    situation?

3. Exactly what did the customer say or do?
4. Exactly what did you say or do?
5. What resulted that made you feel the inter-
    action was dissatisfying?
6. Describe the parts played by the customer,
    yourself, and the rules and procedures of
    your firm.
7. How were you treated by the customer?
8. What were your reactions to the manner in
    which you were treated?
9. Why do you think the customer treated you
    in this manner?
10. Did your reactions to the encounter result
    in particular actions (e.g., sale/no sale,
    treating the next customer differently, etc.)?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION
For each encounter also record:
The nature of the business.
The name of the company.
The name of the service provider.

Phase Two - The Inductive Procedure

When all interviews are collected and reviewed by
the professor, the students are assigned to four-
person groups. Each group is given twenty inter-
views to categorize. The interviews are selected
from those conducted by students from other
groups. To reduce bias, care is taken to ensure
that no group analyzes any of its own members'
interviews. The research question along with written
instructions detailing the inductive method of cate-
gorizing the interviews are provided to the students
(see Exhibit 2).

EXHIBIT 2

Content Analysis of Service Providers Interviews
For your group project grade each group will
content analyze interviews with service providers
and prepare a typed report following the directions
for report preparation in chapter 24 of your text.
The report is due on ___ at the beginning of class.
Specific directions for content analysis.

1. Read all the satisfying interviews very care-
    fully. As you read them you should begin
    to see similarities among the incidents
    which created satisfaction.
2. Identify the exact nature of the similarity,
    this becomes the basis for labeling each
    category of incidents.
3. Go over and over the incidents and sort
    them until all incidents in a category are

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more similar to each other than they are to those in other categories.

4. Do the same for the dissatisfying incidents.
5. The basic research question you are to answer is; What are the events and behaviors leading to satisfying and dissatisfying service encounters from the service providers perspective?
6. The categories cannot be predetermined, they should flow from the careful readings of the interviews.
7. Content analysis of this type requires a lot of *thought*. It cannot be done in a day or two. You need to begin today, and work as an efficient and effective group in order to perform high quality content analysis of the interviews.
8. Staple the interviews together, by category, label the category, and turn in with your report.
9. If you have any questions, see me or call be at _____.

Consistent with the Lockeian mode of inquiry, the students approach the interviews as raw data, inferring their own *fact nets* (categories) from the perspective of expert observers and *judges* (having conducted interviews themselves, using the Critical Incident Technique). In keeping with Kantian inquiry, categories are determined post hoc and the fact nets are synthesized from different viewpoints (e.g., "firm responsible for satisfying encounter," "customer responsible," "service provider responsible," etc.).

Inferring fact nets from the raw interview data may at first present an obstacle for many students, who are likely to be preconditioned to deductive methods in their other business classes. Therefore, examples from areas other than their research domain are provided to assist the students to develop greater understanding of the method they are to follow. For example, when the students interviewed service providers, a factory situation was described in which workers are asked questions about their satisfaction. Some factory workers might report that safety equipment is the leading contributor to their satisfaction, others might say it is management's concern for the employees, while others may say that it is their pay that determines their satisfaction. Consistent with Kantian inquiry, this example would likely lead to the development of three groups -- safety equipment, management, and pay. By using an example outside the domain

of the current study, the professor does not bias or lead the students in determining the categories that flow from their analysis. The students then begin their analysis of the interviews.

Because this type of project is new to the students, they often complain that the project is ambiguous -- that they do not understand the assignment. The processor must be supportive and provide understanding and reassurance at this point. Yet, additional instructions beyond slight elaboration of the written instructions or repeating the example are not advisable. The professor wants the students to persevere and work through their apprehensions. As they proceed, the students' uncertainty is further evidenced by their concerns and questions about whether their tentative categories are appropriate. Again, the professor should not examine the interviews or the students' categories at this time. The best way to answer their "appropriateness" questions is to explain that they, as *judges*, must make the decisions. An important aspect of the inductive procedure is for the students to learn that there can be more than one right answer. Equally important is that the students persevere and overcome the obstacles themselves. We believe that it is critical that the professor *does not* interfere with the process at this time.

Upon completion of the project, the categories and reports are evaluated by the professor. From our experience we are convinced that undergraduate marketing research students perform the inductive procedures well. The category labels and the corresponding interviews indicate that the students, working in teams and arriving at a consensus, are able to group and label the categories in a reasonable manner. Student comments regarding the project are generally favorable. They find the project beneficial to their learning experience, and would like to do similar projects in other classes. Peer evaluations indicate that most of the groups work well together.

Because phase two (the inductive phase) of the project involves very little assistance from the professor, the students are forced to make decisions based on the inductive process. This addresses the issues raised by Malhotra, Tashchian, and Jain (1989) and Barnes and Byrne (1990). The experience should also provide the students with the competitive advantage needed in a volatile job market (Burger and Schmidt 1987). The salient characteristics of creativity are experienced and

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likely internalized.

CONCLUSION

The use of inductive procedures is slowly making its way into today's business college classroom as a preferred instructional methodology. Yet, little use has been made of this method in the marketing research class, because of the prevalent use of deductive and logical reasoning-based methods. To better understand the nature of the inductive procedure, we provided a brief review of deductive versus inductive modes of inquiry. A critical examination of the current use of the inductive procedures in a marketing research class demonstrates that these procedures offer unique advantages for students to develop inductive reasoning and creativity through inferential analysis and categorization skills. These skills acquired by the students can help to set them apart from others in today;s marketplace.

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EXAMINING MARKETING RESEARCH EDUCATION
FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF MARKETING ALUMNI

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ABSTRACT

This study examines marketing graduates' evaluations of various skills commonly taught in undergraduate marketing research courses. Previous studies have identified gaps in the expectations of skills taught in marketing research classes among marketing research educators, marketing research practitioners, and graduate students. However, no articles have examined marketing research education from the perspective of students after they have graduated.

This study is based on a random sample of 20 marketing graduates from a private religiously affiliated university. These alumni represent a broad spectrum of industries and job categories. But, because the sample size of this study is very small, this is an exploratory study which is meant to point the direction for future research.

The research findings indicate that the majority of marketing graduates use many of the skills they learned in marketing research courses. Some of the skills they learned such as statistical analyses, conceptualizing marketing research problems, and being able to analyze and interpret marketing data proved to be very important in their jobs. Some of the respondents wished they had "applied" themselves more, so they had learned more in college. A few indicated they would have preferred if faculty had been harder on them and "made them learn." Others focused on the need for computer skills and wished the university gave them a greater opportunity to learn more software packages.

While this research was exploratory, it points to the need for more research in the area. Given the small sample size used, the job needs of recent vs. older graduates were not fully explored. Similarly, future research needs to focus on the needs of graduates in various occupations, i.e. marketing management, sales, and marketing research. Such research also needs to include marketing alumni from different types of universities; public and private, large and small.

More importantly, this research points to the need to reexamine what we teach in the classroom and how we evaluate our faculty's teaching abilities. Student evaluations obtained at the end of the quarter or semester, do not necessarily reflect the amount of knowledge gained in courses. Furthermore, undergraduate students are not the best judges of how well the knowledge they gained will help them perform in the workplace. As some of the graduates interviewed in this study noted, professors do not want to deal with "grunt work" in class because it is not "fun." Instead, courses tend to focus on strategic and conceptual issues that are significantly more interesting to students. The question that needs to be continuously asked is "what type of education will serve the students' long term interests best?"

EFFECTIVE PEDAGOGY FOR COLLABORATIVELY-AUTHORED STUDENT WRITING PROJECT IN A UNIVERSITY-LEVEL INTERNATIONAL MARKETING CLASS

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ABSTRACT

College and university teachers in business-related disciplines are increasingly assigning collaboratively-authored writing projects in their classes. Collaboratively-authored student writing projects sometimes have free-riders forcing other collaborators to put in more than fair share of their workload thereby lowering the overall quality of the projects. This case study revolves around the exploring of pedagogical techniques for a collaboratively-authored project situation, which will assist student collaborators to contribute effectively.

Our investigation asked students to evaluate the relative usefulness of numerous pedagogical tools, all used by the same instructor in the same undergraduate international marketing class to guide their collaboratively-authored projects. A survey was administered to all of the students during the last week of two consecutive semesters. The sample size was 45 students for the first semester and 21 students for the second semester.

The semester-long collaboratively-authored projects for the aforesaid classes aim at assessing the export feasibility of a consumer item to a given foreign country. Student-teams evaluate the innovative characteristics of the product; analyze environmental constraints; identify business opportunities and challenges in the foreign market; develop export marketing strategy; perform cost-benefit analysis; estimate budget; and, provide final recommendation to enter or not to enter the foreign market.

The projects require gathering information from nearby libraries, domestic and foreign governmental agencies, private consulting firms, export intermediaries, firms engaged in allied but non-competitive product lines, shipping companies and international non-profit agencies. The team for each collaboratively-authored project in the class consisted of 3 to 4 students.

The nine pedagogical tools used in the classes to guide the project are: (1) Group Project Outline - given to the students by the instructor during the first week of the semester, (2) Initial Intensive Guidance - provided by the instructor to the students at the beginning of the semester explaining various sources of information, tactics to gather information, and methods to handle likely problems, (3) Work Allocation Sheet - required of every student-team identifying workload of every team member to complete the project, (4) In-class Exercise to help students understand thoroughly the Project Outline - required of every team identifying a minimum of 25 questions which the group project would answer, (5) Written Progress Report - submitted by every team during the middle of the semester indicating each team member's efforts and subsequent results in gathering information for the project (the contents of the progress report were discussed between every team and the instructor, and the suggestions were offered by the instructor to strengthen the project), (6) Assistance from Peer Group - one-to-two page summary of two major portions of the project submitted by every team and reviewed by another class team who provided their feedback and suggestions (the first semester class only), (7) First Draft of the Project - required of every team during the 12th week of the semester, and subsequently returned to the team with the instructor's reactions and detailed comments, (8) Oral Presentation - made by every team with an understanding that the resulting discussion and comments could be addressed in the revised final project, and (9) Personal Journal - required of every student indicating his/her nature of efforts, and the total number of hours spent on the project.

The usefulness of the tools was measured through a four-point scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." The measure was multi-dimensional. It assessed, among other aspects, whether or not each of the pedagogical tools contributed substantially to the overall quality of the project, and whether or not it enabled every collaborator to pull his/her fair share of the work.

Two pedagogical tools - instructor's response to initial draft of the projects (Tool 7) and project outline (Tool 1) - are found to be useful for enhancing the quality of international marketing term-long projects, and for encouraging students to pull their fair share of workload. Instructors in complex, business-content courses are suggested to consider using these tools.

A STUDY OF THE CURRICULUM CONTENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL MARKETING COURSE

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the subject content, teaching methods, and administration of the international marketing course. A survey of 144 academicians who teach international marketing identified preferences for particular teaching methods, sources of information for lectures, importance ratings for course topics, and the level of support given to the faculty members who wish to strengthen their teaching and research efforts in international marketing.

INTERNATIONAL MARKETING EDUCATION: ARE WE TEACHING THE RIGHT SKILLS FOR ENTERING A GLOBAL MARKETPLACE?

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ABSTRACT

This study tries to determine what skills are necessary for business students, including marketing majors, to successfully gain entry to jobs with companies that are increasingly becoming more globalized. By also identifying what skills companies perceive as lacking, recommendations are made about how to improve current courses so that these skills can be developed in business students.

INTRODUCTION

Increasingly business school graduates will be looking for employment with multinational businesses. For example, in California alone it is estimated that 10% to 15% of the economy, representing approximately 1.5 million jobs, is associated with international commerce (Sakamoto, 1988; Schachter, 1994). Marketing students, in particular, will be required to be prepared for the global marketplace because much of the growth in jobs is tied to increases in foreign trade. Again in California one of the fastest growing segments in an otherwise stagnant economy is international trade. International trade into and out of California quadrupled from 1979 to 1992 (Schachter, 1994). According to past studies, firms indicated that the greatest need for increased international business expertise would be in sales and marketing (Sakamoto, 1988). Factors, other than the explosion of international trade, which are contributing to the internationalization of the job market include "globalizing markets, instantaneous communications, travel at the speed of sound, political realignments, and changing demographics (Kanter, 1991)".

Are marketing students as well as other business students being adequately trained to enter the global marketplace? Past studies of U.S. businesses conducted by the Departments of Labor, Education and Commerce, found that two-thirds of the firms felt that current job seekers for entry level positions lacked basic skills in such areas as communication, problem solving, interpersonal relations and leadership (Carnevale, 1988; McLaughlin, 1989). American business schools have been criticized for being too theoretical and out of touch with needs of globally competitive corporations and rapidly changing economic environments (Muller, Porter, and Rehder, 1991; Hotch, 1992).

It is important to determine whether companies engaged in multinational business have the same requirements as domestic U.S. firms when hiring employees. Furthermore, do they think that current job seekers are meeting their needs to compete in a global arena? This paper hopes to provide some insight on these two questions so that strategies might be developed to better train business school graduates.

OBJECTIVES

The purposes of this study are to determine:

- What skills are needed to obtain a position in international business.

- What skills companies perceive lacking in current job seekers.

METHODOLOGY

The study of international business requirements was based on a mail survey that was sent to a random sample of business executives in 378 international firms in southern California. The companies were selected from membership lists of the Foreign Trade Association of Southern California and from the International Marketing Association of Orange County.

A cross section was taken from all types of businesses including construction, freight forwarders, electronics, warehousing, banking, oil trading, insurance, real estate, legal services, hospitality, health care, manufacturing, retail and government.

Responses were received from 129 individuals or 34 percent of the sample. Some 15.8% of the companies had sales under $1,000,000; 24.6% sales between $1,000,000 and $5,000,000; and 60.0% with sales over $5,000,000.

Seventy-one percent of the respondents were senior managers, 24.0% mid-managers, and 5.0% junior managers. Eighty percent were males and 65.0% were between the ages of 31 to 50.

There were 76.6% of the companies headquartered in the United States. Of those companies not headquartered in the United States, 40.0% had headquarters in Japan. Some 6.7% each are headquartered in England, Netherlands, France, United Kingdom, Australia, and Taiwan.

The study of perceived skill deficits was based on another mail survey of managers of 400 companies in southern California (Emilio, 1993) The firms chosen were based on a quota sample of firms found in the Southern California Regional Industrial Buying Guide 1993. These companies represented a diverse selection of industries. The firms ranged in size from sole proprietorships to 350,000 employees. The manufacturing firms represented industries including military electronics, aerospace, food processing and distribution, engineering, paper manufacturers, biomedical manufacturers and cosmetics manufacturers. Service type companies included, retail, construction, banking, citrus

growth, beverage distribution, supermarkets and health care.

Business requirements were measured based on a three point scale (very important, somewhat important, and unimportant) of the importance of each of the following factors: interpersonal skills, analytical, computer, and English communication skills.

Perceived skill deficits were measured based on a dichotomous (yes, no) scale of the absence of the following skills: writing, interpersonal, analytical, and computer.

FIGURE 1

Executives' Evaluation
Necessary Skills for Entry Level IB Job
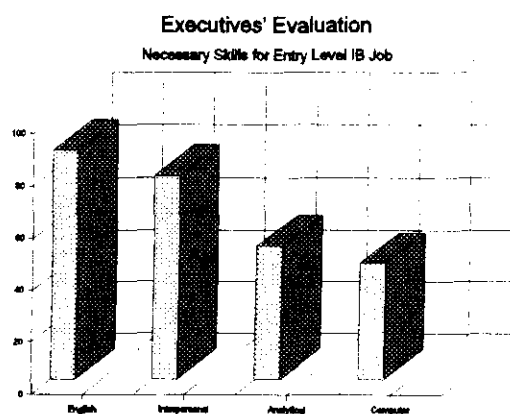
Findings

Figure 1 shows the top four skills that respondents marked as "very important" for candidates in entry level jobs among the international firms surveyed. A very large majority (87.8 percent) of these executives ranked "English Communications" as very important in recruiting candidates for entry level international business jobs. This confirms previous studies wherein English was considered the most important language in international business.

According to this survey, the need for English communication skills is closely followed by good "Interpersonal skills," considered very important by 78.3 percent of respondents. Around half the respondents also rated "Analytical skills" and "Computer skills" as "very important" among

entry level candidates (51.4 percent and 44.9 percent respectively).

Surprisingly, Table 1 shows that foreign language proficiency (27.2%) and knowledge of foreign culture (27.8%), though not unimportant, were considered less important than a host of communication, analytical and computer skills. This is perhaps due to the likelihood that entry level jobs will be domestic rather than overseas assignments.

TABLE 1
Executives' Evaluations of Necessary Skills
for Entry Level Ib Jobs

Skills	Very Important	Mean Rating
English Communications	87.8%	1.13
Interpersonal	78.3%	1.23
Analytical	51.4%	1.51
Computer	44.9%	1.68
Knowledge of Foreign Culture	27.8%	1.85
Foreign Language Proficiency	27.8%	1.92
Minor in Business Area	20.2%	1.96

Figure 2 compares these results with the other survey of human resource managers from firms in southern California. Although this survey asked human resource managers what skills their workers were currently deficient in, the results were alarming. Responses in this survey so closely matched those of the international survey in that this sample considered major deficiencies in precisely those areas that the other sample considered very important for entry level candidates.

Deficiencies among current workers were identified primarily in the areas of English language skills -- both reading and writing (87.6 percent), Interpersonal skills (76.3 percent), Analytical skills (79.4 percent), and Computer skills (67.3 percent), the very areas considered "very important" by managers in international firms.

These findings lead to the question of whether international marketing programs in business schools are adequately preparing students for the very skills needed by U.S. firms faced with increasingly aggressive competition from overseas firms.

FIGURE 2

Comparison Int'l vs. S. Ca. Firms
Important skills vs. Deficiencies
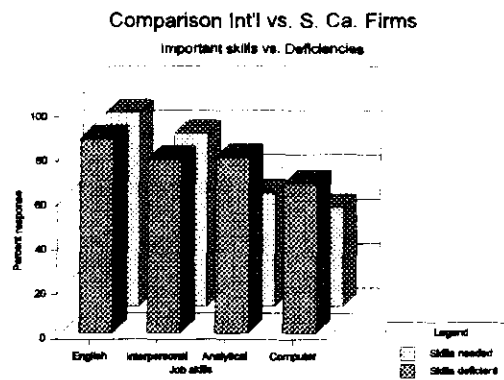
This comparison shows that schools are not devoting enough resources to developing basic skills in their graduates that employers need especially in the areas of reading and writing English. Likewise, schools need to focus on programs that foster students' interpersonal skills as well as develop their analytical and computer skills.

Conclusions

Much has been written about the need for reforming the U.S. educational system, especially in light of competition in the global marketplace. Studies comparing American students to their counterparts in other developed and even other developing countries have shown that there is much room for improvement (Carnevale, 1988).

This study highlights very specific areas wherein managers in the front lines of global competition feel that employees should possess basic skills. The survey of Southern California managers is not exactly comparable because the sampling frame is different and the questions were asked from a different perspective. However, the authors were struck by the way responses lined up. The very skills that one set of managers deemed as almost crucial to their operations were the ones that another set of managers felt

their work force was deficient in.

Recommendations

For Marketing Educators, the perception of the business community is very important. If those entering a marketing career are perceived to be deficient in basic skills so as to pose a problem in securing an entry level position, the discipline as a whole suffers. Yet, can Marketing Educators do anything? The answer is yes. In many marketing courses, those skills needed for entry level positions are necessary to successfully complete the course, and as such can be elevated and honed. For example, many of the skills required can be incorporated and further stressed in the workshop approach used in many personal selling courses. In fact, with growth of sales automation, all skills required including computers can be further stressed.

In addition, in courses like marketing research, more emphasis can be placed on proposal writing, computer analysis and written communication of results. Students will then gain further practice in honing their English, analytical and computer skills.

Finally, the incorporation of the computer analytical exercises into all marketing courses at all levels should be stressed. The computer provides a basic tool to aid students in developing analytical insights, and organizing and communicating their thoughts.

Future studies should delineate skillsto provide increased insight. For example, computer skills could be divided into spreadsheet abilities, statistical analysis, database management, and word processing.

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Using Laddering to Understand the Nature of Job Stressors and Job Enrichers for Customer Service Personnel

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ABSTRACT

Marketing managers have long recognized the importance of developing relational ties with customers. By occupying the boundary-spanning position between the marketing organization and the customer, front-line personnel have the potential of playing a strategic role in this process of developing and nurturing customer relationships. Because customer perceptions of service quality are formed by the job attitudes of boundary personnel, examining the nature of job stressors and job enrichers is a first step to understanding quality customer relationships.

This paper serves as an introductory look at the potential application of means-end theory and laddering methodology for understanding how front-line employees translate the attributes or characteristics of their jobs into meaningful associations with respect to self-defining attitudes and values. The means-end theory focuses on the linkages and interrelations between attributes, consequences, and values. The "means" can be thought of as the rational components, and the "ends" as the emotional components. The theory seeks to explain how an individual's job environment enables him/her to achieve desired end states. In this study, the attributes are the job characteristics or environment of the firm. Consequences accrue to employees from working in such environments. They may be positive or dysfunctional to boundary personnel depending on whether they are barriers or facilitators to the employees personal goals and beliefs. A value is an enduring belief that an end-state of existence is personally or socially useful or worthwhile.

A useful depth-interviewing technique, which allows the researcher to tap into the subject's network of meanings, is laddering. A series of directive probes, typified by "Why is that important to you?" questions, assist the researcher in ascertaining sets of linkages between salient perceptual elements across the range of attributes, consequences, and values.

The laddering process forces the subject up the "ladder of abstraction" in order to uncover the structural aspects of the subject's knowledge as modeled by the means/end chain. The detailing of linkages in the subject's cognitive structure provides a method for uncovering the underlying reasons why an attribute or a consequence is important.

Twenty customer service representatives, employed by an international financial service company, participated in the initial study. Participants were asked to examine the assumptions underlying their everyday work behavior. Structural aspects of the subject's knowledge regarding job stressors and job enrichers were modeled using the means-end chain approach. The detailing of linkages in the subject's cognitive structure provided a method for uncovering the underlying reasons why an attribute or a consequence is important.

It is clear from the results that a means-end approach to job stress improves our understanding of the role stress process. Specifically, the method examines why and how certain job stressors affect job outcomes. Furthermore, the research provides answers to why and how certain job tasks or other job-related characteristics are inherently motivating or enhance the well being of customer service personnel. Such insights can be beneficial in allocating resources toward company policies or procedures which can positively enhance the psychological well being of service providers.

More research is needed to refine the techniques for use in this area. But the potential for increased understanding of the cognitive structures that customer service personnel have regarding job stressors and job enrichers seems great.

SERVICE MARKETING DEVELOPMENT INVOLVING TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT USING ICONIZATION, MIND MAPPING PRINCIPLES AND MATRIX METHODOLOGY

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ABSTRACT

We have ascertained that often a service marketing plan in the boardroom and in the classroom is most often not understood by everyone, and in fact the contribution and involvement of the key players from the necessary variety of disciplines in the corporation is not there. Most often the final plan is not understood by everyone (even the final consumer). A goal for the marketing plan or product is that the plan must be innovative, creative, and have a consistent presentation for review by all members of the service group. The concept of Total Quality Management (TQM) emphasizes that for every customer activity there will be no other acceptance than total quality customer satisfaction.

Our goal for the service marketing environment is to utilize the concepts of systems analysis and creative thinking in combination with brainstorming tools (Arnold 1992) to involve the organization in assisting the marketing personnel to understand the business, to make evident the variety of clients that the business services and their expectations, and then to devise marketing strategies that will drive the corporation to exceed customer expectations, as well as to attract new clients to use the services.

In this paper, a methodology that has been created over 10 years in a large home health care corporation, and in a university computer science/business administration program is presented. The historical steps that led to its development will be described, along with the algorithm for implementing the methodology. This methodology consists of: matrix brainstorming for the partitioning and description of the customer base and for the determination of their expectations; understanding and brainstorming how these clients perceive the services and what their expectations are; and then finally, synthesizing the many ideas into a coherent marketing plan using a mind map.

BACKGROUND

Motivation for the technique was derived from the needs of two diverse groups. In a graduate database class and systems analysis class at Brandon University, students are involved yearly in a real life project to computerize a small business where there is no standard software to meet the small business's needs. The analyst must describe the activities of the business, understand the business, interact with the users to gain a thorough understanding of the business (so as to clearly describe the way the business is to be operated), optimize the way that this business is conducted, and then write the software to implement what has been learned. Some of the tools are described in Senn (1989). Of particular interest to this paper, is a matrix analysis method used to determine for example, who the potential users of the software are in the corporation. This methodology will be extended to facilitate the understanding of the needs and focus of the marketing plan.

In one project, these students were required to understand and model the operations of a large home health care corporation in the service industry (We Care Health Services Inc.) and to describe what this corporation's information processing needs were. Essentially, the business falls in the category of a temporary help business; that is, it utilizes registered nurses, licensed practical nurses, sitters, companions, homemakers, housekeepers and a variety of other care providers to service clients on a temporary basis.

The challenge on the corporate side was to create a marketing strategy that was coherent given the company's many different services. In the standard systems analysis method, we focus on what the business does or expects to do from a transaction point of view. From a marketing point of view, we must not only understand what the business does, but also understand what the expectations of the company's current and potential clients are so that the marketing plan can address these issues. One of the authors (McMaster 1978) was asked to review the software division of Apple Computer Corporation. One of his findings, in addition to a misallocation of a hardware person to the software division, was that the marketing division would drive the software development. It is evident to the authors that if a thorough analysis is done of the business by

the marketing personnel in a similar manner to that done in systems analysis, that the resulting information can also drive the enhancements to the way the service business offers its services. An essential ingredient in the marketing process described here is a structuring of the brainstorming technique described extensively in the literature and in particular in Wenger (1992). One of the challenges is to come up with a large number of ideas, and the authors have found that using the process dissection method (to be described), and client identification using the matrix methodology, facilitates the brainstorming process in that the user is required to think of the problem from many diverse points of view as a result of the partitioning processes. After clients have been described, and sample client servicing processes have been dissected, the marketing team has a rich understanding of the business, and innovative ideas for describing the business in a new or enhanced way for a better marketing result. The final step is to create a mind map that assists in synthesizing the many ideas into a coherent marketing strategy. The methodology may be summarized in the following steps.

Marketing Plan Creation Algorithm

1. Using the matrix method, first determine the clients, then determine strategies, ideas and activities that describe and enhance the clients' experience and expectations.
2. Take a typical client transaction, and using the matrix method, dissect it and then describe how the client feels in each stage of the transaction and how one might market to them.
3. After Steps 1 and 2 are completed, the marketing planner (or director...) utilizes a mind map to create a marketing strategy. This will likely involve further brainstorming with the corporate groups (Matthews 1992).

The Methodology

We will first extend the matrix methodology used in Senn (1989). A generalized form of the matrix appears in Figure 1.

The boxes in the matrix are 3" x 5" Post-it Notes™ that are then placed on a grid on a large white board. Boxes labelled "Idea #.#" are strategies, ideas, activities to describe the client experience, client expectations and ideas for how to make a client feel better
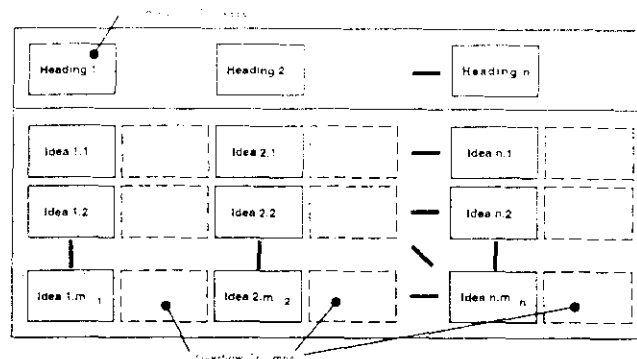
and to market to them. These ideas are derived in a brainstorming session with the marketers and key personnel in the corporation that can contribute to the process (less than 20 people is ideal). The number of headings should be 10 or less. If you create more heading items, then you are subdividing too finely or if you have say 17 headings, you might divide the process into two sections.

Now let us describe the marketing brainstorming session using this methodology.

In Step 1, the facilitator works with the group to first identify the customer categories. These are written on blue coloured Post-it Notes™ and placed in the heading portion. The facilitator should attempt to get all persons involved, and any idea offered should be stated out loud, and then written on a Post-it Notes™ by the contributor. This builds ownership of the idea by personnel in the corporation. The facilitator might help the contributors to phrase the ideas (still in the contributors words) more concisely. A sample might be the similar to Figure 2 below.

FIGURE 2
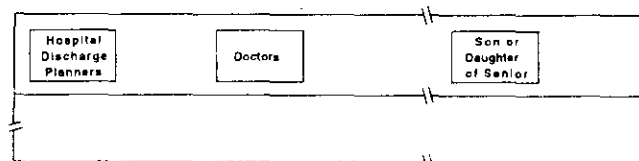
The team has brainstormed to determine the significant client categories. One keeps in mind Prado's 80/20 rule that 80% of business comes from 20% of the clients. This is incentive to restrict the number of client categories in order to be effective.

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The next stage (Figure 3) is to brainstorm to describe clients' expectations of the service. A sample result follows and since the blue Post-it Notes™ were used for headings, yellow is used for the brainstorming ideas.

FIGURE 3
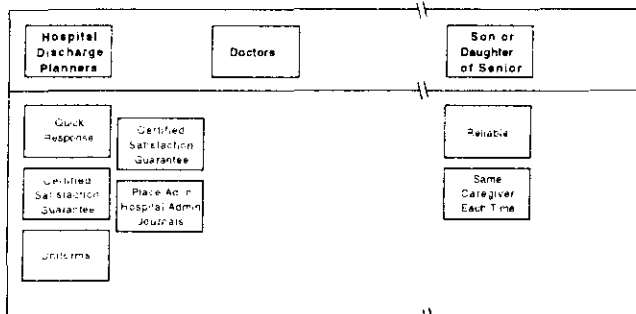
Members of the group will quickly come up with ideas in each client group. The facilitator asks each person to verbalize their idea, to write it down on a Post-it Notes™ and then asks an assistant to place it on the matrix. This process continues as ideas come randomly for all client categories. Remember that the purpose of brainstorming is to stimulate and capture ideas (the "no evaluation" rule applies; that is, no one is allowed to make negative comments such as, "it's too expensive"). The most outlandish and impractical ideas, if proposed in earnest, should be included in the matrix. Outrageous ideas from one person may generate practical ideas from another.

In the next step, pick a particular client that you wish to focus on. Let us, for the sake of simplicity, focus on a hospital discharge planner. The facilitator now works with the group on the transaction process sequence that the discharge planner goes through when getting service from the corporation, We Care Health Services, by partitioning the steps.

The facilitator attempts to determine the first contact or contacts that the client may make with the corporation using brainstorming with the team (Figure 4). The facilitator then determines the remaining steps in the transaction process leading to the final contact point.

FIGURE 4
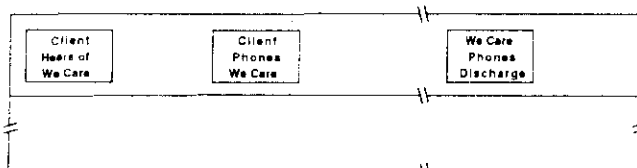
In the next stage in filling the matrix, the facilitator can brainstorm with the team to determine how the marketing plan or initiative can make clients aware of the services in each step of the process, and in fact can help the corporation to exceed customers' expectations. Once the marketers understand the business, it is often easy to say to the business, "if you only did this....and this, then we could focus on these things in the marketing campaign". For example, "If you could guarantee a one hour response (an expectation of the discharge planner) then the client would use you more extensively and recommend you to others." The corporation We Care instituted such a campaign as a result of this analysis.

Again, the header 3" x 5" Post-it Notes™ in the matrix are blue, and the next brainstorming steps placed on Post-it Notes™ in columns are in yellow.

As the session proceeds, the participants are asked how awareness of the services can be enhanced in each step of the process and how clients' expectations might be exceeded (which may lead to a new marketing campaign or perhaps a new addition to the services offered). A portion of the brainstorming results are presented in the table in Figure 5.

FIGURE 5
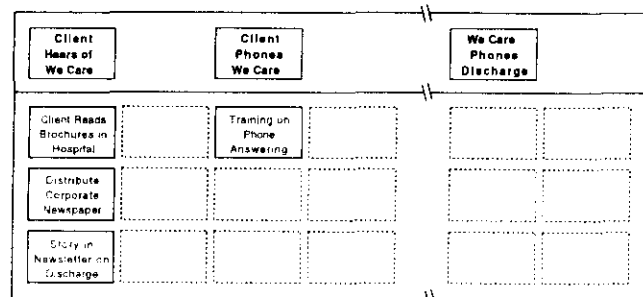
In column one, as the brainstorming proceeds (Matthews, 1992) for each step in the transaction process, new ideas are derived that can become part of the marketing plan. These ideas are said aloud by the respondent (the facilitator validates the suggestion in a positive way since some contributions may be rejected), written down by the respondent on the 3" x 5" Post-it Notes™, and then placed on the matrix.

Once this step is completed, the members of the marketing team have a clear understanding of the business, of the clients that use the business, of the clients needs and expectations and of some traditional and innovative ways that the corporation might make these

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clients aware of the company's services. The process described above enhances the creative process since the participants are forced to examine every interaction of the corporation with the client and how that contact can be improved through marketing ideas that have been derived in this brainstorming process, and through enhanced communication with all members of the team arriving at results. This step may be repeated with the other clients defined in Step 1. Common strategies are often identified in response to the varied clients.

The marketing leader (or marketing team) can now complete the final step of the process by creating a mind map of the marketing plan. The creation of a mind map is clearly described in McMaster and Chyzyk (1995).

At the centre of this particular map might be a micro-marketing initiative such as a marketing campaign to discharge planners. Since many of the diverse clients may have the brainstorming Step 2 performed on them, a macro marketing plan may be derived as a result of examining the many client types. Recall that the creation of a mind map (McMaster and Chyzyk 1995) is an effective brainstorming methodology, and as the marketing plan is synthesized into one strategy,

new ideas and results may arise because of the associative power of the mind map.

To illustrate what the resulting mind map might resemble, please see Figures 6, 7 and 8. These maps summarize the One Minute Sales Person (Blanchard et al 1986) and show the variety of techniques that may be used.

In Figure 6, the centre Icon and text states the heart of the concept, "The one minute sales person". The map is read in a clockwise manner starting at 12 o'clock. The primary concept is placed at the centre of the map, and in our case study, this would be replaced by "marketing strategy to the discharge planner". Secondary concepts are drawn exiting from the primary one. In Figure 6, they are: "understanding purpose"; "marketing"; and what it is; "selling" concepts; "fundamental concepts"; and finally "negative sales ideas".

Figure 7 illustrates not only secondary ideas in the "one minute review", but a tertiary idea, "weigh the advantages" and a fourth idea "the best weight, sell feelings".

In Figure 8, the key concept is "following up on sales". The secondary ideas are: "asking for referrals"; "a

FIGURE 6: Mind Map of The One Minute Sales Person (Blanchard and Spencer, 1986) — Part 1
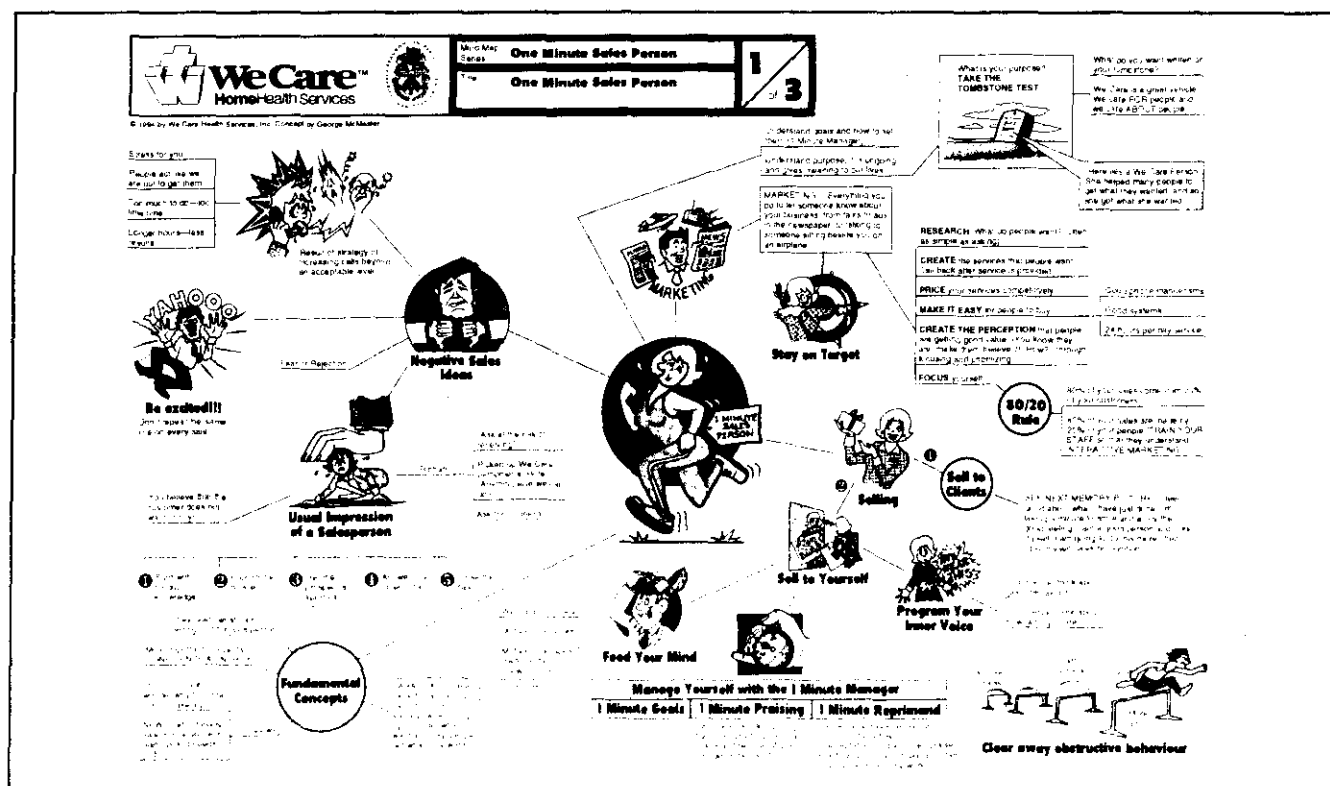
script for follow-up calls", "keeping your goal in mind", "call back story"; and what to do if "bad news" is derived as a result of a call back.

Some of the advantages of this final presentation of the marketing plan in mind map form are:

(a) It has synthesized a lot of material into a few pages (Buzan 1989).
(b) Ideas are put into categories making it easier to group ideas.
(c) Brainstorming continues since all members of the team can see all of the concepts quickly on the page and the ability to think of new ideas is thus enhanced.
(d) It lends itself to communicating concepts to others so that you may quickly review key concepts with the people for whom you are creating the marketing plan.

A final point about the three maps describing the activities and concepts of a "One Minute Sales Person" is the extensive use of iconization. This term is simply used to describe the act of summarizing a concept in the form of a picture. Creating these icons enhances creativity, memory and communication and leads to ideas for an advertising strategy. That is, "what do you wish your ad

to look like given all the information that has been generated using the process described here?"

CONCLUSION

It is our experience that many marketing firms do not understand the business for which they are presenting and creating materials. This paper has innovated systems analysis tools so that the marketer can now take these tools and use them to interact with their clients in a productive way. They learn about the system and they involve their client in a brainstorming manner during this analysis to come up with a strategy. The participation of the client using this process is very important since it will create loyalty to the strategy that results and the client will take ownership of the campaign that is derived.

It is also our experience that many marketers, when not using the algorithm described herein, often initially hears from the client, "let me give you the background on our business to show how different and unique it is: greater competitive pressure, higher and different customer expectations, and lower employee morale". All businesses think that they are unique. The methodology described here, focuses the interaction between

FIGURE 7: Mind Map of The One Minute Sales Person (Blanchard and Spencer, 1986) — Part 2
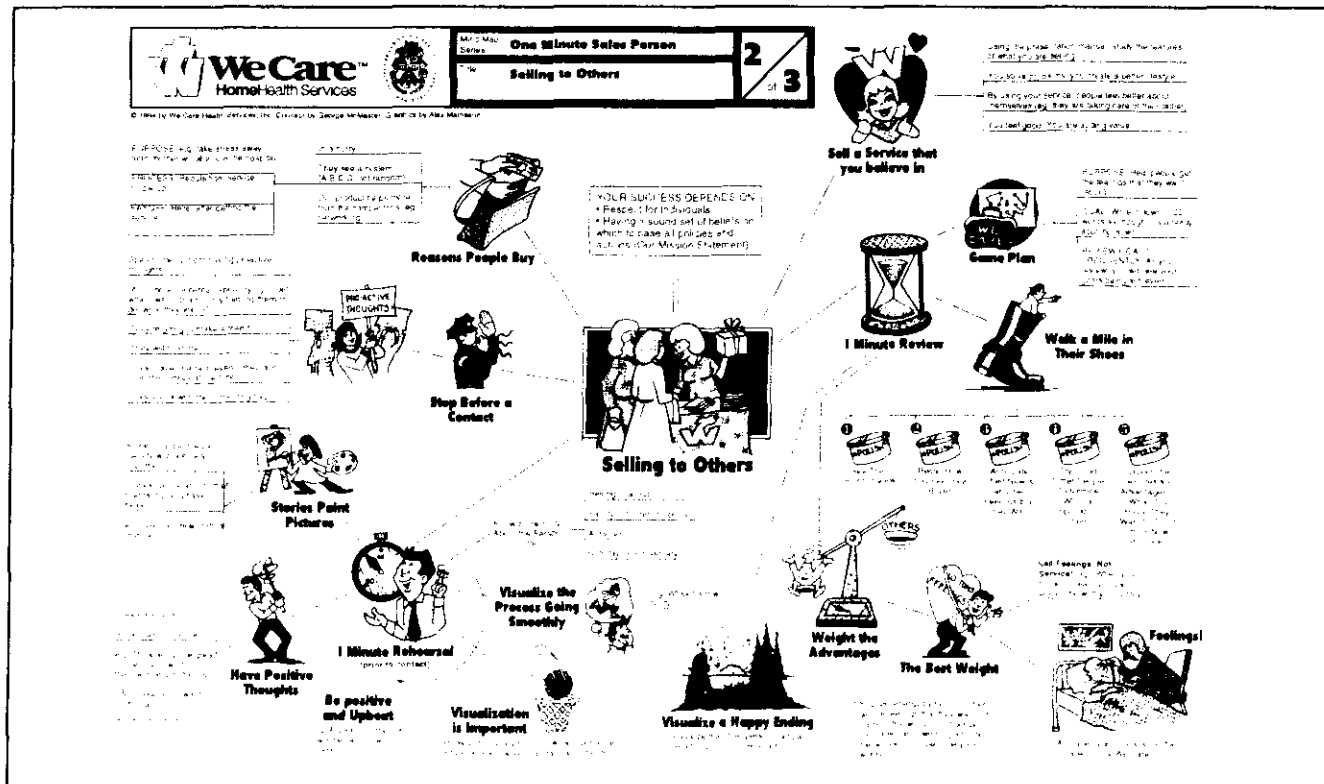
the marketer and the client in a positive way. When the methodology described in this paper is repeatedly used by the marketer, each application will get easier and a commonality will emerge. Most businesses are not that unique. The creative ideas for marketing the business will often come from the users that you are working with using this methodology.

It was also our experience that computer science and marketing students who performed a systems analysis on a business, and were taught this methodology, could offer richer advice to the businesses that they were working for, hence increasing the desire of the user to spend time that they consider to be precious to participate in the analysis phase.

Marketing consultants and marketing curriculi seem to be telling you (Putnam, 1990): "The solution to your problem is clear. Become a marketer." But that advice may seem about as useful as the advice an owl once gave a grasshopper!

A weary grasshopper had come to the owl for counsel. "Oh wise one, I despair of this constant struggle! I work all day, from spring through fall, just to lay in enough food to barely survive the winter. How can I get ahead?"

The owl blinked and nodded, "I see your problem, and the solution is clear. You must become a cricket."

"But why, oh wise one?"

"The cricket does not waste his time as you do. He eats what he needs, makes music when he likes, and when the cold weather comes he crawls into a snug hole and hibernates. Become a cricket, my son, and your days will be bright and joyful."

The grasshopper was ecstatic, contemplating his coming good fortune. He thanked the owl and began to hop happily away. A small doubt struck him however, and he turned back. "Oh wise one, just one last thing. Exactly how does one become a cricket when one starts as a grasshopper?"

The owl blinked in dismissal. "I have given you the marketing strategy. The details are up to you." We believe that both a marketing strategy and the details of that marketing strategy have been presented here, to optimize the results of the marketing effort.

FIGURE 8: Mind Map of The One Minute Sales Person (Blanchard and Spencer, 1986) — Part 3
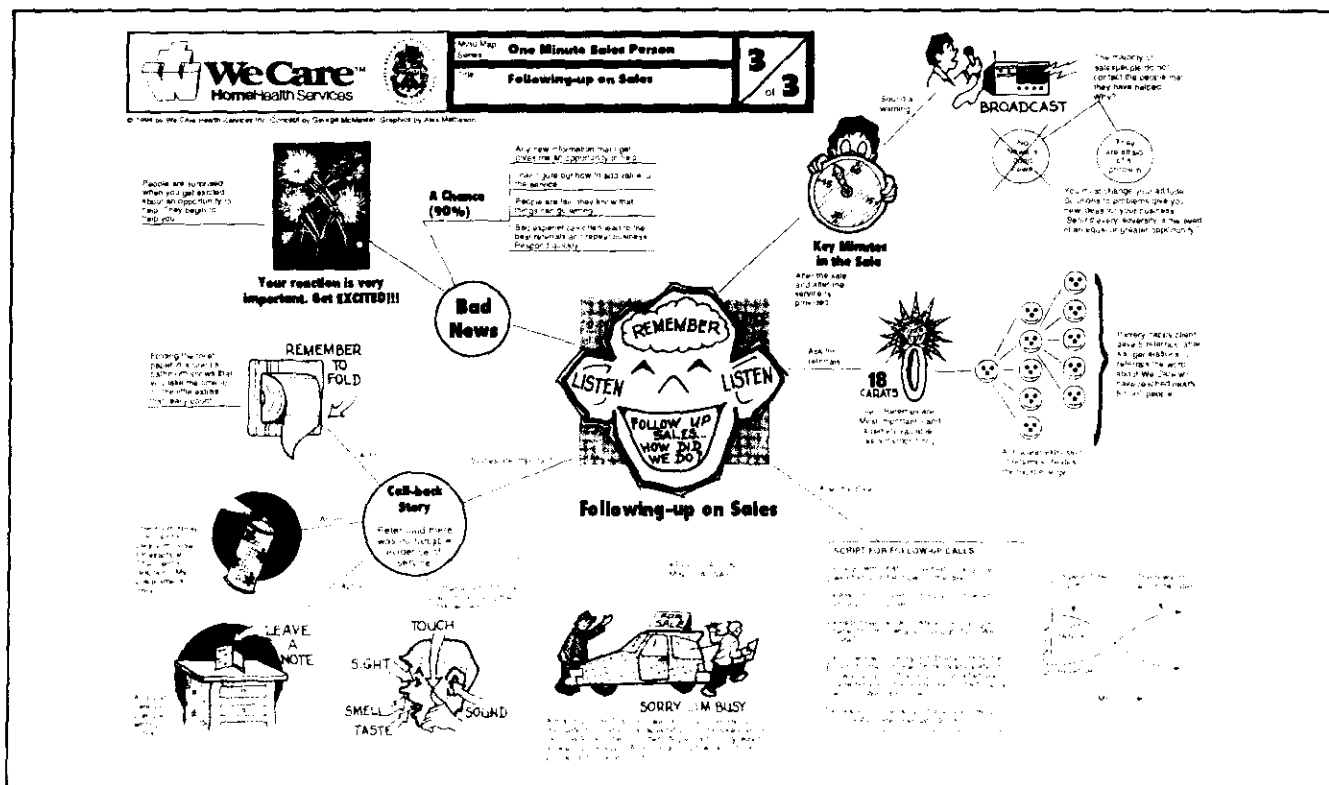
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THE USE OF NON-TRADITIONAL STUDENTS AS INDICATORS OF THE GENERALIZABILITY OF RESULTS IN MARKETING RESEARCH STUDIES USING STUDENT SAMPLES

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ABSTRACT

Are student samples suitable for marketing research studies. This paper investigates the usefulness of student samples in academic marketing research. An exploratory survey indicates that non-traditional students are more heterogenous than traditional student samples, and therefore may be more representative of the general population. If this is in fact true, then the academic researcher may be able the devise a student sample to be more representative than they are often thought to be.

INTRODUCTION

A consistent problem in marketing research has been the extensive use of college students as respondents in marketing research studies by academic marketing researchers. Many authors have expressed concern over the external validity of studies using students as surrogates. Specifically, Albert (1967) felt that students lacked the experience base businessmen use for decision making. Cunningham, Anderson, and Murphy (1973) found that students had a different value structure than non-students. Enis, Cox, and Stafford (1972) stated, "students are psychologically, socially, and demographically different from other segments of the population." They went on to point out that, not surprisingly, male undergraduate business students were poor surrogates for housewives.

Despite the objections to using students in marketing research, several studies have show that the practice of using students in marketing research is widespread. Bush, Hair, Busch, and Pratt (1975) found that 26% of consumer behavior articles published between 1964 and 1975 used student samples. Cunningham, Anderson, and Murphy (1974) found that between 20 and 33 percent of the articles they surveyed used students as subjects. Enis, Cox, and Stafford (1972) found that students were used in about one-half of the articles in the Journal of Marketing Research. Finally, Permut, Michel, and Joseph (1976) found that 103 out of 310 articles that identified the sampling used as students. These studies noted are approximately twenty years old, and research needs to be conducted to see if the use of student samples is as widespread in the 1990's as it was in previously.

If students are used for samples in academic marketing research studies, it is because of the high level of convenience and the low cost for the researcher. Enis, Cox, and Stafford (1972) state that the main advantages for the academic researcher is that large number of respondents who are able to follow detailed instructions are available at little or not cost. The drawback is that traditionally students are considered to be atypical of the general population. This means that the external validity of studies done with students may be questionable.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Several studies have been conducted to investigate the external validity of student samples in marketing research. Several authors (Beltramini 1983; Enis, Cox, and Stafford 1972; Hawkins, Albaum, and Best 1977; Sheth 1970) argue that the differences observed between student samples and non-student samples are a result of the different purchasing habits of students and not the result of differences in the underlying mental

process involved. This may be why many authors that fail to find external validity are reluctant to condemn the use of students in research, but merely warn researchers to be careful in generalizing their results.

Sheth (1970) was one of the first marketing researchers to use the experimental method to test the external validity of studies using student surrogates. Sheth's research focused on the role of the experimental setting had on the differences observed between student and non-student samples. Sheth's study compared post-decision dissonance reduction in male graduate students and housewives. When placing them in the identical experimental situation he found no significant difference between the two groups in post decision dissonance in both high-conflict and low-conflict choice situations. Sheth believed that this demonstrated that some of the problems with external validity could be situational.

Cunningham, Anderson, and Murphy (1974) compared 388 non-students with 220 students on seven different sociopsychological variables. They determined that there was a statistically significant difference on all seven on the sociopsychological variables tested. They believed that this indicated that the general validity of research using students was "highly suspect".
Hawkins, Albaum, and Best (1977) studied the question of differences in purchasing behavior versus differences in the underlying psychological process in their study of the attitudes of students and housewives toward different retail outlets. They then compared this with their actual shopping behavior. They found that there was a statistically significant difference between students and housewives in their attitudes towards retail outlets. They also found that these attitudes were accurate predictors of shopping behaviors for both students and housewives. The authors argued that this showed that the underlying psychological processes involved were similar, although their purchasing behaviors were different.

The overall consensus appears to be that student samples are acceptable if internal validity of a study is more important than external validity (Enis, Cox, and Stafford 1972) or if the researcher is more interested in studying the underlying psychological process involved in consumer behavior (Beltramini; Hawkins, Albaum, and Best 1975) and isn't interested in a specific product or service. If the researcher is more interested in generalizing the results of the study, then student samples should be avoided (Cunningham, Anderson, and Murphy 1974; Enis, Cox, and Stafford 1972) Almost all of researchers agree that the choice should be based on how relevant a student sample would be to the objectives of the study.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The present study has two main objectives. First, the study attempts to determine if non-traditional students are more heterogeneous in their life cycle stages than traditional students. Secondly, the study will try to determine if a significant difference exists between traditional and non-traditional students in attitudes toward products categories. The product category used in this study will be foreign versus domestic products. Attitudes about product quality, cost, and ethocentricity will be studied. Previous research (Han 1988; Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985) has indicated that preference attitudes on domestic versus foreign products may be dependent on demographic variables.

METHODOLOGY

Hypotheses
        To test the first objective of the study, the following hypothesis was developed.

H:A   There is a significant difference in life cycle stages represented by traditional versus non-traditional students.

The second objective of the study will test four basic hypotheses, with three different group comparisons for a total of twelve different hypotheses. The four basic hypotheses will look for differences in subjects attitudes on product quality, cost, ethocentricity, and observation of the products country of origin. Three separate groups will be studied: a) traditional versus non-traditional, b) married versus never married, and c) parents versus non-parents

The first set of hypotheses in this section deal with traditional versus non-traditional students' attitudes toward various aspects of purchasing foreign products.

HB1: There is a significant difference between the attitudes of traditional students and non-traditional students on the quality of products make in the United States and products made in foreign countries.

HB2: There is a significant difference between the attitudes of traditional students and non-traditional students on the cost of products make in the United States and products made in foreign countries.

HB3: There is a significant difference between the attitudes of traditional students and non-traditional students on the preference for products made in the United States.

HB4: There is a significant difference between the attitudes of traditional students and non-traditional students in observing the country of origin when buying a product.

All hypotheses were tested using an alpha level of .05

Sample

A convenience sample of undergraduate marketing students from a medium sized state university was used for data collection. A questionnaire was administered in a classroom setting to a convenience sample of introductory marketing students. Ferber (1977) stated that there were three situations in marketing research where a convenience sample was justified. The three situations were 1) exploratory studies, 2) studies illustrating a new methodology, and 3) clinical studies. Since this is an exploratory study, the use of a convenience sample is justified. The number of usable responses was 141. Parent students was the smallest of the comparison groups with a size of 23.

Student respondents were divided into traditional or non-traditional groups based on their age. Students under 25 were placed in the traditional student group, while students over 25 were placed in the non-traditional group. This procedure for dividing the sample into traditional versus non-traditional follows the recommendations of Chartrand (1990). One hundred six (106) of the subjects were found to be traditional students, while 35 respondents were classified as non-traditional students.

RESULTS

Traditional and non-traditional students were compared on the basis of their life cycle stages (Wells and Gubar 1965). A breakdown of the life cycle classifications for both groups (traditional and non-traditional) indicates that non-traditional students represent more life cycle stages than traditional students. This appears to indicate that non-traditional students are possibly more representative of the general population than traditional students. Hypothesis HA was tested by using ANOVA. The results can be seen in TABLE 1.

TABLE 1
HA - ANOVA ON LIFE CYCLE DIFFERENCES

	Traditional		Non-Traditional		F
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Value
HA	1.179	0.49	2.60	1.40	80.25

Significant at alpha = .000.

The support for this hypotheses provides support for the concept that non-traditional students are more likely to be representative of the general population than non-traditional students. It is possible that non-traditional students may, in fact, be useful indicators of generalizability of using student samples. It also indicates that non-traditional students are more heterogeneous than traditional students. The implication for academic marketing researchers is that studies that use non-traditional students may provide a useful sample. On the other hand, researchers who develop studies that require homogeneity of the sample may require a research design that allows non-traditional students to be separated from traditional students.

ATTITUDE DIFFERENCES

The second part of the study involves testing the twelve hypotheses involving attitude differences between traditional and non-traditional student groups. The individual groups were compared on their attitudes toward 1) quality of products make in the United States and products made in foreign countries, 2) the cost of products made in the

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United States and products made in foreign countries, 3) preferences for products made in the United States, and 4) the observation of the country of origin when buying a product.

The results of these attitude comparisons are provided in Table 2.

TABLE 2
TRADITIONAL VERSUS NON-TRADITIONAL
STUDENTS - ATTITUDINAL VARIABLES

| | Traditional | | Non-Traditional | | F |
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Value
HB1	7.12	2.00	8.11	2.56	5.58*
HB2	8.24	2.18	8.49	2.27	0.34
HB3	4.80	1.70	5.60	1.61	5.96*
HB4	3.08	1.79	4.57	1.91	17.7*

*Significant at the alpha = .05

The first hypothesis tested (HB1:) showed that non-traditional students were more likely to associate quality with the country of origin than traditional students. This difference was significant at the .02 level. Hypothesis (HB2:) tested if there was a significant difference between traditional and non-traditional students in the cost of a product and its country of origin. This relationship was not found to be significant at the .05 level. The third hypothesis (HB3:) tested showed that non-traditional students were more likely to buy products produced in the United States than traditional students. The final hypothesis tested (HB4:) found that non-traditional students were more likely to notice the country where a product was produced than were non traditional students.

DISCUSSION

A conclusion from the results may be that the differences shown in the study may be a result of age rather than life cycle stage. A post hoc analysis was conducted to analyze the relationship of age to differences in attitude between groups. The age used for defining traditional and non-traditional students was systematically varied from 22 years of age to 28 years of age. The results indicate that the separation of the two groups was maximum at age 25. This seems to indicate that

some kind of change takes place in student attitudes at age 25 (at least concerning foreign versus domestic products). Age appears to be the significant variable when separating students in traditional versus non-traditional groups, not stage in the life cycle. The results of this study indicate that additional research is warranted on using non-traditional student to test the generalizability of research using student surrogates. The next step would be to repeat this study using students and non-students as the test subjects. If non-traditional students are more similar to non-students than t hey are to traditional students, then academic marketing researchers could better justify the use of student samples. They would still be convenience samples, but they might not have all the biases of a traditional student sample.

It is unlikely that academic marketing researches will stop using student samples. If, as this preliminary study indicates, that non-traditional students are more heterogenous than traditional student samples, then academic researcher may be able devise a student sample to be more representative than they are often thought to be.

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IMPACT OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION UPON SIMULATED SALES PRESENTATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Using a sample of 212 personal selling students, the effects of communication apprehension upon interaction involvement, a communication competence variable and sales presentation grades were assessed.

Interaction Involvement : Cegala (1981) defines interaction involvement as, "...the extent to which an individual partakes in a social environment" (p. 112). Cegala (1981) developed a likert-type scale consisting of three dimensions, and higher scores indicate greater levels of involvement in conversations. Attentiveness (**Attent**) measures the amount of effort expended in carrying on a conversation; perceptiveness (**Percep**) relates to one's ability to understand meaning within the conversation; responsiveness (**Resp**) indicates one's certainty of what has been expressed and making an appropriate response.

Communication Apprehension (CA): Communication apprehension is defined as, "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (McCroskey 1984, p. 14) and this study is limited to the exploration of traitlike communication apprehension because its level of anxiety is more persistent and less transitory than other types. Traitlike communication apprehension is defined as, "a relatively enduring personality type orientation toward a given mode of communication across a wide variety of contexts," (McCroskey 1984, p. 16).

Grade: Grades from videotaped, simulated sales presentations were used as a measure of communication performance.

TABLE 1. VARIABLE CORRELATIONS

	CA	Attent	Percep	Resp	Grade
CA					
Attent	-.23*				
Percep	-.30*	.60**			
Resp	-.54**	.65**	.67**		
Grade	-.45**	.25*	.24*	.28*	

* significant at p < .05
** significant at p < .01 n = 212 students

TABLE 2. ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BY LEVELS OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

Variable Means by Level of CA

Level	CA	Attent	Percep	Resp	Grade
High	83.28	21.59	24.28	37.20	45.32
Moder	59.13	24.20	26.32	42.48	49.34
Low	38.63	26.00	27.85	45.45	50.27

Variable Mean Differences by Level of CA

Level	Attent	Percep	Resp	Grade
Low - High	4.41*	3.57*	8.24*	4.96*
Moder-High	2.61*	2.04*	5.28*	4.03*
Low-Moder	1.80	1.53	2.96*	0.93

* significant at p < .05

CA Categorical Levels:

high > 72	moder 48-71	low 47 or below
n = 50	n = 120	n = 42

Obviously, communication apprehension has harmful effects upon interaction involvement and communication performance, and the negative effect is most dramatic within the high anxiety group. Students, possessing high levels of communication apprehension, are significantly less involved in conversations: they are less attentive to conversational partners; less perceptive of messages transmitted; and less responsive to conversational initiatives and less likely to provide suitable responses. However, as group mean differences suggest, even a moderate level of communication apprehension can lower involvement by reducing responsiveness. Overall, moderate to high levels of anxiety diminish conversational flexibility. In particular, high anxiety lessens general communication effectiveness as evidenced by lower sales presentation grades.

A PERCEPTUAL GAP BETWEEN STUDENTS AND FACULTY: A REVIEW OF IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FROM RESEARCH ON STUDENT ACADEMIC MISCONDUCT

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ABSTRACT

Controlling academic misconduct may becoming a more difficult challenge for marketing faculty as class sizes increase due to resource limitations at many institutions. Some research has stressed the need for faculty to become more aggressive with reactive measures and techniques to address the problem of student cheating. This paper, however, argues that it may also be useful for faculty to more clearly understand student attitudes and motivations toward academic dishonesty so that more proactive cheating prevention strategies can be considered.

The task for marketing educators to maintain academic integrity in their classrooms may be growing. As resources for our institutions shrink, while student enrollments maintain, marketing class sizes have often grown larger. As the student/instructor ratio in a class increases, so too it would appear, do student attempts to compromise academic integrity. As such, a review and analysis of the academic integrity literature might shed additional insight as to why such problems are occurring and lead to recommendations for reducing student cheating behaviors.

An appraisal of specific measures and techniques used to help control student academic misconduct might be helpful. Experience, however, suggests that more complete understanding of student attitudes and motivations associated with cheating might also be useful in designing proactive strategies to deal with these problems.

INTRODUCTION

Anyone who has even a modicum of experience in teaching and evaluation of marketing students in higher education has faced difficult pedagogical challenges. Not the least of these challenges is the maintenance of academic integrity among one's students. Student cheating presents several obvious problems to any educational process. First, it poses a threat to the equity of instructional measurement. That is, a student's relative abilities are inaccurately evaluated. Also, the student who engages in dishonest academic behavior likely reduces their level of self-enrichment and is therefore less prepared for more advanced study or application of the material presented in a course.

There are certainly, however, some positive incentives for students attempting to engage in cheating behaviors. Higher grades, in whatever fashion they might be achieved, may lead to such positive benefits as: prestigious academic awards and recognition, superior financial aid options, and/or enhanced employment opportunities. Faculty themselves may have some incentive to see that their students are earning reasonably high grades. These higher grades may sometimes be viewed as a measure of how well a course was taught by an instructor. In addition, higher student grades may also lead to improved levels of student placement in employment or advanced study opportunities. These outcomes may also result in granting recognition for the faculty in the process.

Given the role of colleges and universities to help prepare students to better deal with the society that they live in, many contemporary academicians agree that a key pedagogical

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issue today in any class is the reduction or elimination of threats to academic integrity. But educators have seemingly not always responded to this call. The Carnegie Council Report (1979), for example, condemned higher education for serious neglect of ethical standards and indicated that increasingly, students are resorting to unethical practices to achieve the grades they want. Based on review of extant literature in the academic integrity domain, however, it seems as if several levels of challenge exist for concerned faculty. No doubt, design of effective measures and techniques to help maintain high levels of academic integrity among one's students is an important issue. Yet traditional methods used to discourage dishonest academic behavior seem to focus on measures that are based upon the faculty's reaction to blatant incidents. Previous research appears to be suggesting that one perceptual gap between faculty and their students is an understanding of what is regarded as academic misconduct by the other. Perhaps better and more complete understanding of student attitudes toward cheating behavior may lead to a different perspective. Such an alternative viewpoint may lead faculty to consider the design of cheating prevention measures as opposed to just cheating response measures.

With this view in mind, this paper begins with presenting a short description of the scope of the paper by defining what academic misconduct typically entails. Next, previous work in student attitudes and behaviors associated with academic misconduct is examined. Also, when appropriate, related perspectives from faculty are presented. Finally, implications for faculty of the extant work in this field is discussed and several recommendations for improving academic integrity in our classrooms are presented.

THE SCOPE OF THIS RESEARCH

Academic dishonesty can take numerous forms. In fact, a research effort designed merely to identify all of those forms would be a difficult task. It should be noted in defining the scope of this paper that there is some debate in the literature with regard to exactly

what range of behaviors constitute violations of academic integrity. For this paper, the term academic misconduct describes using materials during an exam that are unauthorized by the instructor, viewing another person's exam during the exam period, communicating with other students in a manner that is not authorized, possessing materials that are not authorized, taking an examination for another person or having someone else take an exam for oneself, or violating any procedures designed to protect the integrity of the exam. Also, we will use a number of terms such as academic integrity, misconduct, academic dishonesty, and cheating to be different terms which describe or define the same construct.

STUDENT ACADEMIC MISCONDUCT: ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS

The Nature of Student Threats to Academic Integrity

Researchers have some disagreement as to the magnitude and nature of the threats to academic integrity posed by their students. Perhaps the most pervasive finding, however, is that a great deal of students do participate in at least some sort of academic dishonesty. Several studies report that between 75.5% and 82% of college undergraduate students engaged in at least some form of cheating behavior during the college careers (Baird, 1980; Stern and Havlicek, 1986). Even more advanced students are suspect, as Zastrow (1970) reported that 40% of graduate students were found to have participated in dishonest academic activities. With behavioral frequencies this high, one question must immediately come to mind: What sort of activities or behaviors are considered to be violations of academic integrity? Clearly some activities may be considered dishonest to some groups while not by others. In addition, it may be possible for there to be different levels or magnitudes of cheating behavior. That is, some forms of dishonesty might be considered more "criminal" by faculty and institutions than others.

While the focus of some of the key research on this topic reflects primarily on issues regarding

cheating on in-class examinations, we recognize that is by no means the only form of academic dishonesty that is considered inappropriate by either students or faculty. Not surprisingly, there is often great divergence of opinions between faculty and students as to what constitutes cheating. Stern and Havlicek (1986) compare faculty and student attitudes on this topic and help point out that each group has difficulties understanding the other's position in regards to cheating behaviors.

A more detailed discussion of the Stern and Havlicek (1986) results here is clearly warranted to help develop some perspective on what academic dishonesty really means to both groups, students and faculty. Copying from another student during and examination was viewed as misconduct by 96% of students and 99% of faculty surveyed. An incidence rate of 71% strongly suggests that even though students know they are doing wrong, they are still willing to engage in such behavior. It would appear that most students do not perceive the negative consequences of academic misconduct to be strong or severe enough to alter their behavior.

What seem to be somewhat more subtle ways of cheating are also problematic for faculty, according to Stern and Havlicek (1986). Previewing an examination from some sort of "test file" when the teacher does not permit the students to keep copies of exams and does not know such a file exists was seen as dishonest by only 57% of students but by 94% of faculty. The reported incidence rate of 41% reveals that this is also a problem that warrants significant concern. Asking another student for the questions to an examination which he/she had taken and you were about to take was seen as a violation of academic integrity by only 45% of students yet by 87% of faculty. Again a high incidence rate of 76%, shows that a majority of students have engaged in this sort of behavior during their college careers. As defined earlier in this paper, academic dishonesty or cheating, refer to any inappropriate or unacceptable student conduct as perceived by the faculty member, not the student. Certainly a challenge emerges here for all of us as faculty members. That is,

making our students understand what specifically it is that we view as academic misconduct.

On the surface, these findings suggest that in many cases students are just confused as to what actually constitutes academic dishonesty in the mind of their faculty members. Yet are we being naive in accepting the response from students that they didn't always know what constitutes cheating behavior? Looked at more callously then, these findings beg some additional questions with regard to student academic misconduct. First, why do students have such a high propensity to engage in academic misconduct? It seems that before we can effectively begin to develop measures to control or reduce cheating we must develop a better understanding of what seem to be the causes or motivations in students that lead them to cheat. If we had more insight into why a student would be prone to cheat, perhaps we could do a better job with prevention. Secondly, we obviously need to examine the role that consequences of cheating play in demotivating students. It may be that our students are given motivation to cheat since they do not perceive a great deal of risk in such behavior.

Some Reasons That Students Cheat

Identifying causes and motivations of student cheating behavior may be a key step in devising a strategy to improve measures for detection and prevention. Several studies have examined the issues of motivations and causes of cheating in students.

Gilligan (1963) and Hill and Kochendorfer (1969) both posit that increases in cheating behavior for most students is a function of "achievement motivation." Although the rewards may be public, the instigation of deviant achievement responses can typically be kept relatively private and thus can be based on motivation for positive achievement. In other words, since cheating can be instrumental to the appearance of success, it can help in the sense of providing social approval.

In two other related findings, Hill and Kochendorfer (1969) further reinforce the notion of social approval as a driving force behind the motivation to cheat. They found support for the hypothesis that more subjects will cheat with knowledge of peers scores than without such knowledge. Thus, a student's perception of his/her own relative failure is more than academic. That student's status in his immediate peer group can also be affected by low scores. In essence, this finding calls into question whether or not students should be given their position or rank in a class relative to others after each exam or assignment is graded. The provision of information about successful peer performance may be raising the negative incentive value of failure.

In addition, Hill and Kochendorfer (1969) also confirmed that the level of risk of detection influenced the level of cheating behavior engaged in by students. Not surprisingly, they found that cues signalling the possibility of detection served to inhibit cheating. The absence of strong risk perceptions for students in regard to punishments for academic misconduct seems to encourage cheating behaviors.

Insofar as that notion may seem obvious and almost trivial, it is interesting to note that Gardner, et al.(1988) report that cheating may not always entail risk. They argue that a permissive instructor may invite cheating by ignoring violations of course rules. Instructors may also set standards that are flexible and allow the instructor to be as pragmatic as they wish when dealing with student conduct issues.

Some researchers have tried to suggest that a cause of cheating behavior may be based in the nature or traits of the students. In other words, certain student types or groups might be more prone to engage in misconduct than others. Certainly, as discussed by Bunn, Caudill, and Gropper (1992), there could be an analogy between deviant or criminal behavior in society and that in the classroom in that some individuals have a greater propensity than others to commit such acts. The support for this notion, however, is mixed at best. Gardner

et al. (1988) report that very few students could be classified as either chronic cheaters or chronically honest. Several studies (Kelly and Worrell, 1978; Johnson and Gormley, 1972) indicate that students of lower intelligence will cheat more than students of higher intelligence. This is ostensibly because those students of lower ability have more to gain with regard to grades.

Gender differences have also been hypothesized to be related to cheating behavior but the findings again yielded mixed results. It has been inferred that at the very least women do not cheat more than men. One gender difference that seems to be supported in several studies, however, is that the threat of sanctions has the greatest impact in reducing cheating behaviors among women and among students of high academic ability (Tittle and Rowe, 1973).

It would appear that stress is also a key factor in student motivation to cheat. Barnett and Dalton (1981) in a survey at one major university posed the item: "Students are able to keep up with reading, homework, and assignments." Fifty-nine percent of the faculty respondents said this was "very descriptive," while only 29% of student respondents concurred. This disparity in response is not entirely surprising given the expected roles of the two groups. However, it also suggests that faculty should be aware that as the workload, and subsequent stress level of students in a particular course increases, so apparently might the student's propensity to cheat. Evidence does suggests that one of the coping mechanisms for stress is cheating (Barnett and Dalton; 1981).

Of particular concern to marketing faculty is the predisposition of their business students to cheat. While some anecdotal stories about the unethical nature of business students may circulate amongst faculty, the empirical evidence gives very little support for this assertion. In fact, O'Clock and Okleshen (1993) present findings that report business students to self perceive higher ethical standards than their peer students in other disciplines.

Houston (1976;1986) suggests, in several related studies, that part of the cause of student cheating on exams is simply a function of how close students are allowed to be seated near to one another and whether or not the students are acquaintances. In his experiments, he found support for the hypothesis that student spacing in the classroom during exams did impact cheating behavior. Students seated more closely to one another of in such a position to have clear views of other students exam papers engaged in cheating more frequently. Additionally, he found that assigned seating reduced cheating behavior over free seating. It is proposed that the mechanism accounting for the free seating difference has more to do with acquaintances collaborating with one another than it does with subjects choosing more safe seating positions in which to copy answers.

In summary, it appears untenable to argue that certain groups or types or students are at the root of our problems regarding cheating behavior. All student types engage in academic misconduct and a focus on a particular subgroup of students when presenting sanctions or designing prevention techniques would seem to be a mistake. In addition, it would appear that the ethics of our business students do not make our job as business faculty any easier or more difficult than that of our colleagues in other disciplines. Also, faculty may be contributing to students motivation to cheat by not being more diligent in spacing students or attempting to separate acquaintances.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Close examination of research in this domain indicates that no single measure or issue is, by itself, an answer to concerns about academic integrity in the classroom today. Rather, a series of coordinated steps or actions is necessary.

As noted earlier, one of the first difficulties for faculty in controlling for academic integrity is to clarify for the students what faculty perceives as dishonest behavior. The reported divergence of opinions in this domain suggest

the need for faculty to be more explicit to their students in identifying inappropriate behaviors to them. If the students are clearly appraised of the rules, following them likely becomes easier for them. Therefore, step one is to be certain that students are presented with rules and standards.

Evidence has also been presented which argues that even when there is convergence of faculty and students opinions as to what constitutes cheating, there are still high reported incidence rates. This would suggest that for most students, the risk of cheating is seen as low. That is, the penalties and sanctions associated with being caught are not sufficiently harsh as to adequately discourage the academic misconduct. This means that step two requires that faculty make clear to students that violations of the rules will be met with consequences. Making certain that students understand potential retribution is one way to lower cheating incidents by raising the perception of risk for such students.

Still, the research reviewed suggests that there are different levels or degrees of cheating behavior. Essentially, what seems to be necessary is some sort of schedule of behaviors and their related sanctions that is understood by both parties involved. For example, the penalty for plagiarism on a short paper might be one thing, the penalty for copying from another during an exam might be something different. While each faculty member and institution may have different attitudes about how harshly certain violations should be treated, step three must surely be to develop and then explain to students a schedule of sanctions or penalties that they can expect if they are found to be engaging in academic misconduct.

As stated earlier, students who do not perceive the risk of cheating to be high are often then implicitly encouraged to violate academic integrity. While not all students will respond to low risk conditions in that fashion, it is clear that more students will cheat if the risk of detection is low versus the risk of detection being high. As such, step four must be to increase the risk of detection.

In summary, the problem of cheating is pervasive in higher education. To effectively halt cheating will require that faculty awareness increases, detection methods be implemented, and consequences be given. Efforts of educators to control cheating behaviors must also include attention to the root causes of such behaviors. We must raise the level of risk perception in the minds of our students such that the risk will outweigh the reward.

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

While much of the research in the domain of academic integrity has looked at the student and their position toward cheating, more work needs to be done to explore faculty attitudes and behaviors associated with this problem. No one would question that students are the major source and benefactor of the problem of academic dishonesty. Yet it appears from the extant work in this domain, that the role of faculty in the problem is more complex than one might think. In some cases, faculty are contributing, almost unwittingly, to the students decision process regarding cheating behavior by not making the risk of detection intolerable to the students or by setting workload expectations that are not reasonable.

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TELEVISION TEACHING OF A MARKETING COURSE:
NEGOTIATING A LEARNING CURVE IN
DISTANCE EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

A variety of television systems are now used to link classrooms with instructors, enabling delivery of courses to students in multiple distant locations simultaneously. In one such use of television in the state of Washington, an introductory agricultural marketing course was taught during three successive years. The Washington Higher Education Telecommunications System, a two-way audio and video communication medium was used to deliver the course. This article details and evaluates the adaptations to traditional teaching methods arising from television delivery of the course. Analysis suggests that teaching and televising are definitely compatible although instructors must remain sensitive to the long distance challenge and administrators need to recognize that there may be hidden costs in using these systems.

INTRODUCTION

Television is increasingly used as an instructional medium to teach students at multiple locations. Television spans time and distance barriers by delivering courses to place bound students in their own communities. The overall goal of educational institutions in reaching students at distant locations via television is to efficiently use limited faculty resources while fulfilling the basic teaching mission.

The Agricultural Satellite Corporation (AG*SAT) is a national agricultural education telecommunications service formed in 1989 to share educational programs via satellite distribution among land grant universities. AG*SAT is based on one-way television delivery of courses. Among other courses, AG*SAT has been used to simultaneously deliver a sustainable agriculture course to students at eleven universities across the nation, [Salvador et al., 1993]. Instructor and student interaction in this course was limited however. Interaction was accomplished via students at the remote locations faxing questions to the instructor.

AG*SAT is one of several methods of overcoming distance in course delivery. The experience reported here was gained in Washington with a television system of instructional delivery using a different technology [Worley and Casavant, 1992]. An agribusiness marketing course focusing on the functions, institutions and managerial decision making involved in food marketing was delivered via TV. A live, fully interactive two-way television system was used to teach this class simultaneously at two campuses located 140 miles apart. The adjustments and outcomes concerning this case of distance teaching are specific to the course and instructor situation herein described. As such, caution is advised in making interpretations and generalizations of these outcomes to other teaching situations. The following section explains the technology employed followed by sections on the learning curve encountered and then evaluation.

STRUCTURE OF THE SYSTEM

The Washington Higher Education Telecommunications System (WHETS) employs line of sight microwave antenna towers positioned around the state to link various campus locations in Washington and the University of Idaho. These dedicated antennae, along with other equipment, make the system completely closed circuit and fully interactive among all locations. The Pullman campus is linked with its three branch campuses, the University of Idaho and the University of Washington.

Each location is equipped with a technical control room and at least one electronic classroom with seating for up to 40 students. Instruction can originate and be transmitted as well as received at all locations. The system's live, real time, two-way video and audio permits students in as many as four separate locations to participate as one class through interaction over the electronic network. The instructor and class members at the originating

location observe and interact with students at the off site locations via video monitors. Students converse with the instructor and off site students from all locations through individual microphones at each classroom seat and observe the instructor and distant students on television monitors.

THE LEARNING CURVE ENCOUNTERED

The WHETS system was used to deliver Introductory Agribusiness Marketing during fall semesters of three consecutive years, 1990-92. The two campuses that offered the class are 140 miles apart and the class meetings were scheduled in two weekly 75-minute sessions. The instructor taught from the branch location via the live telecommunications linkup with the Pullman campus one class day per week and travelled to the main campus for the second class session. Rotating the origination of the class between locations provided opportunity for the traditional instructor-student contact at least one day per week with all students and provided time to offer office hours on the main campus. This rotating arrangement between locations was employed during the entire three year period.

Overview of Years One and Two

During 1990 a traditional lecture format was employed throughout the course. The overhead camera was used similar to a blackboard to spontaneously write out and emphasize lecture points. Students remained very unresponsive to class discussion opportunities throughout the initial semester.

In planning for the second offering of the course emphasis was placed on making greater use of the visual versatility afforded by the system [Hanley, 1991]. Video tapes of the instructor's personal interviews with marketing firm managers and tours of their plants were made for use during the second term. Prepared tapes from other sources including the Washingotn Apple Commission and Produce Marketing Associaltion were also used following McCrimmon's approach [JNRLSE, 1992]. These taped segments provided valuable breaks in the format of the class presentations which is necessary to prevent student boredom during TV lectures. All practical means to inject visual variety into a TV class should be considered by potential instructors.

A more polished and prepared on camera look than had been present the first year was accomplished by preparing laser printed graphic outlines to replace live hand writing on the screen. These outlines provided guidance to the instructor's presentation and assisted students with organization of their class notes. Guest lecturers were invited to present selected topics and add further variety to the class.

Further Adjustments: Year Three

Two significant changes were implemented during the third, 1992 session of the class. These were the substitution of a class project for a term paper assignment and implementation of group presentations during the class. These adjustments are not necessarily related to the use of the TV technology and are applicable modifications in a standard teaching situation. It is important to point out, however, that these adjustments were beneficial and satisfying to both students and instructor in this distance education mode and should not be overlooked as options for course components by potential television instructors.

The term project was designed to enhance student understanding of consumer preference and decision making. Each student analyzed his food purchase and expenditure patterns through individual research. Specific objectives of the assignment were to: gain insight into patterns of individual food expenditures; apply selected food marketing concepts in analyzing food expenditures; and gain experience in conveying information in a clearly written, technical style. A paper of three pages minimum length discussing and analyzing personal food expenditures was prepared. Interaction between the instructor and students over the TV medium during the entire course was heightened by this assignment. Many questions from students concerning the assignment were answered over the system avoiding a delay until the next class session. The overhead camera was used to show examples of the tables and charts which were expected to be included in the written analysis. Questions and answers concerning this assignment created a more open environment for student participation in class discussions of marketing concepts.

The second major adjustment in model three was the use of 15 minute student group presentations coupled with relevant discussion. This activity had a dual purpose: in-depth study in preparation for the

presentations and the experience of delivering the talk on the TV system. These presentations were scheduled for class days when the instructor was in the distant WHETS classroom thereby forcing the students to communicate with the instructor solely via the electronic medium. Each group typically consisted of four students who spent equal time at center stage before the TV camera. A noticeable benefit of this activity relevant to distance education was the increased willingness of students to ask questions and enter class discussions after doing their group presentation.

Colleague Aided Evaluation

Colleague aided evaluation of the course and instructor was employed in the course during 1991 and 1992. This technique involves an unannounced visit to the class by a faculty colleague about mid semester. The regular instructor turns the class session over to the colleague who then seeks student input concerning strengths and weaknesses in the course and instructor (Casavant, 1988). Feedback from this evaluation is subsequently provided to the instructor concerning perceptions of the class members.

Both major suggestions arising from the 1992 evaluation were related to the use of the prepared overhead outlines. Students urged the instructor to make use of the white board at the front of the classroom to add variety to lecture presentations rather than relying exclusively on the overhead camera to display information on transparencies. Secondly, it was suggested that copies of the outlines be provided to students prior to the class sessions when they were to be covered.

STUDENT EVALUATIONS OF ADAPTATIONS

A comparison of relevant ratings from student evaluations of the course for the three semesters is presented in Table 1. While it is widely understood that these evaluations are not complete measures of course quality and teaching effectiveness, they are the most objective measures available to gauge student perceptions of the course offerings.

Measures evaluating instructor preparation, presentation effectiveness and course organization increased 37, 28 and 22%, respectively, in 1991. Instructor preparation and course organization improvements are likely attributable to the

Table 1. Composite Ratings and Percentage Changes, Student Evaluations of Agricultural Economics 350, Fall Semesters 1990-1992.

				INCREASE		
				1990-91	1991-92	1990-92
	1990	1991	1992			
	0 - 5 Scale[†]			Percent		
Instructor interest	3.3	3.8	4.2	14	10	26
Instructor preparation	2.8	3.9	4.1	37	7	46
Course organization	2.8	3.4	3.5	22	3	26
Presentation	2.2	2.9	3.2	28	13	44
Attitude to student	3.9	4.1	4.6	4	13	17
Learning emphasis	2.6	3.0	3.9	15	31	51
Examinations	2.5	2.8	3.6	13	25	41
Grading	3.3	3.3	4.0	1	22	23
Overall course	2.6	3.1	3.6	20	16	38
Overall instructor	2.8	3.1	3.7	12	20	34

†Student ratings on each item were based on a 0 - 5 scale with 5 as the highest rating.

preparation of the graphic overheads for each session. According to student comments, the use of graphic overheads were a sign of instructor preparedness and lecture organization in semester two whereas the use of live outline writing was considered a sign of unpreparedness in session one. Video taped segments were cited by students as a good way to break up the class periods into segments.

Although the group presentations slowed the pace of the class considerably during year three, the presentations were well prepared and interesting to the class members. The question and answer periods frequently continued for 15 to 20 minutes after the formal presentation. Less time was available to cover syllabus topics. However, since topics were originally chosen to coincide with scheduled course topics, this seems a reasonable tradeoff of class time.

The term project was also well received by the students and instructor. The students responded positively to the chance to study their own behaviors regarding food expenditures and realized through this activity that the course concepts were evident in their own behavior. This project was deemed a better learning exercise than the term paper which had been seen as somewhat of a stand alone appendage to the balance of the class assignments in prior sessions. An improvement of 31% increase in

presentations and the experience of delivering the talk on the TV system. These presentations were scheduled for class days when the instructor was in the distant WHETS classroom thereby forcing the students to communicate with the instructor solely via the electronic medium. Each group typically consisted of four students who spent equal time at center stage before the TV camera. A noticeable benefit of this activity relevant to distance education was the increased willingness of students to ask questions and enter class discussions after doing their group presentation.

Colleague Aided Evaluation

Colleague aided evaluation of the course and instructor was employed in the course during 1991 and 1992. This technique involves an unannounced visit to the class by a faculty colleague about mid semester. The regular instructor turns the class session over to the colleague who then seeks student input concerning strengths and weaknesses in the course and instructor (Casavant, 1988). Feedback from this evaluation is subsequently provided to the instructor concerning perceptions of the class members.

Both major suggestions arising from the 1992 evaluation were related to the use of the prepared overhead outlines. Students urged the instructor to make use of the white board at the front of the classroom to add variety to lecture presentations rather than relying exclusively on the overhead camera to display information on transparencies. Secondly, it was suggested that copies of the outlines be provided to students prior to the class sessions when they were to be covered.

STUDENT EVALUATIONS OF ADAPTATIONS

A comparison of relevant ratings from student evaluations of the course for the three semesters is presented in Table 1. While it is widely understood that these evaluations are not complete measures of course quality and teaching effectiveness, they are the most objective measures available to gauge student perceptions of the course offerings.

Measures evaluating instructor preparation, presentation effectiveness and course organization increased 37, 28 and 22%, respectively, in 1991. Instructor preparation and course organization improvements are likely attributable to the

Table 1. Composite Ratings and Percentage Changes, Student Evaluations of Agricultural Economics 350, Fall Semesters 1990-1992.

	1990	1991	1992	1990-91	1991-92	1990-92
	0 - 5 Scale[†]			Percent		
Instructor interest	3.3	3.8	4.2	14	10	26
Instructor preparation	2.8	3.9	4.1	37	7	46
Course organization	2.8	3.4	3.5	22	3	26
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†Student ratings on each item were based on a 0 - 5 scale with 5 as the highest rating.

preparation of the graphic overheads for each session. According to student comments, the use of graphic overheads were a sign of instructor preparedness and lecture organization in semester two whereas the use of live outline writing was considered a sign of unpreparedness in session one. Video taped segments were cited by students as a good way to break up the class periods into segments.

Although the group presentations slowed the pace of the class considerably during year three, the presentations were well prepared and interesting to the class members. The question and answer periods frequently continued for 15 to 20 minutes after the formal presentation. Less time was available to cover syllabus topics. However, since topics were originally chosen to coincide with scheduled course topics, this seems a reasonable tradeoff of class time.

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learning emphasis indicated by the student evaluations in year 3 over year 2 is likely linked to the institution of this term project and the aforementioned group presentations.

Instructor perceptions of the adjustments introduced during years two and three were positive. Significant and steady increases in student evaluations of the course were achieved during the latter 2 years. An overall increase of 35% in results of the student evaluation occurred under the reorganaizations in the second and third models (Table 1). These results provide the quantitative basis for continuance of the changes and adaptations introduced during years two and three.

Efficiency Issues for Administrators

There are hidden costs (particularly from administrators) of using a television system. These hidden costs include the added faculty time required to make adaptations to effectively use these systems. In the second year faculty time spent on this course averaged an estimated 35 hours per week. In addition, the time used during the previous summer (40-50 hours) preparing the videotaped interviews and tours was spent at the expense of extension and research activity.

These interviews and plant tours were prepared with the assistance of a videographer using home video equipment. Clips of these tapes were subsequently selected for showing at various times during the 1991 and 1992 course sessions. Several hours of instructor time were spent in review of the tapes to select the most appropriate material for use during particular class sessions. These indirect costs for camera assistance and tape review should be factored into the decision making process of using these systems.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

An overview of the technology and a dynamic adjustment process for using television links to teach an agribusiness marketing class from a distant location has been presented using a case study approach. The long distance learning curve for the instructor and results for the students indicate success in making improvements although goals remain to be achieved. The importance of advanced planning is heightened by the use of cameras and monitors which tend to magnify flaws in hand written notes. The medium's greatest asset is its visual versatility and this feature should be used to inject as much variety of presentation as possible. Videotaped interviews and industry tours along with guest speakers allowed for variety in the presentations. Group presentations and an innovative term project were successfully introduced into the course.

Use of these systems is accompanied by hidden costs, however. In addition to the visible costs for equipment and technical personnel, less obvious overhead costs are incurred. Increased faculty time and technical assistance need to be factored into the efficiency considerations when college and university administrators evaluate the desirability of using of these systems. This evaluation will vary depending upon circumstances of each particular institution. Availability of distance education facilities and location of off campus faculty relative to the main campus are variables which must be considered in such evaluations.

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"BUY AMERICA": STUDENT AND FACULTY PERCEPTIONS

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the accuracy of U.S. business students and faculty in correctly identifying U.S. or foreign-ownership of 100 well-known companies/products/services. The ability to correctly identify such ownership is important to marketers because consumers often use country-of-origin as a purchase decision variable and many consumers also try to "Buy America" as a patriotic gesture. The findings indicate that business faculty and students, who should be among the best informed consumers, were able to correctly identify country of ownership only about half the time. Differences in faculty/student status, gender, participation in international business courses, and graduate/undergraduate status produced no significant differences in the percentage of correct responses. These results suggest that American consumers may be making purchase decisions with incorrect perceptions and perhaps more attention should be given to this topic in marketing courses and development of brand/image strategies.

INTRODUCTION

The history of the economic, political and even philosophical policy in the United States of "Buy America" has been an evolutionary one. As recently as the 1930's - when U.S. foreign policy was dominated by isolationism - most politicians, trade union spokespersons, and consumers felt that to buy American produced products and services was being patriotic.

Following World War II and the rapid recovery of Western Europe and Japan, American consumers began purchasing steadily more foreign products and services. Companies such as Sony, Toyota, and Nescafe competed strongly against comparable U.S. products (Kraar 1991). Country-of-origin was perceived to be a strong indicator of quality and was often the determinant of purchase behavior (Bilkey and Nes 1982). By the 1980s and certainly into the 1990s, American foreign policy had changed again and consumers were growing steadily more knowledgeable of such "concepts" as the foreign trade deficit and the impact foreign trade was having on employment. Individual and corporate consumers alike adopted policies of buying American-made products and services. Once again, the battle cries have emerged including "Buy America" and "My Country First" (Barrier 1988). But buying American is no longer that simple. Many U.S. products and services - at least those produced and sold in the United States - are now owned by foreign companies. And many products produced by companies owned by Americans are actually being produced abroad in such places as Taiwan or South Korea. Still other "American" products are only partially comprised of U.S.- produced components; yet they are marketed as if they are American. Conversely, other "American" products have their components fully produced abroad and totally assembled in the U.S. In such cases, country-of-origin becomes difficult to determine. (Modic 1990).

Recognizing the evolution of such events, the authors of this paper were impressed with the increased effort made by many consumers to "Buy America". The authors contended that the vast majority of American consumers were not really qualified to differentiate among the wide array of products or services available to them relative to their actual source. Consumers may purchase what they believe to be American products or services when actually they are not. They may also refuse to purchase products or services they perceive to be foreign when they are actually American. This study provides a benchmark for assessing how well American consumers can accurately discriminate between

U.S.-owned companies/ products/services and those that are foreign owned. Previous research has clearly shown that consumers do use country-of-origin as a important attribute in their decision-making process (Brown and Gazda and Light 1987). Many firms do not make this information readily available to consumers. A misperception of country-of-origin by consumers may result in product alternatives being inadvertently omitted from an evoked set.

This study employed two groups as representatives of American consumers. These were U.S. business students and U.S. business faculty who, it was believed, should be able to discriminate more accurately, especially those who have taken or taught courses in international business in general and international or global marketing in particular. The ability of these "informed" consumers to correctly identify U.S. or foreign-owned companies would provide an initial benchmark for the discriminating ability of the typical American consumer.

METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

Data Collection

Data were gathered from business students and business faculty representing both public and private universities. A self-administered questionnaire was developed which asked respondents basic demographic questions and then asked them to identify whether each of 100 well-known companies/products/services were U.S. owned or foreign owned. If the respondent did not know, this option could be chosen. The list of 100 included both consumer and industrial companies/products/services which were judgmentally selected by the authors. All were prominent leaders in their respective industries.

Questionnaires were distributed to students at eight different universities across the United States. The questionnaires were given to both graduate and undergraduate students who were attending business classes at their respective universities. Respondent completion of the questionnaire was voluntary and classes were judgementally selected. A total of 617 completed surveys were returned and analyzed using SPSS. Of the 617 respondents, 82% were un-

dergraduate and 75% were between the ages of 18 to 25. Over half the respondents were male (57%) and 68% had taken an international business class.

The faculty respondents to the survey were members of the Western Marketing Educators Association. Surveys were mailed to all WMEA members (n=319) along with a postage-paid return envelope. A total of 102 completed surveys were returned. Faculty were also asked demographic questions, the same level of knowledge question as students, and were asked to evaluate the same 100 companies/products/ services. Additionally, they were asked if they had taught a course in international business within the past 5 years. Of the respondents, 48% were full professors and 68% represented State Universities, 72% had not taken an international business class and 64% had never taught an international business class.

To get a baseline assessment of how confident respondents were about their ability to discriminate U.S. from foreign companies/products/ services they were asked, "How would you describe your level of knowledge about companies selling leading consumer or industrial products or services in the U.S. and abroad?"

Students were most likely to rate their ability as good (36%) or fair (39%). A small percentage of students (0.9%) rated their ability as excellent and 14% rated their ability as poor.

Interestingly, only 3% of the faculty respondents perceived their ability to discriminate between U.S. owned and foreign owned companies/ products/services as excellent, and only 3% of the faculty perceived their knowledge as poor.

Hypotheses were developed by the authors based upon the following observations. It was believed that faculty would be better able to correctly identify ownership of companies/products/services due to their age and also their experience in the business world. Those faculty who have taught a course in international business or who have at least taken a course in international business over the past five years will be even more likely to be successful than other faculty and certainly more successful than

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students. Students who have taken a course in international business should be able to score higher than students who have not had a course because of the exposure to international businesses. Graduate students should be more able to recognize country-of-ownership than undergraduate students because they have taken more classes, are older, and have more experience business. Gender should make no difference in recognition of country-of-origin. These perceptions led to the following hypotheses.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated and tested:

H1: There is a difference between faculty and students based upon the overall correct responses (correct identification of ownership of companies/products/services). Faculty respondents will be better able to make the correct assessment.

H2: Those respondents (students and faculty) who have completed a course in international business will be more likely to correctly identify the ownership of the companies/products/services examined in the study.

H3: Those faculty respondents who have taught a course in international business will be more likely to correctly identify the ownership of the companies/products/services examined in the study.

H4: There is a difference between graduate students and undergraduate students based upon the overall correct responses (correct identification of ownership of companies/products/services). Graduate students will be better able to make the correct assessment.

H5: There is no difference between male respondents and female respondents based upon the overall correct responses.

To test the hypotheses, the average proportion of correct responses for each group was calculated and then significance was determined by pooling the variances and using a test of differences in proportions (Z tests). See TABLE 1 for

the results of the tests of differences in proportions for H1 through H5 tests.

TABLE 1
Tests of Differences of Proportions
H1 Through H5

Test	Statistic	P-Value
H1: Faculty vs Students	-1.255	0.4557
H2: International Business vs No International Business	0.174	0.4491
H3: Taught International Business vs Not Taught International Business	0.120	0.5072
H4: Graduate Student vs Undergraduate Student	-0.376	0.4399
H5: Male vs Female	0.730	0.4438

Findings

The tests of all five hypotheses found **insignificant differences** among the test groups. The test for H1 found **no difference** between faculty and students in their ability to correctly identify the country of ownership for the 100 companies/products/services ($Z = -1.255$, $p = 0.4557$). Faculty gave correct responses for 51.9% of the companies/products/services while students were correct 44.63% of the time. These responses suggest that faculty did score higher, but the difference is **not statistically significant** at the 95 percent level of confidence.

Taking an international business class (H2) also showed **no significant improvement** in the ability to correctly identify the country of ownership ($Z = 0.174$, $p = 0.4491$). Those who had taken the international business courses gave correct responses for 45.16% of the companies/products/ services while those who had not had international business courses were correct 44.49% of the time.

Additionally, faculty who had taught a course in international business (H3) **did not score significantly higher** on correct responses ($Z = 0.120$, $p = 0.5072$). Those who had taught an international business course gave correct responses for 51.53% of the companies/products /services while those who had not taught such a course correctly identified 50.27%.

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Graduate students **did not perform better** than undergraduates (H4) in correctly identifying the country of ownership for the 100 firms/brands ($Z = -0.376$, $p = 0.4399$). The proportion of correctly identified companies/products/services for graduates was 45.61% and the proportion for undergraduates was 43.64%. The last hypothesis for no difference between males and females (H5) was supported ($Z = 0.730$, $p = 0.4438$). Males correctly identified 45.49% of the one hundred companies/products/services while females correctly identified 42.69%.

While there were no significant differences in responses between these groupings, there were notable differences in correct responses for specific firms. The company most often correctly identified by both students and faculty was Wal-Mart. This was not surprising, due to the strong "Buy America" campaign presented by this firm. Wang and Olivetti were among the most frequently incorrectly classified U.S. firms, while Farmers Insurance and Purina were among the most often incorrectly identified foreign firms.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Only H5 (gender) had the anticipated outcome. There was **no difference** between males and females in their ability to correctly identify country of ownership of companies/products/services. The findings from the other four hypotheses showed **insignificant differences** among groups. These insignificant findings of themselves are relevant for marketing educators. These findings suggest that both business students and business faculty can correctly identify country of ownership for well known companies /products/services **only about half the time**. This poor performance is unexpected and should be of concern to marketers because research has shown that many consumers use this variable to make their product choice. The lack of correct responses indicates that this information is not being communicated effectively to the American consumer.

There was significant overlap in the lists for faculty and students suggesting they have relatively the same frame of reference. Since faculty impart their knowledge to their students, this is

not unexpected. The fact that faculty identified correctly the country of ownership **in only about half the cases**, is indicative of **how little emphasis is placed on keeping pace with ownership patterns in our schools of business**. This may be evidence of the fact that country of ownership is not a constant for many popular companies/products/services and business faculty and students do not consider keeping abreast of such changes important. Perhaps, however, more emphasis needs to be placed on teaching the importance of knowing the country of ownership for well known companies/products/services because many individual consumers and corporations do actively try to "Buy American" or at least consider the country of origin an important attribute in their purchase behavior. Perhaps more emphasis needs to be given to teaching students where to look for such information.

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NAFTA AND U.S. BUSINESS STUDENTS: THE ROLE OF MARKETING EDUCATORS

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ABSTRACT

The initiation of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) by Canada, Mexico and the U.S. in January, 1994, represents an unparalleled opportunity for U.S. marketers. Over time, the agreement will grant tariff-free access to all pact markets. To be successful in the new trade environment, U.S. marketers must be prepared to deal with the modified rules of trade specified by the agreement. Furthermore, they must be prepared to make the appropriate adjustments in their marketing mix to accommodate the cultural as well as infrastructure differences they will encounter in these markets, particularly in the Mexican market. In this paper the authors: (1) briefly review major provisions of the NAFTA agreement, (2) examine some of the major cultural adjustments that marketing executives will need to make as they move into Mexico, and (3) offer a variety of options for integrating NAFTA into a business program.

Educating Marketers on NAFTA

NAFTA is a diverse and complex instrument which significantly alters the U.S. marketing climate. Educators and corporate trainers must prepare managers to function effectively in the rapidly growing NAFTA trade area. Americans will find many differences in how business should be conducted, especially in Mexico with its Latin culture and large Mestizo population. There are increasing concerns, however, that trade efforts will out-pace mutual understanding of each other's cultures, resulting in long-term negative consequences. Some of the differences that U.S. marketers might expect to find can be grouped into the following categories: (1) the Mexican consumer market, (2) the higher level of economic concentration, (3) management/decision-making style, (4) legal system, and (5) the role of government. Differences between the U.S. and Canada are much less extreme.

Recommendations for Marketing Educators

As NAFTA provisions and policies are phased in, U.S. companies will continue their entry into the developing Mexican market. Universities and colleges that want to provide the best opportunities for their students must quickly take NAFTA beyond an occasional in-class reference to a broader and more integrated approach. There are a number of paths a school may choose to follow in incorporating NAFTA into their programs, including: (1) curriculum modification, (2) exchange programs for faculty/students, (3) cross-border collaboration between researchers, and (4) professional assistance in the form of consulting and/or database support, including the potential establishment of a NAFTA Center.

Discussion and Conclusions

Many of our current marketing students will begin in entry-level jobs where their success or failure will depend upon the extent to which they are able to navigate the rapidly changing "free trade" arena. As a document, NAFTA can do little more than set forth policy and a time line. The real challenge for marketing educators lies in our ability to provide our students with insight into the myriad differences inherent in each of the cultures we attempt to transverse.

Although the options suggested in this paper may not accomplish all of what is needed, each represents a valid method for moving marketing educators in the right direction. Sooner or later, all business programs will devote significant amounts of their resources and curriculum to international education--including NAFTA. The U.S. programs that begin integrating NAFTA now, even in moderate amounts, will sooner begin providing their students with the skills and mindsets necessary to succeed in the new arena.

CLASS SIZE AND STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD THE FIELD OF MARKETING

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ABSTRACT

Ongoing assessment of both student learning and the learning environment is becoming more critical in meeting student expectations about the learning experience in higher education. Within the dynamic of cognitive experience are both extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. Although there are several potentially significant relationships which must be examined to fully comprehend the complexities of the cognitive process, this paper will limit its scope to an analysis of two factors. First, what is the academic implication of a student's attitudes about marketing, and second, how does class size impact the cognitive experience of the student of marketing?

The importance of a positive attitude to the student's quest for academic excellence is beyond reasonable or logical reproach. It is incumbent upon the marketing educator to identify and utilize the some form of attitude assessment to benefit today's marketing student.

Research dealing with the impact of class size on the student's attitude toward a subject has found that departments within an institution differ significantly on overall student ratings of instruction, with class size affecting all levels of instruction. Few studies exist that specifically address factors that influence the successful study of marketing.

This research was conducted using two principles of marketing classes during a single semester. The classes were conducted by the same instructor.. and were approximately the same size classes in excess of 100 students. A questionnaire administered to the students during the first week and final week of the semester concerned their attitudes about the field of marketing. In addition, the questionnaire asked the students about their experience with, and attitudes toward large classes. All responses on the questionnaires were kept anonymous. Some important demographic findings included:

a) 53.4% male.

b) Approximately 80% business majors; 8.5% marketing majors.
c) 75% were Juniors or Seniors.
d) 58.4% employed.
e) 98.9% full-time students.
f) 5.6% African American, 2.2% Asian, 3.4% Native American, 39.9 Hispanic, and the remainder being White (non-Hispanic).
g) 93.8% had never before taken a class with over 100 students in size. Only 2.3% had taken a class as large as the class where this survey was conducted.

Most students in these classes had a favorable attitude about marketing. It is not surprising that marketing has a generally favorable image among students majoring in business. However. the students believe that a role of marketing is to get consumers to purchase goods even if they do not need them, and believe that marketing is a contributor to higher prices. Somewhat in contradiction to the above results, students do not believe that marketing makes people materialistic. Concerning marketing's reputation, students did agree that marketing has a good reputation and/or high prestige among students in general.

The study showed that the student's attitudes about class size did not change after spending a semester in a large class. The results are not surprising. Students have been conditioned to dislike large classes. Although attitudes toward large classes remained negative, this did not appear to impact how attitudes toward marketing changed. So while students may not like large classes, a large class size did not appear to harm their ability to understand the course material.

This research indicates that in spite of students having a negative attitude toward a large class. they still appreciate the study of marketing. Marketing educators, finding themselves with declining budgets, may have to resort to using larger principles of marketing classes. These large classes need not be a deterrent to learning. New teaching techniques (team teaching, group assignments, etc.) may make large classes just as acceptable to the students as smaller classes.

CREATIVE PEDAGOGY IN MARKETING FOR ATTAINING
CONSTITUENT NEED-BASED EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

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ABSTRACT

Proper evaluation of pedagogical effectiveness requires a clear understanding of the objectives of education and a systematic plan for empirically testing the attainment of those objectives using a variety of teaching methods. This paper reports survey findings regarding employer and recent graduate perceptions of appropriate learning objectives, establishes the importance of clearly defining objectives when designing educational techniques, and outlines a research agenda for better evaluation of marketing pedagogy.

INTRODUCTION

A major responsibility of Schools of Business is to deliver high quality education to students that is relevant to both the needs of future employers and the personal/professional development of the student. Beyond the recruitment, selection, and retention of a capable student population, five primary tools for fulfilling this responsibility can be identified. These are: 1) the design of curricula, 2) the procurement and maintenance of technical infrastructure for delivery of those curricula, 3) the hiring, allocation, and development of qualified and capable faculty to effect their delivery, 4) the creation and application of effective pedagogy for meeting the educational objectives of the institution and its constituents, and 5) the systematic assessment of educational outcomes to monitor progress. Four of these five resource tools for achieving educational objectives are typically managed at the Departmental, College, or Institutional level through either its administration and/or through committees comprised of faculty. The development of effective pedagogical techniques, however, continues to be the primary responsibility of individual faculty though efforts are often made to provide resources to assist them.

For this reason, marketing (and other business) educators need to actively seek, apply, and develop useful pedagogical techniques which serve to achieve educational objectives and which efficiently utilize the resources of the school and its students. This paper is intended to assist marketing faculty in systematically organizing the search, selection, and design of pedagogy for attaining educational objectives. Toward accomplishing this, the paper is organized in four sections. First, a typology of educational objectives for business schools is presented. This typology is the product of a constituent-based research effort at a large midwestern university which sought to identify the educational needs of business students from the perspectives of both employers and recent alumni. In the second section, an assessment of the relationship between several pedagogical techniques and the identified educational objectives is addressed. The third section describes a marketing channels strategy simulation exercise aimed at the educational objective of creativity. This serves as a case example of pedagogical design. Finally, a suggested research program for continuously assessing the contribution of competing pedagogical techniques to the various educational objectives is outlined.

EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

A research effort to identify the educational objectives of schools of business was conducted during the Fall of 1993. Although much of this effort was aimed at identifying the strengths/weaknesses of the subject institution, the initial portion was designed to identify specific knowledge, skills, and competencies deemed necessary for successful on-the-job performance for graduating students. Two sets of respondents returned surveys. These included employer representatives who hire graduates from the college (n=50) and recently graduated alumni (ie. those who had graduated in the past 5 years, n=176). The top ten skills or competencies based on each set of respondents' perceived importance ratings are displayed in Table I. These were ordered from a total of 43 competencies included in the surveys.

TABLE I
Importance Ranking of Skills/Competencies
Required of Business Graduates

Employer Rankings

1. Takes initiative
2. Learns from mistakes
3. Interacts well with others
4. Adapts to change
5. Completes tasks on time
6. Listens well to others
7. Employs sound logic
8. Works well in groups
9. Anticipates possible problems
10. Deals well with unstructured situations

Recent Alumni Rankings

1. Interacts well with others
2. Performs job duties with minimum supervision
3. Listens well to others
4. Completes tasks on time
5. Takes initiative
6. Learns from mistakes
7. Develops alternatives for decision making
8. Adapts to change
9. Deals well with difficult people
10. Employs sound logic

The rankings are striking in their similarity and suggest that there is an identifiable set of key competencies which colleges of business should target as educational objectives if they wish to meet the employment needs of these comprised of constituents. An interdisciplinary faculty committee analyzed the responses. Additionally, they reviewed similar research and identified five critical areas for targeting educational efforts. These critical areas or "key competencies" are presented and defined in Table II.

The key competencies identified in Table II are similar to those developed at The University of Central Florida in their recent restructuring of the curriculum. Competencies targeted in their efforts included creativity, adaptiveness, communication, and teamwork. Together with the current research results, it is apparent that employers are looking for business colleges to provide more than technological competence in a subject area. In addition to technical competence, employers are seeking prospective employees who can effectively communicate in dynamic environments involving team settings, and who exhibit creativity. Despite these requirements, many colleges continue to place most emphasis on developing technological competence and have yet to develop curricula or pedagogies for properly addressing all of the needs expressed by employers and recent alumni. Only recently has the problem of developing creativity been addressed in the Marketing Education literature (Ramocki 1994).

TABLE II
Key Competencies for Business Graduates

Skill	Comment	Examples
Technical Competence	Includes knowledge of relevant sciences and humanities materials on which business administration is based.	Computer software Managerial theories Marketing theories Research methodology Social Science theories
Adaptability to Change	Skills for accepting and and exploiting the dynamics of the business environment.	Mind-set for the analysis and identification of social changes that create business opportunities
Communication Skill	Includes both oral and written skills and may be interpreted as an applied form of technical competence which has been singled out as especially important.	Persuasion Report writing Public speaking Business letter writing
Creativity	The essence of managerial activity is the conception of future business activities. In marketing, this involves envisioning future exchange.	New exchange opportunities Creative problem solving New product/service development
Teamwork Capability	Increasingly, the importance of interpersonal influence skill in a team setting rather than a command oriented managerial style is desired.	Adaptive leadership Motivation of reluctant team members organizing to reach a goal Interpretation of group tasks Evaluation and feedback of group performance

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PEDAGOGY AND LEARNING OBJECTIVES

A major area of study in the field of Marketing Education is the correspondence between pedagogical techniques and educational success. Recent examples include the assessment of large-scale simulation effectiveness in marketing education (Alpert 1993), comparison of simulation methods with alternatives such as case study (Laughlin and Hite 1993; Butler, Markulis, and Strang, 1988), and even assessment of the pedagogical value of music videos (Shank, Young, and Lynch, 1992). Most of these efforts have addressed technological or conceptual innovation in pedagogy, with less emphasis on the evaluation of standard pedagogical techniques.

Consistent with the theory of strategy we often teach, it is suggested that a more systematic approach to the development of marketing pedagogy be adopted. A strategic orientation would include consideration of the objectives, evaluation of the environments, and skillful

application of resources toward attaining objectives within the context of dynamic environments. For this reason, an ongoing assessment of pedagogical techniques and their suitability for attaining educational objectives is recommended.

GOAL ORIENTATION IMPORTANCE IN THE TEACHING OF CREATIVITY: A CASE EXAMPLE IN DEVELOPING PEDAGOGY

We have suggested that maintaining focus on the educational objectives is required for the development of educational efficacy. One area where the development of teaching techniques is very new is creativity (Ramocki 1994). Based on an extensive review of literature in the area of creativity, Ramocki (1994) identifies seven constructs for developing individual creativity. Consistent with these constructs, several tactics are derived which include emphasis on intrinsic motivation, creation of a supportive environment, appreciation of the creative process -- not just the result, nonjudgemental feedback, minimal time pressures, the assumption of real risk regarding successful accomplishment, and the encouragement of interdisciplinary (whole knowledge) approaches.

Examination of these suggestions against alternative pedagogy choices yields insight regarding promising methods for teaching creativity. Experiential methods such as role playing and simulation gaming provide maximum opportunity for realistic risk assumption. Motivational methods for the activity should emphasize intrinsic qualities (for example -- providing minimum value bonus credit as opposed to evaluation heavily weighted with regard to overall course performance), include support for the evaluation of the creative process as well as outcomes, and include time constraints which are not burdensome. Under these conditions, the exercise could be predicted to be superior to alternative pedagogical choices for stimulating creative learning.

An exercise seeking to encourage creative strategy development for negotiated exchange in marketing channels was created using this analytical process. In the initial exercise, 30 students were seated in a matrix consisting of 6 rows and 5 columns. Each column served as an exchange channel in the exercise. The student at the back of the column was given 10 product cards. The student at the front of each column was given $200 in play money in $5 increments and all other members were given $50 in play money in $5 increments. Players were given 15 minutes to make exchanges at whatever

exchange rates they determined to be appropriate with the objective of maximizing their own value by the end of the simulation. The two constraints placed on the process was that members could only exchange with the person(s) immediately adjacent to them and that to be eligible to receive any points, the individual must possess both product and money at the end of the exchange period.

The initial exercise provides the context for developing creative strategy, but does not meet all of the conditions outlined by Ramocki because it includes time constraints and competition. Following the game portion, the students are organized by row to develop creative strategic orientations for playing the game. Emphasis is placed on accepting ideas to provide a supportive creative environment no matter how unused they initially appear. Efforts are also made to remove time constraints and encourage an ongoing creative strategy process relating not only to the current exercise, but to other strategic settings as well.

Clearly, the problem of evaluating the effectiveness of this pedagogy toward the development of creativity remains. Initial observation of student feedback indicates that they think they experienced a positive contribution to creativity, had an enjoyable experience, and felt a sense of accomplishment. These observations, however, are casual and a much more rigorous assessment of pedagogical value is warranted.

A RESEARCH AGENDA

Marketing Education researchers have periodically examined the relationship between pedagogy and educational effectiveness. The theory within which this examination is conducted holds that differing educational methods have variable impact on the attainment of educational objectives. Although this intuitively sensible notion holds promise 1) for the development of useful pedagogy, 2) for efficient coordination with curriculum requirements, and 3) for the effective application of scarce faculty and supporting resources, the discipline has yet to realize its potential. To realize that potential, investigation of the contribution of various teaching techniques to the attainment of the relevant educational objectives should incorporate the systematic approach outlined above.

A comprehensive and systematic approach to the evaluation of the effectiveness of pedagogical techniques toward attaining learning objectives would include the

following steps. First, clear definition of the learning objective should be generated and theoretical implications regarding the link between teaching technique and the attainment of that objective should be generated. Next, the design of teaching techniques which would theoretically be superior should be generated. Third, appropriately designed experiments testing the effectiveness of teaching techniques across the objectives should be conducted. Evaluation of the effectiveness of teaching techniques would include consideration of both attainment of teaching objectives and the efficient utilization of educational resources.

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NEW IMPERATIVES IN UNDERGRADUATE MARKETING EDUCATION?

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ABSTRACT

Periodically. the business press admonishes business educators about the relevance of their instruction. Caught between global competition andi imploding technology, American enterprise has a menu of cost reduction, new product development, and shifts in promotional and channels' strategies. While a sample of sixty-four firms from the two counties east of the economic drivers of Los Angeles and Orange Counties is not representative of American business, a few generalizations about instructional needs may be appropriate. Communications and direct marketing skills were found to be paramount at the baccalaur - eate level for marketing majors, using an Adaptive Con joint Analysis Program.

INTRODUCTION

Few in marketing education would challenge the assertion that domestic and global business are undergoing great change. *Fortune* magazine recently spoke of six trends shaping the present workplace (Kiechel 1993). Included in these trends are smaller firms which will rely upon temporary employees and business alliances. Other trends include a flattened business hierarchy, focus upon the satisfaction of customer needs over "moving product", and the constant learning of new techniques and tech- nologies. More recently, in a provocatively-titled article, "What's Killing the Business School Deans of America", O'Reilly (1994) opined that business schools were producing too many specialists, and not enough persons who could motivate work groups and analyze complex business settings.

Of course, business schools are making curriculum changes. Many of us now have courses in ethics, international marketing, or direct marketing, which have been instituted quite recently. However, there may be more to do. What follows perhaps can be useful as a partial bench-mark, to compare the curriculum of our individual departments with needs expressed by some businesses in an area of Southern California.

Literature Review

Ducoffe and Ducoffe (1990) found in a sample of ad- vertising executives that they believed entry-level positions in their firms could be best filled by those with excellent communication skills and high personal motivation. These observations fit the results of Gaideke, Totelian, and Schaffer (1983), and McKendrick (1986). Indeed, particular courses were rated relatively lower than comunication skills and motivation, even for careers in market research (Joby and Needel 1989). In the possibly most detailed foray into management education done in this country in the past ten years, Porter and McKibbin (1988) reported to the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business very much the same thing.

Particularly important to our study is the article of Arora and Stoner in the *Journal of Marketing Educa- tion (1992)*. Their sample consisted of fifty marketing managers in the vicinity of a mid-Western city. These managers included representatives of advertising agencies, direct marketing firms, sales companies, consumer product firms, and marketing research firms. Certainly, in this sample one might expect more interest in particular technical skills, especially at the MBA level which was the focus of their study. The conjoint utility analysis produced communication skills at a relative importance of .28, with selling skills tied with analytical/statistical skills at .18. Lea- der/manager/self-starter skills were lumped together at the .14 level of the conjoint analysis.

The authors of the present study had access to mar- keting managers at sixty-four regional business firms, the well-rounded purveyors of goods and services to business and retail clientele Six of the firms provided market research (two) and advertising services (four)

to business. The authors were interested in the response of these sixty-four to the above issues.

METHODOLOGY

The present study closely parallels Arora and Stoner (1992). We also examined six skill variables: sales. analytical. new product introduction. leaderations. The marketing managers or owners in our study are categorized as follows:

TABLE 1
Type of Product X Sales Volume Past Year

PRODUCT TYPE	$200K -$500	$500K -$1M	$1M- $1.5M	Margi- nal
Manufacture	4	5	3	12
Bus Service	3	7	3	13
Retail	9	6	6	21
Con Service	7	4	7	18
Marginal Tot	23	22	19	64

The two market research and four advertising firms obviously were placed in the second row, business services. Consumer services encompassed such common activities as real estate, insurance and auto sales.

Following Arora and Stoner we utilized the Adaptive Conjoint Analysis Program from Sawtooth Software. The sixty-four potential employers were asked to complete two tasks:

1. Examine each of the six skill categories, at two levels, as indicated below; they were asked if they would trade off each one of the 6x2 data points for any one of the remaining eleven: e.g., give up good sales skills for low analytical and statistical skills.
2. Examine various two-item combinations of these 12 data points, and rate on a probability scale of 0 to 100 the likelihood of their hiring job applicants with each of these two-item combinations.

The terminology used to describe each of these 12 data points is given below in Table 2

TABLE 2
Skill Categories and Corresponding Levels
(After Arora and Stoner 1992)

SKILL CATEGORY	----------LEVEL--------	
	HIGH	LOW
Selling	Good in person/ on phone	Low in person/ on phone
Analytical/statis- tical	Good	Low
New Product In- troduction	Familiar	Not quite fam- iliar
Leader/Manager/ Self-Starter	Born Leader/ Manager, etc	Learn to Lead/ Follower
Direct Marketing	Familiar	Superficial
Communication	Good in ver- bal/written	Will learn/ May be rusty.

For the purposes of this paper, we shall indicate only the relative importance of each attribute, and its importance ordering. The numeric utility values are excluded. To provide a comparisoon with the results of Arora and Stoner, in Table 3 we provide in parenthesis their findings.

TABLE 3
The Response of 64 Businesses to Some Attribute Skills

ATTRIBUTE SKILLS	RELATIVE IMPORTANCE	IMPORTANCE RANK
Communication	.27 (.28)	1 (1)
Direct Marketing	.24 (.11)	2 (5)
New Product Introduction	.16 (.11)	3 (6)
Selling	.14 (.18)	4 (2)
Leader/Mana- ger/Self Start	.11 (.14)	5 (4)
Analytical/Sta- tistical	.08 (.18)	6 (3)
Summation	1.00 (1.00)	

IMPLICATIONS

A more complete comparison of this study with that of Arora and Stoner would require a listing of all companies, their company cultures, their marketing plans, and the point in time during which the data were collected. Such an investigation would also require a thorough investigation of the environments of the companies in each study. For our project, with an almost total emphasis upon organizations whose business is NOT to provide marketing guidance to other firms. in the Inland Empire region of Southern

California in the Fall of 1994, the implications from our work would seem to be the following:

1. Communication skills, verbal and written, remain the most critical for both studies.

2. Perhaps due to the enormous cost of covering the Inland Empire by newspaper, television, and in person, and due to the current sophistication of data bases for mail and telephone, direct marketing skills appear most desired.

3. New product introduction skills can incidentally refer to new channels, but seem primarily to reflect immense innovation in products of all kinds-- goods, services and ideas.

4. Selling skills remain of some importance, but appear less important for new hires than direct marketing.

5. Leader/Manager/Self-Starter skill are lower than in Arora and Stoner, perhaps because the hiring in our study is not at the M.B.A. level as was the case for them.

6. The analytical and statistical skills appear to be last in our project, because most of our sample seem driven by basic considerations of sales volume and cost containment. Certainly the four year recession in Southern Califorma must have had a significant effect. Obviously also, telephone and mail reduce some of the friction between culturally diverse popu - lations which generally have little sense of community. At least in the counties to the east of Los Angeles and Orange, anomie seems the norm.

As for research implications, we believe interviews in depth with the sixty-four subjects are in order. Another direction would be to apply Arora and Stoner's techniques in new settings to new subjects. In either instance, for those of us who are training business students for a chiefly local market, such research is likely to be fruitful for our instruction.

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ADHOCRACY IN THE BUSINESS SCHOOL - TECHNOLOGY FACILITATED CROSS-FUNCTIONAL EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

The marketing graduate of today must possess cross-functional knowledge, information technology skills, and teamwork/collaboration skills. Students will need different training and preparation to compete in dynamic marketplace, and marketing education will have to provide these competencies. This paper argues that information technology and cross-functional education are complementary; and that information technology can serve as a facilitator of cross-functional education. The paper demonstrates this relationship by reviewing the new business environment which is referred to as "adhocracy," and by investigating the emerging demands on education. Three phases are introduced which are necessary to integrate information technology into the curriculum: The adoption phase, introduction phase, and diffusion phase.

Over the past decade, the content of business school education has become increasingly the target of criticism from the business community. These perceived shortcomings fit into two categories; (1) business curricula fail to keep up with leading edge management practices, and (2) the lack of integration across functional areas. Consequently, business schools are beginning to incorporate a cross-functional perspective to traditional subjects such as marketing, finance, and accounting. Additionally, the management of technology and information are recognized as critical skills students need to possess.

Technology is one of the driving forces behind changes in organizations. The evolution of the "new" organization has created a divergence between industry and higher education. This organization, just now beginning to emerge globally, imposes fundamentally new requirements on marketing and general business education. The traditional, functionally organized profit-oriented firm is fast becoming inefficient and obsolete, and replacing this firm is a newer, flatter organization. The new organization is predicated upon cross-functional coordination and cooperation.

In the business environment the implementation of technology is a gradient process. The three phases necessary to integrate information technology into business: The adoption phase, introduction phase, and diffusion phase. In an educational setting these phases can be used to guide the successful implementation of information technology in the curriculum.

The decision to adopt information technology has to be made by the school's administrators. Obtaining their cooperation might be the first hurdle. The administration has to recognize the need for the adoption of information technology as an instructional tool. The introduction phase is the prerequisite for the installation of an information network. Schools will need to undergo changes similar to those of business organizations (adhocracy) that have moved from the traditional control system to the information control system. The integration of information technology is a continuous process. In its early stages it may involve only a few classes. Once established, information technology will have to be continuously updated and fine tuned. Also inherent in this stage is the continuos development of the faculty. As information technology begins to facilitate education the faculty must be able to provide those skills to the student.

The future confronts marketing educators with the infusion of new marketing technologies and information sources. Appropriately introduced into marketing and general business education, this new technology will lead to the provision of student skills that are demanded by the "new" workplace.

The first in a series of papers to explore the adoption of information technology within marketing and business education, the authors introduce a three-phased framework: adoption, introduction, and diffusion. The development of a technology facilitated cross-functional curriculum presents an alternative to merely traditional cross-functional education. Cross-functional education can be facilitated by information technology.

PERSONAL COMPUTER COMPETENCIES OF MARKETING STUDENTS: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Descriptive studies detailing current business executives' personal computer competencies and related educational studies prescribing competencies required to adequately prepare students for the business environment are reviewed. An empirical study of 234 business students (74 marketing majors and 160 other business majors) assesses student skill level in utilizing eight functional types of software, e.g., word processing, spreadsheets, statistics, and communication (email) software. Results indicate students are most proficient in word processing, adequately knowledgeable of spreadsheets and business simulations, and deficient in the use of statistical packages and communication software.

INTRODUCTION

A desired outcome of any marketing program is to adequately develop student computer competencies and prepare students to enter the business world with requisite skill and knowledge of a variety of software applications. Miller(1985) recommends classroom microcomputer usage in order to strengthen student employment potential and to support marketing educators in their presentation of complex decision-making techniques that are more easily demonstrated with commercially available software. Further, Dyer (1987) encourages the total integration of personal computers into the marketing curriculum to develop student knowledge and application of decision support software.

Reinforcing the importance of student computer proficiency, the *Marketing News* (1985) reports that 70% of marketing professionals use computers to execute at least one software application; Sherwood and Nordstrom (1986) find entry-level marketing personnel spend 23% of their time interfacing with a computer; and Rogers, Williams and McLeod (1990) discover 75% of respondent companies utilize microcomputers or desk-top stations (rather than

mainframes and company specific programs) that access commercially available software, e.g., word processing, spreadsheet, electronic mail and data base management, in their marketing departments. Rogers, Williams and McLeod (1990, p. 20) advocate, "...colleges of business should be exposing marketing students to micros and to specific software packages that will be necessary in pursuing a career in marketing."

Given these findings and recommendations, a search was conducted to discover the current state of business student computer usage and their skill level in executing software packages. Although several studies report institutional responses (key informants are deans, chairs or faculty) about courses requiring computer usage (Kurtz and Boone 1987; White and Righi 1991; Novitzki 1993), only one study by Geissler and Horridge (1993) surveys students about their computer skills, and these researchers find business students self-report higher levels of knowledge of computer functions and program writing than arts and science students. However, students were not surveyed about knowledge of specific functional software such as spreadsheets and statistics.

Surprisingly, insufficient information exists to evaluate the progress business schools and marketing departments have achieved in cultivating and developing the personal computer competencies of students. In order to assess the current status of student computer skills, an empirical study was executed to determine personal computer usage and knowledge of functional software packages.

METHODOLOGY

Institutional Characteristics : A limitation of this study is the use of a sample from a single school of business. However, whereas other studies sampled non-student key informants at a small number of schools, this study utilizes students as respondents. All majors are

required to take information science courses to acquire word processing, spreadsheet and data base skills, and marketing students utilize statistical software in marketing research and spread- sheets in marketing strategy. In conclusion, sample levels of computer usage and proficiency in utilizing software may be indicative of general trends in student computer competencies, and, at least, the levels can be used for comparative purposes as other schools evaluate their students' computer competencies.

Measures . Computer Usage : Students were asked to self-report: (1) how frequently they utilized personal computers, (2) what percentage of their personal computer use could be attributed to school work, and (3) the duration (in minutes) of their last use of a school lab personal computer.

Software Competencies : Categories of functional programs were selected after reviewing business and computer education literature (Dyer 1987; Rogers, Williams and McLeod 1990; White and Righi 1991). From software identified in these studies, students were asked to self-report their competency on eight categories of software: (1) spreadsheet, (2) statistical, (3) graphics, (4) database, (5) business strategy simulations, (6) word processing, (7) programming language, and (8) communications (electronic mail). For each software category, any students who had never attempted to use that specific software were deleted and only students who had experience with the software were analyzed. From a review of computer literature, a scale assessing the competencies of personal computer user group members was used to measure student competencies. For purposes of this paper, the five-point scale was collapsed to a three-point scale because student proficiencies do not vary as widely as the more expert computer users (1-failed or needed extensive help, 2-reasonably knowledgeable, 3-very knowledgeable or proficient) was used to measure the degree of student proficiency.

Sample : Intercept interviews were completed as business majors entered school computer labs and yielded 234 usable questionnaires. Respondents included 74 marketing majors and

160 non-marketing business majors. Additionally, subjects reported an average of 5.7 years experience in using personal computers and 61% of subjects own a personal computer.

RESULTS

Analysis of computer usage frequencies (Table 1) reveals that 34% of students report daily personal computer usage and 87% use a personal computer at least once a week. Further, the average time a student uses a school lab computer is 97 minutes. Obviously, personal computer usage has become a routine weekly task and consumes a substantial amount of student study time. However, of the 72% of personal computer usage attributed to school purposes, the bulk of student personal computer usage involves word processing assignments (45%) with little usage allocated for all other computer applications (27%). Apparently, students spend more time and effort accomplishing assignments requiring word processing skill than assignments necessitating use of any types of specialized software.

TABLE 1 COMPUTER USAGE

How Often Do Use A PC?	Freq	%
once a day or more often	82	35.0
once a wk/few times per wk	123	52.5
once a month or less often	29	12.5
totals	234	100.0

Percent PC Used for School Work? (avg) 72%
Excluding Word Processing, Percentage PC Used for School Work?   (avg) 27%
When using school lab pc, time duration?
(avg) 97 minutes

Reinforcing the dominance of word processing use, more students report trying and successfully operating word processing software than any other type of software (Table 2). Astonishingly, only 14 students had *not* used word processing, and 98% (216) of students report they are "reasonably know-ledgeable" to "very knowledgeable" of word processing software. Students indicate similar levels of proficiency in three other types of functional software: spreadsheets, 85%;

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graphics, 65%; and data base management 65%. All four types of software are taught in the required core course and software exposure in this course may account for higher competency ratings and usage by students.

TABLE2 SOFTWARE COMPETENCIES

A. Spreadsheets

students tried software	mkt	others	%
Failed/need lots help	9	22	15%
Reasonably Knowledge	41	81	60%
Proficient	14	37	25%

B. Statistical Package

students tried software	mkt	others	%
Failed/need lots help	20	20	45%
Reasonably Knowledge	9	34	48%
Proficient	2	4	7%

C. Graphics

students tried software	mkt	others	%
Failed/need lots help	19	45	35%
Reasonably Knowledge	25	56	44%
Proficient	13	25	21%

D. Database

students tried software	mkt	others	%
Failed/need lots help	17	44	35%
Reasonably Knowledge	32	52	48%
Proficient	6	25	17%

E. Business Simulations

students tried software	mkt	others	%
Failed/need lots help	9	19	30%
Reasonably Knowledge	21	31	55%
Proficient	4	10	15%

F. Word Processing

students tried software	mkt	others	%
Failed/need lots help	1	3	2%
Reasonably Knowledge	26	41	30%
Proficient	44	105	68%

G. Programming Language

students tried software	mkt	others	%
Failed/need lots help	20	44	45%
Reasonably Knowledge	20	33	38%
proficient	5	19	17%

H. Communications

students tried software	mkt	others	%
Failed/need lots help	11	24	39%
Reasonably Knowledge	17	20	41%
proficient	5	13	20%

Students display lesser knowledge of the remaining four types of software. When exposed to business simulations, probably in a senior class strategy or policy course, 75% of students exhibit reasonable knowledge of the software; however, 140 (60%) students had not yet experienced or used business simulations. Also, most students (144, 62%) had not utilized communications software such as electronic mail, information searches or on-line services. Not surprisingly, students demonstrate the least knowledge of programming language and statistical packages with 45% of students reporting "failure or need of considerable help" with both types of software.

Students with different majors exhibit very similar patterns of competency ratings and no significant differences among majors were detected (given differences in total numbers of majors) with one exception. Of import to marketing educators, 64% of marketing majors describe failure with statistical packages, a higher rate of failure than by other majors.

DISCUSSION

Results indicate that student usage of personal computers has become commonplace, daily or weekly use is the norm, and such usage signifies personal computers are powerful catalysts that enhance student learning. Further, students expend substantial time in school labs to execute software applications required for class assignments. Overall, students have adequate exposure to word processing, graphics, spreadsheets and data base software, but student familiarization with business simulations, statistics, programming and communication software is limited.

Logically, students acquire the greatest proficiency in software they use often; therefore, high usage and great proficiency result with word processing software because word processing is applicable to virtually all courses

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and assignments. Spreadsheets, as financial analysis software, are used in several business courses to facilitate decision-making activities, and students are satisfactorily knowledgeable about spreadsheet software execution. More specialized software such as statistical applications are required in very few courses so students develop little proficiency in their execution. Results of the current study support the direct relationship between usage and proficiency, and this relationship suggests that students will acquire greater software proficiency when more courses and/or assignments prescribe its application.

Substantial investment in school computer labs has been justified to provide facilities to develop student competencies in software more sophisticated and specialized than word processing. Competencies in decision support software identified (Sherwood and Nordstrom 1986, Rogers, Williams and McLeod 1990) as crucial for entry level employment and managerial advancement must be taught and assignments required in as many courses as possible. Otherwise, computer labs become high priced "personal typing labs" with students acquiring little skill in more specialized software.

Study findings reinforce the propositions advocated by Dyer (1987) that specific software competencies should be identified by marketing faculty, and incorporated into as many relevant courses as possible, e.g., software used to execute statistical techniques in marketing research courses. Importantly, curriculum changes need not be implemented, only the instructional tools are updated and adapted. In other words, "what is taught" does not change, only the "method of teaching" changes. Novitzki (1991) found that some schools have fully integrated the business curricula by using application software to provide analyses and information necessary to understand course assignments with the result that, "this approach produced significantly improved case and project performance by students" (p. 460).

CONCLUSION

The real challenge facing marketing and business faculty is integrating computer usage

and software into the total curriculum in order to maximize student learning and to insure students acquire competencies needed in the marketplace. When students master software applications, their ability to understand and accomplish educational and business tasks is strengthened.

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MARKETING STUDENTS' SELF-ASSESSMENT OF COMPUTER SKILLS
AND PERCEIVED PREPARATION FOR FUTURE JOBS

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Abstract

Recently, America's economic difficulties have been attributed to not being competitive enough in the marketplace and problems in education. In order to compete in the global marketplace, mastery of computer skills is critical. Towards this goal, many faculty within Colleges of Business look for opportunities to integrate computer skills into their courses and they also recognize that exposure contributes to developing positive attitudes towards working with computers. The study reported explores the degree to which one university's business college provides marketing students with adequate opportunities to work on computers, how prepared these students assess themselves to be, and how marketing majors compare with other majors within the College of Business.