

SOCIAL STYLES OF STUDENTS AND PROFESSORS

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ABSTRACT

In this study, 102 undergraduate students enrolled in marketing and management classes at Seattle Pacific University were asked to rate themselves and their business professors using the dimensions of Social Styles developed by Merrill and Reid (1981): Driver, Expressive, Amiable, Analytical. Twelve business professors also agreed to rate themselves on the same Social Styles Scale. These four Social Styles differ in assertiveness and responsiveness (desire to develop social or emotional relationships with others). Drivers are high in assertiveness and low in responsiveness, Expressives are high in assertiveness and responsiveness, Amiables are low in assertiveness but high in responsiveness, while Analyticals are low in assertiveness and responsiveness. Merrill and Reid provide directions for participants in social situations to adjust their personal style so they can improve the quality of their interaction with others.

Since the Social Styles scale had not previously been applied to an academic setting, the goal of this research was to answer the following questions: What is the Social Style of business students? Do marketing students differ in their Social Style from other business students? Are male students different from female students in terms of Social Style? What are the Social Styles of business professors? How accurately do students judge the Social Style of different business professors? Are there any Social Style clashes between students and professors? If so, what can professors do to mitigate such clashes?

An analysis of the data revealed that the single most likely Social Style among business students is the Expressive style, followed by the Analytical and Amiable styles. Although the sample of marketing students was too small to draw any statistical inferences, three quarters of marketing students were classified as Expressive or Amiable. Thus, the marketing majors in this study had somewhat higher responsiveness ratings than other business students. Students' Social Style was significantly different by gender. Although the most common Social Style for males and females was Expressive, there was a

higher proportion of males who were Drivers, and a higher proportion of women who were Amiable.

The Social Style of most of the twelve professors who filled out the Social Style scale was also Expressive. This indicates there is a match between the level of assertiveness and responsiveness of students and professors. There is a discrepancy, however, between the way some professors rate themselves and the way they are perceived by students. A much higher proportion of students identified business professors as Analyticals than was the case from professor self-ratings. Student perceptions of professors may be partially the result of stereotypes of "typical professor types," as well as gender stereotypes. Female professors are more likely to be viewed as Amiable than Drivers, and the opposite is true for male professors.

Although this study does not address how perception of professor Social Style affects student evaluations of professor performance, other studies (Hersche and Swenson 1991; Kelley, Conant, and Smart 1991) also identify the attributes of responsiveness - helpfulness, caring, and empathy - as desired professor traits.

Further research needs to be conducted to determine the link between Social Styles, classroom activities, and student evaluations. Additional research in other universities needs to be conducted to determine if student social styles at a private university are different from those of students attending public universities.

AN APPROACH FOR DEVELOPING SELF-SUSTAINED LEARNERS IN THE INTRODUCTORY MARKETING COURSE

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ABSTRACT

The need to prepare students to become life-long learners has never been greater. There is simply not enough class time to cover all of the relevant course material, nor to cover it in the depth desired. Likewise, the pace of change is making things so different, students need the ability to learn to do new things. We as educators must find ways to develop our students into life-long learners if they are to be effective in their chosen careers.

Preparing students to be life-long learners has three components (Mentkowski 1988; Mentkowski and Doherty 1984): 1) Students have to take responsibility for their learning; 2) Students need to make a relationship between abilities and their use; 3) Students need to use different ways of learning.

Considering these components, creating life-long learners requires structuring courses in such a manner that they result in holding students accountable for taking ownership of the learning process and providing them with a diversity of opportunities to explore and learn from.

A set of cognitive objectives, skill development objectives, and affective objectives for the Introductory Marketing Course was developed to assist students becoming life-long learners of marketing. (These are available upon request from the author.) An approach was developed where the instructor is primarily responsible for the affective goals, students primarily responsible for cognitive goals, and a shared responsibility exists for the skill development objectives. Twenty percent of class time is spent on imparting knowledge, 30% on skill development, and illustrating marketing philosophical perspectives 50% of the time. Students' spend 65% of their time outside the class on gaining knowledge, 30% on skill development and 5% on attitude development.

The course's cognitive objectives are met by the textbook readings and class lectures. The skill

development objectives are accomplished through written case studies and a group project.

The affective objectives are reached through readings, lectures, class discussions, and case studies. The overall objective is to develop a paradigm of marketing. That is, to have the students form a mental model of what marketing is about, how it functions, and the role it can play in a business and in society.

Anyone wishing more detailed information on the approach used should contact the author.

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THE WORKPLACE PERCEPTIONS OF MARKETING MAJORS VS. OTHER B-SCHOOL MAJORS

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ABSTRACT

B-School graduates have the greatest propensity for employment following graduation of any college/university majors. Because of increased employment opportunities, greater numbers of students are vying for undergraduate and graduate business degrees. As a major component of the educated workforce, many B-School students are viewed as lacking in a work ethic when contrasted with previous generations. But, little is known or in extant literature about how B-School students feel about work and the workplace.

This study investigated the workplace perceptions of 332 junior- and senior-level business majors. Data was collected by way of a questionnaire and the results were tabulated and statistically treated. Marketing majors were contrasted with other B-School majors and when appropriate gender and racial/ethnic differences in the population were noted.

INTRODUCTION

According to Francese (1993) about one out of every four bachelor's degrees conferred during the 1980s were in business administration, the most of any field of study. Also, one in four master's degrees are in business administration, and over half a million people obtained MBAs during the 1980s. This mushrooming of business majors may have been caused by students reading the writing on the wall -- that there are jobs waiting for them after graduation. Edmondson (1997) supports that assumption in his claim that students with a degree in business are the most likely college major to go straight to a full-time job after they graduate. That trend is likely to continue according to documents of the Labor Market Information Division of the Employment Development Department (1996). That organization maintains that until at least 2005, trends indicate that business administration career paths will have the fastest growth, showing the highest percentage increase of new job openings.

While the increase in business majors may have been caused So, if Americans psyches are ingrained with the concept that hard work pays off, then what's the problem with college students? Robinson (1995) thinks he knows the answer with the observation that today's college/university student comes up short when contrasted to students of past generations. He maintains that these students are "[M]arginal in their literacy, smug in their ignorance [and] self-indulgent in their conduct." Robinson maintains that a big part of the problem is their

by the number of job opportunities available to them, the growth in business degrees may also be a function of student perceptions that the field of study can lead them down the path to financial wealth. Supporting this contention, Mendelsohn Media Research, Inc. (1997) found that education and the work people do are what makes the real difference between Americans who are average or wealthy. Mendelsohn discovered that the "average" wealthy person is more likely to be a salaried or self-employed executive manager. Obviously, the skills and techniques learned in B-Schools helped many graduates become rich.

The U.S. has never had so many people in the workplace with business administration degrees. While the number of B-School graduates have grown, a number of higher education faculty who teach today's students frequently complain about the wane of their work ethic. The other day over lunch, for example, when discussing mid-term examination results a colleague of one of the authors remarked that "My students are doing poorly because they just don't know how to put their shoulders to the grindstone anymore." Another colleague contributed, "It seems that in our modern society, people, in general, simply don't work as hard as they used to." Everyone at the table nodded in agreement.

The great American work ethic may now be mellowing but it is a well-founded U.S. proposition. As evidence, in the late-nineteenth century, Horatio Alger wrote nearly a 100 popular books with titles like "Rise from the Ranks," "Strive and Succeed," "Ben the Luggage Boy," and "From Canal Boy to President." Through his books Alger sent a simple message to America's youth -- work hard, live clean, play fair, and you will be richly rewarded. Whole generations of Americans were raised with Alger's main theme that in America, there is a payoff for hard work. That message has been subsequently communicated to and passed on to successive generations.

professors who positively reinforce their students' minimal output by inflating their grades.

Higher education faculty who have been teaching for a long time have likely noted a definitive shift in students' feelings toward work. This shift may highlight a trend inherent in a populace with increasing educational achievements. Along with the mass media, education and the credentials it

bestows may be raising expectations faster than the economic system can meet them. Moreover, it could be that much of what is interpreted as anti-work attitudes on the part of youth may be their appraisal of the workplace itself. It seems self-evident that young people, armed with a business degree and who are preparing to enter the work force, have been shaken by workplace dislocations resulting from employer downsizing, right-sizing, higher demands on productivity, longer working hours, etc.

Research Questions

Surveying college/university students is not new. Generally recognized as members of a society's *avant garde*, students are a well-established and revealing source of useful information. From this study, the authors sought to answer the following research questions with respect to B-School majors and marketing majors in particular:

1. Is there a proportional gender difference among majors?
2. Are they optimistic or pessimistic about the number of job opportunities available?
3. Do they see a connection between success at school and in the workplace?
4. Is there a perceived linkage between personal attributes/hard work and success?
5. What role do they see between doing a good job and workplace promotions?
6. Do they believe that executive success will be determined by their hard work?
7. Does Horatio Alger's ideals exist – is it possible to start off poor and become rich by working hard?

METHODS

A questionnaire was constructed to gather data to answer the above stated research questions. It comprised two sections. The first section queried respondents as to their demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, age, race/ethnicity, etc.) that serve to paint a demographic portrait of the study population. The second section focused on respondent perceptions of the work place. The instrument was modified from an instrument devised by Scott, Nelson & Scott (1988) that was employed and females are attracted to majors in Information Systems and Accounting, respectively. Yet Management and Other majors are almost equally appealing to both genders. Interestingly, the Marketing majors in this study are precisely equally distributed.

to explore how Anglos and Hispanics differed in their perceptions of the workplace.

Individual questionnaires were used as input data into a Bio-Medical Data Processing (BMDP) statistical software package. The data set was cross-tabulated by gender, race/ethnicity, and educational level. Cross-tabulations were also treated by Pearson ChiSquare techniques and, where necessary, by Yates Corrected ChiSquare. For the purpose of this study and ease of understanding for lay people, the findings obtained from the statistical treatment of the data set will be discussed both by the number of respondents and as a percentage of the total respondents by their B-School major.

FINDINGS

Description of Sample

The population selected for this study consisted of 332 U.S. college students selected by their convenience. Of the total number of participants, all were business majors and mostly (92.2%) in their junior or senior year of study. About two-thirds of the sample were in the 17-30 age group. The sample consisted of 77 Accounting majors, 75 Information Systems majors, 79 Management majors, 30 Marketing majors, 71 Other majors.

In terms of the racial/ethnic make-up of the respondents, Whites made up the largest segment (81.4%), followed by Hispanics (10.3%), Blacks (5.1%), Asian (0.3%) and Undeclared (2.9%). Almost half came from a family where at least one parent was university-educated and a majority (76.6%) reported family annual incomes greater than \$35,000.

A profile of the sample by their gender and academic major is detailed in Table 1. It is interesting how males

Table 1: Percentage Distribution of Respondents
(by Gender and Business Major)

	ACT	MIS	MGT	MKT	OTH	TOT
Males	24.7	61.3	57.0	50.0	52.0	48.4
Female	75.3	38.7	43.0	50.0	48.0	51.6

The results in Table 2 were obtained from the question, "Are you optimistic or pessimistic as to the number of jobs that you expect will be available for you after graduation?" Considerable optimism exists that job opportunities will be

plentiful to B-School majors post-graduation. Interestingly, marketing majors felt more optimistic than other B-School majors. Surprisingly, a larger percentage (83.4%) of females were optimistic than were their male counterparts (71.7%). Most surprising, however, is that Blacks felt more optimistic (93.8%) than did Whites (76.3%) to this question.

Table 2: Percentage Perceptions of Job Opportunities

	ACT	MIS	MGT	MKT	OTH	TOT
Optimistic	81.8	79.5	69.6	86.7	74.0	77.4
Pessimistic	18.2	20.5	30.4	13.3	26.0	22.6

The results in Table 3 were obtained from the question, "Do you agree or disagree that a positive relationship exists between your success in higher education and your future success in the workplace?" From the results in the table it is obvious that the vast majority of B-School majors feel that there is a linkage between one's success in college and how one will do in the workplace after graduation. Further, agreement is almost uniform across the spectrum of B-School majors delineated in this table with each of them agreeing close to the 85% range. With respect to gender, more females (88.8%) felt there was a carry-over of success from school to work than did males (79.7%). Across ethnic lines, Asians were in total agreement (100%) in the linkage. Hispanics trailed them slightly (90.6%), followed by Blacks (87.5%) and Whites were last in agreement at 82.9%.

Table 3: Percentage Correlation of Views Between Educational and Workplace Success

	ACT	MIS	MGT	MKT	OTH	TOT
Agree	85.3	87.7	84.6	86.7	84.0	85.3
Disagree	14.7	12.3	15.4	13.3	16.0	14.7

The results in Table 4 were obtained from the question, "Do you agree or disagree that your ability to 'climb the ladder of success' will be mainly determined by your personal attributes and by working hard?" From the data entries in the table, the majority of respondents felt that the combination of The results in Table 6 were obtained from the question, "Do you agree or disagree that if you 'really put your heart into it' you can rise to whatever heights you desire in the workplace?" Marketing and Management majors are sure that there is a connection between one's efforts and what one achieves in the workplace. A majority of the other B-School majors agree with this proposition too, just not to the same level of intensity of Marketing and Management majors.

working hard and one's personal attributes will cause one to be elevated in the workplace. Marketing and Management majors seem more assured of the relationship than do Accounting and Information Systems majors. Further, when contrasting the responses by gender, similar results were achieved with agreement for males at 77.1% and females, 74.7%. Looking at the results by race/ethnicity, Blacks see less probability that personal attributes and hard work led to workplace rewards with 1/3rd of them disagreeing with the connection than when contrasting it to Asians (100%), Whites (75.8%) and Hispanics (75%).

Table 4: Percentage Correlation Between Personal Attributes and Hard Work

	ACT	MIS	MGT	MKT	OTH	TOT
Agree	68.9	70.4	85.7	83.3	80.0	76.6
Disagree	31.1	29.6	14.3	16.7	20.0	23.4

The results in Table 5 were obtained from the question, "Do you agree or disagree that as long as you do a good job and 'keep your nose clean' you will be recognized and promoted at work?" There seems to be remarkably less agreement with this question than the one from which the data in Table 4 were obtained. Marketing majors led all B-School majors in their agreement that by doing a good job and playing by the rules one will be rewarded by workplace promotions. Other B-School majors are not so sure of this connection. Roughly half of the males and half the females polled felt that there was a connection. Across racial/ethnic lines most Whites and Hispanics felt similarly (55.6% and 56.3%, respectively) that a connection exists while a vast majority (75%) of Blacks, however, rejected that proposition.

Table 5: Percentage Correlation Between Doing a Good Job and Workplace Promotion

	ACT	MIS	MGT	MKT	OTH	TOT
Agree	51.9	45.9	57.7	66.7	49.0	52.8
Disagree	48.1	54.1	42.3	33.3	51.0	47.2

When looking if there are gender differences to this question, there were none found. Both males and females were at the 85% level of agreement on this question. However, when checking the data for racial or ethnic differences, some were found. While Asians led in agreement to the question, followed by Whites (87.4%), and Hispanics close on their heels (84.4%), fully one-fourth of Blacks disagreed that a linkage exists between one's efforts and rewards.

COLLEGE STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS UNIVERSITY-LEVEL WORK

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ABSTRACT

There has been much discussion at our college about the decline of student preparedness. There is no question that our entry-level students' skills have declined over the past twenty years. Nowadays, the majority of our university's entering freshmen do not pass the entry-level tests in Mathematics and English, which means that these students are not prepared for college-level work.

Ability is only part of the issue, however. Attitude is also crucial. A recent article by Paul Trout (1997) on this subject paints a portrait of a nation of college students who are not only "disengaged" from the learning process but are also well versed in consumerism. The result? A situation where students "expect satisfaction regardless of effort" (p. 50).

Trout suggests several actions that professors should take, with the first being to study the problem and ascertain what college students' attitudes are towards education. Our presentation will provide the results of our first two attempts to survey our business students about their attitudes towards college education.

Method for First Survey

One year ago, we surveyed 310 students who were enrolled in a new Introduction to Organizations course. This course was designed to be taken at the beginning of a business student's major course of study (after fulfillment of the general electives); thus, most students were juniors.

Students were asked to fill out a "Survey of Study Practices and Class Preferences," which was comprised of 31 statements about study practices and expectations. Students indicated the extent to which they agreed with each statement by circling the appropriate number on a 7-point scale (1 = totally disagree, 7 = totally agree). Twenty seven of these statements were adapted from Pintrich and De Groot's (1990) Self-Efficacy, Intrinsic Value, and Self-Regulation scales. Students were also asked to provide us with some personal statistics:

major, current GPA, age, gender, and number of years worked.

Method for Second Survey

This year, we surveyed 387 students who were enrolled in either the Introduction to Business course or a new Introduction to Analysis course; consequently, 51 percent of the respondents were juniors and 47 percent were seniors.

Students were asked to fill out a survey, and they were informed that the results of the survey would be used to assist students with improving their study skills. They were assured that the questionnaire was anonymous, and were advised that their honest and complete responses would be appreciated.

Students were told to assume that the questions referred to an average course (not too difficult, not too easy) that met twice a week for a semester (30 class meetings) where the instructor did not take attendance. Students were asked several questions about what would be a reasonable effort on the part of a student who expected to earn an A, B, C, or D in the course. In particular, students were asked how many class meetings could be missed, how many hours a week one should study, how many days it would take to review for an exam, how many days should be spent preparing a 15-page paper, and how many times a five-member group should meet in a month to work on a semester-long project. Demographic data was also obtained.

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THE USE OF VIDEOCONFERENCING TECHNOLOGY IN THE MARKETING CLASSROOM: ISSUES TO CONSIDER WHEN VIDEOCONFERENCING WITH DOMESTIC AND INTERNATIONAL EXPERTS

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ABSTRACT

This workshop is designed to discuss issues related to the effective use of videoconferencing with business executives and government officials in marketing classes. The major purpose of the session is to show case this technology and encourage faculty members who have not used it in their classrooms to consider using it. The session will provide a forum for faculty members who have used it to discuss their experiences. Brief video clips from student videoconferences with foreign executives and US Government officials in the Commercial Service abroad will demonstrate classroom applications.

SESSION RATIONALE

Many schools of business make a practice of bringing seasoned executives into the classroom, particularly in upper division courses. These executives provide insightful, first-hand experience in addressing complex marketing problems from their perspectives as top decision-makers. The geographic locations of many schools, unfortunately, make it very difficult for faculty to have ready access to a pool of executives to bring into the classroom. Even in areas where executive talent is available, the travel time between their offices to the campus often is an impediment to obtaining participation from these very busy individuals. Getting access to multinational executive talent from outside the country is even more challenging. Encouraging the use of this technology to enhance classroom experiences is the primary rationale for the session.

In the near future it is expected that the bandwidth issue on the Internet will permit much less expensive technologies to bring videoconferencing to the classroom. Many of the issues that are pertinent now with the more expensive technology will also obtain when the cheaper technology can provide the same frames per second video imaging and similar audio quality. The coming improvement in video Internet conferencing will provide many more institutions that cannot afford formal videoconferencing facilities the opportunity to bring distant experts and classroom. Therefore, this workshop should be of interest even to faculty from schools that currently do not have videoconferencing rooms.

SESSION FORMAT

Oral Presentation /Video clips/ Discussion: In this workshop, a review of the equipment and support requirements on both ends, issues involving preparing the executives and students for the event, cost for connect time, and the problems of communicating across quite different time zones will be presented and discussed. Brief video excerpts of the authors' classes teleconferencing with marketing executives in Norway, Japan, and with the U.S. Commerce Department officials in Brazil will be shown. The session will also discuss students' reaction to the experience. Additionally, overall pros and cons of this type of learning experience will be examined from a faculty perspective. The audience will be encouraged to comment on our experiences as well as discuss their own. Additionally, thoughts on the implications of improved bandwidth for Internet-videoconferencing will be presented to encourage discussion.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

This session is about creating an effective classroom environment through including student demonstration of important values and effective work-related behaviors as integral course objectives. These behaviors are essential long-term life skills in business/organizational environments.

Classroom management (discipline) is put in the broader context of character formation. Virtuous, effective workplace behaviors include the kinds of effective classroom behavior that reduce classroom management/discipline problems. Student-student and student-instructor interactions are both areas where such disruptive behaviors reduce the effectiveness of the learning experience for all students.

The session proposes that integrating the development of effective workplace behaviors is an important element of marketing courses and that it is part of the content – not substitute content requiring the omission of important topics. The session identifies principles and strategies for accomplishing the development of effective behaviors. Case studies and collegial interaction are used to help participants effectively employ the strategies.

SPECIAL SESSION ON DEVELOPING MARKETING STUDENTS' LEADERSHIP POTENTIAL

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The American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), has noted the importance of preparing students for leadership. Unfortunately, few academic institutions attempt to prepare their marketing students for leadership, as opposed to preparation for marketing management. Yet, the two concepts are not identical.

For some, the major difference is that management has to do with doing things right, while leadership has to do with doing the right things. Perhaps more importantly, psychologists have long recognized that there are informal leaders in any organization, which may or may not include the organization's formal managerial "chain of command." This means that one does not need to be in a formal managerial position to lead, but also that mere assignment as a marketing manager, or any other kind of manager, does not automatically confer the status of "leader." Both of these facts are of importance, since it has been consistently demonstrated that successful leaders are able to get the groups they lead to perform more productively. Thus, the old adage: "It is better to have an army of lambs led by a lion, than an army of lions led by a lamb."

Clearly, if development of leadership could be a demonstrated outcome of a marketing degree program, it would make a major contribution to the students' potential as well as add considerable value to their marketing education.

Some schools of business offer a leadership course, usually in the management department. A typical undergraduate course is "Management Leadership and Motivation." The course description states that the

objective of the course is to explain the "nature, resources, strategies, and models of complex organizations." Thus, we can see that this primarily is a theoretical course and is intended to teach students about leadership, not to develop the students' leadership skills as leaders.

However, like dancing, painting, or brain surgery, leadership is an art. While learning the theory of brain surgery is a required basis for learning to be a brain surgeon, one is unable to perform brain surgery by simply studying about it. Nor can one dance or paint without practical instruction, hands-on experience, and feedback. It is because most schools of business fail to follow up theoretical courses in leadership with practical instruction, that they fail to adequately prepare their students for leadership in their chosen disciplines, in our case, marketing.

This special session emphasizes the development of a marketing student's most critical skill: leadership. Panel members were especially selected for their varied backgrounds and having made contributions in this area so that after a presentation from his or her experience and perspective, an open forum discussion could be held.

ASSESSING STUDENT SATISFACTION OF WEB-BASED INSTRUCTION

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ABSTRACT

Among the issues in education today, none is more far reaching and pivotal than the development and utilization of new technologies. Among the technologies which are in their infancy is the use of the web as a delivery system. Web-based education is viewed as both a threat to those who subscribe to traditional teaching pedagogues and as an opportunity to those who see it as a means to expand the reach of an institution and use resources efficiently.

While distance education is a reality for many institutions of higher learning, the current literature speaks more to the technological and quantitative aspects of these delivery systems more so than qualitative ones. There is less research on the outcomes of web-based instruction because of its relative newcomer status to distance education. With the possibility of web-based instruction to deliver outcomes of a traditional lecture class, at issue is what type of modifications are necessary in the pedagogy to optimize this result.

There is little in the current literature which compares the satisfaction among students who enroll in web-based courses vis-à-vis those who take the same course in a traditional classroom environment. The research question for this study asks if distance education, and specifically a web-based course, offer the student the same learning experience, satisfaction, and outcomes of a traditional class.

To answer the research question, a pilot study was conducted at Northern Arizona University in the Spring of 1998. In this study, two sections of the same undergraduate course were taught concurrently by the same instructor during the same semester; one as a traditional lecture class (n= 40) the other as a web-based class (n= 15). Both classes used identical pedagogical materials consisting of

PowerPoint slides of key lecture comments. Creative Advertising Strategies, a junior level class, was chosen as for this study. This course is required for all advertising majors and is an elective in the promotion track of the marketing major and was selected as it utilizes both lecture material and team project work.

At three intervals during the Spring, 1998 semester student perceptions were measured utilizing a 17 question instrument administered in both sections. Among the dimensions evaluated were: convenience, overall satisfaction, ability to have questions/issues answered, ability to progress satisfactorily, and ability to work on a team project. Questionnaires were administered at roughly monthly intervals at 4, 8, and 12 weeks into the semester. A five point Likert scale was utilized to measure the student perceptions for each question.

Overall, five broad conclusions are implied:

- (1) Students in both the web and lecture sections reported greater overall satisfaction as the course progressed throughout the semester.
- (2) Throughout the semester, the lecture section reported greater over-all satisfaction with the class at all reporting intervals.
- (3) The greatest strength reported by students in the lecture section was "faculty and student interaction" while web students cited "convenience."
- (4) The greatest weakness reported by students in the lecture section was "inconvenient time/location " while web students reported "lack of faculty and student interaction." This was the opposite of the strengths noted by each section.
- (5) Consistent with lower over-all satisfaction in the web class, students performed 4% to 10% below the lecture class on both the mid-term and final exam.

Further research incorporating the learning from this pilot study is indicated.

When the course was developed, CEO's or Vice-Presidents from top Internet companies were recruited as guest lecturers.

As anticipated from the focus group findings, 77% of students surveyed indicated they would not be willing to take an additional prerequisite in order to take the proposed course. One interesting finding from the survey was that 42% of the students already have a home page.

When asked if they would like a project to be part of the class, 87% indicated they would. When asked if the project should be a simulation or a real client project, 12% said simulation, 64% said real client, and 24% indicated both. When the course was offered, the teams were allowed to choose real clients as part of the project to both develop an Internet marketing plan and for the marketing part of a web site.

Survey Conclusions

This research clearly identified a strong interest in an Internet Marketing class and the authors of this report worked together to create a pilot class based on this research and their experience in the field.

The students most interested in taking this new course were Business majors concentrating in Marketing. They preferred to take a course with a practical rather than theoretical orientation. They wished to not only learn the theory, but also put it to practice with a project, preferably with a real client.

Although there was much interest in this new course, students are unwilling to take additional prerequisites beyond those already in their business program in order to take this course and prefer that this course be an elective rather than required.

Assessment of the Computer Environment

Because all of the professors interviewed described major problems in getting a lab that worked reliably, an assessment of the proposed lab was made. An assessment of software needs also was made. Site licenses for all software was secured and installed on the cart to be used and in the labs.

Course Description

The following course description appeared on the syllabus based on a compilation of all the research that had been completed.

This course provides students with the knowledge of the role of online marketing and the tools a manager can use to make online advertising, public relations, and sales and customer relations, effective for his or her company to create a competitive advantage. It compares the new

interactive marketing methods with traditional marketing approaches and examines how to view them strategically from a marketing perspective. Exploring on the Web will be required either in a lab or with a student's personal computer. Both group and individual projects will be required.

The topics covered in class included a history of the Web, brand equity building, models of Internet Marketing, effective Web design elements including audio and video streaming, creating a competitive integrated online and traditional marketing program to establish lifetime relationships with customers, and research for online customer profiling and segmentation. Other topics included the differences in effective online advertising including how to design it, how to charge for it, and how to buy it. The sales topics included online promotions, secure payment systems, how to convert surfers to buyers, interactive and online public relations, security, electronic transactions, legal issues, and privacy concerns.

Grading included a midterm and final, as well as group and individual projects.

Midterm	100
Final	100
Group Project	
Tours/Analysis	20
Tour Presentation	15
Group Web Site	75
Group Web Report	75
Group Web final Presentation	30
Individual labs (5 points each)	35

The group projects included a Safari Presentation Tour in class for 45 minutes of three Benchmark sites in five areas by five teams including Cool Graphics/Entertainment, Advertising, Sales/Promotion, PR/Social Responsibility, and Customer Service/Support with handouts for the class and a written report. This project also included securing a real client, developing a competitive advantage report based on expert interviews and a marketing focused web site. Individual aspects included take home labs examining benchmark sites and written analysis on specified sites each week.

Final Course Results

The pitfalls of actually implementing the course included finding a lab and an Internet hookup which worked, obtaining quality guest lecturers, and identifying a relevant text. For instance, the first week the main server for the University crashed, making the Internet show-and-tell lecture impossible to deliver. The cart had

online connecting problems throughout the course. Backups of web sites using a web snake were brought in on Zip disk after the first frustrating week.

The second week, we discovered that inadequate fiber optic hookups (ten) caused the network to crash when thirty students attempt to go online.

The third week, all in lab exercises were abandoned and take home labs were instituted. Because extensive in-class lab exercises were then not possible due to the online hookup problem, an hour of each week's class was filled utilizing five top guest lecturers in online marketing. Although this unexpected revision was due to a pitfall, it also proved to be a blessing.

Staying Current

Take home labs needed to be updated the night before the class got them because of the frequent domain name changes. This also held true for online in-class show and tell examples because companies removed elements from web sites that had been planned as examples for the various lectures.

One of the obstacles was finding a suitable book when there are no academic texts on Internet marketing. Although no academic Internet marketing text was located, the week before the course started, the text, *Net Results: Web Marketing that Works*, by Rick Bruner and USWEB, a 1998 trade book was selected because it covered sales, advertising, and public relations on the web.

Conclusion: Ongoing Revisions in a Changing Environment

Course development needed to be ongoing because of a variety of pitfalls that occurred despite careful planning and development. The need for small classes and adjustments to the curriculum became evident during the first three weeks of classes. An ability to improvise to overcome pitfalls will be invaluable for anyone doing Internet marketing course development. The group project, safari tour, and exams were successful elements for the course. Because of the surveys, the competitive analysis, and the awareness of the potential pitfalls, backup plans for the problems were quickly adopted. It takes careful contingency planning in a constantly changing hyperlinked environment to successfully teach an Internet marketing course. The need to constantly update both lectures and labs and to monitor developments will be critical for those involved in course development and teaching Internet Marketing.

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A PRELIMINARY EVALUATION OF AN EXPERIMENT USING AN INTERNET MEDIA MODULE FOR TEACHING ADVERTISING

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ABSTRACT

Internet technology is becoming an increasingly important instructional tool for college and university professors. The paper briefly describes an innovative experiment in utilizing the Internet for instructional purposes. It describes the attempt by professors to develop a web-based teaching module for advertising students. The preliminary study focuses on similarities and differences in the reactions of two classes using the module. Since the sample sizes are small, the results are exploratory. A final evaluation of the experiment will occur during the 1999-2000 academic year and will include a comparison of opinions of students using the module with opinions of students covering the media information in the traditional lecture mode.

BACKGROUND

The development of new technology has led to the use of the Internet as an educational tool, particularly for distance learning. For example, The University of Phoenix on line campus is designed for working adults wishing to earn accredited degrees in a nontraditional fashion. Other examples of pioneers in on-line teaching include: the University of Massachusetts, the 1995 introduction of the Microsoft Online (MOL) education program, Discovery Channel Online providing on-line courses, and the 1996 IBM Global Campus program. Currently, IBM is helping more than 30 colleges pilot the project in at least 11 countries (Technology Forecast 1997). Advantages of on-line courses for distance learners, including convenience, flexibility, and timesavings are well documented; an extensive review of the literature is beyond the scope of this paper.

Stanford University and California State University, Northridge, are further examples of early adopters of Internet technology for informational and teaching purposes. Humboldt State and Chico offer a master's degree in social work through California State University, Long Beach. The

Cyber Campus at the University of California, Los Angeles, is an attempt to revolutionize the university (Swanton 1998).

The impact of Internet access to degrees, courses, and teaching supplements on residential students is a controversial subject. One extreme is that it is the death knell for residential education. Other educators feel socialization and acculturation are important, especially for the 18 to 22 year old students (Kauffman and Bonner 1996). Arguments against on-line education can be summed up in a statement by Lawrence Kessler, professor of history at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, who states that some colleagues feel " . . . the virtual university is not the kind of educational experience we ought to be imparting."

Advocates of on-line education as a tool for residential students counter criticisms by stating that on-line learning removes the discrimination that can occur in face to face contacts and actually increases the amount of interaction between students and the student and professor (Ehrmann 1995). A survey of Stanford on-line instruction and learning have improved. (Technology in Teaching 1996). Moreover, students are consistently more prepared and participation in class discussions increases. Internet supplements to lectures provide the opportunity for more class time to be devoted to increasingly complex topics. See sources like Oblinger and Rush's The Learning Revolution, Khan's Web-Based Instruction, Holmberg's Theory and Practice of Distance Education, and Lockwood's Open and Distance Learning Today for further discussion.

On-line learning and the reduction of in-class seat time are here to stay. The issue seems to be one of the degree to which Internet is integrated into course delivery rather than whether or not to use the method.

THE INTERNET MEDIA MODULE

The authors decided to "start small for Internet course delivery by developing a course module only. The undergraduate

advertising was selected because advertising students must use the Internet to advertise and they need to access Internet materials as a resource. A media module was developed because media topics seemed more appropriate than the creative aspects of campaign planning. The module was designed to enhance familiarity with how to use the Internet and its resources and to evaluate the use of Internet technology as a teaching/learning tool. Because the course enrollments are small and the course is not often offered, the analysis of the evaluation of results is exploratory, at best.

The media module consists of a Power Point presentation outlining important media concepts and other information developed by the authors to be used in the traditional classroom setting. The module is designed to supplement the textbook coverage of the topic. A media assignment accompanies the module requiring students to select, schedule, budget, and evaluate the effectiveness of media. The Internet materials replace three formal classes. The professor is available to meet face-to-face with students, by phone, and by e-mail during the three class periods, regular office hours, and by appointment. The media assignment is due and is discussed during the class period following the completion of Internet media module. An evaluation form consisting of eight closed ended questions soliciting opinions regarding the Internet media module presentation is also administered to each student immediately after the completion of the media module. The Internet module was utilized in two advertising classes: Spring 1997, with 13 students; Winter 1998, with 19 students. The following results are presented as mean averages by class for each of the 8 questions.

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

Questions 1-5 of the Internet Evaluation Survey require the students to indicate their opinions by using the terms excellent (5), good (4), average (3), below average (2), and poor (1). In addition, they are provided with an "I don't know" category (0). Thus, favorable responses result in higher mean averages. These questions are designed to evaluate the overall impressions by students of the Internet media module. Answer categories for questions 6-8 include: An excellent use of

time (5), a good use of time (4), an average use of time (3), a below average use of time (2), a waste of time (1), and I don't know (0). The three questions are to elicit student opinions about the value of their time spent on the Internet media module. In addition, the professors decided to test for consistency in the mean results between groups by applying the t-test, a statistical test designed to measure for similarities or differences of opinions between small samples. The significant differences are reported below at the 1 percent level of significance for a two-tailed test.

Question 1: Overall, I would rate the media presentation on the Internet . . .

Mean average results are:

Spring 1997	Winter 1998
4.0	3.05

The t-statistic is -4.553 indicating a significant difference of opinions between the 1997 and 1998 students with the Spring 1997 students assigning higher ratings to the module. Both groups rated the module as at least average.

Question 2: In terms of what I learned, I would rate the media information on the Internet . . .

Mean average results are:

Spring 1997	Winter 1998
4.31	3.10

The t-score of -3.69 shows there is a significant difference of opinions between students in the two classes; again the 1997 group assigned higher ratings although students in both classes described the media internet presentation as above average.

Question 3: In terms of interest, I would rate the media section on the Internet. . .

Mean average results are:

Spring 1997	Winter 1998
4.23	2.90

The t-statistic of -4.70 reveals a significant difference of opinions between the 1997 and 1998 students. The 1997 students viewed the media section more positively compared to the 1998 students who described it as slightly less than average.

in the way the materials are designed and presented, including the evaluation form. The less favorable results for the Winter 1998 were not unexpected. El Nino caused an on campus computer failure on the day the access to the Internet was explained. Furthermore, because of the weather, some students missed the class session.

The professors learned there was a difference in accessing the system from instructors' offices, classrooms with Internet connections, the computer lab used by students, and home. For the Fall 1998 class, the orientation was presented to cover all the above means of access.

The professors were pleased with the amount of e-mail generated by the Internet module. Student participation via e-mail was high and face-to-face office visits by students increased. Thus, the Internet stimulates, rather than hinders, student participation, according to the professors.

CONCLUSIONS

The preliminary results for evaluating the media module presentation for advertising students are mixed. The module appears to have fulfilled one of its objectives: getting students and faculty to familiarize themselves with accessing the Internet and understanding its functions. The module, as it is currently designed, seems appropriate as a supplement to the regular classroom experience. However, in terms of a stand-alone unit and use of the students' time, the module needs improvement. As the module is used more often, revisions will be made based upon the professors' experiences in applying Internet technology to their teaching techniques and student feedback. A final evaluation of the present method will occur during the 1999-2000 academic year when overall results of students using the module will be compared with results from students covering the media information in the traditional lecture mode. At that time, decisions will be made about the unit: to continue the module as revised, to discontinue the module, and/or to expand the module to include the entire course. If the module is discontinued, the professors will try developing another approach to Internet teaching.

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TEACHING BUSINESS ETHICS IN PRINCIPLES OF MARKETING

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ABSTRACT

This paper reviews arguments for incorporating ethics instruction in business classes and describes a method of introducing ethics to marketing students. Comparisons of discussion and control groups showed few effects of instruction on social responsibility scale scores. Suggestions for improving the effectiveness of using ethics cases in the classroom and for conducting additional research are provided.

INTRODUCTION

Ethical behavior refers to "just" or "right" standards of behavior between persons. Business ethics are moral principles or rules of conduct applied to business situations. In the past, ethical business standards have sometimes lapsed in the face of competitive and profit demands, leading the public and some business students to believe that "business ethics" is something of an oxymoron. Actual incidences of misconduct have bolstered this opinion and have prompted stricter federal regulation and policing guidelines. As a result, many U. S. corporations are trying to encourage knowledge of ethics in their work force. For instance, Arthur Anderson and Company have developed an extensive program of ethics instruction designed to train college faculty to transmit ethical principles to students.

Stark (1993) found that 90% of business schools in the U. S. provide some form of ethics instruction. Evidence that students need this instruction includes comparisons of undergraduate business students and business professionals that show that business students were less ethical than practitioners on certain business issues (Cole and Smith 1995; Haley 1991). Male students, particularly, seem to lack ethical sensitivity and are less critical of unethical marketing and business practices than their female counterparts (Peterson, Beltramini, and Kozmetsky 1991; Whipple and Wolf 1991; Ruegger and King 1992). They also tend to be less idealistic, more relativistic and less likely to believe that conformity to moral rules is mandatory than female marketing students (Singhapakdi and Vitell 1994).

When business ethics is included in the curriculum, the topic may receive only lip service. Surveys report that students feel that white collar crime is not emphasized in their classes (Roderick et al. 1991) or is not taught at all (Johnson and Beard 1992). Furthermore, the typical business course may include tacit assumptions that lead students to believe that being successful requires ethically questionable behavior (Kumar, Borycki, Nonis, and Yauger 1991). These assumptions receive more credence when they are not countered by ethics instruction.

Suggestions for improving ethical proclivities of students include incorporating ethics into courses and introducing stand-alone courses in business ethics (Gandz and Hayes 1988; George 1987; Stead and Miller 1988). Case methods have been proposed that ask students to justify the decisions made about ethical questions (Schaup, Ponzurick, and Shaup 1992). The use of cases has some advantages over lectures on ethical topics - which students tend to perceive as irrelevant, unrealistic, and boring. In case discussion, students are pitting their opinions and values against each other, rather than being given a set of rules dictated by a parent figure in the guise of a professor. Furthermore, the justification of a moral decision can help students refine their thinking about issues that they may face in the real world (Barnes, Christensen, and Hansen 1993).

This paper describes a method for incorporating ethics teaching within a single course. The method involved analyzing short ethics cases, individually and with groups of students. In the paper we present the objectives of the exercise, list the topics of the cases, describe their implementation, and provide a general outline of the discussion materials. An evaluation of the effectiveness of the method on student motivation and learning is accomplished through pre- and post-tests of classes participating in the ethics discussions and those that did not participate.

INSTRUCTIONAL METHOD

THE STUDENTS

The participants were 168 Principles of Marketing students enrolled in a state college in the western United States. Ninety percent were between 19-24 years of age. The gender distribution was 93 males and 75 females. Business majors constituted 67% of the group ($n = 112$); the remainder majored in a variety of disciplines that required marketing as part of their curriculum. Approximately half the students were exposed to the case discussions while the rest received a standard lecture. Students in the case discussion and comparison groups had the same demographics in terms of age and gender; the only observable difference between the two groups was that the comparison group did not participate in ethics discussions in addition to lecture.

OBJECTIVES OF THE EXERCISES

There were several objectives for the case discussion exercise. First, we wanted to raise student awareness of ethical issues in marketing and develop an understanding of the various ways these decisions might be approached. Second, we wanted to provide a systematic way of analyzing an ethical decision situation and give students practice in using the approach. Third, we wanted to increase student motivation by actively engaging students in a realistic problem-solving situation.

PREPARATION FOR DISCUSSIONS

Prior to the first discussion, students in the ethics discussion classes were given a short lecture on moral decision making and its application to business. The preparation meant that more time was allotted to the first case than to subsequent cases. The lecture included several topics.

1. Ethics and ethical decision making in business were defined. The relationship between ethical decision-making, business policy, and government policy was discussed.
2. The stakeholders of an organization were defined as any person or group who might be affected by a company decision. Stakeholders might include the management and employees of the firm, the suppliers of various services and products, the customers, and the stockholders.
3. Three approaches to moral reasoning were discussed: a utilitarian focus, an approach that

emphasized rights of individuals, and a focus on justice. From a utilitarian point of view a "right" decision maximizes the welfare for the greatest portion of stakeholders. A rights point of view emphasizes that stakeholders have certain rights that need to be served; a moral decision would be the one that preserved those rights best. A justice approach emphasizes fair and equitable treatment for all stakeholders. Ethical decisions involve following the rules and making sure everyone is treated the same. Students were told that different people take different approaches to solving ethical dilemmas and that a single person might use different approaches depending on the situation.

4. Students were given a list of questions that might be asked when an ethical dilemma arises. This list was adapted from Arthur Anderson's "Seven Step Process for Decision-Making." In the interest of time constraints in the classroom, the list was an abbreviated one. The questions were:
 - a. What are the relevant facts?
 - b. What ethical issues do you see?
 - c. What are the possible alternatives for action?
 - d. What will be the costs and benefits of each alternative?
 - e. What action or actions should be taken?

Five mini-cases, each about a page in length, were selected that were consistent with the topics being presented in the class in that week. The case topics and the area with which they were associated were: business espionage (research/competition); downsizing (product/product development); the use of incentives in sales presentations (promotion and advertising); marketing cigarettes in a third world country (international marketing); and marketing questionable products to minorities (public policy). The university on the quarter system (approximately 10 weeks in a term); therefore, a case was presented every other week in the experimental class. The control class had a traditional lecture without ethics cases.

PROCEDURE

Class sessions were an hour and fifty minutes in length. The first part of the class was reserved for lecture on the current topic. The last 40 minutes was devoted to analyzing and discussing the ethics cases using the questions outlined above. Students

were divided into groups of 4-5 individuals. Each individual received a copy of the case and a list of the questions to be answered prior to the discussion. Students were asked to read the cases individually and arrive at a tentative answer for each question. After making their individual assessments, students discussed each question in their groups and attempted to develop a consensus about the appropriate actions. They were told that they should have reasonable justification for their choices based on the facts of the case, the stakeholders their actions would affect, and the costs and benefits of each alternative. One member of each group recorded the group's answers to the questions on a prepared form.

The final 10-15 minutes of the class was used to discuss the results of the analysis. To facilitate the discussion, each week one or two of the groups were asked to present the results of their analysis. The rest of the class was assigned the task of evaluating the analysis, agreeing or disagreeing with it, and presenting arguments supporting the conclusions of their own group. All conclusions had to be backed with information in the case or in the text. The instructor's role was to facilitate the discussion, ask questions that ought to have been asked by students but were not, and add factual material that might have been helpful for the students, but was not included in the text or case materials. Case analyses were collected and students received credit based on their quality.

ANALYSIS OF EFFECTIVENESS

A scale, the Social Responsibility Scale for Marketing Personnel (Peters 1972), was administered to all students at the beginning and end of the term to assess student learning. The scale contained 26 items that measured concern for the firm's practices on the end user, honesty, social responsibility in all areas of life, and concern for society beyond the need for immediate return to the company. Students were given the option of agreeing or disagreeing with each statement (minimum score = 26; maximum score = 52). Social security numbers were used to match pre- and post-tests.

The effect of case discussion on the learning of ethical attitudes was assessed by examining pre-test and post-test scores in the case study and comparison classes. Prior to doing the analysis, the effects of major and gender on responses to the Social Responsibility Scale were examined. Major did not have a significant effect on scale scores but,

consistent with previous research, females in both treatment and control groups provided more ethical responses than males, $F(1, 144) = 4.68, p < .05$. Therefore, gender was used as a covariate in a subsequent 2 (Pre/Post) X 2 (Treatment Group) ANOVA, computed to examine changes in scale scores. The results of the ANOVA showed an effect for gender, $F(1, 143) = 4.49, p < .04$, and an effect for treatment group, $F(1, 143) = 4.67, p < .03$, but no interaction between treatment group and scale administration time. Analyses of the pre-tests and post-tests separately showed a marginally significant pre-test difference between comparison and case discussion groups, with the case discussion group scoring in the more socially responsible direction, $F(1, 96) = 7.04, p < .09$. The post-tests did not differ between groups, but the scores of both groups were lower than in the pretest. Means and standard deviations are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Social Responsibility Scale Means
and Standard Deviations

Test Time	Treatment Group	
	Control	Case
Pre-test	44.42 SD = 3.45	45.87 SD = 2.51
Post-test	44.08 SD = 3.93	44.21 SD = 3.71

Effectiveness of cases in promoting more interest and increasing motivation to examine ethical issues in business was assessed by soliciting student opinions. Approximately 80% of students in the discussion classes indicated that they found the case discussions to be informative and a welcome break from straight lecture. An additional benefit was that the case discussions often pointed out lecture topics that students did not fully understand. For instance, the concept of a "stakeholder" was a fuzzy one for many students. Because this became apparent in the process of the case discussions, clarification became possible.

CONCLUSION

Our analyses offered little support for the impact of ethics case discussion on modification of beliefs about ethical behavior in business. Instead, they seemed to imply that tacit assumptions within the

course (Kumar et al. 1991) affect student ethical beliefs despite ethics instruction. For example, reduced ethics scores might result from students learning to focus more on some stakeholders than others. Other factors that could influence scores in the discussion group include the manner in which effectiveness was assessed. The scale used for the assessment (Peters 1972) was a general one and the items were not specifically tied to the cases presented. Therefore, students could be sensitized to specific ethical issues without that sensitivity affecting their total score on the scale. Second, the response format (agree, disagree) was a modification of the original 5 point scale and may not be sufficiently sensitive to differences between groups. Third, students in this small sample responded in a generally ethical direction at the outset. The existence of a relatively high degree of ethical awareness leaves less room for change.

Given the limitations of this exploratory study, we are reluctant to conclude that ethics case discussions are generally ineffective when incorporated into a marketing class. Even though social responsibility scores declined in both groups, there was evidence that students found the cases motivating and the case analysis framework (which pointed to the primacy of situational analysis as a basis for decision-making) helpful. The cases also represented problem situations in which different stakeholders may prefer different alternatives, thus emphasizing that what is good for Jack may not be good for his master. The determination of which stakeholders have pre-eminence in a particular situation is rarely addressed in basic marketing texts and could be a justifiable reason for involving students in ethics discussions. Last, the experience of wrestling with ethical problems has the potential of training students to act as well as know, a frequent requirement in business.

There are limitations inherent in using a case method for introducing ethics to students in a marketing class. One is the amount of time involved in the adequate preparation of the cases and the students. Some faculty may feel that this time commitment excessively reduces the amount of emphasis that can be given the core material. We feel that time issues can be partially resolved by careful selection of cases to augment course topics, thus allowing some core material to be covered in the case discussion. Other ways to compensate for reduced time for lecture may include shortening the discussion of public policy issues that is typically given as a last lecture.

Research on the effectiveness of teaching methods is essential if instruction is to be improved; this study suggests several possible research directions. These directions include, first, the determination of an adequate means of measuring changes in ethical reasoning and beliefs about ethical issues in marketing. As with any null finding, our results may be due to measurement issues. A second direction may be to investigate what happens to students' thinking about ethical issues during the course of a marketing course. Do they subsequently make less ethical choices and, if so, what causes this behavior? Third, this study involved a single method applied to a relatively homogeneous group of students. It would be desirable to compare different approaches to ethics instruction using more diverse student populations.

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INTEGRATING ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL VALUES INTO THE MARKETING CURRICULUM

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a framework of social and economic values, which can be used to identify and evaluate society's changing interests. Alternative perspectives on the role of marketing in balancing the values of consumers, government, and business are discussed. In addition, suggestions for integrating these issues into the marketing curriculum are presented.

INTRODUCTION

Throughout American history the major thrusts of business have been upon growth in sales and profits. The pursuit and attainment of these goals, however, simultaneously produced significant costs. The existence of the self-evident costs of production and labor has rarely been disputed. Social costs, which were previously unknown or ignored, however, have received increased attention and caused considerable controversy in recent years (Hart 1997, Ginsburg and Miller 1992, Watson 1991). Producers once viewed by communities as sources of employment and tax revenue now face social responsibilities such as environmental management, equal opportunity employment, and sustainable growth.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the major issues facing the marketing discipline in the assessment of these public interests. Specifically, the paper has several objectives. First, the underlying values, which may serve as the basis for resolving conflicting interests, are discussed. Next, alternative perspectives on the business environment are examined along with several currently topical issues. Finally, suggestions for integrating economic and social goals into the marketing curriculum are provided.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL VALUES

Economists and consumer behaviorists implicitly assume that consumption is caused by the expectation that it will result in satisfaction. Thus, understanding the underlying dimensions of satisfaction is a necessary condition for the development of successful marketing actions.

Consumer Satisfaction

The concept of satisfaction must now include broader "social"

dimensions. Preferences and needs must also be described in terms of social interests rather than product and service attributes only. Therefore, it is important to understand the social and economic values, which may lead to a useful assessment of satisfaction.

Americans have many values in common, although different individuals and groups place different levels of importance on each value. These values are, in a sense, central to the type of economy one prefers. In the United States one of the basic economic values, for example, is the efficient allocation of resources. Implicit in that value is the notion that the mix of goods offered by the economic system should reflect the dominant will of consumers.

The addition of social dimensions to the assessment of satisfaction suggests an increasing importance of social values. The shift can possibly be explained in terms of the relationship between economic and social goals: as people become more affluent, additional goods become less important and social goals become more important. Consumers also have greater awareness of their rights, expect and have access to more information, and are better able to assess social costs.

Framework of Economic and Social Values

These sentiments emphasize that the market should be a reflection of consumers' wants and needs, and their current values. Unfortunately, market prices may fail to adequately measure current social costs and benefits, and product policy may lag changes in values. If marketers are to be responsive to combination of economic and social values they must develop methods of value assessment. Robin and Reidenbach (1987) advocate integration of these values into the marketing planning process.

Table 1 provides a list of potential economic and social issues. Each issue may have a different level of importance for each market segment and may change over time. Table 1 might serve as an organizing framework for evaluating and tracking the economic and social interests of consumers. Since these interests represent very general values, there may be market system perspectives, which help explain changes in the marketplace.

TABLE 1
Economic and Social Values

Economic Values	Social Values
Allocation of Resources	Economic and Political Freedom
Equitable Distribution of Income	Physical and Economic Safety
Economic Stability	Social Stability
Economic Growth	Cultural Development
International Economy	Equality of Opportunity
Balance of Trade	Self-fulfillment
	Environmental Maintenance

MARKET SYSTEM PERSPECTIVES

Several very different perspectives to the market system and the process of balancing economic and social goals are possible. These include (a) the societal marketing approach, (b) the free enterprise system, and (c) government intervention.

Societal Marketing

Some marketing scholars have advocated a philosophy, which requires marketers to acknowledge a social responsibility beyond profit. They argue that the well-being of society at large must be recognized in marketing decisions (Howard 1990). Organizations are being asked to become sensitive to the social costs of economic activity and to focus on objectives that are possible but sometimes less economically attractive. These views have begun to influence teaching and research activities in the marketing discipline.

The "good citizen" approach is based on the belief that social welfare like all other goals can be consciously and effectively pursued. In other words, the responsibility of organizations in society could be compared to the commitment and responsibility of any good individual citizen. As a good citizen, the organization should attempt to contribute to the well-being of the community and should not infringe upon its laws. The good citizenship idea requires new measures for evaluating marketing performance. Should the goal be to maximize satisfaction or minimize dissatisfaction? For example, should prices be raised to reduce pollution? Without the useful guide of profit maximization, decisions become difficult to reconcile and often default to legal "rules" (Metzger 1990).

The Free Enterprise System

Many authors have opposed the social responsibility aspects of the societal marketing concept. Milton Friedman (1962), for example, denounces the concern for responsibility as fundamentally subversive to a free society. He argues that there is only one social responsibility of business—to use its resources and engage in activities designed to increase its profits so long as it engages in open and free competition without deception or fraud. Gaski (1985) has argued that

although the marketing function may be able to satisfy customers at a profit, it cannot define and act in the public interest.

These perspectives suggest that free enterprise will determine the most appropriate economic activities. The social obligations of business are met simply by preserving the free market structure and by striving toward efficiency (profit maximization). Satisfaction becomes a matter of ideology in this system, varying widely from person to person. Economic and social values must be defined by market activities, and the role of marketing is simply to facilitate exchange at profit.

Government Intervention

Corporations have been encouraged to develop social responsibility programs based on legal requirements and to view social responsibility as an investment (Stroup, Newbert, Anderson 1987). Most supporters of intervention, however, agree that government regulation cannot integrate the self-interest of corporations with the demands of society in a timely manner, and therefore a combination of influences must be utilized (Hemphill 1997).

This approach looks to government for guidelines. Socially responsible behavior becomes that which cooperates with government programs, policies, and plans. The task of specifying some of the goals necessary to satisfy consumers is shared with the government. Several important questions become evident: (1) Is government qualified to evaluate the importance of particular issues? and (2) Should business be asked to bear the increased cost which results? By combining business and government, we may distort the basic elements of society which are trying to preserve. Freedom and respect for individual rights, for example, may be lost in the drive for "cooperation."

Table 2 provides an illustration of economic and social values likely to be emphasized in each perspective.

TABLE 2
Economic and Social Values Emphasized in Alternative Market Perspectives

Market Perspective	Economic Values	Social Values
Societal	Allocation of Resources Equitable Distribution of Income	Social Stability Environmental Maintenance
Free Enterprise	Economic Stability Economic Growth	Economic and Political Freedom Equality of Opportunity
Government Intervention	International Economy Balance of Trade	Physical and Economic Safety

CURRENT DIRECTIONS

Each of the philosophies described has costs and benefits. Choosing the appropriate approach or mix is very difficult. Recent examples of attempts to balance economic and social values, however, illustrate aspects of each philosophy.

Demands On Nontraditional Marketers

Non-profit organizations are feeling the effects of cutbacks in public funding for their services (e.g. the arts). Health care organizations are being challenged on such issues as rising costs, inadequacy of service, and impersonality of the medical delivery system. The underlying force for these demands is the increasing concern for more efficient use of scarce resources.

Hospitals, for example, must consider the issue of regional planning (distribution of services throughout a geographic area to several small hospitals) and specialized services which serve multiple hospitals but decrease convenience. The cost/service tradeoffs must be considered in light of consumers' preferences. Government (e.g. Medicare) has intervened with new guidelines for services, payment procedures, and eligibility requirements. The health care debate in this country will be ongoing and political solutions will be offered, much as President Clinton tried to do in his first term.

Corporate Governance Issues

Proxy resolutions are used by groups as a tool to initiate actions which can balance conflicting values. Examples include investments and trade with South Africa, Northern Ireland, advertising to children, and cigarette marketing. The purpose of these resolutions is to influence corporate policy and also to create a forum for media discussion of these issues. Companies which have recently been targets of shareholder activists include Nike, Disney, Wal-Mart, and the entire tobacco industry.

The size of the vote for or against is not the only measure of public interest resolution's influence. Voting is a catalyst aimed to arouse public opinion as well as to influence management.

Although initial response by voters may be low, interest may build due to the publicity received. The impact of the proposals on corporate policies and practices has often been difficult to measure because both sides often claim victory. Given the growth in international trade and multinational corporations, it is likely that international issues (e.g. use of child labor) will play an increasingly prominent role in the process.

CHANGES TO CURRICULA

What can marketing educators do to address these issues? The most direct means are through changes in pedagogy and course

content. Some ideas for change in these areas will be briefly discussed.

Pedagogical Approaches

Pedagogical approaches must address three key issues – increasing awareness of consumers' values, understanding changes in the importance of each value, and translating the balance of economic and social values into marketing programs. Pedagogical approaches could encompass both "passive" and "active" methods. Passive methods may work well in situations where you merely wish to create awareness of an issue. If behavior change is desired, an active method may be more effective. Table 3 shows the relationship of the methods discussed below on the active/passive continuum.

TABLE 3
Examples of Passive and Active Pedagogical Methods
Related to Pedagogical Goals

Pedagogical Goal	Examples of Passive Methods	Examples of Active Methods
To increase awareness of values	Lectures and Reading Assignments	
To increase understanding	Elective courses	Research Projects Data Analyses Exercises Marketing Plans
To translate values into programs	Seminars	Capstone or Integrative courses Cases Simulations

articles on the topics could be assigned. There will always be some current events topics in the popular media. Term papers and presentations (both group and individual) could be used to facilitate this process. For example, each student could prepare a short paper or presentation on a currently visible issue, such as the adoption of ISO 14001 (Boiral and Sala 1998).

Understanding changes in the importance of various values may require a combination of historical perspective and new observation. Projects in consumer behavior or marketing research courses could encourage students to utilize secondary sources related to consumer trends (e.g., American Demographics web site at <http://www.demographics.com>) or to collect primary data. A related exercise would require (a) the development of forecasts of future importance ratings of current values, and (b) speculation about possible new values.

A means of relating values to marketing programs is through case studies. Decisions regarding the balance of economic and social values could be developed within the context of the case situation. This approach would certainly be viable within a

"capstone" course or basic MBA marketing management course. Specialized cases could also be used in elective courses such as sales management, channels, marketing communications, and business marketing. Ethical or societal dilemmas are often present in case studies.

Business simulations are another avenue that could be used to highlight the issues under discussion. The simulation might take environmental factors into account via added costs. For example, fines could be charged for environmental problems. Proxy battles could be introduced via a variable for emergencies or disasters. Many of the available simulations contain such variables.

Course Sequencing and Content

Another approach would be to distinctly cover some of these issues in specific courses. For example, societal issues could be covered in a separate course on societal marketing or marketing ethics (perhaps a seminar). This would fit at the senior or graduate level and could cover "current issues" material now available in many journals (Powell 1998). The consumer behavior course is also a natural fit for these topics.

Alternatively, the issues could be dispersed throughout the curriculum with specific lectures devoted to societal issues. A decision about the appropriate place to cover these issues should be made before course sequencing decisions and elective requirements are set.

CONCLUSION

This paper has examined marketing's role in identifying and responding to consumers' economic and social values. Alternative means of incorporating social values into the traditional economic system were advanced. In addition, examples of recent changes in the process of identifying and responding to changing values were presented. These changes illustrate the involvement of consumers, organizations, and government.

The implications of this paper are related to the discipline at large and to marketing education. First, marketing must recognize the weaknesses of various approaches to consideration of social values. Second, marketing educators must give attention to changes which are indicative of the increased importance of social values. Finally, a framework for identifying and evaluating these values is presented as a potential tool for integrating economic and social goals into the marketing curriculum.

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IS THE UNIVERSITY REWARD SYSTEM UNDERMINING THE INSTITUTIONAL MISSION STATEMENT?

Panel Members

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Purpose

Universities across the nation have invested considerable resources in the development of mission statements and leadership programs. Does the allocation of monetary resources support the mission statements developed by administrators, faculty, students, and the community? Many times we must conclude that rewards are quantitatively based while our goals remain qualitatively stated and measured.

Rationale and Format

The panel members will address a select group of stakeholders in the university arena and frame the major conflicts resulting when monetary resources do not support or reward stated mission goals and objectives. This forum will provide considerable opportunity for audience participants to share their concerns and proposed solutions. An example of the breadth of the issues the panel is committed to addressing is highlighted in the following:

Stakeholders

Administrators
*University
*School
Faculty
Students
Community
Business Community

Stakeholders

Administrators
*University
*School
Faculty
Students
Community
Business Community

Stakeholders

Administrators
*University
*School
Faculty
Students
Community
Business Community

Criteria Desire to be Judged by

Quality (on all fronts)

Excellence in Teaching and
Research Services
"Uniqueness" "Special"
Close Ties or No Ties
Being "supportive"

Rewarded by

Body Count

Efficiencies not
Effectiveness
Grade → Job not Knowledge
Cultural or Athletic Events
Benefits Exceeding Costs

**SPECIAL SESSION:
MAKING THE MOST OF TRADITIONAL AND FIELD PROJECT CASES**

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ABSTRACT

There is increasing interest in the use of active learning experiences in the classroom. These active learning experiences can take a number of forms. A popular choice is the use of marketing cases. This includes both traditional cases and field project cases. Traditional cases provide information to the student in written format, sometimes supplemented with additional information provided by the instructor (e.g., disks for spreadsheet analysis, references for web sites) or with the expectation that the student will generate additional information or research. Field project cases often provide some starting point information and background to the student but a much greater burden is placed on the student to generate information for analysis and interpretation.

There are a number of important questions and issues facing marketing educators as they attempt to make the most of these case experiences including: (1.) team versus individual case experiences--selecting teams, team management and expectations, instructor involvement in team decision making, evaluation of teams; (2.) selecting and developing cases; and (3.) classroom versus out of classroom learning experiences--how to get the most out of the case, interesting things to do to reinforce the case experience.

The purpose of this special session is provide a framework for discussion of these issues and then to engage the panel and audience on how best to take advantage of traditional and field cases.

STUDENT EVALUATION OF AN EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING TECHNIQUE: THE MARKETING PLAN ASSIGNMENT

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes a new experiential learning technique called the *Marketing Plan Assignment*, an alternative to the traditional marketing planning assignment. This *Marketing Plan Assignment* allows students to experience all phases of learning according to Kolb's experiential learning model. A sample of undergraduate students completed the assignment. Student evaluations of the new learning technique indicate a very favorable response to this learning experience.

STUDENT EVALUATION OF AN EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING TECHNIQUE: THE MARKETING PLAN ASSIGNMENT

Transition from a traditional, theoretical, passive, knowledge-transfer approach to an experiential, interactive approach to learning is becoming the norm for marketing educators. Although most educators still use and understand the value of traditional lecture-based learning or "memory-to-memory transfer of information" (Clow and Wachter 1996; Coleman 1995; Roach, Johnston, and Hair 1993), the emphasis on experiential learning activities continues to gain popularity (Butler and Laumer 1992; Gaidis and Andrews 1990a; Gaidis and Andrews 1990b; Graeff 1997; Haas and Wotruba 1990; Kelly 1993; Lollar and Leigh 1995; Olsen 1994; Stretch and Harp 1991; Tanner and Castleberry 1995; Titus and Petroschius 1993; Wedell and Wynd 1994; Wert and Gray 1990; Wright, Bitner and Zeithaml 1994).

In addition to the significant trend toward more experiential education, marketing educators are well aware of the significance of excellent communication skills for their students (Corbin and Glynn 1992; Fisher 1990; Smeltzer 1993). One of the many benefits of experiential learning assignments espoused in the literature is the improvement of a variety of skills such as

communication and critical thinking skills (Harich 1995; Lamb, Shipp and Moncrief 1995; Williams, Beard and Rymer 1991). The one communication skill which receives the greatest attention in the marketing education literature is written communication (Chonko 1993; Corbin and Glynn 1992; Fisher 1990; Hansen and Hansen 1995; McNeilly and Ranney 1995). Suggestions for improving written communication skills include using *Writing Across the Curriculum* programs (Corbin and Glynn 1992), adding further requirements for technical and business writing courses, and considering interdisciplinary approaches to improving writing using English and business professors (McNeilly and Ranney 1995).

One popular learning activity assigned to marketing students in principles of marketing courses and even marketing strategy courses is the development of a marketing plan for a new or existing product, which allows students to work on their written communications skills as well as verbal communication skills, if a presentation is required. "A marketing plan is a road map for the marketing activities of an organization for a specified future period of time, such as one year, or five years" (Cohen 1995). Although marketing plans may be written for an internal audience as a guide for the direction of marketing activities or for an external audience such as a bank for the purpose of raising capital, there is no single "generic" marketing plan guideline (Berkowitz et al 1997). This paper proposes an improvement to the traditional marketing plan assignment by incorporating experiential learning theory into the new alternative *Marketing Plan Assignment*.

Specifically, this paper presents:

- (1) A summary of the importance of communication skills in marketing education.
- (2) Discussion of the trend toward experiential, interactive learning techniques.

- (3) Explanation of the experiential learning model used as a basis for the *Marketing Plan Assignment* proposed in this study.
- (4) Methodology of an empirical study of the *Marketing Plan Assignment*.
- (5) Results of student evaluations of the assignment proposed.
- (6) Directions for future research.

The Importance of Communication Skills

The importance of communication skills for marketing graduates entering the work place is well-documented in the marketing literature (Arora and Stoner 1992; Chonko 1993; Corbin and Glynn 1992; Kelley and Gaedeke 1990; Floyd and Gordon 1998; Hansen and Hansen 1995; Lamb, Shipp, and Moncrief 1995; McNeilly and Ranney 1995; Shipp, Lamb and Mokwa 1993). Although the relative ranking or level of importance of skills may vary somewhat in each study, a similar set of

skills typically emerge. Boatwright and Stamps (1998) suggested that communication, leadership, and self-starter skills (ambition and motivation) are important for marketing positions. Problem-solving skills and communication skills were also found to be important in a study of employers, students and staff by Floyd and Gordon (1998).

Trend Toward Experiential, Interactive Learning Techniques

The trend toward experiential, participatory, interactive learning actually dates back in time to educators such as Socrates who taught by asking questions, not reciting answers, and Dewey (1938), an American who believed that the starting point of education is experience, not abstraction. Experiential learning can best be explained by considering Table 1, which compares experiential and traditional learning.

TABLE 1
A Comparison Between Experiential and Traditional Learning

	<u>Traditional Learning</u>	<u>Experiential Learning</u>
<u>Student</u>	Student is passive Student as spectator Vicarious experience by student Low student involvement Low student commitment Less risk for student Impersonal Student as "empty cup"	Student is active Student as participant Direct experience by student High student involvement High personal commitment for student More risk for student Personal Student as "full cup"
<u>Teacher</u>	Teacher-centered Teacher has control Teacher's experience primary Teacher as transmitter of knowledge Teacher decision-maker Teacher knows Teacher responsible for learning Teacher as judge	Student-centered Student has control Student's experience primary Teacher as guide/facilitator to learning Student decision-maker Student knows Student responsible for learning Absence of excessive teacher judgment
<u>Learning/ Knowledge</u>	Predefined learning One-way communication Broadcast learning Goal of knowledge accumulation Stress cognitive processes Linear, sequential learning Instruction Predictable outcome Emphasis on pedagogy/didactics School as regiment Product (knowledge)-oriented Theory-based	Customized learning Two-way dialogue Interactive learning Goal of knowledge, skills, & attitude development Includes cognitive, affective, & behavioral processes Non-linear learning Discovery Outcome not always predictable Emphasis on learning School as fun Process-oriented Student's perceptions-based

Characteristics of the student (student as active, involved), teacher (teacher as guide/facilitator), and type of learning (interactive, non-linear learning) all assist in identifying the nature of experiential learning. A key component of all experiential learning is the *reflection* on the experience. Primary experience is the immediate, tangible aspect of the learning process, while secondary experience, or reflection, is the key to understanding (Hunt 1995).

Although the traditional, passive, one-way, teacher dominated *lecture* is still a prevalent teaching style for marketing educators (Clow and Wachter 1996; Roach, Johnston and Hair 1993), marketing education continues to move toward an active, experiential approach (Gaidis and Andrews 1990b; Harich 1995; Lollar and Leigh 1995; Stretch and Harp 1991; Titus and Petroschius 1993; Wright, Bitner and Zeithaml 1994). Experiential learning activities increase student involvement and motivation (Butler and Laumer 1992; Harich 1995; Williams, Beard, and Rymer 1991), help students integrate theory and practice in order to make a connection with the "real world" (Haas and Wotruba 1990; Harich 1995; Karns 1993), improve a variety of skills such as communication and critical thinking skills (Harich 1995; Lamb, Shipp, and Moncrief 1995; Williams, Beard, and Rymer 1991), and increase student learning (Butler and Laumer 1992; Harich 1995).

Experiential Learning Model Used as a Basis for the *Marketing Plan Assignment*

Most learning models suggest that learning is a process as opposed to a single event (Bloom et al. 1956; Gaidis and Andrews 1990a; Joplin 1981; King, Wood, and Mines 1990; Kolb 1984; Solman and Rosen 1986; Stuart and Burns 1984). The most popular and frequently used model of experiential learning is the one developed by David A. Kolb (Henry 1989). Kolb's (1984) work is frequently cited in business and marketing literature (Dennehy, Sims, and Collins 1998; Frontczak and Rivale 1991; Jervis 1983; Lengnick-Hall and Sanders 1997; Ronchetto, Buckles, Barath, and Perry 1992; Sharp 1997; Sims 1983; Sims and Lindholm 1993; Sood and Adams 1984; White 1992; Wilson 1986; Zhao and Parks 1995).

The Kolb experiential learning model suggests that learning is a cyclical process that encompasses the following four stages:

- **Concrete Experience:** An actual, new experience in an individual's life.
- **Reflective Observation:** Feelings, emotions, reflection related to the experience.
- **Abstract Conceptualization:** Existing concepts and theories are applied to the experience.
- **Active Experimentation:** New concepts are generated, put in practice, tested and applied in new situations which leads to new experiences.

According to Kolb, to be an effective learner a person needs to experience all four stages and be skilled in all four aspects of the process in order to learn. Most individuals need practice and guidance in this process of learning. Kolb's model is used as a basis for the *Marketing Plan Assignment* proposed in this study. Since all stages are crucial to learning, the assignment includes all four aspects of the cycle. (See Appendix A for the *Marketing Plan Assignment* which is based on Kolb's model.)

Methodology of Study Using the *Marketing Plan Assignment*

For the experiential learning technique used in this study, several learning objectives were specified: (1) Improve students' ability to relate real world marketing strategy to classroom theories and concepts, (2) assist in student learning of marketing concepts, (3) allow students to experience the full cycle of learning, (4) encourage active student participation in the important skill of writing, and (5) turn a traditional assignment into a more experiential, interactive experience for the student.

Students in an undergraduate principles of marketing course completed the *Marketing Plan Assignment* outlined in Appendix A for an existing product of their choice. Students completed a four stage process of analysis which followed Kolb's stages of learning, (1) Concrete Experience, (2) Reflection, (3) Conceptualization, and (4) Experimentation. This procedure allowed the students to complete the entire learning cycle.

Often marketing plan assignments in marketing education are individual in nature and do not incorporate many aspects of experiential learning. Marketing plan assignments may include some features of experiential learning (See Table 1) such as "High student involvement," "Student has

students would recommend this learning experience for other marketing classes. The overall mean satisfaction with the *Marketing Plan Assignment* was 7.58.

Learning Relative to Standard Exams:

Results suggested preference for this learning activity relative to standard exams. Students believed that the *Marketing Plan Assignment* was more interesting than an exam and required more work than a standard exam. They strongly believe this assignment was a better learning experience than a standard exam. The overall mean of "learning relative to standard exams," was 7.91 for the *Marketing Plan Assignment*.

Conclusion / Direction for Future Research

In conclusion, preliminary findings on the use of the *Marketing Plan Assignment* for principles of marketing courses show support for this innovative experiential learning technique. The process outlined and used by students allows the assignment to become more interactive and experiential. Also, the students are more involved, active, and committed when they know that they will be sharing their writing, thoughts, and feelings with others.

In general, the primary benefits of this experiential learning technique included:

- (1) The *Marketing Plan Assignment* allows students to complete all of the stages of the learning cycle (support for the third learning objective of the study).
- (2) The *Marketing Plan Assignment* provides a way to make the traditional marketing plan assignment more interactive and experiential which can improve learning (support for the fifth learning objective).
- (3) The presentation of the project allows the assignment to move from *experiential learning* to *experiential education*. (Experiential learning is the process which occurs within the individual learner while experiential education occurs once the learner shares the experience in some manner with others.)
- (4) This experiential learning technique encourages active student participation in the skill of writing (support for the fourth learning objective).
- (5) The final important benefit is that students have fun with the learning experience.

- (6) Future research on the use of *Marketing Plan Assignments* using Kolb's four stage approach to experiential learning should test effectiveness of this technique with a larger sample of students. Grading procedures for this experiential learning technique could be improved. Finally, a comparison of student satisfaction and learning between the proposed *Marketing Plan Assignment* and a traditional marketing plan assignment would be useful.

APPENDIX 1 ***Marketing Plan Assignment***

Project: Your team will analyze the marketing plan for a current popular product or service:

Considerations for the selection of your product:

1. Product may be international, national, or local in focus.
2. Pick a product your team is interested in.
3. Select a product where you are likely to be part of the target market.
4. Consider products where information is likely to be available.
5. Choose a legal product.
6. Product must be approved by professor.

Marketing Plan:

1. Brief discussion of product/service
2. Situation Analysis
 - a. Industry Analysis
 - b. Organization Analysis
 - c. Competitor Analysis
 - d. Market/Consumer Analysis
 - e. Consumer Attitudes/Lifestyles
 - f. Economic Analysis
 - g. Legal Implications
 - h. Political Implications
 - i. Technological Implications
3. Target markets/Segmentation strategy
4. Positioning Strategy
5. Marketing Objectives
6. Marketing Program
 - a. Product Strategy
 - b. Pricing Strategy
 - c. Distribution Strategy
 - d. Promotion Strategy

Stages of Marketing Plan Assignment:

1. Describe in detail the entire marketing plan for your product (include references).
2. Evaluate all components of the marketing plan. Discuss your feelings, emotions, reactions toward all parts of the plan. (Team members do not have to agree).
3. Relate all components of the marketing plan to the concepts and theories discussed in the text or class.

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WHEN THE TEXTBOOK JUST ISN'T ENOUGH: APPLYING EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING PEDAGOGIES TO PERSONAL SELLING AND SALES MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

As marketing educators seek creative methods to make their classes relevant and more interesting for students, there has been a drift away from exclusive emphasis on the traditional lecture/exam format toward integration of more interactive approaches. This trend is particularly observable in the area of personal selling and sales management.

Experiential learning is an umbrella term used to refer to a broad range of non-traditional educational tools in which students take on the role of instructing themselves through carefully crafted settings. The origin of the trend to incorporate non-lecture based teaching methods in business classes can be linked to the Harvard Business School's whole-hearted endorsement of the case study method decades ago. The popularity of the case method has opened the door to other creative approaches to classroom interaction such as simulated competition, role-playing, guest lecturers, observations, and field projects. It is widely accepted that experiential learning is gaining in popularity among marketing educators. The attraction stems from the technique's inherent ability to involve students in the process of material delivery and its ability to provide superior realism over traditional lecture techniques.

Perhaps more than any other area of marketing, the systematic study of personal selling and sales management lends itself to experiential teaching methods. Personal selling and sales management skills cannot be developed solely through lecture and reading. To learn how to sell, one must experience it.

To assist marketing educators, we present a framework to illustrate how the various experiential learning approaches can be used in the personal selling and sales management classes. The two dimensions of our framework for classifying experiential learning approaches are (1) realism of the selling/sales management context and (2) student interaction. By combining the two dimensions of realism and interaction, we can position pedagogical approaches and techniques.

At this stage we are not claiming that the framework is complete. Our purpose is to initiate a process of identifying and categorizing various teaching approaches that might be useful in guiding marketing educators. Personal selling and sales management instructors seeking to improve the learning experience, the relevance, and the affect may be well advised to consider adding an experiential learning component to their syllabi. There appears to be sufficient evidence that the approaches can provide benefits not available to students via a lecture/exam format. Experiential learning carries the potential to make students co-producers of the learning process and the ability to provide superior realism over traditional lecture techniques.

A PYRAMID APPROACH TO REVAMP MARKETING EDUCATION ON A FIRST YEAR LEVEL

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ABSTRACT

Using the marketing concept as a foundation, a pyramid approach has been developed which will assist universities in taking the students through each of the phases during their three-year education in Marketing Management.

This approach also takes into account the movement towards integrated marketing education. The principle idea behind this is to provide the student with a holistic view on what they have studied over a three-year period. It shows them that each sub-segment can only be effective if it is integrated into the complete delineation.

The focus of this first paper, in a trilogy, falls on the first level of the pyramid. During the first year project only one element of the marketing concept, namely consumer orientation, is applied with the help of a project based on an advertising campaign.

INTRODUCTION

The projects that inspired this paper were launched due to a gap identified in the education of marketing at the University of Pretoria. This paper examines the importance of practical projects for marketing students in tertiary education. Based on the model in figure 1 the practical projects deal with the principles of the marketing concept and provide a win-win situation to the student (the product) and the client (the industry).

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Marketing is not a theoretical subject. From its roots it is a subject leaning towards practical expression. Although it is possible to write a theoretical curriculum on marketing it will never be possible to convey the complete thought to the student.

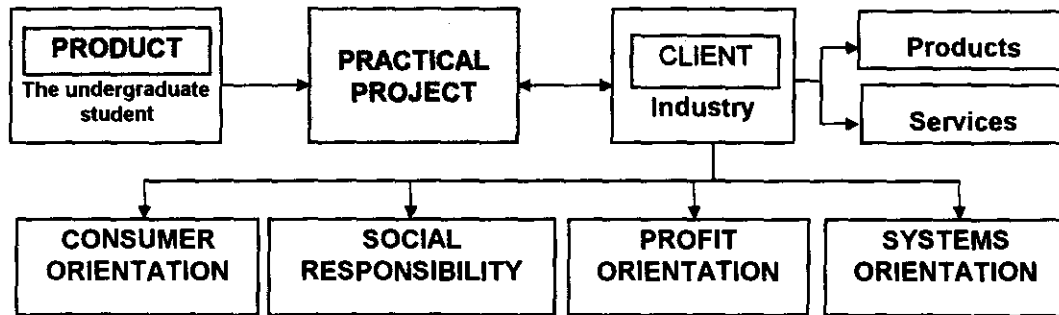
A further problem identifies itself. The marketing fraternity is sceptical about appointing students from a complete theoretical background into a practical occupation. In this modern era where the evolution of marketing thought has brought us to be more consumer and market oriented, the education of marketing should keep up with these market trends. If the market needs a work force with an understanding of theory as well as its application, is that not exactly what should be provided? Universities owe it to the market, for they provide the first levels of education and training for tomorrow's work force, as well as to those university students who strive to give themselves a competitive advantage and not to obtain obsolete knowledge.

THE PYRAMID APPROACH FOR MARKETING EDUCATION

Using the marketing concept (depicted in figure 1) as a foundation, a pyramid approach has been developed which will assist universities in taking the students through each of the phases during their three year education.

This approach also takes into account the movement towards integrated marketing education. The principle idea behind this is to provide the student with a holistic view on what

FIGURE 1: THE MARKETING CONCEPT AND PRACTICAL PROJECTS



they have studied over a three-year period. It shows them that each sub-segment can only be effective if it is integrated into the complete delineation from first year to third year level.

Figure 2 presents a visual explanation of the pyramid-approach. The focus of this first paper, in a trilogy, falls on the first level of the pyramid. During the first year project only one element of the marketing concept is applied namely, consumer orientation.

The magnitude of the project expands annually and therefore the format of the project has been adapted each year in order to make it more valuable to the participating students. During the first year of this project a fictitious product was used namely Neon Jeans. The co-ordinators then realised the potential for getting sponsors, and therewith real products for this assignment. From then on the students did an "advertising campaign" for a specific well-established company in South Africa.

AIMS OF THE PROJECT

The FMI-project was launched in 1990 by marketing lecturers who realised that there are deficiencies in marketing education. The name of the project meaning first year marketing initiative, was to be the project designed to uplift the standard of marketing education at the University of Pretoria.

The following assignment is used: The students are divided into "advertising agencies" consisting of six self selected members each. Each "agency" competes against its peers for the acquisition of the advertising account. This way both the creatively and strategically inclined students have the opportunity to excel. The competition is therefore also divided into two categories namely: campaign and creative elements. Each "agency" is compelled to hand in a strategic advertising plan as well as a creative plan consisting of a compulsory television, radio and magazine advertisement.

THE STAGES OF THE PROJECT

The following stages were carefully executed according to specific predetermined dates. Our academic year consists of two semester, each 15 weeks long. The first phase takes place during the first semester and the rest of the project during the second semester.

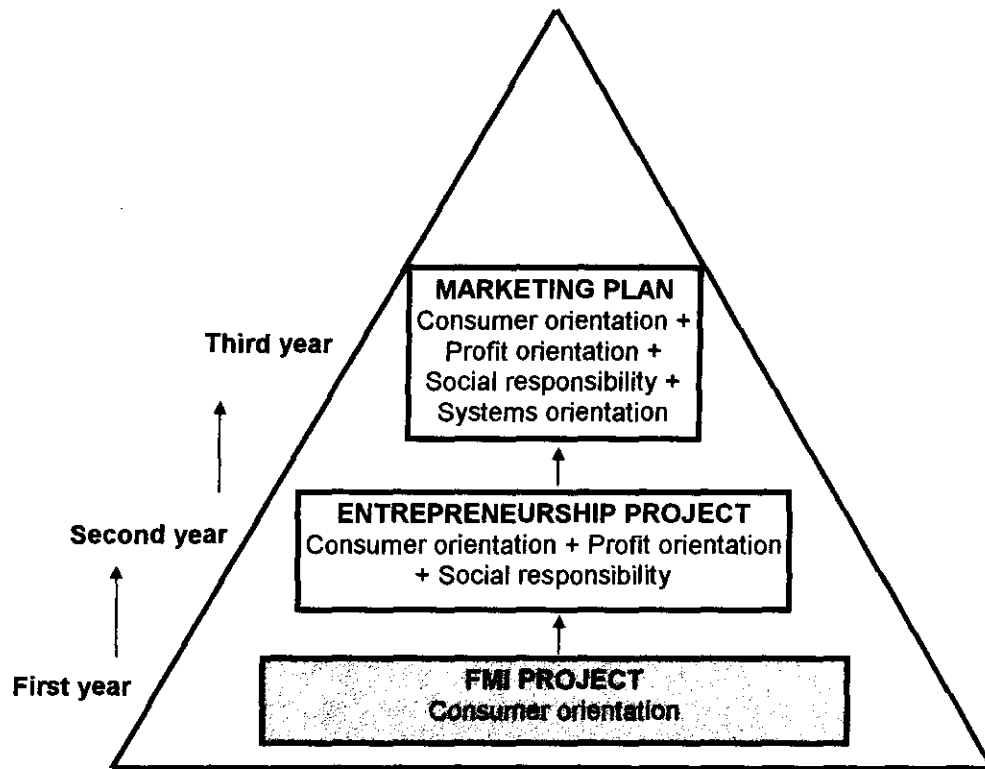
Stage 1: First semester

During the first semester sponsors for the project are approached and contracts signed in order to attain the necessary funds required for such a project. All the responsibilities of the sponsors are specified and important dates booked.

Other arrangements finalised during the first semester are as follows:

- Book the university's video team, VideoTuks, for the production of the five best television commercials.

FIGURE 2: A PYRAMID APPROACH FOR MARKETING EDUCATION ON A FIRST YEAR LEVEL



- Book studio time at RadioTuks, the on-campus radio station, to record the five best radio commercials.
- Arrange with the Department of Visual Arts for the production of the 20 best print commercials. The visual arts department's third year design students are assigned to do a reproduction of the idea as part of their curriculum.

At the end of the first semester the theoretical base or foundation for this assignment is dealt with in class sessions. The first year students are introduced to marketing communication to enable them to approach the assignment with some basic knowledge of the topic at hand.

Before the official launch of the project the students are divided into groups consisting of six members each who then act as advertising agencies that have to pitch for the contract on completion of the project.

Stage 2: The launch

- **Client brief**

The official launch of the project consists of a client brief. The marketing manager of the sponsoring company for that year's project, briefs the students on the campaign to be executed.

In this brief the sponsor identifies the product or service to be advertised, provides some background information, states the company philosophy and objectives as well as important guidelines which the students have to adhere to. The sponsor also sets a budget that financially limits the students and forces them to make trade-offs in their ideas.

- **Additional information**

- (a) As magazines are one of the main media vehicles to be used, National Magazines (responsible for the management of the major South African magazines) was

approached to act as co-sponsor of the project. After the client brief, National Magazines presents a lecture explaining in detail how to go about advertising in magazines. Cost and placement issues as well as target marketing receives a lot of attention during this lecture.

- (b) In order to avoid a large group of students phoning companies for information, most of the information is made available through the library. This information includes tariffs needed for a media schedule from National Magazines as well as from Radio Active (responsible for the management of the major South African radio stations). All extra information which students may find necessary has to be obtained individually.
- (c) In addition to this information, the "advertising agencies" are given a prescribed format to work according to. This format includes:
- Introduction
 - Background and product/service information
 - Target market
 - Objectives
 - Media plan
 - Budget
 - Creative strategy
 - Conclusion

On completion of these information sessions the students start working on the project. They have approximately four weeks up to the presentation date in which to do this project.

Stage 3: Presentations

During the presentation phase each "advertising agency" pitches for the contract. The presentations are twenty minutes each and are administered as follow:

Each "agency" introduces itself and motivates why they will be successful at executing the assignment for the client. The "agency" is then questioned in detail on decisions taken. For instance:

- Why did you choose to advertise in this magazine?
- Who is your target market and how will they assist you in realising your objectives? Etc.

The reason behind the questioning is to help the students understand how important each and every decision is. The student gains the realisation of how integrated a campaign is, as well as how much time and effort goes into such a campaign. They comprehend for the first time how expensive media and production costs are and how to make trade-offs in order to increase effectivity and to utilise their available funds optimally.

This project proves to be a tremendous success for both strategically strong, as well as creatively excellent students. With the division of the competition into two categories, both of these groups of students get recognition as the two categories are evaluated separately.

After the presentation, the "agencies" that excelled are identified in order to go through to the next round. In the campaign category five of the best campaigns go through to the next round which will be discussed in stage 5. In the creative category the following are selected:

- 5 x television commercials
- 5 x radio commercials
- 20 x magazine commercials

It should be made clear that the campaign and the creative section are evaluated separately. Meaning that an "agency" who's campaign is selected will not necessarily be the advertisements that will be produced. The advertisements produced are selected from creatively excellent "agencies" in various groups.

Stage 4: Production

During this phase the best advertisements are produced. Each category will be discussed separately starting with television.

• Television

The five best television commercials are produced by VideoTuks, our on-campus video team. Each group is responsible for casting actors, finding the specified music and sound effects as well as selecting the venue. Each one of the "agencies" book the video team for a day during which the commercial is recorded. The students get the opportunity to see their brainchild come to life. This is an experience that no textbook can describe or teach a student.

After recording the commercial the video team is responsible for the editing.

- **Radio**

RadioTuks has accepted the responsibility of recording the five best radio commercials. Again the students are responsible for all the arrangements and requirements for the commercial. This arrangement has proven to be a unique experience for both the students and the young DJ's who get the opportunity to produce a commercial.

- **Magazine**

Lastly, there is an arrangement with the University's Visual Arts Department for the production of the magazine commercials. Their third year students use the "raw" ideas of 20 of our "agencies" and transform it into professional artworks as part of their curriculum. The arrangement stipulates that the art students are only allowed to improve the artistic expression of these commercials and are not permitted to tamper with the creative idea. The main reason for this is that many of the marketing students are immensely creative but not artistic enough to complement their ideas.

Stage 5: Final judging

The final round of evaluation is partitioned into two days. To ensure objectivity and to give the students some exposure, a panel of independent judges is invited from outside the university. Mostly the panel consists of people from marketing and advertising fraternities as well as some academics. The representatives of the sponsor also form part of this panel of judges.

The first day of judging focuses on the campaign section of the competition. Here the five "agencies" have to present their campaigns and prove that it has the depth and quality required by the sponsor.

On the second day the judges are entertained with all the commercials that went into production during stage 5. As the judges are briefed on what the sponsor required from the students, they know exactly what to look for. One of the judges has to be from the main sponsor's advertising agency. This way the university ensures that the people judging the commercials are informed as to what was expected from these students.

At the end of the semester a gala function is arranged for the students, their families and friends. It is on this glitzy evening that the winners in each of the categories are announced.

STUMBLING BLOCKS

The most obvious stumbling blocks of this project are:

- The number of students who get to go through to the production phase is not representative of the total number of students. This is due to limitations in funding and time.
- The students have limited knowledge to assist them in compiling an effective advertising campaign.
- The market seems to be very resistant in helping student groups who would like to gain more information for their assignment. This tendency is caused by time pressure and the volume of students. Therefore we attempt to provide the class with most of the information.

Operational stumbling blocks:

- The large number of students on first year level. The administration behind the 100 to 120 "advertising agencies" is enormous.
- It is not always possible to produce the best commercial due to production and cost limitations of the on-campus video team.
- The existence of the project depends on the availability of sponsors as there is not sufficient funds within a department to finance a project of this magnitude.
- The arrangements for this project take up an enormous amount of time.
- As with most educational institutions there seems to be insufficient personnel to help carry the workload of such a project, especially since the project is added to an already full semester.

RESULTS

All the projects within the department end off with the gala evening. During this evening the students whom excelled get a lot of exposure in front of their families, friends and possible employers. During this evening our sponsors also gain substantial mileage as they are the VIP guests of the evening.

One of the most significant advantages of this project is that it increases the students' marketability. To the successful students this project means an achievement to be noted on their curriculum vitae.

It also increases the students' self-confidence and teaches them to perform in front of a panel of judges. It gives them a sense of achievement even if they are not the ultimate winners. The project also eliminates the unfamiliarity of compiling campaigns and pitching for a project. This aspect will be valuable when the students enter the work force.

CONCLUSION

Most of all, this project creates an image of excitement and poses a challenge to the students. It positions marketing on a unique level as this is the only university in South Africa differentiating itself to this degree and finding a balance between the theory and the practice. If a subject is in essence practical, how can you teach it any differently?

The project is not only exciting for the students, but it also uplifts the standard of their education. It is from this point that the lecturers at the University of Pretoria decided to take the projects further and launched a second year project.

A PYRAMID APPROACH TO REVAMP MARKETING EDUCATION ON A THIRD YEAR UNDER-GRADUATE LEVEL

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ABSTRACT

Using the marketing concept as a foundation, a pyramid approach has been developed which will assist universities in taking the students through each of the phases during their three year education in Marketing Management. This approach also takes into account the movement towards integrated marketing education. The principle idea behind this is to provide the student with a holistic view on what they have studied over a three-year period. It shows them that each sub-segment can only be effective if it is integrated into the complete delineation. The focus of the third paper, in a trilogy, falls on the third level of the pyramid. During the third year project all the elements of the marketing concept are covered, namely: market orientation, profit orientation, social responsibility and systems orientation. All these elements were combined by drawing up a marketing plan for a business.

INTRODUCTION

This paper examines the importance of practical projects for marketing students in tertiary education. It is in reaction to an article where the student versus employer perspective assesses whether the needs of both students and employers are being met by educators (O'Brien *et al.*, 1995: 47-52).

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Marketing is not a theoretical subject. From its roots it is a subject leaning towards practical expression. Although it is possible to write a theoretical curriculum on marketing, it will never be able to convey the full picture to the student. A further problem identifies itself. The marketing fraternity is sceptical of appointing students from

a theoretical background into a practical occupation. In this modern era where the evolution of marketing thought has brought us to consumer and market orientation, should the education of marketing not keep up with these trends in the market? If the market needs a workforce with an understanding of theory and its application, should that not exactly be what is provided? We owe it to the market, for which we provide the first levels of education and training for tomorrow's workforce, as well as to our students, who go to universities to gain a competitive advantage for themselves and not to obtain obsolete knowledge.

THE PYRAMID APPROACH FOR MARKETING EDUCATION

A framework has to be developed to incorporate the principles of the marketing concept on undergraduate level at tertiary institutions. This framework will bridge the gap between education and practice. In order to apply the principles of the marketing concept on each year of the undergraduate curriculum, the following approach can be used:

Figure 1 presents a visual explanation of the pyramid-approach. During this third paper of a trilogy the focus will fall on the third level of the pyramid. During the third year project all the elements of the marketing concept are handled, namely: market orientation, profit orientation, social responsibility and systems orientation.

Based on the pyramid approach a model has been invented to explain the importance of teaching the principles of the marketing concept. Theoretical lectures supported by well structured

Before the final marketing plan was presented to the business it was evaluated and graded by the lecturer. Students also evaluated each other in terms of contribution and participation in the project. Both these marks contributed to the final mark. The project mark represented 30% of the total mark for the course.

After final corrections were made the final marketing plan was presented to the business. The group then received the consultancy fee. The businesses were sent a letter to thank them for their involvement and participation in the project as well as for the donation. They were issued a tax certificate as donations to the university can be deducted from tax.

Stage 8: The selection of the best projects.

The best projects were selected and the students received prize money and certificates for their hard work. The rest of the donations were used for bursaries, books and study material for the student's benefit.

STUMBLING BLOCKS

The most obvious and perceived stumbling blocks in the planning and executing of this project were:

- to assist and motivate the students to recruit a client based on the fact that the students didn't have any practical and/or professional consulting and marketing experience.
- time constraints in guiding and support of the 70 groups.
- quality control to ensure that the marketing plans that are presented to businesses are correct and of the highest standard.

RESULTS

Positive responses from the businesses (client) and the students (product) indicated that innovative changes to marketing education and the value of practical experience to the student and business could not be under-estimated.

From the businesses being consulted, the necessity to broaden the theoretical basis was identified. That is, broadening the theoretical basis so that it will not only include theory on physical products but to include both products and services. To revamp marketing education, educationalists should add the study of services marketing to the under-graduate curriculum to broaden the theoretical basis.

Interaction between the student and industry provides job opportunities for the final year marketing student and definitely contributes to his Curriculum Vitae.

CONCLUSION

By introducing the pyramid approach into the marketing curriculum of all three years on under-graduate level promises to broaden the scope, significance and relevance of marketing teaching at the University of Pretoria. Specifically as the three projects build on each other to cover all the elements of the marketing concept. Firstly to reflect a market orientation by delivering the type of student that were exposed to an extensive theoretical training together with a practical application of the theory. Secondly to generate a profit through their work and contribute to the benefit by all students. Thirdly to render much needed service to the businesses

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A PYRAMID APPROACH TO REVAMP MARKETING EDUCATION ON A SECOND YEAR UNDER GRADUATE LEVEL

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ABSTRACT

Using the marketing concept as a foundation a pyramid approach has been developed which will assist universities in taking the students through each of the phases during their three-year education in Marketing Management. This approach also takes into account the movement towards integrated marketing education. The principle idea behind this is to provide the student with a holistic view on what they have studied over a three-year period. It shows them that each sub-segment can only be effective if it is integrated into the complete delineation. The focus of the second paper, in a trilogy, falls on the second level of the pyramid. During the second year project a consumer orientation, social responsibility and/or profit orientation are pursued. This is achieved with the aid of an entrepreneurship project.

INTRODUCTION

This paper examines the importance of practical projects to marketing students in tertiary education. The added value of practical education to students is of significant value and imperative to their entrance into the labour force. It is therefore important that the education of marketing keep up with the needs in the market since educational institutions provide the training for tomorrow's workforce and should provide them with a competitive advantage and not just theoretical knowledge.

The practical projects presented at the University of Pretoria deal with the principles of the marketing concept. Using the marketing concept as a foundation, a pyramid approach was developed in demonstrating the practical phases the students undergo during their three year education.

PYRAMID APPROACH TO SECOND YEAR MARKETING EDUCATION

Figure 1 presents a visual explanation of the pyramid approach. The focus of the first paper of the trilogy was on the first level of the pyramid, namely a market orientation.

The unemployment rate in South Africa has increased from 19,4% to 29,3% from 1991 to 1995 (Viljoen, Maintjes, Calitz). Due to this increasing scarcity of jobs, there has been an increase in entrepreneurs starting their own businesses on a small scale. Since most of the marketing education focuses on marketing on a corporate level, a serious need developed to educate students on aspects of small business management as well. That was thus the driving force behind the origin of the Entrepreneurship project on second year level. As can be seen on the second level of the pyramid (Figure 1), a consumer orientation, social responsibility and/or profit orientation is pursued. The objective of a consumer orientation is to aim all marketing actions at satisfying consumer needs, demands and preferences.

One of the primary objectives of profit orientation is maximizing profitability. A social orientation is the contribution of profits to charitable organizations.

AIMS OF THE PROJECT

The Entrepreneurship project had its origin in 1993 in conjunction with the Small Business Development Corporation (SBDC). It was their enthusiasm and financial support that got the project off the ground. After two years of

The core of the project is to provide a (unique) product or service to the broad student community and other target groups involved. Students and other consumers (customers) may buy these products or services with their available disposable income (pocket money and income after tax). The presentation of this product or service must be based on fundamental marketing research and a well designed business plan. The project is presented annually and consists of four phases. Phases one and two are completed during the first semester and phases three and four during the second semester. All phases are compulsory and follow chronologically. The practical project contributes 30% to the final mark of the student.

Phase 1: Research proposal

Students have to develop three unique product or service ideas that will be of interest to the broad student community and other target groups. The product or service must possess the necessary need satisfying qualities that will convince the students and other consumers to spend their money. A research proposal has to be prepared in order to test the feasibility of each product or service idea in this given market.

Firstly, students have to develop as many product or service ideas as possible and then screen the ideas down to three. After the screening process the product or service concept is developed in terms of market characteristics and product or service characteristics. The concept testing is conducted by using marketing research. This testing must include a detailed 4 Ps execution of marketing, in other words the product or service, the price acceptability levels, marketing communication and a suitable venue off campus. Students are free to choose any research method.

Groups have to deliver an oral presentation of their research proposal to the lecturers. A maximum of ten minutes are provided for each presentation.

Phase 2: Research results

This phase includes the conducting of physical marketing research as was presented and authorized in the research proposal during

phase one. After processing and analyzing the acquired data, the main research results, findings and interpretations must be presented in a formal research report.

Finally recommendations should be made according to the proposed product/service which will be marketed to the student community and other target groups. Lastly students submit their typed research reports containing the most important results and findings.

Phase 3: Business plan

Each student group has to compose a business/marketing plan for their product or service based on the research results from phase two. If the results were unsatisfactory, product or service ideas have to be changed and new research conducted. In this phase the students are compelled to write a business plan and design their promotional material for phase four. This phase entails an oral presentation of 15 minutes per group. During their oral presentation their final product or service must be presented, the advertisements and posters submitted and their typed business plan handed in, with a preliminary income and expenditure statement. Students also have the opportunity to book a suitable position for their stalls at a venue off campus.

This particular venue was chosen firstly because of its closeness to the university and secondly because of its popularity among different types of consumers. Due to the fact that a lot of restaurants and pubs form part of the square it generates a lot of consumer traffic throughout the year. Because of this venue the students now have the opportunity to get more exposure for their products/services among the student as well as the broader community.

Phase 4: The business operational phase

In this phase the students operate their stall/business according to their business plan in phase three. This phase can only be successful if proper planning is done in advance. Students have to attend to the logistical side of their business. This includes all the necessary equipment and any other needed accessories. They have to start their advertising campaign two weeks prior to the selling date of their products.

- Students get exposure to entrepreneurship, production management, stock control, financial management and marketing.
- Students learn how to approach a potential sponsor and fulfilling the relationship.
- Some groups learn to negotiate and deal with suppliers.
- Students see the project as a challenge due to the fact that all the profit is for their own pockets. Some also learn the real meaning of a social responsibility when they donate a percentage of their profits to a charitable organization.

CONCLUSION

The positive feedback from students, parents and the business community is proof enough of the success and significance of the project. Students get a thorough background needed for their next project on third year level where a more professional approach is used and a thorough marketing background needed.

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SUPPLY CHAIN MANAGEMENT: SOMETHING OLD, SOMETHING NEW, SOMETHING BORROWED, SOMETHING BLUE?

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Abstract

During the 1970's and 1980's logistics courses gradually faded from the marketing curriculum landscape. Suddenly in the late 1990's logistics or more specifically supply chain management has once again become a "hot" topic for marketers. In his book, *From Mind to Market*, Roger Blackwell argues that for firms to be successful in the next century, they will need to refocus their thinking about supply chains. "Rather than building and operating their supply chains from manufacturer to market, the best firms in the next century will form their supply chains from the mind of the consumer to market, creating chains based on consumers' needs and wants." In essence, the concept of supply chain is being replaced with the idea of a demand chain. Blackwell goes on to note that these new "supply/demand chains" are already "several generations evolved from the traditional business-school model of supply chain management. They truly are an integration of logistics and marketing principles. "In the new millennium, no retailer, manufacturer or wholesaler will be strong enough to win the on its own. The fight for dominance in the marketplace will be fought between alliances of supply chain members. Competitive dominance will be achieved by the entire supply chain, with battles fought supply chain versus supply chain"(Blackwell). Certainly Blackwell sees the need for marketing educators to incorporate this idea into the marketing curriculum.

Meanwhile, James Heskitt, W. Earl Sasser, and Leonard Schlesinger see the same type of battle shaping up in services. In their book, *The Service Profit Chain*, they argue that for firms to be successful in the new millennium they will need both a market(customer) focus to determine what services customers want and an operation focus to best deliver the services. In essence, they argue that service marketers must compete based on well they can determine which services are wanted and how well they can deliver/supply them.

This special session presents, discusses, and

debates several important questions pertaining to supply chain management. First, is supply chain management simply logistics repackaged or a completely new idea? Second, should marketing departments develop supply chain management courses? Third, what topics are appropriate for a supply chain management course and how should the course be taught? Fourth, should services oriented marketing programs have a course in services logistics, service profit chains, or service supply chain management?

The presenters represent an intriguing mix for the discussion and debate of these issues. Professor James Cross provides an historical perspective. He was trained in channels of distribution and logistics at the University of Minnesota in the late 1970's and early 1980's. At the other end of the spectrum, Michael Mejza is 1998 graduate of the University of Maryland's logistics program. He minored in marketing. Thomas Boyt's was trained in services marketing at the University of Oklahoma, which also had a strong logistics program. Michael Mejza and Thomas Boyt are team teaching a required course in supply chain management in UNLV's new MBA program. Given the emphasis on services in the Las Vegas' economy, their focus is on services logistics/services profit chains. Jack Schibrowsky, Wisconsin 1988, rounds out the panel. Jack is currently the chair of the department of marketing and has a national reputation in the area of marketing curriculum issues and the AACSB. He provides both a curricula perspective and an administrator's perspective to the discussion.

While much of the current marketing education interest is on electronic commerce and the Web, the basic marketing concept of finding unmet wants and needs and filling them is still the dominant principle of the marketing field. The value and future of the internet as a marketing tool is predicated on its ability to provide a better supply chain. We believe this is an important and timely topic for marketing practitioners and educators.

THE SECRETS TO SUCCESSFUL STUDENT MARKETING ORGANIZATIONS REVEALED

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ABSTRACT

Marketing students are frequently encouraged to join clubs on campus. There are a number of reasons to participate in organizations connected with the marketing or business professions, like the American Marketing Association, Pi Sigma Epsilon, Delta Epsilon Chi. Membership and participation helps students:

- Develop leadership skills;
- Acquire team building skills;
- Become aware of career opportunities in their field;
- Build a network for both the present and future;
- Participate in challenging professional competitions;
- Obtain mentors;
- Build a strong resume;
- Learn to give back to the community.

Some organizations are more successful than others at delivering these benefits. Frequently, their members win national competitions and the chapters receive recognition from their colleges, professional affiliates, and alumni. Year after year they attract a solid number of members who enjoy personal and professional growth.

What is the secret to maintaining a successful student club? This session shares information and experiences from a group of advisors of award winning student clubs. They discuss the following topics:

- Recruiting students (extra credit, films from national organization, student club outreach);
- Sustaining student motivation (conferences, competitions, network opportunities, special events);
- Sharing those activities that work as well as those that do not (fund raising; attracting quality speakers);
- Building support from external organizations (local chapter liaisons);
- Taking the club on-line;
- Mentoring and motivating student club executives.

RIGOR, RELEVANCE AND REALISM: A CO-OP COURSE IN PERSONAL SELLING

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ABSTRACT

Co-op courses can address the several objectives of academic rigor, practical skill development and real-world exposure without the costs of full co-op programs. This article describes a successful new course in personal selling which combines the traditional content areas with hands-on experience that promotes problem solving, communications, self-management and personal selling skills. The small-enrolment course is self-funding, and has been well received by students and the client organization. Other opportunities for co-op courses are also described.

INTRODUCTION

Undergraduate business curricula, and marketing curricula in particular, strive to balance three basic objectives: rigor, relevance and realism. These objectives are rooted in the past several decades of unrelenting criticisms of business schools: allegations from other disciplines that business courses lacked academic rigor, complaints from the business community that students lacked important skills, and protests from students that the material they were being asked to master wasn't "relevant".

Across North America, first MBA curricula and now undergraduate curricula are being revisited. The resulting "back to the fundamentals" approach reveals a remarkable convergence in employers' expectations of productive workers and life-long learners, society's expectations of well-rounded citizens, academics' expectations of knowledge acquisition and rigor, and students' expectations of intrinsic interest and immediate relevance. Graduate and undergraduate business programs now strive to promote development of basic skills, particularly communications, analytic and interpersonal skills, and of personal attributes such as creativity, initiative and self-motivation, confidence and mature work habits (see, e.g., Arova & Stoner, 1992; Chonko & Caballero, 1991; John & Needel, 1989; Kelly & Gaedeke, 1990; Kotter, 1982). This skills enhancement is typically grounded in concrete, practical contexts that broaden students' understanding of the complex real world of business.

Experiential techniques, whose effectiveness in promoting these objectives has been well

demonstrated, have been used in management education for some time: case studies, role playing, field projects and simulations are now integral to the marketing curriculum. However, these techniques have been criticized as artificial, contrived and oversimplified and none address the tasks involved in implementation. Test (1995), in particular, insists that "the field ('real life') is the only place that ... skills can really be perfected" (p. 54).

A second avenue of response to these objectives was for many schools to develop co-op programs. However, co-op programs too have limitations, particularly administrative costs and, in small-market centres, limited availability of appropriate placements. An alternative that has been successfully implemented at Saint Mary's, and which is exceptionally well suited to the personal selling course, is a co-op course combining a practicum placement with ongoing course instruction.

COURSES IN PERSONAL SELLING

For decades, personal selling has most often been taught, if at all, as a topic in the more academically acceptable sales management course. Increasingly, however, stand-alone courses are being offered. The course content is obviously skills-intensive and best delivered using participative methods (Castleberry, 1989; Lagace & Longfellow, 1989).

Schools introducing courses in personal selling report positive consequences. Students develop positive attitudes toward careers in sales, and they build marketable skills (e.g., Bowers & Sumney, 1983; Bragg, 1988; Clabaugh et al, 1995; Lagace & Longfellow, 1989; Swinyard, 1982). More importantly, however, and likely due more to the course delivery methods than the subject matter, the benefits of a practical course in personal selling are not restricted to development of career-specific skills. Other outcomes include enhanced skill in problem-solving, opportunity appraisal, goal- and priority-setting, interpersonal communication, persuasion, time management.

Typical courses include cases, role-playing, simulations, supervised practica or client-based projects that provide some field experience (e.g., Bragg 1992). However, many of these activities

have been used to supplement a traditionally delivered course and have had a dominant focus on one selling activity rather than in-depth exposure to all aspects of selling. For instance, students' experience may have focused on cold calling, with insufficient exposure to handling objections, closing, building partnerships, or following-up (Macintosh, 1995). A second concern, as Cunningham (1995) states, is that supplementary projects run the risk of being treated, by faculty and by students, as minor parts of the course. Major activities or projects that supplement course material also face the challenge of changing class dynamics in mid-stream, as responsibility for motivation must be shifted from the instructor to the learner. Lastly, some (e.g., Bragg, 1988; Test, 1995) find these techniques still artificial and insufficiently practical.

A co-op course reverses the typical structure, making the experiential-learning situation focal and the instruction supplementary. As a consequence, students are motivated by the situation rather than by the instructor; learning is active, student-centred, and question-driven; and the relevance of the material is immediately apparent. Rather than "filling their tool-kits" in preparation for real-world challenges which are several years away, students are thrown into a challenging situation and provided with access to the resources needed to succeed.

DESCRIPTION OF THE COURSE

The course addresses all but one of the content areas recommended by Bowers and Sumney (1983): personal sales training, organizational skills, problem definition and opportunity appraisal, quantitative decision making, and awareness of success-engendering mental outlooks and lifestyles. It doesn't address computerized information and inventory control systems in any depth.

Students are recruited to sell advertising space to local businesses for three students' union publications. The course is co-taught by a practicing sales manager and an academic, who are paid a small honorarium by the students' union. The "employer", the Director of the students' union (a permanent administrative position), who tracks sales and signs the advertising contracts, also attends most classes.

Admission to the course is competitive and restricted to marketing majors in their third or fourth year. The class size (currently ten) is limited by the number of viable sales territories. Application forms solicit information on previous experience, career plans,

and general interests. All applicants are subjected to a high-pressure interview. Students' maturity and work ethic are the primary criteria and are assessed by reasons for choosing the course, grades in other courses, interest in personal selling or advertising as possible careers, and ability to handle the interview. In practice, the number of applicants only slightly exceeds the available positions. Although a brochure describing the course is mailed to all marketing majors, word-of-mouth seems to be the primary promotions vehicle, and it effectively fosters the self-selection that seems to ensure that only committed students apply.

In addition to serving as a selection device, the personal interviews set the stage, introducing students to the real-world approach that characterizes the course. The new recruits are given copies of the course text, supplemental readings and *The One-Minute Manager* (Blanchard & Johnson, 1981), as well as business cards, day planners and sales kits. All expenses (transportation and occasional meals) are reimbursed and real incentives are offered: salespeople are paid an escalating commission, 10% of net sales and 15% over quota.

Students are 'hired' and each is immediately assigned a sales territory. Territories are designed geographically and are balanced in terms of sales potential, the number and sizes of current accounts, and numbers of preferred clients and 'challenges'. Each territory includes around 20 established accounts and 20 to 30 prospects, and each new salesperson is expected to generate and qualify enough new leads to create next year's prospects. Prospecting can be a challenge, since some of the businesses that target student markets -- and that students find attractive -- raise ethical issues. The employer therefore provides guidelines. Each new salesperson inherits the files created by salespeople previously assigned that territory. These files record contact person, influencers, purchase dates and volumes, and general observations. In addition to handling upwards of 60 accounts, students are exposed to a full range of small to large business owner/managers. Thus the territories are sufficiently large and diverse to provide a real opportunity for students to develop their skills.

As much as possible, an attempt is made to address relationship marketing. The first priority is maintaining established accounts. Sales to established accounts require three to five contacts, initial contact and account follow-up typically being handled by telephone. Difficult, multiple decision-maker and new sales typically require more

contacts. As consultants, the students are expected to help plan ad timing, placement, frequency, execution and perhaps evaluation so that the purchase is an effective expenditure for limited advertising budgets.

The first few weeks of term are learning-intensive. The first classes are used to orient the new recruits to the organization and to familiarize them with the products' fit to potential advertisers' objectives and alternatives. The next classes introduce basic selling skills, using a problem-solving focus. (Record keeping, prospect generation, cold-calling, account servicing, and territory management are also included.) Students are expected to prepare the assigned readings and to practice the basic selling skills outside class time.

The classes draw heavily on guest speakers, applied exercises, role-playing and video-taped role-playing. Sessions on listening skills, self-motivation and time management have also been included. Typically the class meets once a week for three hours at this stage, although supplementary full-day Saturday and Sunday workshops have also been used successfully. (Guest speakers at the end of term describe careers in sales and technical sales of more complex products and services.)

Three weeks into the term, each new recruit makes his or her first sales presentation. For the rest of the term, the new salespeople devote most of their time to their assigned territories and weekly sales meetings replace formal classes.

Responsibility for chairing the weekly sales meetings, and for choosing the agenda items, rotates through the group. At each meeting, the salespeople publicly set their quotas (prospects, contacts, closes) for the upcoming week and report on last week's progress, and each can request personal feedback or assistance. However, the sales meetings are primarily intended to help the team build confidence, share insights, master the basic skills, try out new techniques and brainstorm approaches to common difficulties or special challenges.

Initially, a buddy system is used; the mutual support of dual sales calls seems to more quickly build both the new recruits' confidence and their call productivity. Personal coaching is an important component (see also Corcoran, 1994). Early in the process and then again when skills are more fully developed, the sales manager accompanies each recruit on several calls.

From the very first class, students take responsibility for delivering their quota objectives and for the learning needed to perform successfully. To achieve this, the group environment is one of support and enthusiasm in which trust and rapport are well developed. All of the course resources are clearly focused on developing the team's skills and abilities. Simple behavioral changes, such as the instructors' soliciting feedback from the group before offering their own comments, reinforce the student-centred approach.

COMPENSATION AND EVALUATION

Performance is evaluated in terms of both academic and practical objectives, weighted equally. The sales managers assess performance and meet with each salesperson to provide written feedback addressing the range of objectives (from meeting selling and prospecting quotas to interpersonal skills). To satisfy the academic criteria, each student completes a term paper reviewing several models of personal selling and assessing his or her learning, areas of strength or ability and areas needing development.

Wobruha (1992) describes the merits of grades described in terms of a sales-force compensation plan. A co-op course can take that concept a step forward: grades are a direct result of performance in the field: students receive monetary compensation and bonuses and, in this case, students also compete for the opportunity to continue in a paid position for the balance of the year.

Grades in the course run the full gamut from failure or marginal pass to excellent. The course truly tests individual initiative. As is often the case in applied courses, students who have maintained an "A" average on their ability to learn quickly and repeat effectively are not automatically the top performers. On the other hand, many otherwise underperforming students shine, apparently motivated by the immediacy and relevance of the course. The average remuneration, not including expenses, is \$400 and the top-performer usually receives \$500 to \$800.

OUTCOMES AND ASSESSMENT

From the client's perspective, the course has been highly successful. Sales of advertising space have tripled and costs of sales are minimal.

From the department's perspective, also, the course is highly successful. The practical experience and

development of personal skills complement other courses. The course also serves a public relations function, developing the department's contacts in the large and under-reached group of local small businesses. It is also important that the course is entirely self-funding, as the current budgetary pressures make small-enrolment courses hard to defend.

While no systematic follow-up of graduates has been done to assess the course's impact on career success, the feedback from students after completion of the course has been positive. Almost all of the students have rated this "the best course they have ever taken". The benefit mentioned most frequently is the opportunity to hone skills that will assist them in the job market: selling skills, self-management skills (initiative, self-motivation, self-discipline, time management, goal-setting and execution/implementation) and interpersonal communication skills (negotiation, persuasion, handling rejection and disappointment, and working with different personality types). Students frequently say that the course has built their self-confidence and their comfort in interacting with the business community. Students also note that the course is a good resume builder and provides an opening for them to describe their capabilities during job interviews. It also helps them build contacts in the business community and every year several students find immediate placements as a direct result of the course. Students can test their fit to sales as a possible career and, while a handful have discovered that they didn't want a career in selling, most discovered the opposite (as Bragg, 1988, Lagace & Longfellow, 1989 and Swinyard, 1982 also report).

The most frequent criticism is the time commitment can be substantial. Hence for some the course is seen as taking time from other courses.

LIMITATIONS

While the course is designed to give students a taste of sales as a profession, the scope of that experience is limited. As the course deals with the same client organization each year, the instructors' learning curve is short. However, students are exposed to only a small range of offerings of one particular type of relatively simple product. Thus students have little opportunity to develop skills in customer service and relationship marketing, areas of increasing importance to the profession and to marketing educators (Macintosh, 1995; Moore et al, 1986; de Ruyter and Krask, 1994; Swan & Nolan, 1985; Tanner and Castleberry, 1995).

The short duration of a one-term course also means that sale of a technically complex product would not be practical. As a result, students have little exposure to technical sales and may not develop a full appreciation of the range of responsibilities, such as customer education, problem solving and dealing with product failure. An attempt is made to deal with this both by recruiting instructors whose industry experience is in technically complex sales and by inviting guest speakers from different businesses.

Finally, the length of a one-term course also limits the emphasis that can be given to the integration of sales activities into the operation of the firm. While this could in part be addressed by requiring a more traditional course in selling or sales management as a pre- or co-requisite, that option isn't appropriate to generalist programs which do not have room to develop extensive course streams within the major.

EXTENSIONS

The Personal Selling Co-op course has been offered for six years, and is now a routine offering. The long-term intention is to expand the course by soliciting new sites and sales managers for each. Seasonal sales, Internet services and business-expansion projects might be potential placements.

Co-op placements are already used in many small-business centres, with student groups serving as consultants to the range of projects that present over the term. The co-op approach could also be extended to other courses. For instance, even small local advertising agencies cannot respond to the number of requests for pro bono work. However, groups of students, supervised by professionals, could run a mini full-service agency for non-profit organizations or small businesses. Professionals would be able to volunteer their time more effectively, and a larger number of organizations that are otherwise ignored could benefit.

Similarly, students could run a small marketing research firm, serving small and non-profit organizations that cannot afford professional services. From an instructional perspective, the key factor is that students be exposed to the entire range of activities involved in the collection and application of market information rather than just completing data-collection projects.

References available on request

USING NOT-FOR-PROFIT ORGANIZATIONS FOR SERVICE-LEARNING MARKETING INTERNSHIPS

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ABSTRACT

Marketing programs commonly use non-profit organizations as work sites for student internships. These experiences permit the development of both technical and behavioral skills in a manner similar to assignments at their for-profit counterparts. However, a recent resurgence of volunteerism and widespread acceptance of service-learning affords marketing educators an opportunity to expand the role these internships play in the student's educational process. Careful planning and the use of appropriate reflective activities can provide exposure to cultural diversity and uncertainty, along with other benefits not normally associated with traditional internships.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, higher education has been challenged to prepare students for a life as responsible citizens rather than solely concentrating on career development. In fact, this task has been identified by some as being the most important one facing educators as they move into the next century (Boyer 1994, Rifkin 1997). Business schools face a similar challenge, partially in response to the financial scandals of the 1980s. One report, sponsored by AACSB, registered a concern that while business school graduates may have the required analytical skills, they are insensitive to factors other than the bottom line. (Porter and McKibbin 1988). An underlying theme to these and other concerns is that higher education needs to do something about the growing reality gap between the needs of society and higher education's internal priorities. The need to prepare the next generation for a life that includes some devotion to community and community service is being amplified by a fundamental transformation of government. Entitlement programs and the welfare state are shrinking. Government subsidies of all types are being eliminated or reduced. The result is that the "civil" sector is replacing the government sector in providing for a significant portion of a community's needs. Therefore, a major educational challenge, today and in the future, is to teach students the

value of service and the importance of providing support for their communities.

THE SERVICE-LEARNING SOLUTION

The good news is that many segments of our educational institutions and an increasing number of citizens are responding to the call for increased community involvement. This is especially true for young people and college students throughout the country with the emergence of community service classes (Hanna 1995). In addition, there has been a rebirth of volunteerism at both the college and professional level. According to a recent survey, nearly three fourths of the nation's 1.5 million college freshman performed some sort of public service within the past year (U.S. News 1997).

The bad news is that student volunteering tends to run in cycles and unless something changes to perpetuate this activity, it will again disappear, only to return in another 30 years (Zlotkowski 1996a). In order to avoid this historical decline, efforts must be made to connect needed community service with required university learning. Service-learning may be the long term solution. This educational method allows students to learn and develop through active participation in organized service that meets the needs of the community. At the same time, it is integrated into the academic curriculum providing students with a structured opportunity for critical reflection on their service experience.

While service-learning appears to provide a solution to closing the reality-academic priority gap, it requires a level of institutionalization that has yet to take place. Many schools have embraced service-learning but it has developed outside of individual departments and professional schools. The result has been a proliferation of Community Service 101 type courses and volunteer projects requiring students to perform a minimum number of hours of service while engaging in reflective type learning (e.g. journals). Less developed is the use of service-learning in courses directly related to the student's major.

SERVICE-LEARNING MARKETING INTERNSHIPS

There are a variety of ways to incorporate community service into a student's university experience including business fraternities, youth groups, churches, and service clubs. However, these extracurricular involvements only provide the "service" part of service-learning. What they fail to provide is a connection with the student's academic studies. This linkage is required to bridge the academic-reality or academic-service gap. Only when this occurs does the activity provide the desired educational impact.

Another extracurricular activity that has similar characteristics is work experience. While any work experience may benefit an individual, experience unrelated to their academic major or course work tends to be of limited educational value. However, an academically related and structured experience in the form of an internship provides multiple benefits that are well known. Thus, we have two experiences, service and work, whose educational benefits are maximized only when they are tied to the academic curriculum.

Integration of service-learning into the marketing curriculum can be accomplished in a variety of ways. Among the possibilities are the fourth-credit option, a complete course built around service-learning, service activities and projects as a limited or extensive course requirement, or service-learning internships (Enos and Troppe 1996). All of these alternatives have their benefits, but only one provides the dual experience discussed above. Service-learning internships present marketing students with an opportunity to apply technical skills (e.g. develop a promotional strategy) and, at the same time, be exposed to the value of community service. By including reflective activities, service-learning internships provide a mix of theory and practice, observation and interaction, and thought and action, which allows students to learn from themselves (Cooper 1997).

Traditional internships and service-learning are often viewed as being somewhat incompatible because the focus of the two is different. Traditional internships concentrate on providing students with a progressive learning experience. At the other extreme, volunteerism focuses on the service being provided, not student learning. In order for the experience to qualify for service-learning the learning and service goals must carry equal weight and reinforce each other (Furco 1996, Sigmon 1994). While a true balance

may be difficult to achieve, careful development of an internship at a non-profit organization can provide the dual benefits necessary to qualify it as a service-learning experience.

The use of non-profit organizations as marketing internship work stations is nothing new. It is common to have a separate marketing function concerned with development (finding sources of funds) and the promotion of the organizations and its services. Academic assignments associated with non-profit internships often concentrate on developing technical skills and practical applications of theory. Deliverables may include actual marketing plans developed, results of surveys conducted, or examples of promotional pieces created. In some cases, students may be required to keep reflective journals but their emphasis is activities they performed and skills they learned, not how they felt about what they observed or experienced. However, by incorporating these elements into site selection, learning objectives and assignments, work station supervision, and reflective activities, the non-profit internship can qualify as a service-learning experience.

SETTING UP THE INTERNSHIP

Agency selection

The first, and perhaps most critical step in using non-profit organizations as work stations for service-learning marketing internships is agency selection. There is no shortage of agencies that can benefit from the work of a marketing intern or, who in turn, can provide opportunities to achieve both internship and service-learning goals. Almost all of them can provide the necessary experience to meet the goals of a traditional internship.

One category of non-profits tends to be well organized, structured, managed, and somewhat up-to-date technologically. This group is lead by associations, health care providers, public media, and cultural organizations. Normally, they have a separate marketing department concerned with development and the marketing of the organizations and its events. Student's interning at one of these organizations should enhance their marketing skills and perhaps an appreciation for the importance of volunteering. A second category of non-profits tends to provide a better service-learning experience. This group includes social advocate organizations, major charities, at risk agencies and help organizations (e.g. legal aid). These agencies tend to be culturally diverse and provide students with an opportunity to better experience a community's social, health, and political

concerns. Working at these agencies tend to be more eye opening for students and provide a greater impact on their developing values, ideals, and morals.

Other site selection concerns include the location of the agency and physical facilities. Student safety must be a concern and care taken not to place an intern at risk when traveling to and from or while working at an agency. While no location is totally secure, internship and service-learning coordinators need to be aware of the risks and consider this when selecting work stations.

Objectives, goals, and assignments

Under service-learning, the needs of the community or agency dictate the service that needs to be performed. What is difficult is setting up a program that fosters learning and, at the same time, provides the required service to those in need. Community service agencies may not be familiar with the concept of an internship and end up treating interns as they would any other volunteer help. Experiences may not be structured around learning objectives, a characteristic of traditional internships. This can result in a work experience with little or no structure and too much repetitive activity, such as telephone solicitation, data entry, or filing. Learning requirements associated with internships require student interns to be treated differently than a volunteer. Volunteers are there to perform some required tasks; the intern is there to engage in a progressive learning experience. In some cases, they may actually perform similar activity, but the tasks are approached from different perspectives.

To assist in overcoming this barrier, agencies need to submit proposals for internships describing how the student will be utilized and the type of activities they will perform. Emphasis is placed on the progressive nature of the learning experience along with the ability to build new skills and apply academic concepts. Such proposals force the agency to think through a project or series of activities which would lead to a desired goal for the organization. Ultimately, work stations should be selected based on the clarity of activities and goals for the internship and their relevance for a marketing major.

To insure compliance with job descriptions interns, work station supervisors, and an internship coordinator should develop a list of learning objectives for the student. These can revolve around increased awareness, better understanding, and a stronger appreciation for the agency and its clientele. Objectives can be approved by the internship

coordinator and become the basis for ultimate evaluation of the internship experience.

Supervision

Perhaps one of the major disadvantages of using non-profits for internships is a potential lack of mentoring and supervision. When selecting an agency, it is preferable to choose one that has available personnel with some degree of marketing experience. An extremely busy executive director heads many agencies. Finding time to work with an intern is very difficult. The result is students are often left to their own devices and with a staff of part time volunteers lacking in any marketing education. Unfortunately, this often leads to the use of the intern in a manner contrary to the position description and established objectives. In other cases, the intern *becomes* the marketing department and is overwhelmed in the process. To avoid these problems, the agreement with the agency should include a requirement for regular meetings between the intern and supervisor. In addition, having the intern work with news media, advertising agencies, event coordinators, and other marketing professional helps provide the required exposure to marketing skills. Previous interns are an excellent sources of information regarding the extent to which mentoring was provided.

Use of Reflective Activities

Community service, in itself, can be meaningful, pointless, or harmful. Reflective activities are a key to getting meaning from a service experience. Reflection is a process by which service-learners think critically about their experiences. It can occur through writing, speaking, listening, or reading about the service experiences. Perhaps the most common reflective activity is the daily or weekly journal of observations, concerns, insights, doubts, fears, and critical questions about issues, people, and, most importantly, the intern themselves. The most important ingredient of a journal is honesty.

Care must be taken to require reflective activities that force students to answer questions like: What have I learned about myself through this experience? Do I have more/less understanding or empathy than I did before this experience? In what ways, if any, has your sense of self, your values, your sense of "community," your willingness to serve others and your self-confidence/self-esteem been impacted or altered through this experience? How has this experience challenged stereotypes or prejudices you

have/had? Any realizations, insights, or especially strong lessons learned. It is in the process of answering questions like these that the student begins to realize what they really "learned" from the internship (Cooper 1997).

ADVANTAGES OF SERVICE-LEARNING MARKETING INTERNSHIPS

Educators and businesses alike are increasingly aware of the growing significance of cultural factors in the conduct of business. Business school must find ways for a student to learn to function within a diverse work force (Zlotkowski 1996b). Working at non-profit agencies can help develop a multicultural sensitivity that will help students not only accept but actually value a diverse work force (McLaughlin 1989). Organizations which provide help to disadvantaged and, at-risk groups are particularly appropriate. Examples include Boys and Girls Clubs, legal aid, and immigrant support groups. Research shows that undergraduate service participation strengthens the student's interest in issues relating to multiculturalism and diversity (Sax, Astin, and Astin 1996).

A second advantage stems from the fact that business students sometimes have problems dealing with uncertainty. Given a problem to solve and a framework within which to solve it, they often perform admirably. Unfortunately, they must learn to find and frame what needs to be done, not just choose between options in an already delimited field. Traditional internships aimed at enhancing technical skills often do not force the student to deal with ambiguity. One of the characteristics of community service internships is that they tend to be somewhat unstructured. Thus, a problem with these internships actually can become an opportunity for students to engage in problem identification and problem solving in a "messy" environment.

Student evaluations of service-learning marketing internships have identified networking opportunities as one of the unexpected benefits. Since many marketing students work on planning and implementing fund raising events, they often solicit and work with sponsors of those events, including local media personnel. Also, interns invited to participate in planning sessions are given an opportunity to meet and discuss plans with major business and community leaders. Finally, attendance at donor appreciation functions proved to be yet another chance to get to know some of

the major donors and community minded individuals.

Finally, research shows that a number of positive outcomes occur when service-learning is integrated into the curriculum. Findings in a recent study indicate that undergraduate participation in service based programs favorably affects "persistence in college, interest in graduate study, critical thinking skills, leadership skills, and a commitment to promoting racial understanding (Astin, Sax, and Avalos 1996)." Other research supports the contention that service-learning has a positive impact on personal, attitudinal, moral, social, and cognitive outcomes (Cohen and Kinsey 1994, Giles and Eyler 1994). Reflective comments support these studies as students report some eye opening experiences associated with their internships. In addition, almost every student who has participated in a service-learning internship has devoted time well beyond what was required to obtain the academic credit. This, in itself, indicates the positive effect of these experiences.

SUMMARY

Higher education is being called upon to rethink its mission to include the development of the "whole" student. Service-learning is one proven method of instilling a sense of community value in young people today. However, the key to the institutionalizing of service-learning is to incorporate it into the academic curriculum across campus. Business schools and more specifically, marketing departments, can do their part by developing service components for courses and majors. When properly supervised and structured to meet academic requirements, the combination of internships and service-learning can produce learning outcomes that often exceed those provided through traditional assignments.

REFERENCES

The entire paper, including references, is available from the author.

STUDENT PERSPECTIVES ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF GROUP PROJECTS

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ABSTRACT

An exploratory study of marketing and business administration students was undertaken to determine their experience with and reaction to group projects. Students were asked to evaluate various aspects regarding the participation level and management of the projects, focusing on their best and worst group project experiences. Students then indicated how important they thought certain factors (e.g.: group sizes, helpfulness of the instructor) were to the effectiveness of group projects.

INTRODUCTION

During the past decade business schools across North America have advocated the increased use of group (or team) projects in their classrooms. The main reason is to provide business students the kind of team atmosphere that is experienced in industry, thereby heightening students' educational reality and preparing the student for the kind of interactions they would likely face in the business world after graduation.

Conversations over the years with several constituents (faculty, students, and industry leaders) have shown that their reactions to group (two or more persons working together) projects and their effectiveness have been mixed. This begs the question "what can be done to improve the effectiveness of group projects in business classes?" In order to answer this question, we will first examine related literature for clues and then provide the results of this exploratory study which was designed to identify potential strategies.

RELATED LITERATURE

Several conceptual articles and research efforts relating to group or team projects have emerged in the decade of the 1990's. One of the stronger advocates of the use of group projects (Hebein 1993) finds them to be a sound multi-dimensional learning tool. He acknowledges that some

problems with group projects do occur but feels that they can be mitigated by peer evaluations. Williams, Beard, and Rymer (1991) also explore the many benefits of group projects. They further propose a reward structure with both individual and group grading as a means of achieving the full potential of group assignments.

Two studies were conducted to find predictors of student team performance. Bacon, Stewart, and Stewart-Belle (1998) found that the "average" of the individual abilities on a team predicted student team performance. Team size and gender diversity seemed to have little effect on team performance. Among graduate teams those that had moderate national diversity outperformed teams with high or no national diversity. Van Auken and Chapman (1997) found that the most satisfied groups were those that had the most participation. Additionally, the greater the satisfaction the greater the perceived social benefits, willingness to commit time, and desire for group (versus individual) grading.

Free riding and social loafing are problems that can occur with group projects when one or more group members makes little contribution to the group or completely rides on the coattails of the group. Strong and Anderson (1990) studied student perceptions of the effectiveness of six techniques for reducing free riding. The authors made a number of recommendations, including allowing teams to select their own group, using evaluations, keeping group size as small as possible, discussing potential problems with free riders in advance, and encouraging students to confront free riders in a non-threatening manner.

A number of authors recommend the use of group evaluations as a means not only of assessing individual performance but as a motivating mechanism for team members. Van Auken (1996) assessed the pros and cons of three types of measurement scales (semantic differential, constant sum, and anchored expectation). He suggests that all three types of scales be used in evaluations in order to bring as much information to the instructor as possible. Beatty, Haas, and

Sciglimpaglia (1996) feel that the problem of inequitable contributions can be lessened with a grading system that gives weight to both individual contributions and group achievement. In a related article Haas and Sciglimpaglia (1994) discuss a process to facilitate more equitable grading using peer evaluations which use nine semantic differential items that allows a group member to rate themselves and others on criteria such as member dependability, input, quality of work, and an overall evaluation. A later study by Haas, Haas, and Wotruba (1998) investigated self and peer ratings. They found self-ratings to be more positive than peer ratings for the same student regardless of gender. Peer ratings, however, do differ by gender--with males being the most generous. With these findings in mind the authors attempted to investigate which factors seemed to contribute to student perceptions of group project effectiveness.

RESEARCH METHODS

In-class, self-administered surveys were used to capture the data for this study during May 1998. Six undergraduate business classes at a western state-supported university were chosen using a schedule of classes and systematic random sampling. Overall, 153 business majors responded to the survey. Data were entered into an Excel spreadsheet and descriptive statistics, some cross-tabulations, and a few difference tests were employed. As this was intended to be an exploratory study with the purpose of developing hypotheses for future research, a basic level of analysis was considered appropriate.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Characteristics of the Respondents

A near equal amount of males and females participated in this study. Nearly 61% of the respondents were seniors, while about 23% were juniors. Approximately 43% of the respondents were between the ages of 22 and 25, with 23% between the ages of 18 and 21, 14% among 26 and 29 years, and 20% at or above the age of 30. Approximately 88% of the respondents were native or naturalized U.S. citizens, and 12% international students. About 60% of the students were Caucasian, 27% Asian, and 13% from other ethnic backgrounds. As the sample was of a cross-section of business administration classes, a number of different majors emerged. Accounting

represented the largest student major (26%), followed by Management (22%), Information Technology (18%), Marketing (16%), Finance (14%), and Other (4%).

Group Project Experience and Optimal Group Size

All but one student had previous experience with group projects at their current institution. While the typical respondent had participated in approximately eight group projects, over 35% had participated in ten or more. As a result, one can say that the respondents were sufficiently familiar with working in groups to be able to possess perceptions and experiences that could be shared with the researchers.

The typical respondent felt that the optimal size for group projects was approximately four people. This perception varied little by major, race, or citizenship status. However, younger students aged 18-21 were much more likely to desire larger (mean = 4.34) group sizes than older (30+) students (mean = 3.73).

Importance of Factors Contributing to Group Effectiveness

Nine factors were evaluated to determine whether respondents felt that they were important in contributing to group project effectiveness. Students were able to answer the question with a yes, no, or not applicable. The results in Table 1 show the proportion who answered "yes"--indicating that the factor was important. Interestingly enough, in all nine cases at least 70% of the respondents considered these factors to be important.

TABLE 1
Importance Of Factors To Effectiveness Of
Group Projects

<u>Factor</u>	<u>% Noting Factor is Important</u>
Equal participation by group members	94.4%
Instructor is helpful	88.1
Project topic is interesting	85.4
Group size	84.6
Evaluations handled fairly	81.0
Effectiveness of group leader	79.0
How group leader is chosen	76.4
How groups are selected	75.0
Receive instruction in group skills	70.6

The four factors considered to be most important to the effectiveness of the group project are equal participation by group members (94.4%), helpfulness of the instructor (88.1%), the student's interest level in the project topic (85.4%), and number of students in the group (84.6%). Oddly enough, the factor receiving the least importance was whether they received instruction in effective group skills within the class for which the project had been assigned.

One would think that knowledge of communication skills, conflict resolution methods, work delegation, supervision, and control methods would be considered more important by students than it was.

Comparing "Best" and "Worst" Group Experiences

Respondents were asked to identify the "best" and "worst" group project experiences they have had and to answer a series of questions about each. The results of these comparisons are found in Table 2. The first measure was an overall rating of

TABLE 2
Comparison Of Best And Worst Group Experience

Factor	Best	Worst
Overall rating (1)	7.04	3.13
Group size (2)	5.35	3.88
Receive instruction in group skills (3)		
Assigned by instructor	23.0%	40.6%
Chosen by students	62.5%	44.0%
Chosen at random	14.5%	15.4%
Group Leadership was:		
Assigned by instructor	1.3%	4.8%
Chosen by group	73.7%	46.2%
Fought over	1.3%	15.9%
Non-existent	23.7%	33.1%
Group leader was effective (4)	3.26	2.91
Participation was equal among group members (4)	3.46	2.19
Evaluations were handled fairly (4)	3.64	2.54
Project topic was interesting (4)	3.64	2.82
Instructor was helpful(4)	3.67	2.82

Notes:

- (1) rated on a scale of very effective learning experience (10) to a waste of time (1)
- (2) mean number of persons
- (3) proportion saying "yes"
- (4) rated on a scale of strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree(1).

the group project experience on a 1-10 scale with 10 being a very effective learning experience. The respondents' best group experience averaged a 7.04 rating while the worst experience averaged a 3.13 rating.

For the best group experience males and females rated the group experience almost identically. Marketing majors rated their best experience at 7.67 on average, while accounting majors felt their best group experience rated a lesser 6.14 on average. International students also rated their best group experience below the overall mean at 6.59. Younger students aged 18-21 were more prone to find their best experience (7.65) much worthier than their 30 and over counterparts (6.00). Perhaps older students felt that because of their wisdom in years, they were slowed down by the more inexperienced students. Of course, the reverse could explain why younger students enjoyed the experience more because they might have perceived the opportunity to learn from those with more experience.

Group size had some correlation to one's overall evaluation of their best group experience. Persons in groups of size two or three rated their best experience between 5.96 and 6.00. Persons in groups of four, five, and six rated their best experiences between 7.13 and 8.00. How the groups and leaders were selected and whether the group had training also had some relationship to one's overall evaluation. Despite rating group skills training as the least important factor, persons in groups that had training yielded average evaluations of 7.22, while those that did not averaged 6.90. Additionally, persons in groups where the leaders were chosen by the group had more positive evaluations (7.26) than in situations where leadership appeared to be non-existent (6.36).

For the worst group experience marketing majors rated their experience slightly lower (3.05) than the group as a whole. Females rated their experience as less worthy (2.94) than did males (3.25). International students rated their worst project higher (3.38) than did U.S. citizens (3.06). Age-wise, 26-29 year-olds rated their worst group experience the highest (3.47), while those 30 and above had the lowest overall evaluations (2.93). These comparisons, perhaps, are moot since the evaluations were so abominable to begin with, suggesting they may have used the survey as an opportunity to vent frustrations.

Group size seemed to have little bearing on the evaluation of the worst group experience. Persons in groups that received training evaluated their worst experience more positively (3.53) than those who received no group training (2.47). When group leadership was assigned by the instructor, the overall evaluation was highest (4.17), but when leadership was fought over (in nearly 16% of these negative experiences) it produced the lowest evaluations (2.53). Leadership was only fought over 1.3% of the time in the best group project situations. This additional friction certainly can add to the burden of the group.

Interestingly enough, the **size of one's group** seemed somewhat related to their best and worst group experiences. The average size of respondents' best group experience was 5.35 persons, while the mean size of their very worst group experience was 3.88 persons. Although students had indicated earlier that an optimal size was 4 persons, it seems that the better group experiences were enjoyed when the group was slightly larger.

Although students thought **instruction in group skills** was not as important as most other measured factors, the results show that in the best group experience 45.4% received instruction as compared to 25.7% in the worst group experience ($Z = 3.60, p < .005$). Also worth noting is that both best and worst group experiences received higher ratings when instruction had been provided than when it had not.

The method by which **group members were selected** appeared to vary a bit by group experience. In the best group experience the majority (62.5%) were chosen by the students themselves. In the worst group experience that incident was 44.0%. On the other hand, in the worst group experience 40.6% were assigned by the instructor as compared to 23.0% in the best group experience. Although some bad choices can occur, it appears that students having some control of their composition might pay dividends.

The prevalent manner in which **group leadership was chosen** for both best (73.7%) and worst (46.2%) situations was when the students, themselves, did the choosing. Group leadership was more likely to appear non-existent in the worst group situation (33.1%) than in the best group situation (23.7%).

Finally, five Likert scale items were posed to assess the students' degree of agreement or disagreement with a number of group-related dimensions. The mean scores, even for the best group experience, averaged only between "neutral" and "moderately agree" ratings. This is consistent with the fact that the overall rating for the best group experience was only 7.04 on a 10-point scale. This suggests that even in the best group experiences students are not strongly positive about the situation.

Students were only slightly more likely to agree that group leadership in their best group (3.26) was more effective than in their worst group (2.91). They were much more likely to agree that participation was equal among group members in their best group (3.46) than in their worst group (2.19) experience. These two findings suggest that the composition of the group more so than the leadership might contribute to an effective group experience. A rating of 3.46, however, suggests that even in the best groups there is some incidence of unequal participation among the group members.

Students were more likely to agree that evaluations were handled fairly (3.64), the project topic was of interest (3.64), and the instructor was helpful (3.67) in their best group compared to their worst group experiences (2.54, 2.82, and 2.82 respectively).

Some Overall Reactions to Group Projects

Students were asked on a Likert scale (5 = strongly agree, 1 = strongly disagree) to rate three statements about their overall feelings about group projects. First they were asked to react to the statement: "I've learned more in group projects than I've learned in classes where I have worked individually." The overall rating for this was just above neutral (3.03). Overall students do not perceive any learning advantage to group projects, or perhaps faculty are unknowingly structuring them so that students do not see the benefits. Marketing students rated this slightly higher (3.42) than the sample, but accounting majors agreed with this statement the least (2.74). There was little difference in agreements between genders, but older students (30+) agreed less (2.73) than the group as a whole. International students agreed (3.67) that they learned more than the sample as a whole.

There was strong overall agreement (4.13) with the statement: "I feel that the ability to work effectively in a group is necessary to be productive in the work

environment." Younger students (18-21) agreed with this more (4.42) than older (30+) students (3.80) and females agreed with this more (4.23) than men did (4.03). International students agreed slightly less (3.85) than did U.S. citizens (4.18).

Lastly, students were asked to respond to the statement: "I feel that most group projects are graded fairly in accordance with each student's participation level." This must have hit a nerve, as the overall rating was between "neutral" and "moderately disagree" at 2.86. Marketing (3.21) and international (3.61) students were slightly more likely to agree, while accounting (2.67), management (2.15), and older (2.63 for 30+ year) students were not. Females disagreed with the statement (2.79) more so than men (2.91) did.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The total quality management movement brought with it a focus on process, benchmarking, teamwork, identification of publics, and a focus on customer satisfaction. Academics in the 1990's have identified the student as one of their primary customers. As such, we owe it to our students to continue to find ways in which pedagogy can improve students' sense of learning and accomplishment. To this end, this study has pointed out some avenues for further investigation. Hopefully with additional research we can gain the confidence to develop strategies that will work better. This is not to say, however, that we cannot begin to test out some of these strategies in our own classes right now.

Students seem somewhat cool or indifferent to group projects. Even their best experiences averaged only seven on a ten point scale. In open-ended comments many said that they felt that group projects were overused. Students did not perceive a learning advantage to group versus individual projects as a result of their experiences, yet felt that working effectively in groups is a necessity in the work environment. Perhaps the answer to this dichotomy of thoughts is that faculty could do more to ensure that the group project experience is an enjoyable and productive one. Perhaps we can improve the outcomes by structuring projects upon what we have learned in this and previous studies.

First it appears that we need to choose topics for group projects that will hold the students' interest. Such topics could easily be pretested the term or

semester prior on a group of students. Secondly the results suggest that if the students participate in the selection of group members and leaders the experience is more likely to be a successful one. Third, try to staff each group with between four and six members. The students felt that four students was optimal, but the best group experiences were those averaging 5.35 persons. Fourth, try to insulate the negativism about groups by the older (30+) students. Mention to the class that some students feel the group process is not efficient but that, in actuality, it can prove to be more efficient than individual efforts if all viewpoints are allowed to be heard and the group as a unit follows the majority opinion—even though some might oppose the direction. Grouping older students together is not the solution, as the younger students will then not have the opportunity of learning from the older, and sometimes wiser, students.

Fifth, provide group skills instruction. If particular faculty do not feel adept at this invite other faculty in to do so. Our study shows that although 70% of the students felt that group training was important it received the least support of nine strategies. Further, students with best group experiences were nearly twice as likely to have received group training skills in their class than those in the worst group situations. This is a case where the faculty members should do what is right versus what is most preferred by the students.

Finally, we need to ensure that participation is equal among all group members. Students felt very strongly that this needed to occur and it was the factor that most strongly separated best from worst group experiences. We, as faculty, can not only encourage it but institute evaluations mid-project as well as at the end to ensure that does happen. In addition we can and should tie at least a part of these evaluations to how we grade individuals in the project. Perhaps this would create a perception among students that there was more fairness in the grading of projects because it would reduce the overvaluation of underperforming members in the group.

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**TEACHING BASIC MARKETING: YESTERDAY, TODAY, AND TOMORROW
OR
MARKETING EDUCATORS NEED TO LEAD, FOLLOW, OR GET OUT OF THE WAY**

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Abstract

Certainly, the practice of marketing has changed dramatically over the last 25 years. Electronic commerce, the WEB, FAX machines, contact management software, home use of computers, sophisticated pricing models, the terms "services marketing" and "relationship marketing," the growth of direct marketing and direct channels, and the development of sophisticated marketing intelligence systems are just a few of the tools and terms that have evolved over the past two decades. With the speed of change and information constantly increasing, one can only guess that the field will change even more over the next twenty years.

With all the new communication technology available, most of the current focus in marketing education seems to be on new ways to teach marketing rather than on what topics are being taught. While research and information on different ways of delivering the educational message is important, we believe the issue of what is being taught is even more critical. A course, delivered via the internet, that covers out of date topics is still an out of date course regardless of the medium.

This special session reviews how far basic marketing education has advanced over the past 25 years, and to peek around the corner at the next decade or two. However, unlike most presentations on the subject, this session will begin by comparing basic marketing textbooks of the late 70's with those of today. This approach focuses the discussion on factual differences rather than anecdotal evidence and opinions.

The presentation is divided into two parts. First, Jack Schibrowsky and Thomas Boyt will present their research findings pertaining to topic and pedagogy coverage of principle books published in the seventies compared to those being published today. This data provides an

important benchmark concerning what has been presented in basic marketing textbooks over the past 25 years as compared to what is considered as current pedagogy.

The second part of the presentation will center on a discussion by some current and future textbook authors about the past, present, and future of basic marketing education. The discussion promises to be both insightful and entertaining, especially to those individuals interested in getting into the publishing game.

As we approach the new millennium, it is time to reflect on the past two decades to see if marketing education has lead new marketing thought, simply kept up with marketing practice, or lagged behind the practice of marketing. At last year's conference some leading educators presented their views of where marketing had been and where it was headed. More recently, ELMAR has been the site of an exchange of views pertaining to the future of marketing education. In both instances, the discussion was entertaining and informative; however, in our opinion the discussion has been missing one essential ingredient, a factual benchmark. This special session is designed to fill this void.

SHAPING HARMONIOUS MARKETING DEPARTMENTS

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ABSTRACT

Given a pool of technically competent applicants, marketing faculty often hire the applicant who seemingly offers the best fit. We posit that this best fit is not an elusive concept; rather it concerns the identifiable core value of the extant faculty. Once identified, these values can inform a customized survey for estimating the value congruence of potential hires.

INTRODUCTION

One of the most difficult decisions facing any marketing department is selecting the job applicant to fill a teaching vacancy. Department faculty hope that new hires will stay for many years and become productive. In this era of modest academic budgets, universities often cannot afford to replace departing faculty.

The costs associated with faculty turnover are well-known and include direct costs, such as the increased salaries paid to a new faculty member when market rates exceed current pay levels. Indirect costs, which are at best difficult to quantify, include the loss of institutional memory and alumni loyalty. Each faculty's goal is to hire applicants who will be long-term assets to their university, thereby reducing the probability of repeatedly incurring such turnover costs.

If organizations are composed of similar people because such people are more productive and adapt more quickly to their work environment (Ostroff and Rothausen 1997), and if people seek organizations with congruent characteristics, then formal assessments of organizations' values should promote good employee-organization fits. Our goal is to offer one way for academic departments to make such assessments and to develop value-congruence surveys for new hires. After a brief overview of the relevant psychology and management literatures, we (1) posit the universe of core work-related values within academic departments in universities/colleges, (2) trace how a subset of those values came to characterize the culture of one department, and (3) show how this department might develop a formal fit-assessment survey grounded in these core values.

PERSONALITY AND WORK SUCCESS

By socializing new employees, organizations further align the values and personalities of their employees (Chatman 1991). Through their legends and myths, organizations indoctrinate their new members; through

Personality is a complex mix of inherent characteristics and environmental influences (Rosenzweig and Fisher 1997). In the business-related literature, the most commonly used classification scheme for classifying personality is Eysenck's model, first published in 1947 (Paunonen 1998). This model has been expanded from the original three factors and is now referred to as the 'Big Five' factors of personality model (Paunonen 1998). Each factor defines a distinct personality type. Management and industrial psychologists have found that these five factors relate to the fit between employees and their work environment (Thomas, Moore and Scott 1996).

Because workplace success depends on the interplay between employees and their work environment, personality tests alone are poor predictors of work behavior and thus are poor predictors of employment success (Furnham 1997). Clearly, assessments of each employee's personality cannot capture the complex relationship between a set of employees and their work environment. To best predict organizational fit, organizations should assess both employee personalities and organizational culture.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Organizational culture is defined by the shared values and shared practices that affect organizational members (Hofstede et al. 1990; Schein 1990). Once institutionalized, these values become a crucial component of organizational personality; organizations use these shared values to justify their practices (George 1992). Organizational practices—organizational "values, rituals, heroes, and symbols" (Hofstede et al. 1990)—are meaningful to employees and direct their behaviors.

Each organization has a unique culture that is formed by the employees and environment of its past and present—in other words, its history. An organization's founders establish the initial values, policies, and procedures that institutionalize those values. Current organizational members interpret those initial values and develop practices that reveal the extent to which the founders' values have been institutionalized and internalized (Schein 1990).

their rituals, organizations reveal their core values to new members (Hofstede et al. 1990). The more vigorously organizations try to influence their members—especially their new members—the more similarity

between their values and their members' values (Chatman 1991). Ultimately, the longest-tenured employees share many personal characteristics and are the most value congruent (Kristof 1996; Meir, Melamed, and Dinur 1995). Job satisfaction, job tenure, and intentions to stay with a job are related to value congruence (Chatman 1991; Furnham 1997). Because the subtle components of organizational culture are not self-evident, the method used to define organizational culture should be sensitive to deeply ingrained, but not always conscious, values and beliefs. Our proposed method, grounded in the holistic perspective, should satisfy this constraint.

ORGANIZATIONAL FIT

Organizational fit was first conceived as the match between job requirements and employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities (Caston and Briato 1985). Recently, organizational fit was re-conceived as the match between the norms and beliefs of organizations and their employees' values, beliefs, and personality traits (Saks and Ashforth 1997). Both conceptualizations suggest that employees fit an organization when their job-related attributes match their work environment (Ostroff and Rothausen 1997). Although the fit between employees and their organizations is never perfect, successful employees typically share the dominant characteristics of their organizations (Cable and Judge 1996).

Psychologists and management experts contend that organizations dominated by good-fitting employees are highly effective because such employees are more satisfied, more committed, and more productive, than other employees (Saks and Ashforth 1997). Incongruent employees are often absent, frustrated, stressed, anxious, burned out, and physically ill (Furnham and Walsh 1990; Meir, Melamed, and Dinur 1995), all which inhibit personal and organizational productivity.

Employee-organization fit is achieved through an attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) cycle (Kristof 1996). In the attraction phase, people seek organizations with congruent characteristics; in the selection phase, organizations hire people with needed competencies and congruent attributes (Cable and Judge 1996); in the attrition phase, the initial heterogeneity of the hiring process yields to attrition (i.e., employees who fail to achieve organizational congruence resign). Thus, "the people in one organization will be more similar to each other than to people in another organization" (Ostroff and Rothausen 1997, p.175), even in industries with similar firm structures, such as accounting (Chatman 1991; Miner, Crane, and Vandenberg 1994).

This inter-employee homogeneity extends to demographic variables. People who are "demographically similar to other organizational members enjoy important benefits that less similar individuals are less likely to receive" (Cable and Judge 1996, p.295). Demographic similarity to ones' co-workers is a strong predictor of work experiences and work outcomes (Kirchmeyer 1995) because of the similar-attraction effect (i.e., high attraction to similar others encourages frequent communication, high social integration, and a desire to maintain affiliation (Kirchmeyer 1995)). Here, demographic similarity is defined not necessarily in terms of race, ethnicity and gender, but more in terms of education, training and experience.

To hire the best replacement faculty, many psychologists and management experts might argue that faculty members should consider employee-organization fit. As in all businesses, there is a strong relationship between personality and organizational fit in academic departments. Such departments now rely on informal fit-assessment procedures; the proposed method offers departments a way to develop a formal value-congruence assessment procedure.

THE DEPARTMENT-HISTORY METHOD

Qualitative research methods provide one way to uncover an organization's evolving set of rituals, heroes, and symbols (Hofstede, et al. 1990). Such research is often used to uncover veiled information about consumers (Stern, Thompson, and Arnould 1998). We posit that the effect of a department's history on its current practices is not self-evident. By tracing its history, a department may reveal the core values that motivate its current practices. Once these values are delineated, a department can use them to create a formal fit-assessment survey.

Suggested Research Technology

To trace a department's history, we propose a method that employs a textual analysis tool like NUD*IST (Richards and Richards 1994). NUD*IST (Non-Numerical Unstructured Data Indexing, Searching and Theory Building) is a software package used by qualitative researchers to identify patterns in responses to open-ended questions, or in focus groups (i.e., to locate the interrelationships in different peoples' answers) (Fleenor 1998). Researchers can use NUD*IST from either the theory down to the data or from the data up to the theory (Richards and Richards 1994); if the former, then researchers use the coding tools in NUD*IST to search the text for theory-supporting data.

As the proposed method takes a theory down to the data approach, the first step is to identify a department's core values. As with all organizations, we posit that successful academic hires must share their departments' core values. To suggest the current core work-related values of university faculty, we consulted the recent literature; we located only one recent study conducted in a secondary school setting (Ostroff and Rothausen 1997). This study suggests nine core values for educators: growth, innovation, autonomy, achievement, participation, cooperation, warmth, hierarchy, and structure.

Although universities are educational institutions, they are generally viewed as more similar to professional organizations than to secondary schools. Relative to other organizations, professional organizations: (1) have less bureaucratic management; (2) derive leadership from professional competence; (3) rely on personal motivation to fuel production; (4) assume its members are socialized-indoctrinated about professional values, norms, ethical precepts, and codes-during their professional training; (5) condone professional loyalty over organizational loyalty; (6) assume work-related satisfaction derives from professional achievement; and (7) assume its members excel when their role requirements match their motivational levels (Miner, Crane, and Vandenberg 1994).

Research on professional organizations suggests that five role prescriptions combine with individual motivations to produce successful workers and work environments. These prescriptions are (1) the desire to learn and to acquire knowledge, (2) the desire for independence, (3) the desire to acquire status, (4) the desire to help others, and (5) value-based identification with the profession (Miner, Crane, and Vandenberg 1994).

Absent current research on the intra-departmental work values of university/college faculty, we assumed that this value set is the intersection of value sets for both secondary schools and professional organizations. As neither hierarchy (i.e., locus of authority in supervisory personnel) nor structure (i.e., intra-organizational formality and constraint) characterize either secondary schools or professional organizations, both values were dropped as possible core values; thus, we assumed that the possible core values are growth, autonomy, innovation, achievement, cooperation, participation, and warmth. We posit that the department under study will have held these values throughout its history and that these values were held in a consistent order of importance.

SAMPLE APPLICATION

We interviewed all members of the marketing faculty at

one major state university in the southwestern U.S. and asked them to discuss the history of their department. Two doctoral students in marketing, trained in qualitative research methodologies and questioning, conducted informal interviews that lasted up to one hour. Faculty were told that the interviews were part of a class project meant to record the history of the department.

Once all the interviews were conducted, the tapes were transcribed into text files that were then transferred to NUD*IST. Next, the text search tool in NUD*IST was used to search for references to growth, autonomy, innovation, achievement, cooperation, participation, and warmth. Once located within the text, the surrounding text was examined to ensure that the notion was used as per our framework. The text was then coded for one of the seven values. Next, each value was ranked by the number of times it appeared in the text and the number of separate individuals who discussed that value. We concluded that the most-often mentioned values were the most salient for this department and should be held by any new hires to maximize intra-departmental value congruence.

Faculty Profile

At the time of the interviews, all the previous chairmen remained on staff. The tenures of the marketing faculty ranged from five to seventeen years; all nine faculty—three chairmen and six other faculty—were tenured. The oldest member of the marketing department, who was the first chairman of the joint marketing-and-business-law department, joined the faculty in 1985. We considered the first chairman to be the founder of the department and used his text as the founding story of the department.

All faculty are Caucasian; one is female. With one exception, all faculty are married; none have young children and five have adult children. The three chairmen hold doctorates from the same state university in the northwestern U.S.; the other faculty hold doctorates from major state universities. Other than Ph.D.-granting university, no other background questions were asked.

Results

The text search and re-interviews of several historically key faculty revealed a distinct ordering of the aforementioned seven dimensions. We found that this faculty most valued collegiality or warmth. Collegiality was a stated goal of each department head. The text search revealed many references to the "good feeling" that permeates this department. Each faculty member mentioned this "good feeling" and the importance of "getting along" with everyone; the latter was especially important for new hires (i.e., no "boat rockers"). Many warmth-related comments concerned the department's

departments, a departmental history may not be appropriate if the influence of the founder is no longer a factor. (6) If the existing department culture should not be perpetuated, then hiring those who are congruent with that value set would be inappropriate. Identification of the value set of a dysfunctional department is useful for other purposes but not for hiring people who fit that value set.

References and figures available upon request.

TRACKING THE COVERAGE OF DIRECT MARKETING IN INTRODUCTORY MARKETING TEXTS

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ABSTRACT

Twenty three Principles of Marketing textbooks from 1966 to 1998 are content analyzed to measure how direct marketing is covered and whether its treatment has increased over time. There is a wide variation among current authors in the definition of and the amount of space devoted to the topic. However, generally speaking most of the authors of multi-edition texts have increased their coverage of the topic.

BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION

How completely are the introductory marketing textbooks covering the principles in the field? In particular, there is concern that the field of direct marketing has been neglected in the past. Direct marketing is an area that has evolved theoretically from an emphasis on channels to interactive relationship-building and direct response management. The field also provides a large and increasing amount of career opportunities for newly minted marketing majors.

The amount of money spent on direct marketing has increased dramatically over the last decade. According to the Direct Marketing Association study on *The Economic Impact of Direct Marketing in the United States*, "in 1992, U.S. direct marketing expenditures was 57.2 percent of total advertising expenditures." In 1997, they were 57.8 percent indicating that direct marketing is increasing its share of total advertising expenditures. Direct marketing sales in both consumer and business to business markets consistently outpaced total U.S. sales growth.

The explosion in direct marketing activities and resulting employment growth among companies engaged in these activities raises interesting questions. The most important of which is whether the treatment of direct marketing and related topics have increased in Principles of Marketing textbooks so that it reflects the growth in importance of direct marketing to the economy as well as students' employment opportunities.

METHODOLOGY

This paper will present a content analysis of selected textbooks in Principles of Marketing published between 1966 to 1998. The textbooks selected were from among the market leaders. According to the sales representative from Irwin/McGraw-Hill, the total market size is 350,000 units for the first year sales. Unfortunately, the publishers do not have an exact figure for the market because they can not track used-book sales. Of this market, Perreault and McCarthy has approximately 18% of the market while Boone and Kurtz has a slightly higher share. Market share information was not available for the other texts included.

Content analysis allows for the objective, systematic, and quantified analysis of message characteristics of one or more communications (Kasarjian 1977). This study will analyze how direct marketing is defined, which topics within direct marketing are included, and how much space is devoted to these topics. The analysis will include: 1) the definition of direct marketing and how it has changed over time, 2) which direct marketing media categories are included and if there were changes over time, 3) how much space is given to topics in direct marketing, and 4) how direct marketing is integrated into marketing mix discussions.

PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

Thus far, twenty-three textbooks were examined. The authors concentrated on textbooks that succeeded in publishing more than one edition with the exception of two textbooks published in 1967 which were included for purposes of providing a benchmark. At this initial stage, the authors have not yet designed a taxonomy that could compare treatments across different authors. Preliminary findings involving different editions from the same authors are provided.

Don Schultz (1995) declared that defining direct marketing is very important because "it

defines what we are and what we do. Let's start trying to define what we mean by direct marketing. If we don't, I fear we will find that what you are talking about when you say direct marketing may have absolutely no relationship to what I consider direct marketing. And for an academic discipline that is the worst of all possible worlds."

Figure 1 shows the definitions of Direct Marketing across the different authors as well as the date that these were included in the respective texts. The definition provided by the Direct Marketing Association (DMA) is also included for purposes of comparison. The DMA definition included three components, namely: 1) interactive, 2) uses one or more advertising medium, and 3) measurable response. The other definitions tend to include one or two components and not all three with the possible exception of Kotler and Armstrong (1996).

Table 1 shows the extent of direct marketing coverage found in McCarthy and Perreault's *Basic Marketing, A Managerial Approach* textbook. It indicates the total number of column inches devoted to direct marketing topics found in four of the twelve editions, the number of pages indicated in the index. The table shows marginal increase from 6 ½ inches in 1984 to 7 in 1990, then a drastic increase to 22 ½ inches in 1996. The number of pages cited in the index also increased from 2 in 1984 to 5 in 1996.

FIGURE 1

Definitions of Direct Marketing (Latest Editions)

- "An interactive system of marketing which uses one or more advertising media to effect a measurable response and/or transaction at any location" (*DMA*)
- "Direct communication between a seller and an individual customer using a promotion method other than face to face personal selling" (*Perreault and McCarthy, 1996*)
- "Exposing a consumer to information about a good or services through a nonpersonal medium and convincing the consumer to respond with an order" (*Solomon and Stuart, 1997*)

- "Techniques used to get customers to buy from their homes, including direct mail, catalogs and mail order, telemarketing and electronic retailing" (*Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, 1996*)

- "Marketing through various advertising media that interact directly with consumers, generally calling for consumers to make a direct response" (*Kotler and Armstrong, 1996*)

- "Occurs when a consumer is first exposed to a good or service by a nonpersonal medium (such as direct mail, TV, radio, magazine, newspaper or PC) and then orders by mail, phone, PC" (*Evans and Berman, 1997*)

- "Marketing that uses advertising telephone sales or other communications to elicit a direct response from consumers" (*Zikmund and d'Amico, 1996*)

- "Direct communications other than personal sales contacts between buyer and seller" (*Boone and Kurtz, 1998*)

TABLE 1

DM Coverage - McCarthy and Perreault

Year	No. of Inches	Pages in Index
1996	22 ½	5
1990	7	3
1987	7 ¼	3
1984	6 ½	2

TABLE 2

DM Coverage - Lamb, Hair, McDaniel

Year	No. of Inches	Pages in Index
1996	53	16
1994	34 ½	16
1992	20 ¾	9

Table 2 shows the gradual increase in the coverage of direct marketing in the Lamb, Hair, McDaniel *Principles of Marketing* text from its first

edition in 1992 to its third edition in 1996. Topics were found in both the chapter on retailing and the chapter on advertising, sales promotion and publicity. The amount of total coverage increased gradually from 20 ¾ inches in 1992 to 34 ½ in 1994 and then to 53 inches in 1996.

TABLE 3

DM Coverage - Kotler and Armstrong

Year	No. of Inches	Pages in Index
1996	87	18
1991	39 ¼	16
1989	24 ½	12
1986*		4

* this was the 3rd edition by Kotler with no co-author

Table 3 shows the coverage in the Kotler and Armstrong *Principles of Marketing* text. The third edition with only Kotler as the author did not contain references to direct marketing. After the addition of the co-author, Armstrong, more and more coverage of direct marketing was included to total 87 column inches in the latest edition examined.

TABLE 4

DM Coverage - Evans and Berman

Year	No. of Inches	Pages in Index
1997	29 ½	17
1994	35 ¼	16
1987	10 ¼	20

Table 4 has the data for three editions of Evans and Berman. The data shows some decrease in number of column inches devoted to direct marketing from 34 ¼ in 1994 to 29 ½ in the 1997 edition.

Table 5 contained data for three editions of Zikmund and D'Amico. The editions reviewed consisted of two from the 1980s and the most current one. Thus, the contrast is much more dramatic because editions between 1989 and 1996 are yet to be reviewed. It is however, useful to compare 8 column inches on direct marketing in 1989 to 43 ½ column inches for 1996.

TABLE 5

DM Coverage - Zikmund and D'Amico

Year	No. of Inches	Pages in Index
1996	43 ½	22
1989	8	5
1986	3 ¼	3

Table 6 may be even more drastic. The latest edition obtained for Boone and Kurtz is published in 1998 and this edition contained 253 ¾ column inches, the most ever found. In contrast, only 20 ½ was found for 1986. On the other hand, the 20 ½ inches in 1986 was still the highest recorded for the period. With 15 column inches of coverage in 1980, these authors seem to have led the others in the extent of its treatment of the topic of direct marketing.

TABLE 6

DM Coverage - Boone and Kurtz

Year	No. of Inches	Pages in Index
1998	253 ¾	127
1986	20 ½	13
1980	15	8

CONCLUSION

Clearly, more analysis must be done on the data already gathered. By combing through the various texts, the authors have found a wide variation in terminology and methods of treating the various topics of direct marketing. There has been a dramatic increase in coverage of direct marketing in the last few years. Table 7 shows a comparison of the amount of coverage of direct marketing topics across the current editions of the textbooks examined. The table shows a wide disparity in amount of space devoted to direct marketing ranging from 22 1/2 inches for the Perreault and McCarthy text of 1996 to 87 inches for Kotler and Armstrong of 1996 to 253 3/4 inches for the Boone and Kurtz text of 1998. This latest edition showed considerable integration of topics throughout the text.

TABLE 7

Amount of Coverage - Current Editions

Author	Inches
Boone & Kurtz (1998)	253 3/4
Evans & Berman (1997)	29 1/2
Kotler & Armstrong (1996)	87
Lamb Hair McDaniel (1996)	53
Perreault & McCarthy	22 1/2
Zikmund & d'Amico	43 1/2

Some texts merely describe various media used. Others have greatly expanded their treatment largely because of the explosion in the use of the PC and the internet. Some consensus among authors will have to be reached about what direct marketing is and what it includes. It is expected that new editions will provide a more integrated approach similar to that of Boone and Kurtz.

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CULTURAL DIMENSIONS AND ADVERTISING: A COMPARISON OF THREE COUNTRIES

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INTRODUCTION

Researchers have examined how trade barriers affect business internationally, but little research has examined how culture affects advertising strategies. Teaching these skills has usually been accomplished by case studies, but a more pro-active, hands-on approach may be more effective.

This study applies Hofstede's dimensions to understand an ad campaign developed for the U.S. and then required students to develop a campaign strategy for Malaysia and Sweden. Understanding how other cultures react to advertising strategies can help students plan better advertising strategies to use when entering a new market. The exercise also helps students internalize the broad nature of culture and appreciate cultural differences and similarities.

Culture

Loudon and Della Britta (1979) outline a number of issues important in analyzing cross-cultural consumer behavior. Among those factors most relevant to promotion are: the relevant motivations in the culture; the broad cultural values relevant to the product; the characteristic forms of decision-making; and the promotional methods appropriate to the culture. Thus, cultural differences may influence the effectiveness of promotional campaigns in various societies. While trade barriers are coming down, cultural barriers are not (Miller 1995). Therefore, studying cultural values and putting them to practical use can help students better understand this important factor.

Hofstede's Dimensions

Hofstede describes four cultural dimensions that represent the value systems of over 40 countries: masculinity; individualism; uncertainty avoidance; and power distance (Hofstede 1980).

Masculinity "refers to the degree of traditionally

masculine values -- assertiveness, materialism, and a lack of concern for others that prevail in a society. Power distance measures the extent of inequality among individuals in a culture. Cultures with a small power distance de-emphasize inequality and seek equality in power, status, and wealth (Sudhir and Barnes 1992). Uncertainty avoidance is the degree to which people in a society feel threatened by ambiguous situations. Strong uncertainty avoidance societies express fear of uncertainty, avoid risks and exhibit little aggressiveness. Finally, individualism defines the degree to which people in a society look after themselves and neglect the needs of the broader society. Low individualism societies express more collectivism, a need of belonging to the group and a belief of group decision instead of individual decisions (Deresky 1997).

The degree to which each culture is influenced by their cultural values, measured by how they score on the Hofstede's dimensions, may provide clues as to which values should be expressed in advertisements, in order to optimize effectiveness. By performing such an exercise, students should gain a deeper understanding of culture, cultural differences, and why advertising strategies may be more or less effective in different cultures.

Advertising Strategies

Planning an advertising strategy for one's own country poses a difficult enough task, but planning advertising strategies for different countries requires not only marketing skills, but also knowledge of that culture. Albers-Miller (1995) suggests that "[i]f advertising differences across cultures are predictable at least to some extent, the task of the advertiser is simplified" (pg. 2). Kansa (1996) indicates that human wants and needs are universal, but the way to address them is not.

One recent study used Hofstede's value dimensions to understand if advertisements mirrored cultural differences (Albers-Miller and Gelb 1996). Using content analyses of advertisements in business publications, this study tended to confirm the use of Hofstede's dimensions in a majority of the ads tested.

Using Hofstede's dimensions to plan an international advertising strategy demands keeping in mind what attracts people in international markets and what does not. In other words, an effective advertising strategy must consider the unique cultural values of the target society. For example, strong uncertainty avoidance cultures will probably respond to ads that emphasize uncertainty reducing attributes, such as well-known brand names, superior warranties, and money back guarantees. Strong uncertainty avoidance cultures demonstrate greater preference and tolerance for hard-sell approaches. Weak uncertainty avoidance cultures "evinced greater receptivity to a soft-sell approach and non-aggressive sales techniques" (Sudhir 1992, pg. 9).

Low masculinity/high femininity cultures might relate better to ads that promote environmental concern. In high individualism societies, promotion strategies could demonstrate a product's variety and luxury, appealing to self-image. High individualism societies prefer to see in ads the characteristics of the product that will maximize self-interest, while societies with low individualism will be more interested in promotion strategies that benefit everyone in the society. In cultures with large power distance, effective ads emphasize the status, rather than function of the product. Earning trust, therefore, is more difficult in large power distance societies (Sudhir, 1992).

Three Divergent Markets

Three divergent international markets were selected for the study. The U.S. was chosen as a base for comparison. Malaysia and Sweden was selected to demonstrate two different clusters of Hofstede's dimensions model.

The choice of these countries has realism in that competitive marketers search out international markets that offer new opportunities. The markets that hold the greatest potential for dramatic increases in U.S. exports are not our traditional trading partners in Europe and Japan, which now account for the overwhelming bulk of trade, but the ten Big Emerging Markets, including Malaysia (BEM's Home Page). The scores on the four cultural dimensions for each country are listed in the Table (Deresky 1997).

Table. Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

	Malaysia	Sweden	United States
Power Distance	98	33	40
Masculinity	50	9	62
Uncertainty Avoidance	37	29	45
Individualism	26	71	90

Comparing the three countries, one observes that the scores were very similar for uncertainty avoidance. Malaysia, Sweden and the United States apparently are not afraid of taking risks or being in ambiguous situations. The other dimension scores show more variance. The low power distance scores for Sweden and the U.S. suggest that these societies prefer more equality, while titles and status formality have less importance. In contrast, Malaysia scored 98 in power distance; suggesting that this society values hierarchy and that employees would be expected to respect authority figures.

As for masculinity, Malaysia and the U.S. had an average score of 50 and 62, while Sweden differed greatly by scoring a 9. Sweden's score indicates a society placing great value on feminine characteristics, such as nurturing and consensus building. For example, Swedish women are expected to work and "parents are given the option of paternity or maternity leave care for older children" (Adler, 1990, pg. 55).

Finally, individualism scores vary greatly between the three countries. Malaysia's score of 26 shows that this society values doing things for and with groups, especially for the good of the larger society. Sweden measured a score of 71, suggesting that this society is somewhat individualistic, but not as much as the U.S., with a score of 90. In the U.S. people prefer to work as individuals, caring mostly about their own needs and those of their immediate families. In the U.S., society's needs are less important. These scores allow one to compare and contrast the three countries on specific cultural dimensions, which may suggest appropriate promotional strategies for each country.

DEVELOPING AN ADVERTISING STRATEGY

The following examples of advertising strategies for Malaysia and Sweden were planned using Hofstede's value dimensions. As a basis for comparison, ads were gathered from U.S. sources to observe the way marketers advertise their computers and to investigate which, if any, of Hofstede's cultural dimensions were observed in the ads. The product used as an example for the advertising strategies was a personal computer system. This was assumed to be a product in which consumers in all three countries might be familiar and highly involved, thus reducing chances for involvement level bias. The target market was assumed to be higher educated consumers with high incomes.

United States

From the United States, four different computer ads were obtained from *Fortune* and *Business Week* magazines. These magazines were assumed to be commonly read by the target market. The first ad was for an Hitachi PC. In this two-page ad, the first page includes a well-dressed businessman sitting in a comfortable chair outside of a building and people walking by with their notebook PC's. The next page emphasizes 15 significant features of the PC. "With Fax/Modem and LAN you're ready to influence events from wherever you do business." This ad mentions how the consumer will save time by doing business from any location.

The second ad was a two-page ad for Compaq

computers, describing different PC's, their features and costs. "The best technology money can buy? Or the best technology for the money?" This ad emphasizes money, performance and value. The third ad is also from Compaq computers and is a one-page ad including a computer, but half of the page is for a picture of two proud parents with their daughter in her graduation gown. "We did our homework to help the kids do theirs." This ad attracts the consumer by letting them know that with Compaq computers, the consumer's children will do better in school. Everyone in the family will be able to use this easy computer. Finally, the last two page ad is for Hewlett Packard and includes a very small paragraph at the bottom of the first page stating a little about the computer, but the whole page was used for one sentence: "You may be employed by a company, but you work for yourself." On the next page a woman works in her bed late at night.

The U.S. scored high in individualism and somewhat high in masculinity. Most of these ads have used these dimensions to attract the consumer's attention. In the four ads, there are pictures of one person working alone or there are pictures of a family. As an individualistic society, U.S. consumers will be attracted to ads that show product characteristics that will benefit the individual consumer, but not necessarily the whole society. Thus, the last ad suggests that although a consumer might be employed by someone else, as an individual, one wants what is personally best for herself.

In addition, all these ads mention the performance and value of the PC's, and how the consumers will improve the quality of their work by using these computers. For a high masculinity culture, materialism is important, and the marketers have used this concept in their ads. For example in the U.S., which scored low in uncertainty avoidance and power distance, no celebrities or people of high authority endorse the product because U.S. consumers are concerned more about the value of the product than who is endorsing the products. Also, few ads mention money back guarantees or warranties, but the ads do mention how much the consumer receives for what he or she pays.

Malaysia

The Table indicates that Malaysia's scores exceed the average in power distance and masculinity. Thus, an appropriate promotion strategy for Malaysia would emphasize these two dimensions. For example, an employee may be asking his boss after working hours what his thoughts are about a computer system that the employee would like to purchase. Portraying the employee's boss instead of a friend would be more believable in Malaysia, a high power distance country, where employees respect higher authorities.

Malaysia's low score in individualism suggests that

Malaysians prefer products that benefit their society. Ads might portray the same employee, after he had purchased his computer, sharing the computer system with his family or friends, or suggesting ways in which a computer might benefit the village or the larger society. Emphasis would be on the collectivism attributes of this computer. Also, an effective spokesperson for the ad might have a high level of authority in Malaysia, someone whose opinion consumers would respect and trust. Uncertainty avoidance and masculinity would not be emphasized because Malaysia's scores in these dimensions were average. Malaysia scored low in uncertainty avoidance. Thus, Malaysians are not afraid of taking risks, so emphasizing money back guarantees or warranties would be convenient, but not necessary. Masculinity received a score of 50, so for this dimension showing both masculine and feminine values in Malaysian ads would be appropriate.

Sweden

Sweden scored low in power distance and masculinity. Effective advertising strategies would therefore focus on these two dimensions. Two friends with the same educational level may be talking about computer systems, rather than an employee with his boss, as was the case with Malaysia. A low score in masculinity indicates Sweden subscribes to feminine values, so effective ads may have a woman buying the computer system or acting as spokesperson to emphasize how concerned she is in selling the best computer systems to her customers. An effective ad may mention how this computer company is concerned with environmental issues. Low masculinity countries are more concerned about environmental issues than high masculine countries. Feminist values also mean a concern for quality of life, so the ads might mention that by using this computer, consumers would have more time to spend with family and friends. The ad may also mention how the consumer's quality of work will improve with the product. Sweden scored very low in uncertainty avoidance and, as in the case with Malaysia, Swedes are willing to take risks. Again, emphasizing risk-free attributes would be convenient, but not necessary.

The score for individualism was a 71, this indicates that Sweden is somewhat an individualistic society. An effective ad would have the consumer looking at different personal computers, but later the consumer would be making the final decision together with his family or friends.

CONCLUSION

This study attempted to observe how culture influences the way consumers perceive advertising and how using Hofstede's dimensions might facilitate learning

about cultural differences and applying this knowledge in developing advertising strategies for other countries. The advertising strategies planned for Malaysia and Sweden were designed using Hofstede's four dimensions. These countries' advertising strategies differed from one other depending on the scores each country received for Hofstede's four dimensions. As a learning tool, the effectiveness of the exercise is in the understanding of Hofstede's cultural dimensions and in their applications in various cultures. Students must apply critical thinking skills and imagination to build effective ad campaigns in other cultures.

Using Hofstede's value dimensions is useful from another pedagogical perspective. Students may question the universality of the dimensions. Even within a relatively homogeneous society, do the value dimensions apply to all segments? Since the value dimensions were validated using Western observers, there may also be a Western bias to the dimensions, which can be explored in the context of non-Western societies. Perhaps there are other dimensions that need to be considered in a specific society. Finally, Hofstede's value dimensions were developed within an organizational framework. While they have been often generalized to marketing and consumer behavior settings, are these valid assumptions?

In addition to the questions posed regarding Hofstede's value dimensions, broader questions may also be discussed regarding applicability of ad campaigns across societies and the use of local experts in developing locally-specific ad campaigns. Certainly the marketing literature is replete with examples of cultural mistakes and insensitivities in advertising. In an effort to capitalize on economies of scale, some ads may send the wrong message in a particular culture. Employing local experts to screen ads for language and other communication nuances that may send an inappropriate message is often good insurance. Ideally, these natives to a culture should be involved early in the planning process. Finally, while culture is traditionally thought to change at a rather slow pace, the rapid spread of technology, including the World Wide Web, may accelerate these changes. International marketers must be aware of these changes, subtle though they may be, to more effectively satisfy consumers in all markets.

These questions, and others, may be fruitful springboards for class discussion.

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References furnished upon request. Please contact Peter Raven at Seattle University.

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF CROSS-NATIONAL DIFFERENCES IN PERCEPTIONS OF FIT BETWEEN A BRAND AND ITS EXTENSION

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ABSTRACT

In this study, we found that there were some differences in how consumers from different national cultures, the U.S., Japan, and Germany, perceived the two dimensions of fit, product category fit and brand image fit, between a parent brand and its hypothetical extension. Similarly, differences in perception were also observed with the various facets or components of these two dimensions of fit.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Perceptions of Fit Between a Brand and its Extension

The management of brands is one of the quintessential marketing activities. Recent academic research has focused on consumer evaluation of brand extensions (new products introduced using the name of an existing brand). Factors influencing consumer attitude toward a brand extension include attitude toward the parent brand, and perceptions of fit or similarity between the parent brand and the extension (Aaker and Keller 1990; Park, Milberg, and Lawson 1991).

Fit between the parent brand and the extension, the focus of this paper, has been conceived and operationalized in different ways by different researchers. Some researchers have left it to consumers to decide overall fit (Boush and Loken 1991). Others have asked consumers about some specific facets of fit such as complementarity, substitutability, and similarity of manufacturing process (Aaker and Keller 1990) or consistency with a parent brand's symbolic or functional concept (Park, Milberg, and Lawson 1991).

In a recent study, Bhat and Reddy (1997) proposed a comprehensive typology of consumer perceptions of fit, and empirically demonstrated that perceived fit comprised two dimensions, 1) product category fit (similarity of the product

categories of the parent brand and the extension), and 2) brand image fit (fit of the extension with the parent brand's non-product associations). They also examined the bases of these types of fit (termed facets in this paper). Product category fit may be based on such facets as similarity of raw materials used, manufacturing or technology, usage (including complementarity and substitutability), markets or users, and place of sale. Brand image fit, on the other hand, comprises the fit of the extension with the specific attributes of the parent brand, including the brand's quality and price level. Bhat and Reddy's (1997) scale of the overall dimensions of fit and their underlying facets was based on a U.S. sample. It would be interesting to see whether non-U.S. consumers have similar views on perceived fit and its facets.

Cross-National Differences

The increasing globalization of business has meant that some brands are available in a number of countries. Examples include Coca Cola, Sony, McDonalds, Motorola, Nike, and Ericsson.

As a brand goes global, a manager needs to understand consumer attitudes and perceptions about the brand in foreign countries. If consumer attitudes are similar to those in the U.S., little change is necessary in brand strategy. It therefore becomes crucial to know whether consumer attitudes toward that brand are similar to or different from those in the U.S.

Some empirical research is supportive of the possibility of differences across national cultures. For example, a content analysis of print ads in three Chinese societies, Hong Kong, China, and Taiwan, revealed marked differences in the types of appeals used in the ads (Tse, Belk, and Zhou 1989). Similarly, Zandpour, Chang, and Catalano (1992) reported differences in the approaches used in U.S., French, and Taiwanese ads. Obviously, differences in the appeals or

statements about whether the extension was 1) similar to (SIMILAR) and 2) like (LIKE) a watch for Seiko or a cellular phone for Motorola. The individual facets of product category fit were measured with statements about how the extension related to the core parent brand product in the following contexts: 1) usage on similar occasions (SIMILAR OCCASIONS), 2) sold in similar stores (SIMILAR STORES), 3) physical resemblance (RESEMBLANCE), 4) usage by similar people (SIMILAR USERS), 5) usage instead (SUBSTITUTABLE), 6) usage of different technologies in manufacture (DIFFERENT TECHNOLOGY), 7) similar uses (SIMILAR USES), 8) similar features (SIMILAR FEATURES), 9) usage together (COMPLEMENTARY), 10) similar materials (SIMILAR MATERIALS), 11) similar manufacturing (SIMILAR MANUFACTURING), and 12) similar benefits (SIMILAR BENEFITS).

General brand image fit was measured with items about whether the extension was not a typical brand product (NOT TYPICAL), and whether the extension was a good example of the type of products for which the brand was well known for (GOOD EXAMPLE). The specific facets of brand image fit were measured with items about the extension's fit with each of the attributes identified with the parent brand in the pretest. Lastly, respondents supplied demographic information.

Data Collection

International students attending the first day of orientation in a large university in California and for whom this was the first visit to the U.S. were requested to participate in this survey. This was done to ensure that they were not biased in their responses by what they had seen in the U.S. Next, responses were obtained from U.S. students at the same university. The number of usable surveys from the U.S., Japanese, and German students was 22, 30, and 17 respectively.

RESULTS

Data collected from students from three countries, the U.S., Japan, and Germany, were analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) to detect the existence of overall differences in perceptions of the different types of fit among the three countries. Multiple comparisons to detect differences between pairs of the countries were then made using Tukey's Studentized Range (HSD) test. For

both tests, statistical significance was assessed at $\alpha = .05$.

For the Seiko razor, there were no differences observed among the countries with respect to the two measures of general product category fit and brand image fit. However, when the individual facets of product category fit were considered, differences in fit perceptions among the countries were noted concerning SIMILAR STORES, RESEMBLANCE, SIMILAR USES, SIMILAR MATERIALS, and SIMILAR MANUFACTURING. Further investigation revealed that Americans tended to see less similarity in the types of stores in which a razor and a watch could be sold than the Japanese. Americans and Germans tended to see little physical resemblance between razors and watches, relative to the Japanese. Americans and Japanese were more in agreement on the lack of similarity of materials used in razors and watches than the Germans were. Lastly, Germans tended to find the manufacturing processes for watches and razors less similar than the Americans did.

As far as the individual facets of brand image fit are concerned, differences among the three countries were limited to peoples' perceptions of similarity of the extension's reliability with that of the parent brand. This difference could be attributed to the fact that the Americans and the Germans thought the Seiko razor's reliability was closer to the Seiko parent brand's reliability than the Japanese.

For the Motorola watch, there were differences among the countries with respect to general product category fit. This difference could be attributed to the higher ratings of the Japanese relative to the others on the items SIMILAR and LIKE. When individual facets of fit are considered, differences in fit perceptions between the countries were noted with regard to SIMILAR OCCASIONS, SUBSTITUTABLE, SIMILAR USES, and SIMILAR BENEFITS. When examining differences between pairs of countries, the Japanese felt that the watch and the cellular phone were used on more similar occasions and had more similar uses than the Germans. The Japanese considered the watch more of a substitute for a cellular phone than the Americans or the Germans. The similarity of benefits offered by a watch and a phone was also higher according to the Japanese.

Regarding the brand image fit of the Motorola watch, statistically significant differences were noted among the three countries with both

measures of general brand image fit. Investigating these differences further, it was noted that the Americans were more likely than the Japanese to regard the Motorola watch extension as typical of the Motorola brand, but the Japanese were more likely to regard the extension as a good example of the Motorola brand than the Germans. When the individual facets of brand image fit are considered, the Germans were not as likely as the Americans or the Japanese to regard the Motorola watch as being as high tech as the Motorola brand. At the same time, the Americans were more likely to consider the Motorola watch to be as reliable as other Motorola products than the Japanese and the Germans.

CONCLUSIONS

The objective of this study was to explore whether consumers' perceptions of the fit between a brand and its extension were similar across different national cultures. Bhat and Reddy's (1997) scales of the dimensions of fit and the bases or facets underlying these dimensions were used to compare these expected differences. Generally, we expected to see that U.S. consumers would judge extensions to be less similar than Germans and in turn, Germans would judge extensions to be less similar than the Japanese.

Our results suggest that there are a large number of similarities as well as differences in the way consumers in different cultures construe fit. The number of differences between individual pairs of countries was quite high with one extension, the Motorola watch. As expected, on most dimensions and facets of fit, Americans were less likely to rate an extension as fitting the parent brand than the Germans or the Japanese. Similarly, the Germans were less likely to see similarities than the Japanese.

Replication with more brands, a wider range of extensions, a larger pool of nations, and a diversity of consumer subjects would be helpful in generalizing the findings of this study. The differences observed among consumers in different nations in our study does point to the need for testing theories and measures across national cultures. Managers would benefit from studying cross-national differences in consumer attitudes and perceptions with respect to fit in deciding to introduce extensions and to localize marketing strategies.

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Locations of Observation

Three central locations were selected for observation: the Silom financial district (located in central Bangkok), the Ladprao branch of Central Department Store (located in northern Bangkok), and Ratchawong Ferry Pier (which is a gateway to western Bangkok). These three locations are the major business districts where it is likely to find working people who represent Bangkok's working population.

Time of Observation

The observation was done over five work days of the same week, starting on Monday. The Monday-Friday schedule represents regular work days in Thailand, and the typical work hours in Bangkok are from 8 AM to 5 PM. All five work days must be included so as to meet the objective of the study that has to do with whether office workers dress in accordance with Thailand's traditional colors of the days. While some people also work on Saturdays and Sundays, they are usually allowed to dress casually. The weekend was thus excluded from the study because of the study's emphasis on people who wear regular work-related clothes.

Observation Instrument: Contents

Structured observation is compatible with the goals of this study, and a record sheet was designed for this purpose. The record sheet asks for the following information: (1) location of observation, (2) day of the week, (3) a participant's gender, (4) color of the participant's upperwear, and (5) color of the participant's lowerwear. The record sheet lists 13 common colors: white, light blue, dark blue, green, yellow, pink, cream, black, gray, brown, red, orange, and purple. Beyond these 13 common categories, an "others" check box was provided to accommodate the other colors not on the list.

Three observers were assigned to each location. They recorded their data on a record sheet. The data were permanently recorded at the end of each day.

Training Procedure

A meeting was set up to discuss the observation criteria so that all observers could have a mutual understanding regarding what was considered to

be a plain color. Different shades of a color were disregarded. For instance, dark brown, medium brown, and light brown were to be recorded as "brown." In the case of a person wearing two pieces of upperwear with different colors, a major or dominant color was chosen and recorded. The observers were told to ignore those people in company uniforms.

The observers were instructed to watch people who were at least 20 years old, and age determination was based on a person's facial and physical appearances, demeanor, and styles of clothing. In addition, the observers were informed to observe only the people who passed in front of them in one direction. This procedure was necessary so as to avoid recording the same participants more than once.

Each observer's observation time was limited to 45 minutes at one time and at each location. The 45-minute time frame was long enough to gather the needed data before fatigue might set in. This was an attempt to minimize the instrumental decay problem.

SAMPLE

A total of 1,644 people were observed. In terms of sex, there were 672 men and 972 women, accounting for 41% and 59% of the sample respectively.

People who went inside the Silom Complex Building or the Ladprao branch of Central Department Store were found to use their break to have lunch or take care of personal activities (e.g., shopping for household necessities, visiting beauty salons, etc.). In contrast, such activities were more limited at the Ratchawong location where it serves as a junction for a bus terminal and a boat pier. This is the place where people from many parts of town switch their transportation modes.

The three locations were crowded with working people. On the one hand, it was fortunate because so many participants could be observed in an efficient manner. On the other hand, because of the crowd, the observation was also somewhat difficult.

Some people were on their own, while many others showed up in a group. For example, the men who were observed in the Silom and Ladprao

MARKETING IMPLICATIONS

To appeal to women, it is apparent that fashion designers, clothing manufacturers, and retailers should have an inventory that focuses mainly on the black and brown colors. These two colors apply to both upperwear and lowerwear.

It is interesting to note Thai women's recent acceptance of the black color. Traditionally, black was perceived as a color of tragedy, and it was associated with bad luck. In addition, dark-colored clothing seems to be out of place in Thailand where the weather is hot and humid. The embrace of the dark colors in general and the black color in particular is thus surprising. Apparently, women now seem to believe that a dark color enhances their appearance, making them look slimmer and more professional. Also the popularity of dark colors could be attributed to the influence of Western fashion designers.

It appears that Thai men are relatively conservative. As such, compared to women and their color selection, men's color choices are much more limited. Their choices of white and light blue for their upperwear are due to the fact that these colors, not being "loud" or "conspicuous," are considered to be "polite" or "proper." Furthermore, these two colors are versatile in the sense that they are all-purpose colors that are appropriate for many social occasions.

Regarding men's lowerwear, the preferred colors are black and gray. This may be due to the fact that clothing items of these two colors are relatively easy to take care of. In terms of both the upperwear and lowerwear together, a white shirt and a black pair of slacks are the most popular combination. In second place is a combination of a light blue shirt and a pair of slacks. Men probably believe that the white-black combination should enhance their professional appearances.

To some large extent, it may be futile for

marketers to emphasize the traditional color-day association. Their advertisements instead should focus on the most popular colors. There is nothing wrong with featuring a woman in a black dress in an advertisement in order to connote luxury and prestige.

On the other hand, while it is true that the color-day association has weakened considerably, the color-day tradition is not obsolete. Periodically, a marketing campaign based on this tradition could possibly arouse consumer interests.

CONCLUSION

This study has demonstrated that direct observation can yield behavioral information that may provide a basis for a marketing decision. Clothing manufacturers, in planning their production volumes and color assortment, should heed the findings of the study so that they can procure the necessary materials while preventing shortage of a popular color and overstock of a less popular one. This implication applies as well to manufacturers of related items (e.g., scarves, belts, handbags, shoes, and jewelry). These products, in general, should focus on the most popular colors.

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ENHANCING INTERNATIONAL MARKETING COURSES WITH MUSIC

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes the benefits of playing international music during the 10-15 minutes before international marketing classes begin for students arriving early. This simple class enhancement, coupled with a map for students to look at or an appropriate question to ponder, can turn the few minutes before class into valuable learning time and have a positive influence on students' attitudes toward the class.

INTRODUCTION

Music is a powerful mood and behavior influencer, making it an important tool in the marketer's toolbox (Bruner 1990). Music has been shown to affect consumers' preferences for products (Gorn, 1982), consumers' moods and purchase intentions (Alpert and Alpert, 1988), consumers' emotional responses to television commercials (Wintle, 1978), consumers' perceptions of retailers (Herrington, 1994), consumers' perceptions of wait times (Zakay, 1991), consumers' evaluations of services when waits are involved (Hui et al., 1997), and consumers' pace of travel through a store (Milliman, 1982, 1986). Most of us are probably aware of the many uses of music as a marketing tool and have probably discussed these uses in a consumer behavior or a promotion or a retailing class. How many of us use this tool in our own classrooms?

The classroom in which you teach is probably just like every other classroom on campus. It's equipped with desks, a chalkboard, an overhead projection system, and a heating/cooling system that doesn't work very well. Students begin to arrive 10 to 15 minutes before class starts. While they wait for class to start, some chat with friends about who won the game last night or what they are going to do during the upcoming weekend or how hard it was to find a parking space today. Others get comfortable and start to drift off. When the time to start class arrives, you clear your throat and say good morning. Those dozing wake up (more or less), those talking turn their attention to you, the class starts, and the learning process begins.

It's the same classroom, only there is something

different. As students enter the room before class, they are greeted by the sounds of Ana Caram singing bossa nova jazz in Portuguese. On the overhead is a rather odd looking map of the Atlantic basin from a Brazilian perspective. The students who arrive early aren't talking as much about the game last night or what they are going to do next weekend, they are talking about Brazil. One or two students have been to Brazil and start talking about what the country is like. Other students turn to hear more about their classmates' experiences. Some students stare quizzically at the map and realize that maybe the U.S. isn't at the center of everybody's maps. You can see several of the students who usually doze off during this time tapping their feet and waking up. You turn off the CD player, say good morning and turn to a class that is awake, thinking internationally, and that has already started learning.

In which classroom would you rather teach international marketing? It takes very little effort to create the second environment, and the rewards can be significant.

THE BENEFITS OF MUSIC

For the past two years, students attending my international business classes have been greeted by the sounds of music. Each day, the music is from a different country. I arrive 15 to 20 minutes before class with a portable CD/tape player and start playing that day's selection. Most days I have a corresponding map projected on the overhead as students arrive, and I occasionally pose a question about the country to encourage further discussion among students. I choose the music to match what I will be doing in class on that given day. For instance, if I'm going to discuss international franchising using Kentucky Fried Chicken in China as an example, I play music from China. I occasionally match the music to some significant current international event in the news that week.

The benefits of this simple class enhancement have been numerous:

(1) **The music puts students in an international state of mind.** It stimulates students in a way that

WORKING WITH CLIENTS IN EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING EXERCISES: ADVICE FROM THE TRENCHES

Chair: Deborah Cours, California State University Northridge, Department of Marketing, 18111 Nordhoff Street, Northridge, CA 91330-8377; (818) 677-4635

This session highlights several types of experiential projects and the strengths and problems associated with each.

Procuring, Managing, and Supervising Large Projects: Internal and Interdisciplinary Coordination

Judith Hennessey and Deborah Cours, California State University Northridge, 18111 Nordhoff Street, Northridge CA, 91330-8377; (818) 677-2458

These presenters discuss two government-based projects that involved students across the curriculum (and integrated with other departments). The authors share their knowledge regarding the procurement process and management of these projects, including a discussion on the management of interdisciplinary projects and internal coordination across academic departments. They will also discuss their attempt to integrate the project across classes, uniting undergraduate and graduate students, and using the project iteratively across semesters to enhance the speed and quality of learning and the quality of the final product.

Experiential Student Projects: Managing Client Expectations and Maximizing Student Learning and Performance

Brian Jorgensen, Southern Utah University, 351 W. Center Street, Cedar City, UT 84720; (435) 586-5497

Dr. Jorgensen has worked with undergraduate marketing research students on projects for both on-campus organizations and off-campus businesses and non-profit organizations. His presentation focuses on students working with off-campus organizations. Specifically, he discusses the identification and selection of appropriate projects, the assurance of appropriate expectations on the part of client organizations, and ways of meeting specific challenges faced by students. A particular challenge for the professor is maximizing the quality of student projects, while making certain that clients recognize the limitations inherent in the fact that these are

student, rather than professional projects. Dr. Jorgensen also addresses the issue of how to effectively start projects when business students are still being trained on the course concepts.

On-Campus Clients for Student Projects

Bruce Lammers, California State University, Northridge, 18111 Nordhoff Street, Northridge CA 91330-8377; (818) 677-2169

This presentation addresses opportunities for student projects for on-campus organizations. Dr. Lammers has been very successful in conducting projects for various on-campus University groups (e.g. Parking, Copy Center, etc.) in his marketing research and consumer behavior courses. He has implemented the use of team competition on preliminary exercises to screen for a "power team," which is then selected for presentation of the final project to the client. Dr. Lammers will discuss the effectiveness of this tactic as an outcome control mechanism and as a motivator of students. He has also found that the use of University clients often decreases the conflict of expectations that is sometimes experienced with off-campus clients (e.g. business owners). On-campus projects also provide a community service – particularly when done at a public institution such as Cal State Northridge – allowing students to improve the quality of their own University.

Use of Students in Marketing Consultations

James Beckman, University of Redlands, PO Box 1753, Lake Arrowhead, CA 92352; (909) 274-7117, J.D. Bell, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand, and Norton Marks, CSU San Bernardino; (909) 336-6933

This presentation discusses the use of marketing students to support the efforts of academic and private-sector consultants. The ethical and legal requirements for disclosure of their status is discussed. Likewise is the need for their services given the ending of the Federal funding of the Small Business Institute program, the proliferation of small business startups, and frequent

mornings. It also often gives me a little extra energy going into the class.

CONCLUSION

The environment in which we deliver a service is an integral part of the service offering itself. Many of us, however, fail to do anything about the environment in the classrooms in which we teach. Music has been described as a key component of the service environment (Bitner, 1992). While we may have little influence over most of the conditions in our classrooms, we can add music. I have found the music to be a very positive addition to my international business classes, and comments on my student evaluations indicate that students enjoy the music and that it has a positive effect on their attitude toward the class. So if you are looking for a way to put your students into an international state of mind going into your international courses or if you want student learning to begin ten minutes earlier each class period or if you want to stimulate student interest in other parts of the world or if you just want your students to be awake when your classes start, try playing music.

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challenges to the continued existence of established, smaller firms. All three authors have participated in such small business consultations, and share their experiences with regard to pricing, services rendered, and contact with clients and their employees, as well as the educational benefits to students.

Experiential MBA-Marketing Management Class: Linking Students to S.B.D.C. Clients

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A questionnaire was sent in August 1998 to the 24 pre-registered University of Northern Iowa MBA-Marketing Management students to determine their classroom environment preference. Survey results indicated that the students wanted a class that was application-oriented, discussion in nature, project-based, and working with real business problems (vs. cases and computer simulations).

The SBDC personnel sought business people to be matched with the Marketing Management students' industrial/business background and/or interest. The capstone project for the students was to develop an actionable marketing plan for the business person's existing or to-be-developed company. The MBA students met with the SBDC clients on four of the ten class sessions. The final session with the marketing plan presented to the entire group of SBDC clients was held on February 10, 1999.

A pre- and post-assessment instrument, as well as a SWOT analysis of the experiential learning environment project was administered to the students. The strengths, weaknesses, and suggestions for improvement of the experiential MBA Marketing Management class will be shared with WMEA attendees.

Managing the Small Business Institute

Ronald Hagler, California Lutheran University, 60 W. Olsen Rd, Thousand Oaks, CA 91360; (805) 493-3371

In the SBI program, students participate in hands-on learning experiences by providing consulting services to local small business owners, using a field case method. The SBI provides faculty and students with opportunities to engage in active learning while providing a community outreach service. The SBI projects are not limited to marketing problems, and universities differ in which department houses the SBI. However, many small business owners have great need for marketing plans, marketing communication programs, and customer analyses. Dr. Hagler will describe how the SBI program works and will provide some suggestions regarding management of the student-client relationship and monitoring quality of the work.

Sponsored Projects: The General Motors Marketing Internship Program

Katrin R. Harich, California State University Fullerton, School of Business Administration and Economics, Fullerton, CA 92834-6848; (714) 278-4674

The General Motors Marketing Internship Program was originated by Sgro Promo Associates (Sgro recently changed its name to EdVenture Partners), a company consultant to General Motors. The projects that are executed in the GMMI Program provide students with the opportunity to practice in a real-world situation what they learned in class, which fosters motivation, learning, and, as a consequence, makes students much more attractive and valuable future employees. For this project, students design and implement a real-life communication campaign on or off campus. The students present their work in class to their professor, to EdVenture Partners, and General Motors. Moreover, they hand in a comprehensive report (Plans Book) which summarizes their research, their communication plan, as well as implications for future strategies. Dr. Harich describes her experience with this challenging and exciting program and offers advice to others interested in pursuing similar projects.

A ROLE FOR MARKETING PROGRAMS IN UNIVERSITY/PERFORMING ARTS ALLIANCES

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ABSTRACT

Early in 1996, Joanne Scheff and Philip Kotler published an article in the *Harvard Business Review* demonstrating how the arts can prosper through strategic collaborations. The alliances that were the foci of the article involved other arts organizations, other nonprofits, and businesses; however, the article failed to mention the potential benefits of an alliance between arts organizations and universities. A university appears to be natural for developing long term mutually beneficial strategic alliances with arts organizations. This paper explores and describes the benefits that can be gained by both the arts organization and the university, with particular emphasis on the role for marketing education in this type of alliance.

ARTS IN THE 1990'S

Most arts organizations in the United States are facing some type of difficulty. As Scheff and Kotler (1996) note, growth has come to a halt and shrinking audiences are the norm. Contributions are down, government funding has been curtailed dramatically and it is not unusual to see debt levels rising. Symphony orchestras, such as the San Diego Symphony, have found themselves drowning in debt with no alternative but to file for bankruptcy. The growth in the arts, which the 1980's fostered, is no more. To survive in today's environment, arts organizations are becoming leaner and more business oriented (Scheff 1996).

In response to changes in the environment and their fortunes, the trustees and boards of arts organizations are undergoing dramatic shifts. Whereas Ostrander (1984) cited it to be fairly common for wealthy individuals, especially upper-class women volunteers to be asked to serve as trustees and on boards, Whitt and Lammers (1991) say, "...the stereotypical 'ladies bountiful' of the arts boards of the past...are being supplanted by corporate executives" (p. 280). This shift is due, in part, to the arts organizations' need for some specialized skills (LeBlond 1988). Among the various types of business skills and expertise that are needed is the need for marketing expertise.

Cultural institutions are finding their older patrons are "fading away." In order to survive, arts organizations must seek and develop new markets. Developing strategies to appeal to new and different segments demands skill and expertise in marketing. For example, trying to appeal to a younger audience takes different approaches and strategies (Comte 1992, Miller 1996). The younger audiences have seldom been exposed to the classical or performing arts and therefore, to develop this market requires considerable efforts on the part of the arts organizations. Funding for arts education... has been cut drastically... when parents don't expose their children to the opera, ballet and symphony, children don't develop an interest in the arts" (Comte 1992). However, relatively few arts organization have the requisite marketing expertise to accomplish this task.

MARKETING EDUCATION IN THE 1990'S

Just as arts organizations have been forced to rethink their approaches, marketing programs have also been asked to assess, evaluate, and consider new directions, one of which is to bring marketing education more in concert with marketing issues facing today's organizations. Beginning with the Porter and McKibbin study (1988), the need for business schools to improve their relations and interactions with the business/organizational community has continued to be a major focus. The nature of the interactions are thought to carry some risks – specifically that the outside organizations may gain too much direct influence in academic programs (Porter & McKibbin 1988), however, through the choice of interactions and appropriate managing of the relationships, the risks are minimal.

The early 1990's posed some interesting challenges to schools of business, including marketing programs. After several years of "...slow but steady increases in the quality of students entering business school programs, the 1990's have witnessed a reversal of this trend" (Hugstad 1996). According to the AACSB *Newsline* 1994, the proportion of Freshmen interested in pursuing a business career dropped from 24.6% in 1987 to 14.4% in 1993. Newell and Titus (1996) report that marketing

programs appear to be more susceptible to this downward trend than other specializations.

One of the notable conclusions of the Newell et. al. study was that "... marketing students may find it more difficult to see the connection between their educational training and the basic knowledge and skills required to perform future marketing-related tasks" (p. 60). The authors further concluded that "Marketing educators. . . must explicitly demonstrate the connection between classroom learning and marketing practice"(p. 60). While this task may be accomplished in many ways, one way that is viable is for marketing programs to become involved in alliances with arts organizations. Such alliances yield many opportunities for marketing faculty and students to be involved in marketing planning and practice. This paper describes selected aspects of one successful university/arts organization alliance. The alliance involved both marketing faculty and students working with a regional performing arts center (here after called the Center). All parties agree that the benefits that have accrued from this relationship have enhanced the education of students, the expertise of the faculty, and the marketing programs of the performing arts organization.

UNIVERSITY LEVEL INVOLVEMENT

Before describing the specific involvement of the marketing program, there should be mention that the marketing program involvement is only one part of the total university/arts center alliance. Many other programs and divisions of the university are also involved with the performing arts center. For example, one member of the College of Business faculty serves on the fifteen member Board of Trustees; the computing and telecommunications division helped to set up the Center's Web site; the College of Education is a co-sponsor with the Center and the public school system of an interactive arts education program in local elementary schools; the faculty of Visual and Performing Arts have close working relationships with the Center; and the University has free use of the Center theaters for a limited number of performances. The University uses the Center facilities for a variety of off-campus conferences, workshops and planning sessions. Various classes and groups on campus have been given extensive backstage tours at the Center. In at least one instance well-known guest performers appearing at the Center have met with students and discussed various aspects of their craft.

FACULTY INVOLVEMENT

One member of the marketing faculty serves on the eight member marketing committee of the Center. This committee is composed of marketing professionals from major corporate citizens in the region. The opportunity to interact with these professionals has provided material for classroom lectures and excellent contacts for guest speakers.

The marketing committee reviews and approves all marketing plans of the Center. It reviews the Center's advertising and promotional literature, and participates in the development of various special promotions. The success of the marketing efforts are determined by ticket sales and customer satisfaction measures.

The marketing committee has access to all sales and marketing data for the Center. The Center is willing to allow usage of these data for various academic endeavors, such as, case studies, data sets for in-class computer analyses and a variety of other uses.

STUDENT INVOLVEMENT

Through the years of the association, many marketing students have been involved with the Center. The Center has provided opportunities for class projects, independent study projects, internships, and masters' projects.

Class Projects. There have been a total of six class projects that have involved the Center. Most of these projects involved market research students. The students, in teams of three or four students, worked with the Center marketing department on the following surveys: a member survey, a survey of members who did not renew their memberships, a survey of single ticket purchasers, a survey of subscription purchasers, a survey of both Community College and University student entertainment and arts preferences. Depending on the type of survey, the Center provided mail lists, mailing labels, and in some cases had a professional firm stuff and mail the surveys. All costs (printing, mailing, etc.) were paid for by the Center. The students in consultation with their instructor, worked with the marketing department to develop the survey instruments. The students coded the responses and created SPSS files for the data. Statistical analyses were run using university computers. The students wrote up the findings and made presentations of the findings to the marketing department of the center.

Senior Experience Project. A team of four students worked with the Center marketing department to conduct a study of area residents' awareness of and suggestions for improving overall programming. To obtain the necessary information, two focus groups were conducted followed by a survey of over 300 North County residents. The Center utilized this information to compose recommendations for improving the awareness and increasing community involvement with the Center.

Independent Study Projects. Each season the Center conducts a *One-Minute Survey* at a random set of performances. Between 300 – 500 one-page surveys are returned each season. Each year there has been a marketing student who chose to work with these surveys. The student post codes the open ended questions, creates an SPSS data file, analyzes the data, and prepares a written report. The student is provided with the results from previous years, so is able to develop a tracking of the levels of satisfaction, the complaints, and different services offered by the Center. The student works with a faculty advisor and the marketing director of the Center on this project. The final report, which is submitted to the marketing department, is reviewed by the marketing committee. Students who work on independent study projects are usually offered pro bono tickets to one or two performances.

Internships. The Center marketing department offers one or two internships each year. For the most part the internships involve media planning and buying, working with the community relations department, working with special promotions, writing up reports of ticket sales, and a variety of other "hands on" experiences. The internships are unpaid, but provide valuable experience for a marketing student. Students involved in internship activities are also frequently offered tickets to performances.

Student Paid Employment. Occasionally the Center needs to have work done which is appropriate for students. The Center contacts the marketing programs and arrangements are made to find a student who is interested in doing the work on a fee basis. For example, marketing students have coded questionnaires, input data, analyzed data sets, distributed promotional materials, etc., all of which have been done for pay. These are usually short-term projects that allow students to use their skills and expertise and also earn some spending money. In addition, the students may be offered tickets to one or more performances.

BENEFITS TO THE MARKETING PROGRAM

Jeffrey Ford (1994) has suggested that "in-the-world" results shifts the context of student learning by putting them into an inquiry mode. He suggests that rather than fixating on coming up with a correct answer students seek what will work. All of the student involvement with the Center is focused on what will work within the pragmatic and practical context. Students are informed of the Center's budget and all other realities. Therefore, all recommendations are evaluated for practicality.

Weinstein (1996) has suggested that corporate recruiters look for students who understand the "changing and complex market environments." He believes that students must be prepared to deal with "business implications of . . . relationship marketing, marketing services, ideas, understanding." (p. 5) Most of the Center marketing projects meet these criteria. The changing and complex environment of performing arts marketing is a challenge to the most seasoned professionals. The whims of the audiences appear to change from one season to the next and finding ways to keep the people entertained and wanting to make return visits to the Center is a marketing situation that demands inquiry and rigorous analysis.

Most students who have worked on Center projects find listing their work on their resumes to be a positive with recruiters. The experiences they have had and the deliverables they have produced are concrete evidence of what they have learned in the marketing program. Feedback from students indicates that in some cases the Center marketing projects have been a determining factor in getting a desired job offer.

The marketing faculty members also gain many benefits from the alliance. Ready-made materials for case studies are a major benefit. The Center can provide materials on sales, membership campaigns, fund raising, pricing, advertising, promotions, and a variety of other topics. The Center itself provides guest speakers for classes and through contacts on the marketing committee, speakers from other organizations are available for presentations. These presentations have enriched many classes.

Working with the Center marketing staff also provides professional stimulation for marketing faculty members. While many of us do occasional consulting, developing a longer term relationship with the many different departments of the Center provides a unique opportunity to practice what we

teach. The Center is also very agreeable to providing marketing faculty with data sets, interviews, and other information that can be used for academic research. Overall, the marketing program has benefited greatly from its involvement with the center.

BENEFITS TO THE CENTER

The performing arts center also gains many benefits from its affiliation with the university and the marketing program. First and foremost, the Center receives good marketing advice and help at minimal costs. The work that is done by students and faculty have helped improve the marketing efforts of the Center, which has resulted in improved sales and customer satisfaction. This year approximately 250,000 individuals have attended performances and other functions at the Center, up almost 50,000 from last year's figures. Ticket sales have increased by approximately 12% and memberships have increased by 35%.

The association with the university also brings many college students to the Center as patrons as well as workers. Once students have been to the Center and experienced a performance, they are likely to tell their friends—and make return visits.

The alliance is mutually beneficial. Both parties have gained by working with each other. The opportunities for marketing programs should not be underestimated. By working with a nonprofit performing arts center, a marketing program can gain access to some wonderful opportunities for students, faculty and its course work.

CONCLUSION

Many marketing programs may be looking for ways in which to bring real world marketing experiences into the offerings. And most nonprofit arts organizations are seeking volunteer help. Most universities are located in areas where arts organizations exist. Bringing the two together can start by a phone call to the marketing or communications department of the arts organization. This simple act may lead to the development of a multifaceted alliance.

The alliance written about in this paper began by one marketing faculty member who made a phone call to a community leader who was then chairing the marketing committee. The Center was new and was seeking all the help it could get. The offer of service was greatly appreciated. Later that year, the first class project was initiated and the first independent study student conducted the first *One Minute Survey*. The Center was so pleased by the deliverables that future projects evolved. As the opportunities developed, additional faculty members became involved. There is every expectation that the relationship will grow and strengthen in future years, with more faculty members and more students becoming involved with different aspects of the Center.

It is a win-win situation.

References furnished upon request

FOUNDATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR ESTABLISHING AN INTEGRATED BUSINESS COMMON CORE CURRICULUM

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ABSTRACT

In response to industry demands and accreditation standards, business schools are developing various versions of integrated common body of knowledge (CBOK) courses for their majors. A central theme for all of these integration attempts is the desire to demonstrate the inter-relatedness of the various business functions and how they work together within the firm. Attempts have ranged from intentions of faculty to discuss these issues and incorporate them into their existing independent classes, to extremely aggressive efforts to develop 12 to 20 credit hour team-taught courses. Although content and presentation-related decisions are paramount to the success of these programs, other more subtle issues are of equal importance. In some cases, integration efforts targeted for the entire business college student body have been scaled back to limited offerings of honors courses. In other cases, the program has been eliminated all together. A number of important issues that have received considerably less attention in the literature include attitudes, infrastructure, and resources required to successfully implement such an extensive, and potentially disruptive curricular change. These represent the foundation on which the program will be established. If they are weak, or non-existent, the potential benefits of an integrated CBOK curriculum may never be fully realized.

Attitudinally, administrators, from department heads, to business school deans, and on up to the university president, must be fully committed to the implementation of the integrated curriculum. Their commitment, however, must extend beyond accreditation concerns. Long term success requires that the administration's motivation be based on better serving their business and governmental customers who hire their graduates, and to enable students to develop themselves into products highly desired by the market place. Faculty members must be willing to explore beyond their areas of specialty, not just the broader domain of their respective functional areas, but to the other functions of the firm and their interactions and interdependencies within the context of business

operations. Finally, students must be made aware of the benefits of an integrated orientation to the business systems as a whole, but perhaps more importantly, to them personally.

In order to increase the chances for successful implementation of an integrated curriculum, a supporting infrastructure must be provided. Key issues include hiring new faculty with cross-functional backgrounds of expertise, encouraging existing faculty to develop cross-functional expertise, and creating a reward structure that encourages active participation in the integration efforts. Perhaps the most fundamental issues include incorporation of the integration effort into the mission and objectives of the business school and inclusion of the integrated course work into the college's degree program requirements.

Resource issues correspond to the standard categories of time, effort, and money. Time refers to a faculty member's time available to perform his/her teaching, research, and service duties. Effort represents the business school's teaching capacity measured in the number of class sections that the faculty is required to teach. Finally, money represents the financial resources, from both internal and external sources, available to support the integration effort. All of these resource considerations are dependent upon each other since decision regarding one will have important ramifications on the others.

The development and delivery of an integrated curriculum is not an easy task. Prerequisites for success include a supportive foundation as well as appropriate content and delivery mechanisms. We can learn from the efforts of those who have already ventured into integration efforts, some being successful while others were not. Business schools should enter into the process anticipating these issues and prepared to deal with them in an effective, proactive manner. To discover their importance by surprise after the fact diminishes a business school's chances for successful implementation.

THE ENVIRONMENT AND MARKETING EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to alert Marketing Educators to the importance of incorporating environmental and societal issues into the teaching of Marketing. We also present the development of a student environmental awareness questionnaire and the results of a pilot test among undergraduate marketing and management students at two Pacific Northwest private liberal arts universities. This research has grown out of our interest in marketing ethics and on current issues in environmental marketing and environmental management. It is a response to a shared belief that marketing education needs to include more socially responsible and environmentally aware education if students are to be prepared to function in the dematerialized economy of the future.

ENVIRONMENTAL CRISIS: WHERE DOES MARKETING FIT IN?

Almost any survey of the current business literature will reveal that environmental concerns are among the greatest strategic problems facing marketers. These are issues concerned with how business, government, and other institutions relate with the natural environment, and how society is dealing with these issues. In many ways, these issues constitute a crisis in morality for management, and in some ways, this is bringing about a revolutionary change in management thinking, strategic planning and marketing decision-making.

As a result, today, more than ever in the past, environmental pressures are placing extensive constraints upon the limits of strategic business options. Because most of these issues are directed at changing consumption patterns, they have a direct impact upon marketing. Some will result in new business opportunities; others will require costly changes that will drive some firms out of business entirely. All require changes in the way marketers conduct their business. For example, reducing materials and packaging, the process

known as 'dematerialization', means that new products and packaging methods and materials must be developed (Marvin, 1997; Pestel and Ringou, 1998). Recycling legislation already requires investment in non-revenue producing transportation, salvage and re-use facilities. Air pollution and highway gridlock mean that billions must be invested in new and different logistics and distribution systems.

There is no way of avoiding these issues; not dealing with them will result in even greater damage and greater cost in the very near future. Marketers are particularly affected: environmental pressures require new products, new services, new packaging, new distribution techniques and processes, among other changes. In addition, marketers must help to change consumers' consumption patterns.

Some of the greatest criticisms marketing has had to live with in the past has been a reputation for producing goods that were not really 'needed,' that had a useful life artificially shortened by planned obsolescence, or that produced excessive waste, either in production or consumption. In other words, it sometimes seems that marketers have had to shoulder the bulk of the blame for most of the world's waste. Whether those criticisms are based in fact or are false, most marketers agree that they cannot operate the way they once did.

Many firms have made the first steps toward what is called 'green marketing.' However, today it is not enough to simply put a 'green' label on a package while continuing to function in the same way the firm has for years. Instead, many firms must develop proactive, comprehensive, and often costly strategies for functioning in a 'dematerialized' economy. And even though many of the methods of dealing with environmental issues can be costly, environmental marketing must not be considered simply a cost; it offers significant benefits as well.

Firms with proactive environmental marketing may gain significant competitive advantage in the green marketplace of the future (Porter and Van der Linde, 1995; Post et al., 1999).

IMPORTANCE OF THESE ISSUES

Some of these environmental issues are critically important and require immediate action. Others are of lesser importance and may be given a lower priority. Businesses, along with consumers and government regulators, must determine which issues are most important to the environment and their stakeholders.

Given the heightened global competition resulting from demand for limited and declining resources, increasing degradation of the natural environment, limited information about how and why to deal with the issues, and conflicting priorities, how should marketers direct their organization into the future? What should government do, if anything? What decisions must be made if we are to avoid global conflict while maintaining desired levels of economic prosperity, with employment for all who desire it?

Today, we have come to believe that trees, rivers, species, air and water - entire ecosystems - have a value that is independent of the instrumental value they may have for humans. Our concern for the environment has expanded to include questions about our obligations to future generations. Do we need to use less? Should we save? Is the earth already dangerously overpopulated?

More and more consumers are answering 'Yes' to these questions. In Europe, for example, marketers are finding themselves forced to 'dematerialize' so that sustainable economic growth can occur without further degradation of the environment.

In some ways, this is bringing about a revolutionary change in management thinking, strategic planning and marketing decision-making. In turn, we must respond by altering the content of our marketing courses.

THE ENVIRONMENT AND EDUCATION

Why do Marketing Educators need to be concerned?

Since the marketing managers of the future are the college and university students of today, it is our responsibility as educators to ensure that our students are aware of the benefits and costs of marketing in an environmentally safe and

enhancing manner. Therefore we must examine the content and emphasis of our marketing courses.

Our students have been hearing about the environmental problems from their first school days, and in many ways they may be more sophisticated in their environmental thinking than we are. As we consider introducing environmental concerns into marketing it behooves us to determine how we have been doing as educators and to develop effective instructional programs in environment-enhancing marketing.

Development of an Environmental Awareness Questionnaire

We report here the development of an environmental and social issues questionnaire to assess students' awareness, interest and concern on a wide variety of environmental and societal concerns, and the pilot test of the questionnaire. Our thought is that classroom discussions and instructional strategies for covering gaps in students' knowledge can be developed after administering the questionnaire at the beginning of a course.

Our first step in developing an instrument for measuring student's awareness and interest of environmental issues was to examine the literature to determine the most critical issues facing marketers. Several surveys of consumers' attitudes have resulted in different lists of concerns and action priorities. A survey of the literature revealed that little agreement exists on the most important environmental problems facing business and society. Equal diversity of opinion exists on preferred solutions for these environmental problems, as well as the "price" people are willing to pay for those solutions. We turned to a number of different sources to guide us in the development of the questionnaire.

We examined the Coalition for Environmentally Responsible Economics called the 'Valdez Principles', which is a response to the Exxon Valdez Alaska oil spill. This list of principles calls for: protection of the biosphere, sustainable resource use, waste management, energy efficiency, risk reduction, the environmental impacts of products, damage compensation, disclosure of hazards, the appointment of environmental directors, and regular environmental audits. Berry Nash (1992) examined the Ethics Codes of European and U.S. firms and found that "environmental responsibility" was high of the list of topics covered in the firms' codes of conduct. In

both the U.S. and European, it was fourth in order of the frequency of mentions.

Berry (1993), reporting on a proposed 'Code of Environmental Practice', identified the following as major environmental issues: Global warming, destruction of the ozone shield, acidification of land and water, desertification and soil loss, deforestation and forest decline, diminishing productivity of land and waters, and extinction of species and populations.

Farhar (1994) reported results of an issue-specific (energy) study on trends in consumers' concern over environmental issues. In a general question Farhar found that many people believe their environmental quality is declining rather than improving. The percentage of people indicating that they believed the environment was worse increased by 19 percentage points. Farhar also reported that U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) perceptions of environmental problems differ from the opinions of the general public. In 1992, the EPA listed the following as the most important environmental problems: stratospheric ozone destruction, air pollution, the greenhouse effect, radon, drinking-water contamination, and pesticide risk to farm workers. The public was more likely to note local problems, such as super-fund pollution sites, air and/or water pollution, and the like. He cited a 1989 poll which asked the public what they felt to be the most important problem facing the environment. A majority (52%) selected 'quality of the atmosphere;' 22% said water quality; 19% said 'solid waste;' 10% said toxic materials; and 18% said other items. Polls in 1989, 1990 and 1991 revealed that approximately 60 percent of respondents reported they were 'very concerned' about global warming. In a 1993 poll 97 percent of a League of Women Voters group reported that global warming constituted a 'real environmental threat.'

Similar findings regarding energy issues were reported by Kempton (1993): a series of polls taken since 1980 has shown that the public's awareness and concern over the environment has increased every year. Kempton also cited a 1990 poll in which Americans were asked, "Do you consider yourself to be an environmentalists or not?" More than three-fourths of the respondents said that they did, while 24% said they were not.

May and Nash (1996) report that increasing urban transportation congestion is a major cause of environmental problems, as well as contributing to delays in movement. In addition to increased consumption of fuel, higher emissions from traffic

congestion cause damage to buildings and are injurious to health. At the regional and international level, they contributed to acid rain and global warming.

Ritov and Kahneman (1997) reported results from a more recent poll in which more than 86 percent of Americans surveyed in 1994 reported that the label 'environmentalist' applied to them. Respondents differed widely in which environmental issue was of most concern, and also differed greatly on what they would give up to the right redress. Their study included a variety of animal and plant species, ecological damage items, public health concerns, and miscellaneous items such as historic buildings and earthquake safety.

In a study on the amount of risk Britons perceived from a list of adverse events and ecological disasters, Paul Slovic (1997) found widely different responses between females and males, and ethnic origin. Heading the list of items provided by the British Toxicological Society was nuclear waste and nuclear power reactors, outdoor air pollution, alcoholic beverages and suntanning. At the low-risk end of the 29-item list were food irradiation, motor vehicle accidents, radon at homes, chemical pollution in the workplace, and burning fossil fuels.

These and other sources were used to develop a comprehensive 65-item awareness and importance questionnaire. It was divided into three sections: 1) a list of 45 environmental and social concerns, 2) 20 items soliciting respondents' level of agreement to statements for dealing with the issue(s), and 3) ten classification items. In section one of the questionnaire, response categories to the 45 environmental and social concerns section included 'Not at all Important', 'Slightly Important', 'Moderately Important', 'Very Important', 'Absolutely Critical' and 'Not Familiar with this issue'. A 5-point Likert scale (Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree) was used in section two that contained statements dealing with environmental and social issues.

The instrument was developed during winter and spring 1998, and pre-tested with several groups of marketing and management students during the summer of 1998. The major change to the instrument resulting from pre-testing was a revision of the response scale: a sixth response, 'Not familiar with this issue' was added to the scale. The revised questionnaire was administered to a convenience sample of approximately 80 undergraduate business school students at our two universities during fall 1998.

Results of the Pilot Test

From the first section of the questionnaire containing the 45 environmental and social concerns, the issue that was of the greatest concern to our students was 'chemical pollution in the environment'. 'Crime and violence' and 'nuclear waste' were tied for second place. Interestingly, the next most important issue of concern to our students was 'loss of rainforests'. The environmental and social issues that were of least concern to our students were high voltage power lines, medical X-rays and abortion.

A cursory examination of demographic variables associated with differences in scores showed that on average, females were more concerned with the issues than males, and non-US citizens were more concerned with the environment than their American classmates. (Interestingly, US and non-US students did not vary in their scores on the 'rainforest' issue.) Age did not appear to have an impact.

The second section of the questionnaire, soliciting agreement/disagreement with statements about environmental issues and how they are being handled, revealed that the highest score of agreement was with the statement 'Business corporations are guilty of negligence in environmental matters'. The second highest agreement score was for the statement 'I would be willing to pay more for food and housing if I knew it would improve the environment'. The highest disagreement score was for the statement 'AIDS is not the problem here that it is in Africa and Asia'.

Again, looking at how demographic variables might be associated with differences in scores, we found very little difference between males and females. In examining country of citizenship, the number one statement of agreement for US citizens was that 'Business corporations are guilty of negligence in environmental matters' while the number one statement of agreement for non-US citizens was 'I would be willing to pay more for food and housing if I knew it would improve the environment'. The number one statement of disagreement for US citizen was 'AIDS is not the problem here that is in Africa and Asia', while the number one statement of disagreement for non-US students was 'Global warming is not the problem politicians are making it out to be'. Looking at how age influenced agreement scores, we found exactly the same pattern of agreement and disagreement for younger (20 years or younger) versus older (over 20 years) as for US and non-US students.

As can be seen, any of these findings could launch an interesting classroom discussion. For instance, 'Why are Americans less concerned with the environment than non-US citizens?', or 'Why are Americans and younger people less willing to pay more for environmental-friendly products than non-US citizens and older folks?'. Or, students could be asked to research and write a paper on the issues that were of greatest (or least) concern to them. The questionnaire could also be used to determine gaps in students' knowledge, and discussions could be centered on those issues. Interesting comparisons between younger and older, male and female, and domestic versus international could also lead to stimulating discussions and assignments.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

We feel that environmental and societal issues are becoming more and more important to marketing managers and that we, as marketing educators, must include these issues and concerns in our teaching. We have presented some issues that we feel are important to consider, and hope we have stimulated your interest in exploring others.

We are suggesting that you might administer our environmental and societal issues questionnaire at the beginning of your marketing course, and use the results as a basis for classroom discussion and to determine students' areas of concern and/or lack of knowledge. We will have our questionnaire available at the 1999 WMEA conference for distribution to those who are interested. We will be gathering more data, and will have more results and statistical analyses to share.

References upon request.

AN ASSESSMENT PROCESS TO LINK MISSION-GOALS WITH LEARNING OUTCOME OBJECTIVES TO SATISFY AACSB STANDARDS

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Marketing educators are increasingly being asked to demonstrate specific outcomes that result from their teaching. This has spawned a number of studies of the consequences of this action. For example, Wright, Bitner and Zeithaml (1994) argued a shift from teaching marketing to students learning marketing requires a fundamental change in the marketing curriculum.

At the center of outcomes-based measures is a need for faculty to engage in a two step process (Bush and Sjolander 1996). First, objectives must be set concerning the knowledge and skills that students should achieve after completing a course or set of courses. Second, appropriate measures must be developed to determine whether students achieved these objectives.

Most business programs require a Principles of Marketing course as a part of their core curriculum. Graeff (1998) provided an excellent exercise in how to write a set of behavioral learning objectives for the core course in marketing. The purpose of this paper is to extend Graeff's work to include principles, processes and outcomes one department faculty used to continuously improve their curricular core offering in marketing.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES

The following guiding principles were used when developing the set of learning objectives.

- Course objectives should be clearly linked to the mission and educational goals of the school.
- Course objectives should focus on student learning outcomes.
- Course objectives should be the result of a faculty driven process conducted in partnership with other College stakeholders.

- The intellectual freedom of faculty as a whole and individually shall be preserved both in principle and in application.

LINKING MISSION TO LEARNING

One of the goals at the authors' school is to "Graduate students with a strong, modern foundation in business knowledge, skills, and values that prepares them to adapt successfully to the professional world." While this serves to broadly define the overall results of our instructional activities, it lacks specificity with respect to learning and the types of performance students are expected to demonstrate as a direct consequence of instruction.

What is needed is a hierarchical structure that links a mission statement with educational goals, educational goals with program objectives and ultimately, program objectives with course learning outcomes. For this purpose a mission-to-outcomes hierarchy was constructed after school educational objectives for its Bachelor of Science in Business Administration program were approved

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Teaching Effectiveness: Conceptualization and Domain Assessment

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To be an effective teacher is a goal to which most academics aspire. Few in our vocation would disagree that our helpfulness and utility to students motivates us to continue to refine our efforts in the classroom. Formal recognition of this effort, whether by colleagues or supervisors, may not necessarily be received. We attempt to show that this is because the methods of measuring teaching effectiveness are woefully inadequate and that the method of measurement as well as the very conceptualization of the construct needs to be revisited.

A review of the literature reveals a wide range of different approaches (i.e., questionnaires, peer evaluations, self-evaluations, outcome tests, portfolios, publication productivity); perspectives (i.e., student/consumer, instructor, administration, alumni, employer); number of dimensions involved (e.g., course organization, communication skills, student/teacher interaction, workload, grading); intrinsic characteristics of the students and/or instructor (e.g., motivation, abilities, interests, gender); and evaluation usage (diagnostic vs. political).

In a very basic sense, teaching is about facilitating learning. And, from theories of learning, whether they are behavioral or cognitive, learning is about change. For higher education, the type of change we are interested in has to do with changes in thinking. To define learning requires an understanding of what is thinking. In defining what thinking is, we can build our way back up to what we mean by teaching effectiveness and establish our baseline.

What is thinking? According to Ruggiero (1998, p. 2), "Thinking is any mental activity that helps

formulate or solve a problem, make a decision, or fulfill a desire to understand. It is a searching for answers, a reaching for meaning." Hence, learning is about teaching students to think about things by having them engage in their own questioning, and that the process of learning is directed towards the practicing of being underway.

The movement toward experiential teaching and the exploration of new approaches in the classroom are not making the assessment job any easier. Even the traditional multi-method approaches falter when the construct to be measured is poorly conceptualized. No easy answers exist, but there seems to be sufficient evidence to call into question several practices.

The use of syllabi to show a day-by-day plan for a class and how the various topics will be systematically covered is a cherished institution of higher education. If indeed, we are seeking to allow students to explore the various dimensions of the topic at hand and facilitating "thinking" as we have briefly defined it here, perhaps a focus on more liberty in syllabi and evaluations and less structure would be suggested.

Ironically, the need to show a return on investments into higher-education for donors, legislators and taxpayers has further shifted the emphasis of classroom performance measurement to narrowly-defined terms has left professors discounting teaching evaluations while administrations place increasing weight on them.

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MARKETING ALUMNI: THE JOBS THEY GET AND HOW THEY GET THEM

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INTRODUCTION

Marketing faculty are closely involved with students' career preparation. In addition to designing curricula which will prepare students for careers, Marketing professors engage in student career counseling both informally when students ask for guidance as well as in some departments through formal career advising. As such, it is incumbent upon us to know what jobs our graduates actually get and how they get them. The purpose of this study is to examine the types of jobs graduates get, the sources through which graduates get jobs, the sources through which employers recruit, and what information employers view as important in a resume.

METHOD

Data

The data for this study come from two surveys: one of Marketing Alumni and one of employers. In May, 1998, I conducted a mail survey of Marketing Alumni who had graduated from a state university in Southern California between 1991 and 1997, mailing questionnaires to all 1220 alumni listed by the University as having graduated during these years (42 were returned not deliverable). One hundred fifty alumni responded for a response rate of 13%. The second survey, a non-random survey of employers, was conducted by having students in two Marketing Research classes distribute a self-administered questionnaire to Marketing and Human Resources executives who were involved in hiring entry level Marketing employees. Two hundred seven questionnaires were collected. Of these 35 were eliminated because respondents indicated they were "seldom" or "never" directly involved in hiring for entry level marketing positions, leaving 172 responses retained for the study.

Limitations

Neither the alumni sample nor the employer sample is, of course, representative. The alumni

sample is limited to students who attended only one university and the employer sample is a convenience sample.

RESULTS

I asked Alumni "in what field was your first job?" and offered response categories that parallel sub-majors offered in our undergraduate program. As presented in Table 2 below, almost a third of first jobs were in sales, a quarter in areas of business other than marketing, and just over a tenth each in advertising and retail management.

Table 1
Alumni's First Jobs after Graduation

JOB FIELD	(n)	%
Advertising	18	12%
General Marketing	9	6%
International Marketing	4	3%
Logistics	4	3%
Marketing Research	6	4%
Product/Brand Management	2	1%
Retail Management	16	11%
Sales (business to business)	49	32%
Other Business (not Marketing)	37	25%
Non-Business	4	3%
Other	1	1%

I asked Alumni from which of 13 sources they obtained their first job after graduation. The three most common sources of jobs cited were newspaper and trade magazine ads, relatives or friends, and University Career Day or Career Center. These data are presented in Table 2.

A breakdown of sources by field of first job (data not shown) reveals some variation from the overall data. Alumni whose first jobs were in advertising cited newspaper and trade magazine ads, relatives or friends, and unsolicited calls/letters. Alumni whose first jobs were in retail management

sited newspaper and trade magazine ads, University Career Day/Career Center, and "stayed with job I previously had."

Table 2
Sources Through Which Alumni Got Their First Job

	(n)	%
Newspaper/trade mag ad	36	24%
Relative or friend	34	23%
University Career Day/Center	24	16%
Employment Ag/Headhunter	11	7%
Stayed with previous job	10	7%
Unsolicited calls/letters	7	5%
Internship	6	4%
Lead from professor	5	3%
Contacts from previous job	4	3%
Professional ass'n/club/nwsltr	2	1%
Internet	0	0%
Other	9	6%

I asked employers through what sources they found entry level marketing employees. While most response categories paralleled those offered to alumni, there were some differences. Employers only were offered the response categories "contacts from other employers" and "referrals from current employees." Alumni only were offered "stayed with previous job" and "contacts from previous job" and "lead from professor." Also, alumni were asked to choose the "most important" source of their first job while employers were asked to identify how they recruited new college graduates as Marketing employees checking "all that apply." See Table 3.

Table 3
Sources Through Which Employers Find Entry Level Employees
(multiple response)

	(n)	%
Referrals fr current employees	114	66%
Newspaper/trade mag ad	107	62%
Contacts from other employers	74	43%
Internship	71	41%
Relative or friend	70	40%
University Career Day/Center	54	31%
Employment Ag/Headhunter	51	29%
Internet	50	29%
Unsolicited calls/letters	24	14%
Professional ass'n/club/nwsltr	27	16%
Other	9	5%

Although the data in Tables 2 and 3 are not exactly parallel, comparisons of responses on these two tables are suggestive. Alumni and employers both note ads and making contacts through family and friends as key sources of jobs. The data, however, suggest some differences between how alumni got their first jobs and how employers recruit. Few alumni got their first jobs through internships (we have no way of knowing how many did internships as undergraduates) but a large percentage of employers recruit through internships. Also, no alumni got their jobs using the internet, whereas almost a third of employers recruit through the internet. This latter difference might be an artifact of time: when these alumni looked for their first job 1 to 7 years ago, the internet was used less than it is today.¹

To identify what graduates should emphasize in their job searches, I asked employers how important several items were when they evaluated resumes of possible entry level employees with Bachelor's degrees. The findings are presented in Table 4.

Table 4
Employers' Perceptions of Importance of Potential Entry Level Employees' Experiences
(mean scores)
(1 = of the utmost importance; 5 = not at all important)

Work experience related to job applying for	2.2
References from previous employers	2.4
GPA	3.0
Awards and achievements	3.1
Leadership positions in social organizations	3.2
Work experience not related to job applying	3.2
References from professors	3.2
Community service	3.4
Membership in social organizations	3.7
Hobbies and sports	3.9
Travel abroad	4.0

These data indicate that employers are most interested in work experience related to the job for which the graduate is applying and references from employers. University related or educational characteristics such as GPA, awards and achievements, leadership in social organizations, and references from professors are of secondary importance as is work not related to the job for which the graduate is applying. Of less importance is community service and membership (as differentiated from leadership) in social organiza-

tions. "Personal" characteristics such as hobbies and sports and travel abroad are the least important.

Alumni report average starting annual salaries (including overtime, bonuses, commissions and/or use of a company car) for their first jobs at \$33,127. Salaries broken down by job area are shown in Table 5.

Table 5
Mean Starting Salaries by Job Field

	(n)	\$
Advertising	18	\$33,972
General Marketing	9	\$26,617
International Marketing	4	\$26,875
Logistics	4	\$27,025
Marketing Research	6	\$23,833
Product/Brand Management	2	\$36,750
Retail Management	16	\$24,313
Sales (business-to-business)	49	\$41,332
Other business (not marketing)	37	\$30,532

The data reveal that the highest average salaries are in sales and the lowest are in marketing research and retail management.

It took graduates on average 3.2 months to find their first job. The breakdown of months to find a job by job area (not shown) reveal little variation.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study have implications for marketing educators who wish to better prepare marketing students for a competitive job market. First, marketing majors should be made aware of the fields in which entry level marketing jobs exist and encouraged to be realistic about their job prospects. These data confirm that most entry level marketing jobs are in sales. Many marketing graduates (in our sample a quarter) will secure jobs in areas of business other than marketing so undergraduates should take seriously their accounting, finance, management, and CIS courses. Few of these alumni found jobs in international marketing, marketing research, product and brand management, or logistics.

When searching for a job graduates should make use of ads in newspapers and professional journals and asking friends and relatives for leads.

They should also try professional headhunters or employment agencies and should check the internet. They should definitely make use of internships if offered at their university.

Graduates should anticipate spending about three months to find their first job and should anticipate for an annual salary of \$25,000 to \$40,000 depending on the field. Undergraduate students should be encouraged to obtain work experience in the area in which they wish to pursue a career and to emphasize this or other work experience on their resumes.

MARKETING ALUMNI: PEDAGOGICAL PREFERENCES AND ATTITUDES

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ABSTRACT

Learning styles of marketing students have changed over the years. Changes have also occurred in emphases placed by the AACSB, universities, schools and departments on meeting student learning needs. This paper measures the pedagogical preferences of marketing alumni and relates them to a global attitude toward the marketing major. This approach may be used in any marketing program as a potential attitudinal enhancement mechanism, as key pedagogies can be identified and emphasized. Results indicate an association between in-class exercises and overall attitude toward the marketing major.

INTRODUCTION

Higher education is now being held accountable in ways that were all but unseen in the past. Assessment is now a bellwether term and accrediting agencies are increasingly turning to quality enhancement and continuous improvement. Within business education, the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) has adopted new standards that are process and outcomes based and are directly centered on a business school's mission (AACSB 1994). Within this rubric, marketing programs have also developed mission statements and accompanying goals and objectives. Whether these goals and objectives are actualized or not is a function of both inputs (e.g., pedagogy) and outcome assessments. For many business schools and marketing programs, goals and objectives are being developed that recognize student-centered learning and its enhancements through the creation of learning environments. To help actualize these goals, business education in many institutions, most notably the California State University (CSU) system, is beginning to formally consider Chickering and Gamson's (1987) seven principles of teaching and learning. One of these principles

is that good teaching practice respects diverse ways of learning. Following this line of thinking, an AACSB Task Force (1998) recognized the need to have teaching styles that matched learning style differences. The CSU in its Cornerstones Report (1997) also recognized the principle that students and their learning experiences are the center of the academic enterprise. Indeed, writings are affirming that students be placed first and that instructors recognize the need to respect diverse learning styles (e.g., see the Kellogg Commission on the Future of State and Land-Grant Universities, 1996; A Report for the ECS Chairman's "Quality Counts" Agenda in Higher Education, 1996). Given this canopy of student-centered focus, business and marketing educators are increasingly being asked to recognize the presence of diversity in learning approaches. The rationale for this is simple. If students are presented with their preferred learning style, learning should be improved and students should be more satisfied with their educational experiences. In turn, these students should be in a better position to contribute their talents to the organizations of the twenty-first century. From this standpoint, students are viewed as being imbued with a set of knowledge, skills and values that will enable them to contribute to business enterprises.

While learning styles are part of this customer focus in marketing, little has been developed concerning student preferences for instructional styles and no research has related these preferences to an overall attitude toward a marketing program. This study will pursue this topic.

LEARNING STYLES AND PREFERENCES

To help understand the significance of learning styles it is necessary to note that the term learning style is used in different ways in the literature.

One common use of the term is to indicate the preferences learners have for different teaching delivery styles. Canfield (1994) defines learning style to be, "... the affective component of educational experience, which motivates a student to choose, attend to, and perform well in a course or training. This definition focuses on the preferences students have for particular types of educational experiences. Kolb (1984) defines learning styles as "generalized differences in learning orientations based on the degree to which people emphasize the four modes of the learning process as measured by a self report test called the Learning Style Inventory." Stewart and Felicetti (1992) define learning styles to mean, "...those educational conditions under which a student is most likely to learn." It is *how* a student learns, not *what* was learned.

Other authors make a distinction between learning styles and other aspects of the learning process. Sadler-Smith (1996) suggests that the notions of learning styles and cognitive styles be thought of separately, as they have important distinctions for instructional strategy. Curry (1991) makes a distinction between learning preference – the favoring of one particular mode of teaching over another; and learning style – a distinctive and habitual manner of acquiring knowledge, skills or attitudes through study or experience. Learning styles may also encompass individual differences in how information is taken in and processed (Garger and Garger 1994), or differences in how individuals perceive, think and solve problems and learn (Witkin, Moore, Goodenough and Cox 1977). Lamont and Friedman (1997) refer to the way students learn as learning patterns. They note that changes have occurred over several years in the way students prefer to learn marketing and how they prefer to be taught.

The distinctions in the use of the term 'learning styles' thus depend on whether one is talking about preferences the learner has for different pedagogical approaches, or whether one is talking about the actual process of acquiring and processing information in the learning process. This study examines learning styles from the perspective of students' preferred educational experiences, or preferred pedagogical approaches.

PREFERRED PEDAGOGICAL APPROACHES

A number of studies have examined preferred pedagogical approaches. In this regard, Matthews (1994) administered Canfield and Knight's (1983) Learning Style Inventory and found that business majors preferred conceptual and social/conceptual-based pedagogies. They preferred learning with other students, as opposed to learning alone.

A study by Nulty and Barrett (1996) indicated that business students prefer pedagogies that are active and concrete. Also, Stewart and Felicetti (1992) examined preferred pedagogies of marketing majors and nonmarketing major business students, and found a significant difference between the two groups. They found that marketing majors, relative to nonmarketing majors preferred a learning style which was either methodological and included, "use of computer aided instruction, direct application problems, hands-on opportunities, and programmed instruction;" or a second, more holistic method of learning which included, "short lectures with discussion, short assignments with reflection time, group discussion, television and movies."

Karns (1993) examined pedagogical preferences of marketing students for learning activities and found a positive relationship between level of stimulation, level of effort and concrete or real-world applications. The major conclusions of the study were that marketing students prefer pedagogies that have more involving content and are oriented toward application of marketing knowledge.

Other studies have investigated specific pedagogies, such as team projects (Williams, Beard and Rymer 1991; Batra, Walvoord, and Krishnan 1997); experiential learning (Wynd, 1989), gaming and simulation (Laughlin and Hite 1993; Wellington and Faria 1996), and Web based courses (Canzer 1997). Clow and Wachter (1996) examined the extent of use of six different teaching techniques in principles of marketing courses. Their study focused on what teaching methodologies were used by marketing instructors. The current study extends these works by addressing the effectiveness of alternative teaching methods in marketing courses, especially those that influence attitude toward the major.

METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted with marketing alumni of a teaching-oriented, six-year university in the Western United States. The survey instrument was designed to reveal alumni perception of the effectiveness of different teaching methods and tools. It also measured the contribution of the program towards the development of key knowledge and skill areas relevant to the major. Semantic differential scales regarding attitudes towards the marketing major were used, along with demographic and classification data.

The survey was mailed to 298 alumni who had graduated three to five years earlier. Sixty-six complete questionnaires were returned for a response rate of 22.1%. No follow-up with nonrespondents was conducted. The authors were interested in this set of alumni because they had been out of college long enough to have a better and more balanced perspective on their education. And yet, they had not graduated too long ago when memory effects might cloud their perceptions. This group provided us with a basis for comparison with the first survey, thus potentially validating the findings from the current seniors.

The average respondent age was 27.2. Males made up 69.7% of the respondents. The average marketing major G.P.A. of respondents was 2.94. On the question of ethnicity, 90.6% identified themselves as Caucasians.

VARIABLES

The teaching methods selected for analysis were those which were commonly used by the faculty. These methods are as follows: cases, lectures, computer simulations, class discussions, group projects, in-class exercises, individual projects, written assignments, and exams. The measurement of these methods was accomplished through the use of a seven-point semantic differential scale which ranged from poor to excellent (1=poor, 7=excellent). If a respondent did not experience a particular method, the student was instructed to check a box indicating a lack of exposure to the approach. The global attitudinal framework of Mitchell and Olson (1981) was employed to develop an overall affect measure for the marketing program. The measurement of global attitude was made

through the use of the following semantic differential scales: good experience versus bad experience, satisfactory versus unsatisfactory, useless versus useful, ineffective versus effective; valueless versus valuable, good use of my time versus waste of my time, not enjoyable versus enjoyable, and desirable versus undesirable. These measures were scored on a one-to seven-point scale with the high-end of the scale denoting a positive response.

RESULTS

Among the alumni surveyed, the rated effectiveness of the nine pedagogical approaches ranged from a low of 4.62 (exams) to a high of 5.76 (group projects). Exams were the least preferred pedagogical approach.

With respect to the enhanced global attitude measures, a principal components factor analysis on eight measures revealed a single unrotated factor that explained 66.3% of the variance. Factor loadings ranged from .39 (valueless versus valuable) to .78 (good use of my time versus a waste of my time) and supported unidimensionality or the presence of a single overall attitudinal orientation toward the marketing major.

The results of regressing the nine pedagogical approaches against the global attitudinal factor revealed a R^2 value of .415 ($F=4.10$; 9 and 52 d.f.; $p=.0005$); thus over 40% of the variance in global attitude is explained by the co-variation of pedagogical variables. Table 1 shows the detailed regression results and suggests that outside of exams and individual projects (which possess nonsignificant negative betas), the remaining variables co-vary directly with global attitude.

[Insert Table 1: RESULTS OF REGRESSING TEACHING PEDAGOGIES AGAINST GLOBAL ATTITUDE TOWARD THE MARKETING MAJOR]

Further, an assessment of beta weights reveals that in-class exercises (.31, $p=.02$) and class discussions (.29, $p=.05$) have the greatest relative explanatory power. Each of these variables also possesses a statistically significant t-value. The results of the survey revealed that in-class exercises and class discussions help to explain

the variation in global attitude toward the marketing major. A manipulation of these variables may therefore impact student attitude towards the marketing major, and consequently, satisfaction.

DISCUSSION

The survey results indicate that preference for certain pedagogical methods may be correlated with overall liking for the marketing major. Specifically, rating of in-class exercises and class discussions were found to be related to overall positive attitude¹. Thus, alumni who rated in-class exercises and class discussions as being highly effective tools of learning viewed the marketing major more favorably. These two pedagogies provide a certain level of critical engagement that helps develop a positive attitude toward the marketing major. This finding is consistent with Matthew's (1994) conclusion that business majors prefer learning with other students, as opposed to learning on their own. It is not clear from this study whether it is the process of engaging in the activity or the enhancement in learning that results that is responsible for the positive attitude. Nevertheless, this has implications for curriculum development and provides a tool for generating a more favorable attitude amongst students. Future research may attempt to address this issue.

Those alumni who rated in-class exercises and class discussions low had less positive overall attitudes toward the marketing major. This indicates that more traditional pedagogies are preferred by some students, and this suggests the possibility of offering students alternative pedagogical approaches as they select among multiple sections of the same course. In essence, each section could have its predominant pedagogical orientation presented in the class schedule. Further research should attempt to develop and explore the learning and attitudinal implications of a pedagogical segmentation of the course market.

This research has also presented an approach for the enhancement of one's global attitude toward

¹ In-class exercises are assignments handed out by the instructor in class and worked upon individually or in groups for the purpose of actively engaging students. Assignments may include application of marketing concepts or models, application of analysis and decision tools, and role-playing.

the marketing major. By measuring and relating pedagogical preferences to overall attitude or indicators of satisfaction with the marketing major, key pedagogies may be identified and emphasized.

CONCLUSION

Undergraduate education is undergoing substantial change. There have been calls to "rethink marketing education, including curriculum design and teaching methods" (Lamont and Friedman 1997). Much of the literature, with some exceptions, takes a top down approach in this regard. However, it is important to look at the issues from the bottom up by measuring student perceptions. This study takes that approach. If we can better understand the perceptions of students we can have better curriculum and teaching method development. This would then lead to better learning by students, and a more positive attitude. Eventually these should result in attracting potential students to the marketing major, where enrollments have been declining (Hugstad 1997; Lamont and Friedman 1997).

Student satisfaction in general is influenced by university level variables like dormitory food, parking, and such (Juillerat and Schreiner 1996). Marketing educators cannot do much about these uncontrollable variables. What they can do, and should, is to help develop a more favorable attitude towards the major. This, in turn, should lead to enhanced learning. The use of in-class exercises and class discussions appear to be tools that seems to help, and some educators might wish to incorporate them at a greater level than they may have done in the past.

COMMENTS

References and table are available from the first author on request.