USING PEER EVALUATIONS TO ASSESS INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCES IN GROUP CLASS PROJECTS

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ABSTRACT

The use of group projects of one type or another is common in many different types of marketing courses. Groups are used in such learning experiences as presenting and discussing cases, undertaking class projects such as developing marketing and/or advertising plans, role playing situations, marketing research studies, and other similar projects. A major problem in all group activities is the equitable assignment and allocation of grades to the group members.

This paper discusses a process to facilitate more equitable grading using peer evaluations to assess individual performances. Since groups by their very nature, involve numbers of members, those members often do not contribute the same to the overall group effort. Some will contribute much more than might be expected while others become "social loafers" and "free riders." This paper provides an approach to using peer evaluations to more fairly evaluate individual performances within a group so that grades may be assigned in the most equitable manner.

An instrument is developed to employ the peer evaluation process and measure individual contributions. This instrument is based on the criteria of an individual member's dependability/availability; input and work quality; peer group equity and interaction; and an overall evaluation. The instrument uses a scale of nine semantic differential items scored on seven points within the previously discussed criteria. Each group member rates himself or herself on the nine items and then rates each of his or her peers. Thus, there is a peer group rating on each member on each of the nine items in addition to that member's rating of his or her own performance. The mean of the peer rating is then compared with the rating the group member has given to himself or herself.

Using members of one group from a Marketing Management class project at San Diego State University, the results of the use of the instrument are revealed. As might be suspected, some will rate themselves higher than do their peers while others will rate themselves lower than do their peers. Still others give themselves rating quite consistent with the ratings of their peers. This comparative rating process shows clearly the performances within a group as seen by their peers and allows the instructor to more equitably grade each member.

LEARNING CONTRACTS: AN ALTERNATIVE METHOD FOR DETERMINING COURSE GRADES

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ABSTRACT

The use of learning contracts is a classroom activity worthy of educators' consideration. Educators discuss, analyze and assess their roles in the classroom in hopes of providing their students with meaningful educational experiences. Although there are a number of learning activities available for use in the classroom, it seems that students desire activities that involve content and are application oriented (Karns 1993). The purpose of this paper is to discuss how learning contracts tie in nicely with such preferences of students. Additionally, this alternative classroom activity provides for more emphasis on goal-setting. Specific discussion on the use of learning contracts in a Personal Selling course is provided. Also, other courses in which learning contracts may be used are suggested in hopes of stimulating educators' interest in and consideration for this activity.

LEARNING CONTRACTS: SELECTED LITERATURE REVIEW

The learning contract is a mutual undertaking between the instructor and each student whereby the student contracts during the beginning of the term for a specified final grade. Unlike traditional approaches to course requirements, the contract affords options to students regarding the number of requirements individually undertaken during the term. Each student sets a personal goal for a particular grade; essentially, learning contracts provide for formal goal-setting opportunities.

A review of literature supports the importance of goals. In general, a goal may be defined as what a person is trying to accomplish. Additionally, it is recognized that goal commitment is enhanced when individually internalized and accepted.

Goals help clarify expectations and participative goal-setting is preferred over goals that are set in a non-participative manner (Locke and Latham 1984). Also, commitment to the goal is affected by asking an individual to accept a goal and having that person state publicly that the established goal is accepted (Locke and Latham 1985).

Apparently, interpersonal communication is significantly related to goals. With the use of learning contracts, such communication between an instructor and students takes place. Hopefully, a consequence of using learning contracts is enhanced student motivation. Knowles (1986) believes that learning contracts are a means to gaining more commitment from students. Furthermore, his contract learning model is based on six considerations:
(1) the benefits to each learner and the consequences of not learning;
(2) the importance of taking personal responsibility for learning;
(3) the unique experiences of each learner;
(4) the learner's readiness to learn;
(5) the organization of learning around life tasks;
(6) the attempt to tap into intrinsic motivators.

LEARNING CONTRACTS IN THE PERSONAL SELLING COURSE

The Personal Selling course is recognized as a positive undergraduate experience. Students, having taken the course during college, speak highly of the course; they find that it is interesting, practical and useful (Bragg 1988). Additionally, students' work related skills are developed which benefit and meet many of the needs of business (Buchanan 1987). Such classroom learning accomplishments are commendable. However, it may be argued that

the important issue of individual goal-setting is not being emphasized as much as it could, or should, be in a Personal Selling course. In selling, the manager is responsible for helping the seller communicate goals. The sales manager relies on effective communications to help motivate the seller. If effective communication is important between the sales manager and salespeople (Vassalo, Lanasa and Johnson 1989), it does not seem too far removed that similar classroom tactics might be appropriate for the instructor responsible for a Personal Selling course.

By placing more emphasis on the importance of goal-setting in the classroom, perhaps greater learning experiences would occur. How may this be accomplished? As mentioned previously, through the use of learning contracts. Currently, there are twelve commonly used learning activities for college courses: lecture, class discussion, text/readings, guest speaker, film/video, multiple choice test, essay test, term paper, case analysis, role-playing, simulation game and client project (Karns 1993). For a practical course like Personal Selling (Good 1991, Swenson and Donoho 1992), certain activities seem more appropriate than others. The difficult task for instructors is in selecting which activities to include during the term that will accomplish the overall learning objectives for the course and simultaneously appeal to the majority of students so that their individual efforts will be maximized. Are some activities preferred over others by students? If preferences for activities are an individual issue, varying from student to student, then the instructor is faced with the issue of making arbitrary decisions and hoping for the best. The inclusion of the learning contract as an additional activity may help with this dilemma.

Traditionally, instructors of Personal Selling (just as in most courses) distribute syllabi to the students at the beginning of the term (see Appendix A - provided for illustrative purposes). Each syllabus includes general objectives of the course, specific objectives and the course requirements. As Kelley, Conant and Smart (1991) point out, it is important that there be a mixture of activities in the course. The learning contract, when included as part of the syllabus, provides a creative approach to the mixture of activities (see Appendix B). For the Personal Selling course, these requirements are chosen based on the beliefs and preferences of the instructor and may consist of a specified number of tests, in-class assignments (lecture, case discussion and guest speakers - for example) and role-playing exercises. However, these activities are the minimum expected of each student and for the students who contract for only these activities, only a final grade of B or below is possible. As indicated in Appendix B, these course requirements (with associated weights reflected) only total to 850 points. If no additional activities or assignments are chosen, then the maximum final grade possible is a B. (For example, a student must make 90% or better on every mandatory requirement to end up with a cumulative total of 800 or more points, but less than 900). Obviously, this option should appeal to those students seeking to satisfy minimum course requirements.

However, for those students who desire to contract for an A, additional activities are required. The options include additional readings, or a term paper, or a client project. These options (again - as indicated in Appendix B) then total 1000 points; students that perform all of the activities at a level of 90% or better have a chance to make a final grade of A for the course. Again, it is up to each student to explicitly make this choice.

It is important to note that the grade contracted for does not guarantee the student that grade. The contract merely reflects a student's goal for the course. All final grades are based on the total of points obtained at the end of the term. The contract serves two purposes: (1) if a student is only interested in performing a minimum number of activities, then he/she has that option; (2) if a student prefers one type of activity more than another, then he/she has that option.

A LITERATURE REVIEW OF ALTERNATIVE CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

It is true that learning contracts are a change from traditional grading. Yet, examples of changes in courses, although unrelated to learning contracts, have been cited elsewhere. Wotruba (1992) uses a change from traditional grading in a Sales Management course; a compensation analogy for grading students was

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used and there seemed to be more involvement, interest and effort by students. Interestingly, the first step in a four step process reported by Wotruba (1992) was "setting objectives"; also, the study was discussed as an applied operational setting whereby the students recognized and appreciated the approach.

Another study that ties in nicely with this paper is one by McCorkle et al (1992); a "self-marketing plan" involved students establishing both long and short term objectives toward careers. According to this study, one result from the classroom experience was a greater focus on self-improvement by the students. Kimball (1990), in yet another study, expressed concern that traditional approaches in the classroom inadequately prepare students for the real world. He argues for the inclusion of assigned contemporary business books as opposed to a text book enhancing realism of the subject. Finally, Haynes and Helms (1991) addressed the issue that limited opportunities exist through traditional classroom approaches for conveying immediate relevance of the subject material to students. Such studies, representing non-traditional techniques in courses, encourage the argument for the introduction of learning contracts as yet another way of adding relevance to the subject.

CONCLUSION

The learning contract is a viable alternative activity worthy of educators' consideration. The learning contract provides the means for students to explicitly communicate goals. It is important to state that the argument for the use of learning contracts does not eliminate further motivational efforts on the part of the instructor during the term. Without question, on-going classroom methods and techniques used to accomplish the learning experience by the instructor impact students' motivation throughout the term. However, the learning contract enhances effective communication between the instructor and the students regarding personal goals. Knowles (1986) believes that the choice to use learning contracts is a way to potentially separate professionals from amateurs. Additionally, he warns educators to avoid becoming enamored with one teaching-learning technique.

In conclusion, it is important to note that Personal Selling is but one course that lends itself to the use of learning contracts as an alternative activity. Certainly, some of the Small Business courses often found in the Marketing departments could be considered. The use of learning contracts is based on the premise that learning styles, backgrounds, and paces of learning are different. Small Business courses are prime examples of courses where students enrolled have such diverse characteristics. Overall, the important aspects of learning contracts as an alternative activity relate to the concentrated efforts of mutual goal-setting (recognized as important to the selling field); the integration of real world practices for classroom learning enhancement (recognized as a positive contributor by both educators and students); and improved instructor and student communication (recognized as important in recent educational reform for changes in higher education). There seems to be compelling support for this alternative activity. Plans include introducing learning contracts into courses in the near future; then, empirical evidence will be available.

APPENDIX A

An excerpt from a Personal Selling SYLLABUS (provided for illustrative purposes only).

The following are MANDATORY Course Requirements/Activities:

> In class assignments
> Test #1
> Test # 2
> Role-Playing

Please note that by satisfying only these "requirements/activities", a final grade of B is the maximum grade possibility.

In order for you to set a goal for a final grade of an A, you must choose one of the following options:

_____ Additional Readings

_____ Term Paper

_____ Client Project

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(These options will be discussed at length when the syllabi are distributed.)

APPENDIX B

Learning Contract

Personal Selling Class

Term:_____

Name:_____

As previously noted in the syllabus, the final grade will be based on the following:

MANDATORY Course Requirements/Activities: (Provides for ONLY 850 points)

In class assignments	150 points
Test #1	200 points
Test # 2	200 points
Role-Playing	300 points
	850 points

OPTIONS: (Please indicate which option you choose - only ONE, please)

_____ No additional activities

_____ Additional Readings   150 points

_____ Term Paper   150 points

_____ Client Project   150 points

TOTAL POINTS TARGETED   _____
GRADE CONTRACTED FOR   _____

THE FINAL GRADE IS BASED ON THE FOLLOWING:

900 points and above	= A
800 points to 899 points	= B
700 points to 799 points	= C
600 points to 699 points	= D
below 600 points	= F

Student Signature _____

Instructor Approval: _____

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EXAMINING THE CLASSROOM EXPERIENCE THROUGH STUDENT DRAWINGS

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ABSTRACT

This study examines students' classroom experiences through an analysis of student drawings as well as responses to open-ended questions. The sample consisted of 121 students enrolled in undergraduate business classes at Seattle Pacific University, Autumn quarter 1993. Seven different classes were sampled in order to randomize error due to the effects of the professor and subject.

Students were given a questionnaire and were asked to draw the type of individual they consider a "good" or "bad" professor. In order to make these drawings easier to interpret, students were asked to place "good" and "bad" professors in a setting that illustrates why he or she is a "good" or "bad" professor. Students were also asked four open-ended questions: to describe a typical hour in a class they enjoyed a great deal and in a class they disliked intensely, and also to write the characteristics of a "good" and those of a "bad" professor. The last page of the questionnaire included some basic demographic information on the students.

The drawings and the open-ended questions were coded by me after a focus group discussion with students from my Marketing Research class. In order to determine the reliability of the coding, the Marketing Research students were also asked to code a subsample of the drawings and open-ended questions.

In this study, "good" professors were drawn and described as caring about students, as friendly, approachable, moving around the classroom and getting physically closer to the students, and as encouraging student participation in the classroom. Students seem to prefer a hands-on education where they learn by doing. "Good" professors make the material appear relevant and use "real world" examples. In contrast, attributes such as being especially articulate or entertaining were included less frequently by students.

When students drew or described the "bad" professor, they often presented someone who lectures the whole time, does not allow enough time for questions, and is not open to different points of view. "Bad" professors seem to drone on and are oblivious to what is going on in the classroom. "Bad" professors are also often seen as unfriendly and unhappy with their job. Some students appear to be especially sensitive to power differences between themselves and professors and resent any attempt to exercise the professor's power.

Interestingly, looking at many of the "bad" professor drawings, I did not think that the person depicted was doing a "bad" job. Many of the professors who were drawn or described as being into power games were simply trying to stimulate or challenge students to learn. Similarly, when I was looking at drawings of professors who were lecturing the whole period, I thought the professor was trying to communicate important information to students. The students' perception, however, was different.

The Role of Marketing Educators in Helping North American Students Become Successful European Marketers

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INTRODUCTION

In spite of continuing problems with monetary union, and agricultural policy issues, the Single European Market became a reality on January 1, 1993. This new economic reality is already having a significant impact on the way educators teach international marketing concepts. We must begin discussion of how these changes will affect the way we teach our marketing courses beyond the marketing principles course. Europe without borders will enable sales and marketing people to expand the approaches used to reach customers. In this paper we examine the expected changes in the marketing concepts involved. Based on this analysis, we explore ways in which we may have to change the way we teach marketing.

THE ISSUE

The unification process has created a very large marketplace with significant economies of scale and has expanded the size and wealth of the EC market. These changes present two important questions: (1) What does this market mean to American and European companies and marketers? (2) And, how will these changes influence the way we teach marketing? This issue is one that needs a broad discussion by the decision makers in our profession.

ROLE OF MARKETING EDUCATION

A sizeable majority of U.S. colleges and universities treat the European Unification issue as something that needs to be mentioned in the Principles of Marketing class and further discussed in the International Marketing class. In the experience of the authors of this paper, these two extremes represent only the beginning when it comes to providing a number of options to students and faculty to fully incorporate the European Unification process and its implications into the marketing education process. These options include: curriculum content and evaluation route, study abroad, internship and cooperative education, collaborative research and business outreach programs, and, faculty and student exchanges.

CONCLUSION

The market environment that has resulted from the unification of the European market is larger than the sum of the twelve traditional national markets. These developments require a need for a systems building marketing education approach by all of us that would help our students break down their ethnocentrism, and become successful European marketers.

CROSS-NATIONAL CHANNEL RELATIONSHIP PERFORMANCE: THE ROLE OF CULTURAL SENSITIVITY, CONFLICT AND COMMUNICATION

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ABSTRACT

The need to be sensitive to foreign cultures is often stated axiomatically in the international marketing literature despite very little conceptual or empirical research on its nature and consequence. To fill this void partially, this study addresses empirically the question of the effects of cultural sensitivity on communication, conflict and performance in cross-national channel relationships.

Data collected from 223 U.S. manufacturers and 97 Mexican distributors on their relationship with a primary international trading partner reveal that the sensitivity axiom can be supported empirically. Furthermore, the effects of cultural sensitivity generalize across this national boundary. The findings provide insight into both the measurement of cultural sensitivity and its place in a nomological network of relationship constructs.

INTRODUCTION

Due to the increasingly widespread internationalization of the marketplace, the issue of culture has received considerable attention in the international marketing literature. Researchers emphasize the powerful impact that culture may have on the existence and functioning of exchange relationships (e.g., Frazier, Gill and Kale 1989), distribution channel relationships (e.g., Kale and McIntyre 1991), cross-national buyer-seller interactions (e.g, Kale and Barnes 1992), perceptions of industrial goods exporters (Kraft and Chung 1992), and the quality of cross-national communication and interaction in general (e.g., Aviel 1990; Snyder 1991). The need to be sensitive to foreign cultures and to become "attuned to the nuances of culture" (Cateora 1990) is widely expressed in this literature. While the importance of culture and the desirability to be culturally sensitive is well-established, very little systematic empirical research has been conducted on the exact nature and implications of cultural sensitivity. Thus, it is important that researchers "move beyond anecdotes" toward an improved conceptual understanding of cultural sensitivity and its consequences (Kale and Barnes 1992).

CONCLUSIONS

While the extant literature is based primarily on anecdotal evidence and intuitive insight, the results of the present study empirically validate the effects of cultural sensitivity on communication and conflict. It seems that management training in the international arena should address the consequences of cultural sensitivity. Marketing managers today need to be aware that being cross-culturally sensitive may represent a prerequisite for successful, committed and satisfactory international business relationships.

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JAPANESE AND KOREAN MARKETING STRATEGIES IN THE U.S.A.: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Briefly, the aim of this study is to compare and contrast, firstly, the overall approach of Japanese and Korean companies to the marketplace. This includes top management attitudes toward marketing and business strategies, the nature of their marketing objectives, and the actual marketing activities carried out by firms to face competition. Secondly, we wished to explore innovation and New Product Development (NPD) processes in both Japanese and Korean corporations.

This includes the objectives of new product development, the origin of ideas for products which have proved successful, the pricing of new products, and the speed of introduction and test marketing. Thirdly, we looked at the view of Japanese and Korean firms toward the proposed NAFTA agreement. This includes the measure taken - if any - to maintain their competitive position, and the ability of their strategies to exhibit flexibility and to make adjustments in response to the expected changing conditions.

The study is based on a survey of managing directors and senior marketing executives of Japanese and Korean firms in the U.S.A. The data were collected via a mailed survey in July/August 1993. Questionnaires were dispatched, addressed in person to the managing directors of Japanese and Korean companies operating in the U.S.A. The subsequent analysis is based upon a total sample of 32 companies operating in the U.S.A. (15 Japanese and 17 Korean). The companies included in the final analysis included household names such as Hitachi, Mitsubishi, Canon, Daewoo, Hyundai, Goldstar, and Kia.

The study reports on a number of critical success factors which distinguish Japanese and Korean firms' performance from U.S. competitors. Japanese and Korean companies saw their strengths in placing emphasis on research and engineering. They also emphasized speed in bringing new products to the market and enjoy sufficient advantage to buy and defend market share in the U.S.A. after the deployment of NAFTA.

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OF COURSE STUDENTS ARE CUSTOMERS!

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ABSTRACT

This paper is a satirical review of problems inherit in a customer model of education. The paper will show that counter to historical precedent, traditional pedagogical philosophy, ethical standards, and common sense, students should be seen as customers.

Ideas are important in the formulation and operation of an organization. The paradigms driving higher education are a case in point. We take for granted many of our assumptions about what a college or university does without contemplating the source of the academies' origins. Consequently, when an article appears in an influential publication (The Wall Street Journal, Tuesday, December 15, 1992) discussing a new paradigm for higher education, it is well to take note.

Dana Milbank, writing in The Journal, suggests that many schools are adopting a "controversial new brand" of education, one in which students are seen as customers of the educational process. TQM, as applied in industry, could serve as the model. This idea is sure to create opposition among more conservative faculty, especially those who have reactions to any new managerial fad that can be abbreviated into three letters. But actually, there is nothing "new" in seeing students as customers. There has simply been little public debate about the problems or merits of such a paradigm. Hints that a consumer model is already in operation can be found in matter-of-fact statements and assumptions. Dean Walter Massey at Brown University explained, for example, that the genius of the school's new curriculum is that it focuses "... on the student as the subject of concern, not areas of knowledge (p. 91)" (Sykes 1988). Or a recent article in the U.S. News & World Report that states that, "... those who pay the bills are no longer in awe of academic authority (p. 99)" (Elfin 1993), as if students actually paid for their education independent of societal costs.

The question this paper addresses is simple: Are students best served if they are seen as consumers? The marketing concept creates a strong framework for pedagogical decision making. Many faculty members embrace the idea because it absolves them of making all the decisions in the classroom. Administrators are attracted because it diffuses responsibility, and it gives them a clientele for whom they may become an advocate. In an era of rapidly escalating tuition costs, students like to see themselves as customers because it gives them more control over their education. The concept also has social merit appealing to our sense of fair play and equality, especially in an era when difficult issues with ethical or moral overtones are increasingly being referred to majority opinion. As appealing as these arguments may be, however, there will always be those who will argue that students are not customers. Some may even suggest that it is a mistake with serious consequences to assume that they are.

Those who advocate a student customer paradigm, generally list five problems, each of which is easily dismissed.

1. What is the Product?

Robert Pedersen states in The Chronicle of Higher Education, "A student cannot be a customer of higher education because, simply put, one cannot buy such an education." Of course, "one" can buy such an education. I have seen them advertised.

Since education is highly undifferentiated, with "customers" almost universally unable to selectively discriminate except by surrogate cues, education can be defined any way we wish. I will admit that marketing education does pose a special problem in definition, but nothing that cannot be overcome with a little epistemological slight-of-hand and the imposition of some arbitrary regulations. It has been stated by Shelby Hunt (1992) that marketing education occupies a position more analogous to the professions than to purely academic disciplines like sociology. While this is an apt comparison, there are some differences. A degree in marketing, especially at the bachelor level, does not make one a marketer. Unfortunately, marketing is open to anyone who can perform, irrespective of formal training. Many successful marketers do not have a degree. This should be changed. We should, as some have suggested (Bunn & Goins 1993), insist on some sort of licensing in marketing that would demand at least a marketing degree. Just because colleges and schools of business have not been able to demonstrate that having a degree in marketing significantly improves a person's performance in marketing (see Hunt, Chanko, & Wood 1986) doesn't mean that we shouldn't aggressively push forward with an excellent idea that would make the degree a true product.

2. Customer Demands will Reduce Academic Rigor

When making a selection, people generally try to maximize outcomes. During an operating mode, however, many people try to minimize inputs. Students, it has been argued, are no exception. The critics argue that when selecting a school or major, students will look at the programs in terms of the outputs. Those already in a program will attempt to minimize inputs. An increase in tuition may increase the perception of quality. Yet, students already in the system will protest the change in fees. Similarly, attempts to tighten academic requirements will be resisted by those in the system while many times increasing the number of applicants to the program. Students, we are told, naturally prefer less effort, less difficulty, less challenge, and less uncertainty. Many students cut classes and in general try to bargain for less than they "paid" for. There are classes in any curriculums that would be taken by very few, if any, students if it were at the students' option. True, there is some research to back up these contentions (Henke 1985; Warren 1985; Smith 1988; Varamini 1991), but other institutions must have students that don't match our high standards because surely the conditions described don't match our own experience.

3. Problems with Measuring Customer Satisfaction

If a student is a customer, then as in any other business, pleasing them becomes very important. An instructor's primary responsibility should be to please the students. Surveying the students (consumer research) becomes essential, and the evaluations should be taken at face value. Critics maintain that these evaluation systems have the potential of creating some serious problems not only for instructors and the institution, but also for the students themselves.

Some critics have suggested that problems with the current system have gone beyond management into issues of ideology; and with some, it appears, into a type of theology. While not emphasizing the student as a customer, the insistence of student evaluation of instruction has come primarily from the schools of education. The educational establishment has appropriately insisted that whatever happens in the classroom is the responsibility of the instructor. Questions appearing on student teacher evaluations such as, "The instructor makes me want to learn," seem to upset some faculty. This is probably due to a misunderstanding of the philosophical roots of these issues. This seemingly insulting question makes sense when one recognizes that the responsibility for learning falls totally on the instructor. For example, if a student does poorly on an exam, who is at fault? As many of

you students will tell you, either the test was faulty or the instruction was inadequate.

Critics have asked numerous questions about the effect of a customer evaluation system. Have GRE, GMAT, or any other scores improved over time as faculty have received better evaluations from students? Or have the students gotten better jobs, gotten into better graduate schools, or been happier? Does the academic rigor of the educational process diminish when students evaluate instructors like customers? Does the average GPA of schools instituting a student evaluation system go up, with a corresponding decrease in grading standards? While such questions seem to present a menacing picture, the concerns can be addressed with the following arguments: 1) In a customer model, it should be remembered that customer satisfaction is more important than the values and biases of educational suppliers. 2) Since the instructors are responsible for what happens in the classroom, increases of GPA can be seen as an indication of increased instructional excellence. 3) Besides, the faculty need these evaluation systems to maximize their performance in the classroom. Without customer evaluations coupled with administrative prodding, the faculty obviously would not perform as well as they should.

This contention is reinforced by the student customers' own perceptions. At our university, most of the students' comments are directed to administrators, not to the instructor. In other words, the students are expecting the administrators to do something about the quality of classroom instruction by doing something about the instructors. The evaluations may be used to better the performance of the faculty, but students seem to be implying that it should be the manager who would do this by motivating the worker, presumably by prodding and threats. If the faculty could be trusted in these matters, the evaluations would not need to be anonymous and they would go directly to the faculty.

If students are customers, the student evaluation process should become even more ubiquitous. Time in the classroom and instruction are only part of a student's experience with a college or university. Other aspects of the institution need to be evaluated regularly. How is the Department Head doing? The Dean? The President of the University and the Administration? What about the physical plant? Are the classrooms comfortable? The dorms? How is the food? Is the staff friendly? Since many institutions are judged by outsiders on the strength and achievements of the athletic program, do the students approve of the way the football team is managed? The current evaluation

process, although plagued with problems of reliability, is woefully under used and hypocritically aimed at only a small part of the students' total experience. The evaluation needs to be expanded to include administrators and the entire university so that everyone can benefit from the system.

4. Academic Freedom and Civil Rights
If students are customers then the customer evaluation of instruction could result in a culling of faculty through denial of tenure, advancement or merit pay. Critics have maintained that this could result in a threat to traditional standards of academic freedom and civil rights. They point out research that a very consistent twenty percent of the faculty are rated as the very *best* and the very *worst* by the very *same* class (Follman 1984). The faculty that regularly fall into this twenty percent are probably different in some way; different in personality, teaching methods, or even in geographical or racial backgrounds. They also point out that dissatisfied customers are much more likely to be heard from than satisfied customers. They are afraid that students, when they evaluate faculty, are not likely to leave their stereotypes and prejudices behind. What is the plight, they ask, of a course of instruction or an instructor who presents controversial ideas or espouses currently unpopular opinions or ideologies? What is the fate of instructors who may be from racial, ethnic, or religious groups that the students at any given moment may find unacceptable? While these may be legitimate concerns, it is highly unlikely that student-customer evaluations would be used in this way. First, it has been my experience that the students consistently make mature, well thought out comments and suggestions and seem unswayed by the biases and prejudices of our society. Second, my impression is that administrators, unlike faculty, can be fully trusted in this matter. Even if certain "rogue" administrators would allow students demands to be used in this way, the arguments are still irrelevant. Instructor should be appropriately "attractive" to the students because, simply put, it facilitates the learning process.

5. Problems with Curriculum and Faculty Resources
Although students are generally unfamiliar with the work place, they have definite ideas about what they would like to study to be successful. Most students, for example would rather study advertising than other promotions, and almost always prefer any other promotion to sales. Even though faculty may be aware that there are 100 jobs in sales for every one or two in advertising does not give that faculty member the right to dictate curriculum to a student consumer. Administrators need also to take note of student

preferences in tenure decisions and in hiring new faculty. Students, for instance, do not think that research is very important (Wilson 1982), and they most definitely prefer actual experience over degrees (Clayson 1992). Administrators should stop looking for new PhDs and begin searching for kindly but knowledgeable Fortune 500 executives who are willing to cater to the whims of twenty year olds while teaching advertising or public relations at one fifth of their current salary.

CONCLUSION

The responsibility for education in the customer model is solely with the instructor. The student (as any other customer) should have no responsibility in the educational process other than as an evaluator or judge of what she or he purchases. Putting the educational process back in the hands of the customer not only makes marketing sense for the student and the institution, but it also makes sense politically. State legislators, educational bureaucrats and hangers-on can now get a better grip on higher education within their state. Hard data would become available to see that faculty are doing their jobs and putting forth an effort commensurate to what they are being "paid for." Critics may argue that a tax-supported or private institution is not a business with customers or products, but an organization created by the peoples of the state (or private groups) to achieve a certain purpose or goal. They would argue that if we assume that the goal is an educated and productive populace, and if we also assume that instructors are hired and paid with limited resources because the average student cannot obtain the goal without them, then to assume that students are consumers may not only be unwise but also unethical. Nonsense.

After centuries of debate about what an higher education should be, the consumer model solves the problem once and for all. The purpose of higher education is to please the customer and keep the funds flowing from the students and from the state capital.

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AN ANALYSIS OF THE CRITICAL INCIDENT TECHNIQUE (CIT) AS AN EFFECTIVE METHOD FOR INSTRUCTOR EVALUATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on the application of the Critical Incident Technique (CIT) as a method of service quality evaluation in teaching. The authors designed a study to examine if the CIT was an appropriate method to aid in instructor evaluation. The background and methodology of the technique will be examined. This will be followed by a five step description of the experiment, and then a detailed summary of the results and conclusions.

INTRODUCTION

Universities are currently one of the premier service industries in the United States, with students coming from around the world to experience the unique services of our nation's higher education system. In order to maintain and improve current service levels in our education market, it will be necessary for educators of all disciplines to put more emphasis on the services required by students. With this service emphasis in mind, the CIT may be a very useful tool to aid educators in continued instructional improvement and development.

This technique was originally developed in 1954 by John Flanagan to assist in pilot training for the Aviation Psychology Program of the United States (Flanagan 1954). Since this time, the method has evolved into a popular technique often used in business practice to aid managers in determining employee effectiveness in such areas as work motivation (Herzberg, Manseur, & Snderman 1954), negotiation and bargaining power (Steers 1984; Luthas 1985; George 1989), and job performance (Fitts & Jones 1961). In each case mentioned above, the technique was used because of its ability to examine interpersonal interaction in the proper evaluation of professionals (Day & Bodur 1978; Quelch & Ash 1981). Since the CIT has been successfully implemented as a method of evaluation for employees in diverse situations, it appears logical to consider this technique as an appropriate evaluation method for instructors in college classrooms.

Most would agree that a primary responsibility of college instructors is to aid students in the learning process. Unfortunately, understanding how an instructor can best assist a student in this process is not an easy task. In the current college environment there is limited opportunity for students to critique their instructors. Furthermore, if the opportunity does arise, it is usually at the conclusion of the class and the results are typically used more for administrative purposes than for developmental purposes. Instructor evaluations may be more beneficial to both the instructors and the students if they are used as a communication tool by which the quality of the service encounter can be improved. This two-way benefit is realized by increasing the human interaction component that is necessary before determination of a satisfactory or unsatisfactory service encounter can ultimately occur (Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault 1990).

The timely receipt of information could potentially aid the instructor in improving their overall ability to convey knowledge to their students. This would be far superior to the current reactive approach to instructor evaluations because evaluation information could be conveyed to the instructor in time for corrective action to be applied to that particular class, thus better accommodating current students. The CIT allows for this process by providing detailed descriptions about specific events and/or behaviors. This type of student/teacher interaction allows the student evaluator to offer suggestions for improvement, as well as, granting the instructor sufficient information with which to perform a self-evaluation aimed at teacher improvement.

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RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The CIT is a qualitative technique consisting of five steps aimed at producing a complete and detailed picture of the subject under study. These five steps are: 1) determination of the general aim of the activity, 2) development of a plan for data collection, 3) collection of the data, 4) analysis of the data, and 5) interpretation of the results (Woolsey 1986).

This study employed the CIT to evaluate the quality of instruction provided in a principles of marketing class. The class was taught by an assistant professor of marketing. The sample size of the experiment included all registered students in the course, 42 subjects in total. Students served as the evaluators and were given two preprinted forms on which to record their observations. The evaluators were told to observe characteristics of the instructor and identify certain incidents throughout the class that they felt demonstrated particularly effective or ineffective teaching. In describing the incidents, students were told to include such things as actual lecture techniques, personal mannerisms, or even methods of class organization; anything which contributed to the effectiveness/ ineffectiveness of the incident. After ten class sessions, each student evaluator was required to turn in the effective and ineffective evaluations with a cover sheet containing their name and social security number. The cover sheets were later detached from the evaluators for two reasons: 1) to assure evaluator anonymity, and 2) to allow the student evaluators to be given credit for completion of the assignment.

Step One. In this study, the general aim of the activity was to identify behaviors or characteristics which can be used in the training and development of university instructors. The goals of other studies could very well be different for each instructor and/or class, depending on which attributes of teaching the instructor wishes to examine. In this study the main goals were to obtain feedback from students that would help in the training of relatively new professors, or aid in the refinement of teaching techniques for more experienced professors. It was felt that if this goal was to be properly achieved, it would be necessary for the professor to obtain feedback on both their effective and ineffective teaching techniques.

Step Two. The Planning process for data collection requires the answers to several questions including who will be the evaluator(s)/observers and what will be included in the content of the evaluation(s)? As mentioned before, students were selected as the evaluators and the content of the evaluations was organized by using prepared evaluation forms (See Exhibit A). These forms were designed to aid the evaluator(s) in effectively describing a particular incident deemed critical by the evaluator(s). Two forms were designed and distributed, one specifically for the identification of an effective teaching technique, and one specifically for the identification of an ineffective teaching technique.

The effective evaluation form contained three questions in total. The first question attempted to focus the evaluator on one very specific incident and the related events surrounding the incident. The second question encouraged the evaluator to identify the actual teaching traits or behaviors that made the incident effective. Responses to this question were of primary interest to the independent judges charged with categorizing and sub-categorizing the evaluations in step four of the process. The third and final question attempted to get the evaluator to describe the actual result of the effective teaching trait or behavior so consistency could be established with the study's goals.

The ineffective evaluations were configured in a similar manner to the effective evaluations except that they contained an extra question. The additional question was added to increase the interaction between student and instructor by allowing the evaluator to offer their suggestions on how to improve upon an ineffective trait or behavior displayed by the instructor.

Step Three. The collection of the data was fairly simple. The professor conducting the class passed out the preprinted forms, gave students ten 75-minute lecture sessions to observe and evaluate the instructor, and then had a colleague pick up the anonymous evaluations. The instructor helped to guarantee anonymity by requiring each participating student to hand in a type written evaluation and a detachable cover sheet. The cover sheet was then separated from the evaluations by the independent colleague assisting in the collection process. Additionally,

while there is no specific time period requirement underlying the CIT, the time given to the evaluators should be sufficient for them to experience many diverse teaching attributes.

Step Four. The data analysis section of the experiment is often the most difficult part of the process (Woolsey 1986). This part of the process centers around separating the evaluations into primary and secondary categories. Since one of the goals of the research was to provide information for the development of relatively new professors (i.e. graduate student teachers), it was felt that the evaluations should be divided into two categories. One of these categories was labeled "teaching" and contained evaluations that identified techniques that could be taught to the instructor. The other category was labeled "teacher" and contained evaluations identifying attributes that were more innate and thus may be more difficult to teach the instructor (i.e. personality traits). Once the evaluations were divided into these two groups, they were further sub-categorized into more specific groups.

Once the researcher has completed the categorization and sub-categorization process, an independent judge is given the titles of the multiple groups and is asked to independently attempt their own categorization of the evaluations. To enhance the validity and reliability of the results, it is suggested that you obtain a 75% to 85% agreement rate with your primary categories ("teacher" and "teaching" in our study), and a 60% to 70% agreement rate with your sub-categories (seven segments for each of the effective and ineffective evaluations in our study) (Anderson & Nilsson 1964).

Step five. This step simply includes analyzing the results and drawing appropriate conclusions given the goals and objectives of your study.

RESULTS OF STUDY
Effective Evaluation Results

"teacher" category 84%		"teaching" category 77%	
Interaction	84%	Content	77%
Physical/Engergy	83%	Lecture Examples	85%
Ability to deliver	78%	Organization	66%
		Explanations	94%

Inffective Evaluation Results

"teacher" category 92%		"teaching" category 81%	
Tone/Pace of Lecture	76%	Course requirements	83%
Energy Level	78%	Material covered	76%
Appearance	89%	Organization	88%
		Explanations	96%

DISCUSSION

Examination of the effective evaluations identified the following sub-categories within the "teaching" category: 1) class content (i.e. "the topics of discussion are very interesting and informative"), 2) examples used in lecture to illustrate course material (i.e. "the professor uses lots of real world business examples to illustrate the theory of the course"), 3) overall organization of the course (i.e. "I like the way the professor provides the students with an outline of the lecture for that day"), and 4) explanation of material contained within the lecture (i.e. "the professor is good at explaining the theory of marketing"). The effective evaluation sub-categories contained within the "teacher" category included: 1) interaction with the students (i.e. "the professor encourages class participation by involving the students in the class"), 2) energy level or physical characteristics displayed during the lecture (i.e. "the professor is very enthusiastic and appears to enjoy lecturing to the students"), and 3) overall ability to deliver an effective lecture (i.e. "the professor is an excellent lecturer and is good at public speaking").

The effective evaluations categorized under "teacher" were dominated by one sub-category.

The most consistently identified sub-category was the use of "lecture examples" as an effective technique. The effective evaluations categorized under "teacher" also consistently displayed one sub-category; "physical/energy level."

Examination of the ineffective evaluations identified the following sub-categories within the "teaching" category: 1) assignments or requirements of the course (i.e. "I didn't like the way the professor required us to use the mainframe computer for class assignments"), 2) material covered within the course (i.e. "I felt that much of the material covered in the course will be of no benefit to me in the future"), 3) organization of the course (i.e. "I didn't like the way the instructor often deviated from the book during the lecture," and 4) explanations contained within the lecture (i.e. "I had trouble following some of the in-class explanations of marketing"). The ineffective evaluation sub-categories contained within the "teacher" category included: 1) tone and/or pace of the lecture (i.e. "our enthusiastic professor sometimes went too fast and I was unable to take good notes"), 2) energy level of the lecturer (i.e. "the professor was constantly moving around the room which made me nervous"), and 3) overall appearance of the lecturer (i.e. "sometimes the professor was dressed in such a way that I concentrated on her instead of what she was saying").

In reviewing the ineffective evaluations it was once again apparent that the majority of the student evaluators were consistently identifying the same sub-categories. The majority of the evaluations falling under "teaching" identified the sub-category of "course requirements" as the predominant ineffective characteristic. The majority of the evaluations falling under "teacher" identified the sub-category of "tone and/or pace" as the ineffective characteristic. At this point, the professor might be well advised to review question four of the ineffective evaluations to obtain potential solutions to the characteristics identified as being ineffective. It is interesting to note at this point that some of the sub-categories appear as both an effective and ineffective trait (i.e. energy level of the lecturer). This indicates that the professor needs to achieve a balance with this trait so that it is received by the students as being effective.

LIMITATIONS & CONCLUSION

It is important to note that during the self-evaluation stage of this technique, the professor must interpret the results in a manner that allows for classroom changes while maintaining the overall integrity of the classroom situation. For instance in the ineffective results contained above it may be that many of the student evaluators simply do not like the workload required of the particular class. This would explain the ineffective evaluations under the sub-category of "course requirements," however, a change may not be the prudent response under the circumstances.

Perhaps one of the greatest benefits of this technique could be as a teaching instrument for graduate students relatively new to classroom teaching. Most PhD. programs in the United States utilize their PhD. students as instructors, researchers, or a combination of both. This makes sense in light of the fact that most PhD. students have a desire to continue in the academic arena where they will primarily be utilized as researchers and classroom instructors. Using the CIT as an aid in the improvement of graduate student teaching techniques could be very beneficial to current PhD. students since many of them will be the professors of tomorrow in our colleges and universities.

This instrument is by no means perfect, and its use should be confined to a self-improvement instructional tool. It is very likely that this type of method would yield minimum positive results when used as a method of administrative evaluation. However, since teaching is a vital component of the overall success experienced by a college professor, any evaluation technique that is aimed at overall teacher improvement needs to be considered. Using the Critical Incident Technique as a method of instructor evaluation could potentially increase the overall service quality of higher learning institutions here in the United States and abroad.

EXHIBIT A

Effective Evaluation Questions

1) Please describe a specific situation in which your instructor was particularly effective in his/her teaching. Include class, date, time, and events surrounding the incident.

2) Please describe the effective teaching trait, behavior, activity, etc. What did the instructor do?

3) Please describe the result of the effective teaching. Specifically, how did this teaching activity or trait affect your learning of the material? What happened as a result of the teaching technique that affected your learning experience?

Ineffective Evaluation Questions

1) Please describe a specific situation in which your instructor was particularly ineffective in his/her teaching. Include class, date, time, and events surrounding the incident.

2) Please describe the ineffective teaching trait, behavior, activity, etc. What did the instructor do?

3) Please describe the result of the ineffective teaching. Specifically, how did this teaching activity or trait affect your learning of the material? What happened as a result of the teaching technique that affected your learning experience?

4) Since you have identified an ineffective teaching technique, please give a recommendation on how this problem can be improved.

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF EXPERT SYSTEMS IN MARKETING EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Expert systems technology for business has proliferated in development and use in recent years. Expert systems for educational use in business-related courses are still in the beginning stages of development. In this study an expert system developed to help with the decisions regarding the correct choice of a statistical test was used. Students in several sections of an introductory marketing research class participated, using either a flowchart from a textbook or the expert system to decide on the correct statistical test for some practice problems.

The students had been tested before to determine their dominant learning style. Prior studies have indicated that students with different learning styles react differently to instruction methods. Kolb's Learning Style Inventory describes four types of learners: Accommodators who prefer active experimentation and concrete experience.

Divergers who prefer concrete experience and reflective observation.

Assimilators who prefer reflective observation and abstract conceptualization.

Converger who prefer abstract conceptualization and active experimentation.

Based on the learning styles literature it was predicted that Convergers would perform better with the flow chart. Accommodators would show the least improvement of all the groups and that the use of help screens, which were provided in the expert system, would help performance.

Help screens did significantly improve students' performance. Convergers using the expert system did significantly worse than those using the flowchart. Accommodators in both groups showed the overall lowest improvement. Neither the expert system nor the book material improved scores significantly among Accommodators. Future research should investigate if these findings can be replicated using other material than statistical test selection. These research results support the notion that educators need to consider their students' learning styles when deciding on the use of computer-aided instructional tools in their classes.

A QUALITATIVE ASSESSMENT
OF THE CROSS-CULTURAL EQUIVALENCY OF
SERVICE QUALITY AS MEASURED BY THE SERVQUAL INSTRUMENT

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ABSTRACT

The wide acceptance in the United States of concept of service quality and its measurement via the SERVQUAL scale leads one to the question of the cross-cultural applicability of the concept and its measurement with SERVQUAL. This paper reports on the literature concerning the cross-culteral equivalence of marketing research and then assesses the equivalence of service quality and its measurement with SERVQUAL for the Chinese, Indian and Norwegian cultures. The qualitative findings (depth, group interviews and translation) suggest that both the concept of service quality and its measurement with SERVQUAL can achieve acceptable levels of conceptual, functional, category, metric or scaler, calibration and translation equivalence in the cultures studied.

A QUALITATIVE ASSESSMENT OF THE CROSS-CULTURAL EQUIVALENCY OF SERVICE QUALITY AS MEASURED BY THE SERVQUAL INSTRUMENT

Introduction

The increased emphasis on the global market place has brought with it an increased need for cross-cultural research (Albaum and Peterson, 1984; Marbeau 1990). Because we all have our own cultural bias, it is important to examine such fundamental concepts as service quality to determine if this construct that has been so well developed and tested in the United States (Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry, 1990) can be used in cross-cultural research.

Previous Research

It is normally assumed that some comparability of results is desirable in cross-cultural research and the search for comparability has focused on achieving equivalence (see Table 1), primarily (and perhaps wrongly) translation equivalence (Hui and Triandis 1983; Anderson 1967; Douglas and Craig 1983; Green and White 1976; Berry 1969; Sechrest, Fay and Zaidi 1972; Sekaran 1983; Bhalla and Lin 1987; Sood 1989; Barker and Kaciak 1992). However, years ago Webster (1966) cautioned against assuming the same methodology and

TABLE 1

Types, Definitions and Examples of Equivalencies in Cross-Cultural Research

Type of Equivalency	Definition	Example
Construct	the understanding of psychological and marketing constructs across cultures. Three distinct parts.	the term innovative may have a different meaning to Asians than Americans
a) conceptual	the similarity of meaning that people in different cultures place on market stimuli, product, and behavior	hot milk-based drinks are seen as relaxing in the UK but stimulating in Thailand
b) functional	similar activities that have different functions in different societies cannot be used for comparative purposes	bicycles are seen as recreational in the U.S., but as a means of transport in Europe
c) category	the way that objects, stimuli, and behavior are grouped	post graduate means masters and phd degrees in the commonwealth, but in the U S it refers to work done after those degrees have been achieved
Measure or Operationalization Equivalence	specifies the transition from theory to measurement	leisure is operationalized by watching golf in the U.S., but maybe not elsewhere
a) Metric or Scaler Equivalence	comparability of both scoring procedures and responses to a given measure	a 5-10 point scale may be appropriate in the U.S., while a 10-20 scale is appropriate in another country
b) Calibration Equivalence	this equivalence includes the units of measure and interpretation of colors and symbols	the color white has different meanings in different cultures
c) Translation Equivalence	verbal and non-verbal communication in a way comparable in two or more languages	
Sampling Equivalence	comparability of different samples, can be broken down into relevant respondent and representative sample	drawing samples with the same characteristics from both a. French and English speaking population
a) Relevant Respondent	how relevant the sample is to the survey	if soft drink preference is tested, sample should contain soft drink consumers
b) Representative Sample	does the sample accurately represent the population under investigation	in a study of students, sample should mirror the UW population
Types of Translational Equivalency		
a) Vocabulary	equivalence in the words used in the two translations	there is no word for 'feminine' in Tagalog
b) Idiomatic	equivalence in the translation of idioms with the goal of equivalent meanings	Galit bukan is a idiom in Tagalog which means angry volcano
c) Grammatical-Syntactical	equivalence in parts of speech	verbs forms and gerunds
d) Experiential	the real things in life or things which are familiar to both cultures	florist is an American term unknown in others parts of the world
e) Conceptual	ensuring that the concepts used in the two translations are equivalent	homosexual is a concept familiar to America, but not in the Philippines

Types of Data Collection
Equivalency

a)	Instrument	refers to the instrument design and the appropriateness of the survey technique	use of the telephone as the survey instrument may not reach representative cross-section
b)	Temporal	:he timing of the research were the surveys conducted simultaneously, sequentially or independently	self explanatory
c)	Contextual/Situational	Interaction between respondent and interviewer, includes interviewer ability and physical location of the interview	respondent may be more at ease in own home or office
d)	Response Style	how culture affects response style	differences in culture may evoke extreme responses or non-response behavior

Sources: Compiled from Bhalla and Lin (1987), Douglas and Craig (1983), Hui and Triandis (1985), Mayer (1978), Sechrest, Fay and Zaidi (1972)

translation equivalence yield comparable results. This theme is echoed by other authors who point to the emic/etic dilemma (Douglas and Craig 1983). The conclusions of these sometimes simultaneous pleas for equivalence and criticisms of equivalence seem to be that cross-cultural research is a series of trade-offs. Maximizing one or two forms of equivalence may tend to minimize others. Thus, there is a need to trade comparability for local adaptation (decentralization) to adequately capture cultural differences. Other approaches to achieving comparability such as multiple measures and/or statistical techniques (normalizing, standardizing) are frequently too costly or difficult to be viable (Douglas and Craig 1983; Hui and Triandis 1983).

Notwithstanding the considerable debate about whether, how, and when to achieve equivalence in cross-cultural research, this study examines the cross-cultural equivalency of the concept of service quality as operationalized by the SERVQUAL scale (Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry 1990). Other issues in cross-cultural research, such as validity and reliability (Parameswaran 1987; Jaffe and Nebenzahl 1984; Davis, Douglas and Silk 1981), measurement problems (Sood 1989) and the nature of the scale (Barker and Kaciak 1992) will not be dealt with directly.

Methodology

The overall methodology consists of two phases a qualitative and a quantitative phase. The first phase, the qualitative phase, was a series of depth interviews with paid student respondents representing Norwegian, Indian, and Chinese cultures. While it is acknowledged that students are different than the general population, the paying of the students for their participation was done to help offset any duress that may have been

present. Additionally, the nature of the topic (service quality) is most relevant to the segments of the cultures most likely to be represented by students, i.e., marketing researchers studying service quality would likely target upper income, well educated respondents as these are the heavy users of most for-profit services. The purpose of the depth interviews was to establish in general terms the presence or absence of each type of equivalency.

The second phase will consist of having a systematic random sample of students from each culture rate the equivalencies of the construct of service quality for specific types of services. The purpose of this phase will be to obtain a more quantitative measure of each form of equivalency. Additionally, the qualitative phase of the research revealed the need to anchor any assessment of equivalence to particular services. The quantitative phase provided specific services as anchors.

Finally, in addition to the overall methodology, a forward and backward translation along with decentering were used to assess the ability to achieve translation equivalency. While the forward and back translation approach is recommended in order to achieve translation equivalency (Sechrest, Fay and Zaidi 1972) the problems associated with using bilinguals (Anderson 1967) and the need for decentering (Choudhry 1986) were recognized. The emphasis in achieving translation equivalency was on achieving equivalent meaning rather than word for word back translation equivalency.

Results Qualitative Phase

The qualitative phase of the research provided good insight into the ability of marketers to study service quality cross-culturally. For the cultures studied (Norwegian, Chinese, Indian) there was general agreement that the construct of service quality was similar across cultures. Specifically, each of the major components of service quality as identified by Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry (1990): tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy, were felt to exist in the respondent's cultures and were considered important components of service quality. This finding from the depth interviews supports both conceptual and construct equivalency, which are perhaps the most important equivalencies for cross-cultural researchers.

While this general result held, there were specific aspects of the concept of service quality that differed somewhat from the U.S. concept. Most notably, all

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three groups of foreign students felt that there were a lower set of expectations for service quality in their home country. As one of the Norwegian respondents said:

"We really don't expect much. The expectation is just for them not to be rude. The best service should probably be 'good' or 'acceptable' not 'excellent.' Although there is a Norwegian word for excellent in the dictionary, it would probably not be used in conjunction with service quality. For example at soccer games, people don't expect the waits in line to be minimized. They expect long lines."

Other expressions of this same set of lower expectations also existed in the Chinese and Indian groups' responses. For example, in the Chinese group it was mentioned that although they would like "excellent" service, you just can't get it. Lines are expected at the postal service and at train stations. You have to "know someone" to get good service in trading stocks or buying plane tickets. Bribes are commonly used in both India and China and there is thus, a direct "price" and service quality relationship. Both of these groups also expressed similar views in that anything associated with the "government" meant lower service quality. Perhaps one exception existed in the government run banks in India. Although the Indian banks provide fewer services than the U.S. counterparts, it was felt that they provided better quality service than other public sector services (transportation most notably).

An important conceptual nuance was discovered in the Indian group. It was noted that although the equipment in most post offices in India would be out-dated by U.S. standards, it would be considered up-to-date by Indian standards. This illustrates a point made in all three cultural groups. If the quality of service depends on expectations, then members of cultures who have been exposed to higher service quality in other countries will have different expectations (foreign students for example) while members of the culture who have not been so exposed will perceive the service quality differently because their base comparison point is different. Because the SERVQUAL scale measures both expectations and perceived service, the different baseline expectations may need to be identified and considered in the overall assessment of service quality. Specifically, it may be necessary to form two groups, those with relatively high expectations and those with lower expectations, and examine the reasons for the differences in expectations.

Table 2 summarizes the findings form the qualitative study of the cross-cultural equivalency of service quality among Chinese, Norwegians and Indians as represented by foreign students. In sum, it appears that functional equivalency exists in that the underlying constructs of service quality carry across the cultures. One concern here however, is that service quality may not have the same significance as it does in the U.S.. Conceptual equivalency also seems to exist in that service quality occurs and is expressed in similar terms. However, expectations may be lower (see metric or scale equivalency). Category equivalency is not a major problem as long as the distinction is made between public and private services. Given functional, conceptual and category equivalence seem to exist to an acceptable degree, construct equivalence is at least feasible for the SERVQUAL scale (Douglas and Craig 1983).

TABLE 2

Evaluation of SERVQUAL on
Construct and Measure Equivalencies

	Equivalency of SERVQUAL in Culture		
Type of Equivalency	Indian	Chinese	Norwegian
Construct			
a) Functional	High	High	High
b) Conceptual	Moderate	Moderate	High
c) Category	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate
Measure			
a) Calibration	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate
b) Translation	High	Moderate	High
c) Metric	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate

High - SERVQUAL is or can be made culturally equivalent (this does not mean made the same, decentering is assumed)

Moderate - SERVQUAL is unlikely to be culturally equivalent, but an acceptable level of equivalency can be achieved

Low - SERVQUAL cannot be made to achieve an acceptable level of equivalency

Measure equivalence (operationally defining the construct) requires calibration, translation, and metric or scale equivalence (Douglas and Craig 1983). Calibration equivalence deals with both non-verbal stimuli and measures of weight, distance, volume, money, etc. Calibration equivalence does not appear to be an issue in most aspects of the SERVQUAL scale. One problem may be in the instructions to the SERVQUAL scale. In Chinese, to select a "number" that reflects feelings on a scale does not make sense. Thus, this instruction was translated to select an "answer." From a calibration standpoint, the emphasis on intervals is lost and thus, the Likert scale is clearly ordinal for data analysis

purposes. The scale is technically ordinal in any case, but it is common practice to treat the data as interval data. This practice may be less appropriate with the Chinese version of the questionnaire.

Translation equivalence has received much attention in the literature (Anderson 1967, Douglas and Craig 1983, Sechrest, Fay and Zaidi 1972) and it proved somewhat difficult in the case of the SERVQUAL scale. At first, the approach of iterative forward and back translation was attempted, but the problems identified by Choudhry (1986) were experienced in that forward translations that could be accurately back translated lost the original meanings and frequently required the use of words that would not be commonly used in the culture (this was true for Chinese, Indian and Norwegian translations). The decision was then made to emphasis Choudry's (1986) four measures of quality in translation:

1. Maximize clarity and comprehensiveness
2. Minimize changes in meaning
3. Emphasize ability to respond correctly
4. Pretesting (yet to be done)

Thus, the translated versions of SERVQUAL do not back translate exactly into the English version. Instead they are decentered to capture the original's meaning and to use the common terminology of the culture. Finally, these translations have not been pretested so it is assumed that they can be improved on the above criteria. Clearly, translation equivalency is possible for the SERVQUAL scale.

However, problems and concerns encountered during the translation process were numerous. One problem for all three versions was obtaining a non-hand-written copy (word processing). The Norwegian version was easiest as only a few characters are different from English and these characters are generally found in common word processing software packages. The Chinese version was more difficult because, although the conversion software existed, it was time consuming to use. The reason is that the software provides several Chinese character alternatives for each English word entered. The operator must then select the most appropriate character. This was time consuming even though a hand-written Chinese translation aided the process. The Indian version proved to be the most difficult to obtain in word processed form.

Other translation concerns include the fact that in both India and Norway there exists a national language promoted by the government. While the governments are trying to force the national languages to be adopted (Hindi and New Norwegian) there is some backlash among the populace. Modified Hindi and plain Norwegian were used for the initial translations. If one was to attempt to administer the SERVQUAL scale to government entities (employees) it might be necessary to develop pure Hindi and New Norwegian versions. A second translation consideration in both Norway and India is that much of the target market for services in both of these countries is bilingual. This means an English version, combined English and native language version, or mixed version of the SERVQUAL questionnaire are all feasible. Cultural sensitivity, targets for research and comparability of results are all concerns when considering these additional translation options.

The Chinese translation provided some concerns unique from the Norwegian and Hindi versions. Many of the English words used in SERVQUAL such as "employee" were difficult to capture in Chinese because the employee/boss relationship is not as clear in China as it is in the U.S.. Other concerns in the Chinese version include the fact that simplified Chinese can be read by Taiwanese, but not as comfortably as by mainland China respondents. Additionally, the capturing of meaning versus word for word translation is more important in Chinese. Word for word translation to achieve forward and back translation equivalence was virtually impossible in Chinese.

Overall, initial translated versions of the SERVQUAL questionnaire were obtained and it is felt that the versions achieved translation equivalency to the extent they removed the influence of language on the results. They are, however, non-pretested versions and will certainly need pretesting and further refining. There may be a need for multiple versions of the questionnaire in the cultures studied depending on the types of respondents being studied. Additionally, the concerns of Sechcrest, Fay, and Zaidi (1972) for cultural versus linguistic translation (experiential equivalence), idiomatic equivalence and grammatical-syntactical equivalence of the SERVQUAL scale need to be further researched. It appears that English could serve as a "carrier language" (Sechrest, Fay, and Zaidi 1972).

The next type of measure equivalence is metric or scale equivalence. This type of equivalence is concerned both with the specific scale used (7 point Likert and 100 point rating) and response bias. None of the groups studied in this qualitative research felt that the scales themselves were a problem. But, all three felt that there

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would be a response bias, i.e., lower expectations of service quality are likely. Thus, the vocabulary of the questions may need to be changed. This is both a conceptual equivalence and metric/scale equivalence problem. The conceptual part of the problem is the lack of "excellent" service. The word excellent probably needs to be softened to "good" or "acceptable." This problem, if not corrected, may manifest itself as a metric or scaling problem in the sense that the seven point Likert scale is effectively reduced to a three or four point scale because respondents will never agree that they expect (and probably not that they received) "excellent" service. The heavy use of the word "excellent" in the SERVQUAL scale creates problems, both conceptual and metric/scaling, for the cross cultural researcher in Norway, India and China.

Summary and Conclusions

This paper reports on the initial qualitative phase of a two phase (qualitative and quantitative) study designed to assess the cross-cultural equivalency of the SERVQUAL scale.

In the qualitative phase reported in this paper, three groups of foreign students (Indian, Chinese and Norwegian) were recruited (paid) to participate in a approximately two-hour discussion concerning the ability of the SERVQUAL scale to measure service quality in their cultures. While the author recognizes the limitations associated with qualitative research and the use of foreign students as representative of the cultures involved, he also feels that the results obtained represent an important assessment of the cross-culture usefulness of SERVQUAL.

The results support that within reasonable limitations construct (functional, conceptual, and categorical) equivalence and measure (calibration, translation, and metric or scale equivalence) can be achieved. The ability to achieve translation equivalence was assessed not only through group discussions, but also through an initial decentered translations of the SERVQUAL instrument.

The second phase of research will involve a more quantitative evaluation of equivalencies and will add sampling equivalence (Douglas and Craig 1983) to the types of equivalences assessed. In conclusion the SERVQUAL Instrument for measuring service quality appears to hold promise for researchers based on a qualitative assessment of construct and measure equivalence across Chinese, Indian and Norwegian students.

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BUSINESS SPANISH: A CROSS-CAMPUS COLLABORATIVE MODEL

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ABSTRACT

This paper briefly reviews past research regarding interdisciplinary teaching efforts at the college level, especially those in which the business school has joined together with colleagues in modern languages. Additionally, a proposed interdisciplinary course is presented in which business Spanish is taught by a marketing professor working with a collaborative team of modern language and marketing faculty, all of which have extensive multicultural experience. Sample lists of resource materials are provided.

INTERDISCIPLINARY PROGRAMS

Interdisciplinary courses can offer a relatively simple, low-cost way for universities to accommodate new material from different disciplines at the intersection of those disciplines (Miller & McCartan 1990). In business education, for example, courses taught with contributions from foreign language departments are a common way to promote the growing field of international business. Such courses can also expand the scope of content coverage for traditional modern language programs (Normand 1986, To-Dutka & Spencer 1990).

Language issues play a major role in marketing activities. Marketing lore is replete with instances of poor cross-cultural use of language. Translation errors are the cause of the greatest number of blunders in cross-cultural business (Ricks 1993). Budweiser's "King of Beers" becoming the "Queen of Beers" and Pepsi's "Come alive with Pepsi" being translated as "Come out of the grave" reveal just one aspect of the many diverse roles language can play in global marketing.

An example of deficiencies in traditional Spanish teachers' business culture knowledge, in important trade relations, was discovered by one of the collaborative team members. Under a Department of Education Title VIa grant, a marketing faculty member accompanied a group of language teachers to Ecuador. She attended the language and culture classes with these teachers. She also met with U.S. Embassy officials, Ecuadorian government ministers, top academics, and local entrepreneurs. The subject of these meetings was U.S. and Ecuador trade relations and the state of development of marketing activities in the local economy. One of the major subjects of interest among the Ecuadorians was the potential impact of the North American Free Trade Agreement on all U.S.-Latin America trade. When the embassy officials discussed Ecuadorian attitudes toward the possible success of NAFTA, it was evident that by far the majority of the U.S. foreign language teachers did not know what NAFTA was, nor did they understand the importance of NAFTA to Spanish speaking countries.

Different interdisciplinary efforts have different goals. There are some basic goals that are common to interdisciplinary work in business education. The relationship of business to culture and society is essential. Efforts combining business and foreign language education see the promotion of a "world view" and "cultural awareness" to be an inherent component of learning a foreign language for business communication (Normand 1986, p. 311; To-Dutka and Spencer 1990, p. 17). A well-planned business language course addresses many of these goals.

LANGUAGE FOR BUSINESS EDUCATION

Current Business Spanish Approaches

More departments are adding business Spanish courses to traditional literary and linguistic offerings at the post-secondary level (Uber Grosse 1985). In a typical scenario in teaching business Spanish, a foreign language department sends a language faculty member, usually a specialist in literature, to the Madrid Chamber of Commerce or to a U.S. workshop for international business training and teaching business Spanish. Training courses or workshops provide faculty with an introductory knowledge base which compels them to closely follow the contents of a business Spanish textbook. The textbook is usually very generic in its treatment of international business and generally includes chapters on management, marketing, finance, and accounting as well as a description of the economic status of countries in Latin America. At first, the converted business Spanish instructor may barely stay ahead of the class; after

teaching the course several times, the instructor should be able to speak more confidently on some issues in international business and present authentic documents such as business letters, spread sheets, and annual reports. At best, the language instructor's level of knowledge of international business and international business practices will be far less than that of a business school faculty member.

A second approach to teaching business Spanish is called "foreign languages across the curriculum" (Allen, et al. 1992). In this approach, a foreign language department and the business school typically present a revised business course by adding a one credit hour "trailer" course taught in Spanish by a business faculty member. In an international marketing course, for example, the marketing instructor teaches an existing international marketing class three or four days a week. An additional class session per week is taught in Spanish, and readings in Spanish are provided to interested students, who enroll for the additional credit.

The strengths of this approach are two-fold. First, the trailer section of an international marketing course taught in Spanish is provided by a business faculty member instead of a language professor. Second, by offering trailer sections in actual business courses, students receive a more in-depth study of marketing than a typical business Spanish. The weaknesses of the "foreign languages across the curriculum" approach are also two-fold. First, a one-hour-per-week trailer course taught in Spanish provides limited language practice. And second, post-secondary institutions must be willing to compensate the business faculty member for teaching an additional hour or to modify his or her teaching load to reflect the teaching of an extra one-hour course.

Proposed Business Spanish Approach

The proposed approach to teaching business Spanish includes offering an introductory course taught by a language professor and a Spanish for Marketing (or Management, Finance, and others) course taught by a marketing or another appropriate professor. The addition of the second course utilizes the strengths of "foreign languages across the curriculum" and eliminates its weaknesses by exposing students to functionally qualified business faculty teaching professional materials in the target language. During the spring semester of 1994, a marketing professor will teach Spanish 497-Spanish for Marketing. To prepare for the course, a collaborative team was formed of two marketing faculty and two modern language faculty.

The instructor is an experienced professor of marketing with an undergraduate Spanish minor and two years' residence in Mexico. He also has maintained involvement with Hispanic segments of the community. The second team member is a marketing professor, fluent in Spanish and with a BA in Spanish Education. As a student, she participated in a junior studies abroad program in Madrid. Recently she participated in interdisciplinary and international programs as described earlier. A Spanish professor is contributing language resource knowledge, guidance to meet performance standards, and grading support through assignments given to advanced classes. The final member is chairman of the Modern Language Department, originator of the grant funding this course, and an expert in teaching business French courses.

Target Student Market

Several distinct student segments are anticipated to enroll in this course. Spanish majors will take the course to expand their business knowledge for potential applied career enhancement or future teaching knowledge. Business majors, in Marketing or International Business, can use the course to fulfill major requirements. Native Spanish speakers enrolled in other majors may be interested to upgrade their professional language skills and improve their employment options. Some Spanish teachers may enroll for graduate credit to upgrade their teaching credentials.

Primary Course Objective

The primary objective for the course is to prepare students to confidently and competently participate in commercial activities and professional marketing discussions conducted in Spanish. Special emphasis will be on Mexican-American business relationships to take advantage of the local Hispanic population's historic background and to build upon the present level of trade between this state and Mexico. The particular expertise of the instructor (in this first effort, marketing), will be emphasized each time the course is offered.

Operational Objectives

Operational objectives for the course will be to provide students with:

1. a working Spanish vocabulary of terms of commerce and marketing.
2. a knowledge of the concepts that are used in marketing management.

3. an exposure to the economic characteristics of Spanish-speaking nations.
4. a familiarity with the current business issues in the Spanish-speaking world, with specific reference to attitudes and anticipated outcomes of trade treaties such as NAFTA.
5. an understanding of the economic impact of trade between this state and the Hispanic world.
6. an introduction to Spanish-speaking business proprietors, managers, and professionals in government and industry who are influential in conducting business where the use of the Spanish language is important.
7. a review of cultural factors affecting marketing relationships in the Hispanic world.

Pedagogical Tools and Resources

The variety of objectives expected for this course presents a need to use a mixed set of pedagogical tools and resources.

1. Chapters on general business, goods and services, marketing, and import/export from the book, Exito Commercial: Prácticas Administrativas y Contextos Culturales by Doyle, Fryer, and Cere 1991, will be used to provide the foundation vocabulary and reading structure for the course. Chapters include assignments on vocabulary, role playing situations, translation, and content review.
2. The text also contains a discussion of recent economic conditions, geography, demographics, governmental form, basic economic information, and a brief look at the culture and major political issues of 21 countries with Spanish-speaking populations, including the United States.
3. For current business, cultural, and political issues, assignments will be made requiring reading of newspapers in Spanish.
4. Video materials will be used to challenge listening skills, present visual images of culture, and expose students to business situations. Examples of materials which are available include:
   a. London International Advertising Awards "Advertising by Country" videotapes.
   b. Quality Video, Inc. produces "The World's Funniest Commercials."
   c. Insight Media's collection includes relevant films such as the "Unfinished Business" episode of The Buried Mirror series (about Hispanics in the U.S.) and two volumes of Spanish television commercials.

d. Educational Video Network's videos include El Mercado, Foods of Latin America, and Mexican Popular Customs.
e. Films for the Humanities and Sciences in Princeton, New Jersey, has a series about Latino issues in the United States.
f. Video travel guides, such as those sold in The Whole World Language Catalog, usually have sections which deal with that country's economy and business enterprises. The recent PBS series, Americas, serves as a similar resource, as would The Image of Modern Spain, sold through Films for the Humanities & Sciences.
g. Television commercials taped from Univisión (U.S.) and Galavisión (Mexico City), which broadcasts mostly news, can be obtained by satellite downlink.
h. Destinos contains several segments about business operations in Mexico, Puerto Rico, Spain, Argentina, and Miami.
i. Managing the Overseas Assignment, part of the Going International series, depicts a U.S. salesman calling on his potential Mexican customer. Lack of knowledge of the differences in business etiquette is discussed.
j. Although we have found very few Spanish-language movies which contain scenes which appear to be relevant to a business Spanish course, the film La Historia Oficial depicts the negative attitude that many Latin American societies have toward multinational corporations. Exploring attitudes toward business would be an important cultural component for our proposed course.
k. Demonstrations of translation software such as GLOBALINK add to any discussion of translation issues. The PBS show "Computer Chronicles" broadcast an entire show devoted to foreign language software. Some Spanish-language translation software is demonstrated in this episode. Additionally, the discussion of the advantages and problems associated with machine translation is very valuable to any course dealing with foreign language study.
l. Audio cassette business Spanish courses exist, such as the one sold by The Whole World Language Catalog, which provides dialogues, exercises, vocabulary, and culture capsules.
Not all these resources are on campus now. Funds from the grant will be used to purchase those that the collaborative team identifies as having the greatest contribution to the course.
5. Spanish speakers will be invited to discuss their experiences and areas of expertise with the class.

Assignments and Evaluation

This initial version of the course will be introduced as a "special topics" class in Spanish. The course will fulfill departmental major electives for Marketing, International Business, and Spanish majors. Since this is an elective special topics, experimental course, there will be a presumption of interest, motivation, and self discipline in the accomplishment of class assignments.

The interdisciplinary nature of the objectives, students, and faculty in this course presents an interesting challenge in determining criteria for evaluating students. Language students will be challenged by unfamiliar business concepts. Business students will have little familiarity with upper division level language study. Native Spanish-speakers from other disciplines may struggle with both formal language study and business concepts. The individual student's objectives desired from this course will vary.

While the teacher has proficiency in speaking and reading Spanish, there is no proven ability to evaluate professional level writing. Any graders provided by the language department would be unable to evaluate business content. The collaborative approach provides evaluation by those most qualified to grade each component.

A menu form of assignments and grading will be used to allow students to customize their learning experience. Students will be able to select assignments from a set of options. Points will be allotted to each proportionate to the time and difficulty required to complete the assignment. The total available points will substantially exceed the number required for any desired grade level. Students may be able to avoid some forms of evaluation entirely by concentrating on other options. Anticipated types of assignments anticipated include:

1. Textbook activities of vocabulary exercises, review questions, role playing, translation exercises, and microcase evaluation.
2. Reviews of guest speakers' presentations.
3. Newspapers and magazine article reviews.
4. Concept analysis from movies and videos.
5. Reports on selected nations' economic activities.
6. Examination of larger case problems.
7. Summaries of broadcast media reports.
8. Exams over text, speaker presentations, and in-class discussions.

Cooperative grading support will be used to fairly evaluate assignments by individuals who are qualified to review each type of assignment. Senior-level Spanish education students will grade grammar and lexicon as part of course work in advanced language education. Students taking the course for graduate credit will be required to include in their menu additional components of teaching unit preparations and verbal reports to the class.

CONCLUSION

Increasing interdependence among nations makes international relationships inevitable in business today. The ability to interact with others whose language and culture are different is essential to success in these relationships. Language students need to understand business culture and business students need to be able to use foreign languages to effectively communicate with businesses from different nations.

Using business professors to teach language classes, emphasizing their business expertise, is an innovative but necessary approach to providing quality education for the business needs of the next generation of international professionals.

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CULTURAL DIVERSITY IN THE CLASSROOM: CELEBRATING THE DIFFERENCES AND OVERCOMING COGNITIVE BARRIERS

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ABSTRACT

Due to the globalization of the marketplace, particularly among the younger generation, the number of foreign students that are attending American universities is predicted to increase significantly in the years ahead.

There are many issues facing foreign students that can make their time at an American university very stressful. Unfortunately, many faculty who want to be good teachers to our international students are often at a loss as to what to do to enhance the learning experience and reduce the stress on foreign students, while enhancing the educational experience of domestic students. Some faculty even worry that they may dilute the challenges of the domestic students while catering to foreign students. The purpose of this paper is to present some insights into some of the factors that cause stress for international students and to present simple, yet useful tips for reducing stress and heightening the learning experience for our foreign visitors, as well as native-born Americans.

Most of the international students were good students and high achievers at home, and it comes as a shock to many of them when, although they spend a great deal of time studying, they do not earn high grades. Most of their difficulties stem from problems with language, but differences in culture, cognitive framework, and social experiences also contribute to their difficulties. Additionally, many students bring with them very different attitudes to learning and knowledge as well as different study styles and habits.

Since faculty play a key role in the learning experience of students studying here from foreign countries, it is extremely important for us to be sensitive to the differences, the special needs, and unique learning styles of students from other countries. It is also important for us to understand how these differences manifest themselves in the cognitive perceptions and learning activities of the students.

DEVELOPING AN INTEGRATED MBA PROGRAM

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ABSTRACT

The search for integration in the business school curriculum has been given additional impetus by businesses. In this paper, organizational and pedagogical approaches--designed to integrate functional disciplines, students, faculty, and the business community--are presented. Managerial and educational implications are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Recently, business schools have received sharp criticism of curricula. The 1987 American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) study (Porter & McKibbin, 1988) calling for changes in management education caused numerous universities to re-examine their management programs. The 1990 AACSB guidelines for accreditation reflect the need for change. The Graduate Management Admission Council has sponsored numerous conferences during the past three years exploring curricula change and assessment. Articles in U.S. News and World Report (1993), Business Week (1992), and the Wall Street Journal (1990, 1991a, 1991b) report the sweeping changes taking place in the business school. Jacobson (1993) recently suggests many of the changes are modest or superficial and continual improvement is needed.

In response to these reports, and in response to the changing business environment, significant changes were made in the MBA Program at the school of management. The marketing faculty, along with faculty members in other functional areas, were asked to modify their allegiance to their discipline and teach in a different manner. They were asked to focus on an integrated core of classes and be willing to compromise and work with faculty members from all other business disciplines.

PURPOSE

The primary objectives of our paper are to outline the changes in the graduate management program and to present the preliminary results of these changes. In the next section, we review the salient areas of our integration program. We then evaluate the changes. We conclude with implications that should be of interest to marketing educators and business practitioners alike.

AN INTEGRATED MBA PROGRAM

In the fall of 1991, an integrated lock-step curriculum was introduced into the first year of the MBA Program. The new core program was the result of 14 months of faculty discussion, work, and analysis. Several significant changes resulted from this program-development work.

The Integrated Core

The first significant change was the reduction in the number of class sessions in each of the functional areas (marketing, finance, operations, organizational behavior, and managerial economics). This change was necessary to make room for new courses in (1) strategy, (2) business, international economics, and government, (3) management of information systems, and (4) integrative exercise. The MBA core program was again modified last year and includes the following offering for 1993-94:

Fall Semester

Class	Cr. Hrs.
Marketing Management	2.0
Business Finance	2.5
Operations Management	2.0
Organizational Behavior	2.5
Written and Oral Communications	2.0
Management Seminar	1.0
Integrative Exercise	0.5
Total	12.5

Winter Semester

Class	Cr. Hrs.
Macro Economics & Business Environment	2.0
Integrative Exercise	0.5
Written and Oral Communications	2.0
Management of Technology	2.5
Introduction to Strategy	2.0
Business, Government and International Economy	3.0

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Management Seminar		1.0
Data Exploration		1.0
	Total	13.5

Students without adequate background in accounting, statistics, and economics are required to take preparatory courses in these areas during both the fall and winter semesters. Students with adequate preparation are allowed to take one elective course along with the core classes each semester. Students speaking a foreign language are also enrolled in specialized language courses outlined later in the paper.

Regular course work is canceled several times during the MBA core in order for the students to participate in an "Integrative Exercise." This exercise typically involves an analysis of a complex integrative case situation and a formal oral presentation to a group of three faculty members, each from a different discipline.

Course schedules are prepared during the summer and the teaching faculty meet to explore areas of integration. All written assignments are evaluated and points of integration sought. Examinations are limited to one final examination.

Classes are scheduled for Monday-Tuesday and Thursday-Friday. Wednesdays are reserved for class preparation and for the management lecture series. Communication courses are also taught (for 90 minutes) on Wednesday mornings.

Student Profile

The profile of the 1995 MBA class is as follows.

Number admitted	122
Average GMAT	587
GMAT over 600	49%
Average GPA	3.1
Bilingual students	84%
International students	36
Countries represented	20

Student Integration

Before entering the program, the first year MBA students (approximately 100 students) are assigned to one of two sections. They participate with that group of students for all of the courses in the first semester core.

One of the objectives of the new MBA core is to encourage group work. Study groups are randomly called on in each class to make group presentations of their case analysis. Other groups are called on to evaluate and critique the presentations. Group evaluations are obtained to measure the functioning of each group. The organizational behavior faculty members focus on group work during their class sessions.

Students are formally assigned to a study group as they enter the program. Study groups are organized first by language skill (homogeneous on this dimension). GMAT scores, GPA, gender, work experience, and undergraduate major are factors used to make minimum differences between groups. In order to facilitate group success, all students participate in a "ropes" experience during the first week of class. Both "high," "low," and "problem solving" events are included in the experience. The experience seems especially useful for the international students in the program.

Integration of International Students

A specialized program was developed to integrate 36 international students into the program. International students are required to arrive two weeks prior to the beginning of the semester for a special program. Activities are designed to introduce the international students to the U.S. culture. They are exposed to the expectations of our educational system, and international students are introduced to the case method in several class sessions.

Integration with Graduate Accounting Students

The evaluation of the integrated core curriculum was positive throughout the first year. Faculty members heavily involved with the program were quick to share their positive reaction with other faculty in the college. It became apparent to many faculty members that the new integrated core was a step in the right direction.

The administrators of the Master of Accountancy (MAcc) Program took note of the benefits from the new MBA core. They proposed that the first semester MBA core be the standard for all graduate students in the school of management. After much discussion and compromise, a decision was reached to include all graduate business students in the first semester of the core program.

In the fall of 1992, the number of sections was increased from two to four sections. The number of MBA students was increased to 120 to achieve better balance with the 150 MAcc students. MBA students were mixed with MAcc and graduate organizational behavior (OB) students. The students were mixed among three sections with one group comprised only of MAcc students. With the exception of language groups, study groups were assigned to make them as heterogeneous as possible within each group.

Language Integration

Because of the unique nature of our university, over 80% of the graduate students speak a second language. In order to take advantage of this situation, study groups are first assigned by language, that is, group members all speak the same foreign language. (As outlined above, the groups were then formed to mix gender, GMAT, GPA, and undergraduate major within each group.) In order to build on the language skills of the students, six new language courses were designed and offered outside of the core. These courses are taught by faculty members from the language departments, but focus on business vocabulary and economic situations. Presently we offer business language classes in German, Spanish, French, Korean, Japanese, and Chinese. Plans are underway to add Italian and Portuguese in 1994.

Integration with the Business Community

The second year of the program is similar to other MBA programs in that students have much more flexibility in the elective courses they pursue. They are required to take courses in Business Policy, Ethics, and a field study course. In order to encourage a generalists environment, students are also required to take courses from three functional areas in addition to their specialization.

The purpose of the field study course is to ensure that all students participate in a consulting or research activity. In our opinion, it is important for the student to have interaction with the business community.

In addition, all students are required to enroll in a management lecture series which features leaders from the business community. This course is offered each Wednesday afternoon. Some of the past speakers have included the CEO of Bankers Trust, the President of the NY Knickerbockers, the Vice-chair of Chevron Oil, the President of W.C. Brown Communications, and the Governor of the state.

Faculty Integration

One of the major challenges in implementing the new core program was to encourage faculty members to engage in integrative activities. Once each week, fairly broad integrative cases are team taught in three-hour sessions. Marketing faculty members team teach with faculty from finance, operations, and organization behavior. For example, the classic case "Pure Drug" (or Puritan Drug) is team taught by marketing and organizational behavior faculty. U.S. Robotics is team taught with faculty from production.

Faculty members are assigned to one of four teaching teams and each team has responsibility for one section of the core. Some faculty teach more than one section so they are involved with two teaching teams. Meetings are held weekly so faculty can discuss common challenges and opportunities in each section. Faculty involved with the integrative cases also meet to discuss the teaching plan for the case. Faculty members from each of the functional groups (across teaching sections) are encouraged to meet weekly to ensure assignments in each section are similar and taught in essentially the same manner. Students in each section, therefore, receive approximately the same educational experience.

The integration effort has been expensive in using additional faculty resources. The cost has been paid for by (1) reducing undergraduate students majoring in business management, (2) requiring few undergraduate business management courses for business management majors, (3) reducing the number of undergraduate elective courses offered and (4) reducing the number of MBA students by approximately one-third.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF THE INTEGRATED CORE

We have received positive feedback from students, faculty, and recruiters about the benefits of the integrated core. A survey completed at the end of 1992 suggests that MBA and MAcc students view the new core as a major improvement. Likewise, faculty

involved in teaching in the program are positive about the experience.

Members of the school of management's support groups (National Advisory Council, Alumni Council, Accounting Advisory Board) are positive about the new integrated approach. Likewise, firms recruiting

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However, there are some disadvantages, which include the following:
1. Faculty involvement and time commitment is heavy.
2. Teaching sessions in the functional areas have been cut to the minimum.
3. It is difficult to develop a "culture" for the MBA students because of the mixing with MAcc students.
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Involvement of the Marketing Faculty

The new integrated core program requires that four marketing faculty members teach in the core. The teaching commitment is heavy because of the extra time required for planning meetings and involvement with the integrated case teaching. In fact, a fifth marketing faculty member is needed during the Thursday integrative case sessions. Thus far, the marketing faculty not involved with the MBA core have been willing to assist.

Team teaching with faculty from other disciplines has been rewarding for the marketing faculty. The

challenges presented in the integrated approach provide variety to the teaching experience.

SUMMARY

In recent years, considerable interest has focused on integration of the business school curriculum. We attempt to address this critical issue by developing

and implementing a strategic change in the MBA core program. Our experience represents efforts to integrate functional disciplines, students, faculty, and the business community. While we believe we have made progress in this area, much work remains to be done.

As is the case with most strategic changes, the implementation of change is much more difficult than the design. Some faculty members believe we have moved away from the traditional approaches too fast. We continue to evaluate our progress. Changes and adjustments result from the new strategic focus. For example, a new five-week intensive experience in data analysis will be included Winter Semester 1994. The majority of the winter semester core classes taught for a full semester last year will be cut to 20 sessions to make room for the new course.

Because of the growing intensity for integration in virtually all spheres of business activity, business schools should examine their curriculum offerings and adapt accordingly. While the type and amount of integration may vary by business school, there is much to be learned by exchanging ideas and approaches. Thus, we encourage a dialogue as we move forward.

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A CENTER FOR EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT
TO SERVE THE COMMUNITY

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ABSTRACT

The Center for Executive Development was established on the Mesa State College campus to provide continuing education for management personnel in the community.

To assist with the process of planning Center activities, the authors surveyed businesses in the community to develop a profile of (1) management-level personnel, (2) a list of useful seminar topics, and (3) an estimate of the number of managers who might use the Center's services.

A questionnaire was mailed to 870 businesses; there were 317 responses (response rate: 36 percent).

Although the one-time mailing without follow-up was informal, the responses provided implications about the populations to be served by the Center and gave direction to Center plans.

Analysis of responses provided information from which the following business community profile was developed.

The business community was predominately made up of retail and professional organizations. Those businesses were either small (gross annual sales of under $200,000) or quite large (gross annual sales of over $500,000). Companies favored the private corporate structure; however, one-third preferred sole proprietorships. A great majority of businesses employed 25 or fewer individuals.

Management personnel were equitably divided by gender at top levels; twice as many women as men were serving as managers at the lower levels. Women managers had less education than their counterparts. More women than men had prepared for their positions by completing liberal arts or business studies.

Most businesses provided on-the-job training for their managers; many used tutorials for training. Few businesses provided off-site training opportunities.

The 317 respondents indicated that they could identify approximately 1,500 potential trainees within their organizations who might become involved in off-site seminars; the preferred seminar topics involved human relations issues.

The suggested direction for initial activities in the Center for Executive Development was to market human relations seminars to retail and professional businesses.

SUPPORTIVE SMALL-GROUP PREPARATION FOR INTERNATIONAL MBA MARKETING STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The growing and changing populations of international students in MBA programs in the United States over the last five to ten years have presented the institutions they attend with new opportunities and challenges. In many colleges and universities, Thai and Taiwanese students have become significant majorities among international students.

The author has instituted a one-unit semester-long course addressing these students' particular difficulties. These difficulties stem from limited English facility, cultural differences, and limited business background and experience. The goal of the course is to better prepare new international MBA students to compete effectively with their domestic counterparts.

BACKGROUND

As the population of international students in United States MBA programs has grown and changed over the last five to ten years, the institutions they attend are facing new opportunities and challenges. Significant shifts have taken place. In the late 1970's and early 1980's, the bulk of international students entering business programs came from the Middle East. Since the mid-1980's, the majority of international students entering both science and business programs at the graduate level have come from the Pacific Rim. More recently, the proportion of students from the Philippines, Japan, and Indonesia has dropped, with a concomitant upswing in the number of students from Taiwan and Thailand.

These students have typically studied English (often "British English" rather than "American English") in their native countries for five or more years. Some have begun their English preparation in kindergarten. Many students say their language study heavily emphasized "grammar, grammar, grammar," with a little reading, very little writing, and no speaking at all. Preparation was aimed at scoring well on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). In spite of this one-dimensional training and limited or no exposure to native English speakers, before coming to the United States, students feel confident of their English and consider themselves fluent. Upon arriving in the United States, they are shocked at their limited ability to communicate.

Unlike their undergraduate counterparts who live on campus, often with an American roommate, who are immediately immersed in the American language and culture, graduate students are more often isolated, living with family and friends in enclaves where the business of living can be conducted quite nicely in Cantonese or Thai. Conversations in English are more often with international students from other countries, since it is their only common language, than with native speakers. One informal survey by the author suggested that these students' average exposure time to English is six hours per week—less than the time they spend sitting in the classroom! And in spite of their expectations and expressed desire to have "an American friend," such friendships seldom happen. This isolation contributes to serious depression in some students.

In spite of these disadvantages, some students adapt rather quickly and are able to function successfully in the more quantitative courses such as statistics and accounting. However, the "softer" subjects of management and marketing pose particular difficulties for them.

CULTURE SHOCK

Whereas in the past, large numbers of Pacific Rim students in the United States concentrated their studies in finance, many are now electing a marketing emphasis, possibly due to increased pressures in their home countries to adapt American-style marketing and sales techniques to successfully penetrate American markets. At the same time, marketing classes present greater and more complex challenges for these students.

American marketing is inextricably entwined with American culture, and graduate-level marketing classes presuppose, in addition to cultural familiarity, an acquaintance with U.S. companies and U.S. business practices. This basis of familiarity is not accessible to the Pacific Rim students. Typically, Southeast Asian students go directly from their undergraduate programs (often in philosophy, religion, pre-law or other non-business disciplines) into MBA programs, with no intervening work

experience. Through this practice many are doubly disadvantaged. They have little or no practical business experience, other than brief stints in a family business. And they lack the underpinning of undergraduate business training. They are also young, 22-24 years old, compared with an average age of 35 for their domestic counterparts, particularly in MBA programs geared to the working professional. Without an experiential milieu in which to rest new concepts and constructs, students have a significantly reduced chance of mastering course material.

While these international students are struggling to understand basic questions concerning the American subordinate's relationship to the boss, the American work and social ethic, and the individual's relationship to the company, their domestic counterparts, many of them successful entrepreneurs and mid- to high-level managers, are planning flanking strategies, wrestling with how to position a new financial service, or devising sophisticated telemarketing strategies to qualify sales leads.

The case study (the darling of the marketing class) demands of students a sophisticated understanding of cultural subtleties and innuendoes: Why does the Price Club, a business whose **forte** is low prices, have such great appeal to upscale professionals? (And what is "upscale"?) Why have J.C. Penney managers had such a long struggle getting vendors of national name-brand merchandise to supply their stores? Why would an American baby boomer "rather be shopping at Nordstrom" as her license plate frame claims? This author once spent 45 minutes after class trying without success to explain to a group of Thai students why Izod abandoned the alligator logo. The concept demanded understanding of "preppies," the anti-preppy backlash (whose tongue-in-cheek symbol was a
⊘ sign superimposed on the alligator), the trouble with K-Mart as an outlet for designer fashions (what's a K-Mart?) and on and on. In contrast, the domestic students "got it" immediately.

Academic Demands

In addition to difficulties resulting from limited assimilation of United States business practices and culture, these students have additional academic demands placed on them. While many domestic students may spend three, five, or more years in completing MBA requirements, enrolling in only one or two classes a term, international students' visa status dictates that they be "full-time" students. They also may experience heavy family

pressures to complete their studies in a year and return to their home countries. Time for contemplation and assimilation is drastically compressed.

A second area of academic difficulty may result from heavy emphasis in U.S. marketing classes on oral presentations and often confrontational class discussions. Typically, the Asian students' role in undergraduate studies has been that of passive note taking while the professor lectures, combined with reading, memorizing, and feeding back concepts verbatim.

RESOURCES

Institutions are coping with these multi-faceted challenges in various ways. Most offer special English as a Second Language (ESL) courses in writing, listening and speaking. International student directors and advisors provide assistance in complying with documentation requirements. Schools may provide tutorial support through "buddy" systems, tutorial centers, writing centers, or teaching assistants. (However, some students fail to find their way to such resources until they are already "in trouble.") Some schools offer an entire year's "pre-MBA" program.

The author found existing services for these students well-intentioned and sensitively delivered but inadequate. With the support and encouragement of colleagues and administrators, research was begun to determine how special preparation could be provided within the existing organizational framework and with limited expenditure of resources.

While there were no preconceived ideas of the form such preparation might take, possible formats were expected to include summer intensives and semester-long classes. An increasing sense of urgency was generated by the fact that in the author's classes, the percentage of international students has increased from 30% to 65% in the last three years. Similar increases sparked campus discussion of issues such as whether the large international population was becoming a disincentive to domestic student enrollment, whether it was advisable to require higher TOEFL scores for admission, and whether international students should be segregated for at least a part of their program.

Caveat

The author wishes to caution that no claim is made that the following findings are applicable to international student populations at other institutions and in other

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programs. The sample was small and the research was exploratory and qualitative in nature. However, it is hoped that some of these indicated courses of action will prove useful to other marketing faculty and MBA program administrators as a starting point to institute new programs or expand existing ones.

Methodology

Five focus group interviews were held with international MBA students in their first year of study. Students were assured of anonymity and told that their responses would be used to help them and international students who came after them to succeed more easily in their studies. The interviews explored "likes," "dislikes," and "wishes." Common themes follow.

Likes

Students appreciated faculty members who have traveled/ lived/ taught in Asia. They believe that these teachers "look for my ideas, not my grammar." They like small groups with domestic and international students mixed. They find videos of cases helpful, especially in conjunction with reading about the same case. They want instructors to address the difficulties of the "mixed" class up front and honestly, preferably during the first class meeting. They want feedback in the form of "did you understand my idea? Did I communicate?" They appreciate those faculty members who make their lecture notes available for student review.

Dislikes

The students dislike pressure for oral presentations in front of the whole class. They are frustrated by tutors who are not themselves native speakers. (The author received a very interesting revision of a Thai student's paper by a Puerto Rican student tutor.) They are annoyed with Americans who "talk, talk, talk" and never seem to come to the point. Faculty with accents cause them difficulty in understanding lectures. They are bothered by their inability to tell if a professor is joking or not. They feel racial discrimination. (One student spoke wistfully of an institute where the American students like and want to study with international students.)

Team projects cause particular difficulties. The international students dislike being left with the least desirable cases but, by the time their groups are organized, the domestic students have taken all the "best" cases. They resent the expectation by employed American students that the international students will carry the bulk of the research since they're "not working."

Students are sensitive to the perception of their education in their home countries. They complain that since they attend a "college" rather than a "university," people at home think that they are at a two-year college and are only getting an A.A. degree. They also are acutely aware that they will go home with a U.S. business education but in all likelihood will never have been inside an American business, other than as a consumer in a retail store.

Wishes

Students would like some way to preview classes to determine what the work load may be and how much demand there will be on their writing and speaking skills. This would permit them to balance their program semester by semester, taking the more difficult classes in conjunction with some easier ones. They would avoid taking the more demanding courses during the abbreviated summer session. (They lack the network that usually supplies domestic students with these kinds of information.) They would welcome field trips to local businesses. They would appreciate small informal "prep" classes.

IMPLEMENTATION

Based on what the students indicated would be useful, the author, with the assistance of colleagues and administrators, implemented a one-unit one-semester course, U.S. Institutions. The course is anchored in the ESL department but has business content and is funded through the MBA program. It is required of any international student who does not test out of ESL. At the same time, the traditional ESL requirement has increased from a three-unit one-semester class to two semester courses, two units each semester. A special orientation meeting with the MBA Program Director was required of all new international students, at which the MBA program culture and requirements were addressed.

Course Content

Initially, students in U.S. Institutions as a group visited campus support services such as the computer labs, the tutorial center, and the library. They received a short welcome and orientation by faculty or staff working in the various centers.

The second class meeting focused on oral presentation skills. There was discussion of difficulties in being understood by domestic students. The instructor suggested visual aids such as flip charts, chalk boards and handouts, and demonstrated their effective use.

The importance of speaking slowly was emphasized. Students were encouraged to observe body language and other non-verbal cues to gauge their audience's understanding. Many of the students' observational powers are highly developed since their cultures deal much more in subtlety and innuendo than does American culture. The importance of speaking slowly was emphasized. Students were also encouraged to find their own comfort level and style, rather than emulating the more demonstrative domestic students.

In the third class, the instructor presented a case as the student would be expected to present. The importance of introductions, clear organization, transitions, and smooth conclusions was emphasized. ("That's all" is **not** an acceptable conclusion!)

In following meetings, each student presented at least two marketing case analyses. There was time for asking questions about the company, defining unfamiliar terms, and relating what was learned to home country experiences.

The class took three field trips, one to a manufacturer, one to a warehouse store, and one to an upscale department store where they were welcomed behind the scenes and sat in on a shoe vendor's presentation to the store buyer. In all three locations, managers conducted the tours. (Note: In later semesters, the class was joined by MPA students. To accommodate their interests, the group visited a hospital and heard a lecture on financial management in health care.) An unexpected difficulty has been to find local manufacturing firms who will allow the class to visit. Many do not welcome future Asian managers' viewing their internal operations.

ASSESSMENT

Intuitively, the class, combined with the expanded ESL requirements, seems to be meeting some of the objectives of acculturation, business experience, and language proficiency. In successive marketing courses, fewer oral presentations have been unintelligible. Students have had first-hand experience with several local companies and managers. They have gained a supportive friend in the instructor. They have found their way to other resources on campus sooner. They have learned tactics that enable them to be more aggressive with the domestic students so that they don't always get left with the "bad" cases or the research drudgery. In subsequent classes, the instructor can assess the students' abilities earlier and judge how hard to push them.

As part of a more formal assessment, students will be

surveyed one year following their U.S. institutions experience. They will be asked to evaluate the courses' usefulness and impact on their success in subsequent classes.

Future

Is one hour a week enough to provide these students with the help they need? Of course not. Will the course be expanded beyond its current one-unit format? Probably not. Will some students continue to deliver oral presentations that can't be understood and submit papers that can't be read? Most likely. The gains realized are incremental but important, even if only in terms of the spirit and morale of both the faculty and the students, who see that something "can be done" about their problems.

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WORKING CONDITIONS OF MARKETING PROFESSORS: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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ABSTRACT

There has been a good deal of debate over the notion of how working conditions, such as office design, affect employee productivity and job satisfaction. This study explores the working conditions of marketing professors and serves as an initial step toward determining the role of the marketing professor in this longstanding debate.

Research in recent years has shown that working conditions are nearly as important as salary (Grumeberg 1977). Working conditions are often looked upon as nonfinancial incentives or rewards (LeBoeuf 1985)(Robbins 1982). Nonfinancial rewards, such as office design, serve as recognition and can, in some instances, be even more powerful than monetary rewards (LeBoeuf 1985).

Physical surroundings as discussed in this context are in the form of office design. Office design has characteristically been divided into two broad categories: office layout and office decor. In addition, closely related to both layout and decor in terms of working conditions are the support services the marketing professor receives.

A systematic sample of universities, and a random sample of marketing professors within those universities, was selected from the AMA Directory. Survey questions were administered to 140 marketing professors and focused on a variety of aspects of the respondent's office and support environment.

FINDINGS

Office Layout

The type of office arrangement was measured in terms of office size (in square feet) and office occupancy. The majority of respondents had rather large (over 150 square feet), private offices.

Office Decor

Decorative objects. The most common decorative items in faculty offices were framed artwork, plaques, calendars, unframed posters, and diplomas. Also clocks served as both functional and decorative items as respondents reported having at least one either on their desk, wall, or bookshelf.

Furniture. At the time of this study, the majority of respondents reported having metal desks. Filing cabinets and bookshelves were also standard office furnishings. For the most part, marketing faculty were satisfied with the number of both filing cabinets and bookshelves in their offices.

Support Services

Closely related to office layout and design in terms of the general working conditions of a marketing professor are support services. Telephones perform an important support service as the majority of respondents have exclusive telephone numbers and at least one outside telephone line. Both secretaries and students provided support services to the marketing professors by answering telephones with the majority of students filling this role through assistantships.

CONCLUSION

Physical surroundings and support services are an important consideration within any work environment. The work environment of a marketing professor is no exception. The above findings offer a view of the working conditions of marketing professors and serve as an initial step for future studies to determine if a linkage does truly exist between physical surroundings and productivity and job satisfaction.

STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF THE PRESTIGE LEVEL OF OCCUPATIONAL ALTERNATIVES

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ABSTRACT

This study assessed university students' perceptions of the prestige level of 53 diverse occupations. In addition, factors contributing to the construct of occupational prestige were identified.

INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE

It is interesting that whenever two adult strangers are brought together in a social setting one of the first questions that is asked in order to get to know the other person is "what kind of work do you do?" In a system where people are defined by what they do for a living, as Michael Solomon (1992) notes, occupational prestige is another way to evaluate their worth.

Although many college students are studying subjects that will allow them to attain occupational prestige and success, some still value contribution to society over prestige and emphasis of personal development and family over career success. Many 18-30-year olds, affectionately referred to as baby busters or Generation X, are less likely to be prestige motivated when compared to members of the older baby boomer generation (Coupland 1991, Landler 1992, and Garland, et al. 1991).

Several studies have been conducted that focus on occupational prestige. Of interest to this study is not how the whole of adult America views occupations, but how university students, tomorrow's leaders, value those occupations. Of interest, also, is how various segments such as gender and major, view those occupations and the determinants of their prestige level. Such understanding can give us insight into how the popularity and supply/demand factors of certain occupations might be changing. It can also provide valuable information to academicians for shaping their curricula and student advising.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Research has shown that hierarchies of occupational prestige tend to be quite stable over time and that they also show some similarities in different societies (Beeghley 1978). Such similarities have been reported by Beeghley in countries as diverse as Brazil, Guam, Japan, Ghana, and Turkey.

Consumer analysts consider occupation to be the best single indicator of social class (Engel, et al 1990), although most indices are multidimensional in nature. Although not all members of the same occupation or social class lead identical lives, there tend to be patterns of thinking and behavior that show similarity within social classes and differences between the classes. As an example, Solomon and Assael (1987) found varying product constellations associated with occupational roles. Even in similar occupations with differing levels of prestige, different product possessions are associated with each.

Some job types have images that seem to be on the decline. Bottoms (1993) reports that manufacturing in the United States is held in generally low esteem by the general public. As a result, the occupational prestige of an industrial manager is disturbingly low. In another article, Day (1992) laments that the lack of respect for secretaries and salesmen has caused many people not to seek jobs in these important positions.

Nam and Powers (1983) developed a multiple item index to measure occupational prestige. Their score is based on census data and includes occupation, education, and income factors. Medical doctors topped their occupational status list with a score of 99. Other selected occupations and their scores included accountants (89), retail sales managers (74), non-retail sales managers (94), and bank tellers (49).

The prestige of ten non-managerial occupations was assessed in a survey by Greene (1989). Occupational worth was determined to be a function of value to society, fair return on human resources, and economic value added. His survey sampled members of the American Compensation Association and students in a university class in organizational psychology. Of the 10 occupations ranked, nurse, computer programmer, and secretary were ranked highest with the occupations of guard, laborer, and janitor being ranked the lowest. Perceptions of social value proved to be similar for the two samples except for the occupation of laborer.

Stevens and Lawrence (1991) note that a favorable public image is very important in the banking industry, but that several studies show them receiving lower ratings than other occupational groups in both overall occupational prestige and honesty.

In an effort to determine why few women enter non-retail selling, Cook and Hartman (1986) surveyed male and female business students. Although both gender groups view sales careers in a negative manner, women viewed sales careers in general and wholesaler and manufacturer sales positions in particular more negatively than men.

Although the previous literature demonstrates that some work has been done in the area of occupational prestige, there is still a need to assess a broad range of occupations through the eyes of university students--tomorrow's leaders. The majority of studies which gauged student perceptions focused on just a few occupational areas. This descriptive study hopes to provide a broader perspective on the value of occupations by today's university student.

RESEARCH METHODS

A self-administered questionnaire was given to 204 undergraduate students at a medium-sized western state university during the spring of 1992. Eight classes were chosen with each student in the chosen classes invited to participate. A quota sample was designed to yield approximately one-half each of business and non-business majors. To accomplish this, classes were chosen that were either university-wide requirements or major-required classes so that a good

cross-section of each group could be obtained.

The questionnaire asked respondents to rate 53 occupations on a five-point scale given "their opinion of the general standing of a person engaged in that occupation." A score of five represented high standing, while a score of one represented a low standing. Respondents were then asked to explain the factors that contributed to rating an occupation as excellent. Demographics were also collected in the areas of gender, race, and major.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Characteristics of the Sample

Females comprised the majority of respondents in the study (61.8%). On the basis of race, 76.6% of the sample was Caucasian, 18.6% Asian, 2.7% Hispanic, and 2.1% Black. Students represented numerous fields of study, including: business administration (48.5%), liberal arts and sciences (27.5%), applied science and engineering (6.4%), and assorted other majors (17.6%).

Occupational Prestige Ratings

Of the 53 occupational categories tested, physicians, judges, and architects (see Table 1) received the most positive occupational prestige scores. Physicians and architects also had very low standard deviations--indicating a high level of agreement in their ratings. These three occupations, along with dentists, topped the Nam and Powers (1983) rankings a decade earlier. This reflects little change in opinion taking place, at least for the high prestige professions.

In contrast, relative rankings for salespersons, social workers, insurance salespersons, and lawyers were marginally lower in this study compared to the Nam and Powers (1983) results.

Five of the professions tested--lawyer, professional athlete, child care worker, farmer, and politician--produced ratings with high standard deviations indicating a large amount of disagreement by the respondents. It is understandable that numerous moral indiscretions reported in our media might tarnish, in the minds of some, the prestige levels of these professions.

TABLE 1
Occupational Prestige Ratings

Occupational Category	Mean Rating
Physician	4.512 +
Judge	4.402
Architect	4.299 +
Pilot	4.275
Business Owner (Large)	4.206
Engineer	4.152
Business Owner (Medium)	4.150
College/Univ. Teacher	4.147
Dentist	4.125
Chemist	4.081
Business Owner (Small)	4.020
Systems Analyst	3.990
Accountant	3.980
Computer Programmer	3.975
Biologist	3.926
Nurse	3.904
Firefighter	3.897
Lawyer	3.846 *
Secondary Teacher	3.814
Finance Manager	3.799
Psychologist	3.792
News Anchor	3.716
Professional Athlete	3.686 *
Marketing Manager	3.662
Advertising Manager	3.637
Journalist	3.623
Law Enforcement Officer	3.588
Stockbroker	3.583
Electrician	3.490
Actor	3.426
Dietician	3.419
Human Resource Manager	3.419
Production Manager	3.382
Social Worker	3.375
Office Manager	3.365
Clergyman	3.343
Banker	3.324
Musician	3.299
Child Care Worker	3.243 *
Dental Hygienist	3.206
Athletic Coach	3.201
Retail Buyer	3.191
Farmer	3.137 *
Interior Decorator	3.059
Real Estate Agent	3.015
Postal Worker	2.975
Auto Mechanic	2.936
Politician	2.892 *
Military	2.877
Construction Worker	2.809
Salespeople	2.755
Insurance Salesperson	2.745
Bartender	2.493

Ratings ranged from 1 = Poor to 5 = Excellent
* = A high standard deviation (> 1.00)
+ = A low standard deviation (< 0.70)

Perhaps of greatest interest to business schools is how university students rate business-related occupations. This, of course, can have a bearing on the demand for education in these areas. Business owners (large, medium, and small) fared the best with mean ratings ranging from 4.020 to 4.299 and overall rankings of 5th, 7th, and 11th, respectively. Systems analysts and accountants were rated slightly below 4.000, with rankings of 12th and 13th. Finance managers, with a mean rating of 3.799, were the 20th highest ranked occupational category.

Marketing-oriented occupations do not appear until near the middle of the distribution. Marketing and advertising managers were the 24th and 25th highest ranked occupations on the list. Other marketing-related occupations (stockbrokers, retail buyers, real estate agents, general salespersons, and insurance salespersons) did not fare as well with mean ratings from 2.745 to 3.583 and rankings of 28th, 42nd, 45th, 51st, and 52nd out of the 53 occupations tested. These results suggest that as a profession, marketing has an upward hill to climb to educate university students about the value of marketing-related activities.

Demographic Differences in Occupational Prestige

Significant differences in ratings between certain demographic groups are reported by T-test in Table 2.

On the basis of race, Caucasians and non-Caucasians differed in their ratings of dental hygienists and politicians.

Of the three defined demographic categories, gender produced the greatest number of rating differences. Female respondents perceived journalists, human resource managers, dieticians, and architects significantly more positively than did males. On the other hand, males rated firefighters, interior decorators, and accountants significantly more favorably than did females.

Finally, three occupations produced significantly different ratings between business and non-business majors. In each of these comparisons the ideology of the major seemed to greatly influence the perceived value of the occupations.

TABLE 2
Demographic Differences in Occupational Ratings

Occupational Category	Demographic Group	Mean Rating	T-Value
Dental Hygienist	Caucasian	3.07	
	Non-Caucasian	3.50	2.82 a
Politician	Caucasian	2.76	
	Non-Caucasian	3.21	2.08 b
Journalist	Female	3.72	
	Male	3.46	2.00 b
Interior Decorator	Female	2.86	
	Male	3.39	4.75 a
Human Res. Mgr.	Female	3.54	
	Male	3.23	2.77 a
Dietician	Female	3.57	
	Male	3.18	3.13 a
Firefighter	Female	3.67	
	Male	4.27	5.27 a
Architect	Female	4.38	
	Male	4.17	2.17 b
Accountant	Female	3.81	
	Male	4.26	4.16 a
Interior Decorator	Business major	2.92	
	Non-bus. major	3.19	2.42 b
Accountant	Business major	4.16	
	Non-bus. major	3.81	3.32 a
Stockbroker	Business major	3.75	
	Non-bus. major	3.42	2.55 b

a = p < .01
b = p < .05

Factors Contributing to Occupational Prestige

Underlying the perceived value of these occupations are the reasons why some are considered more prestigious than others. Students were asked to review the occupations that they rated as excellent and were asked to explain the reasons why they rated those occupations as excellent.

The data contained in Table 3 shed some light on the factors that contributed to the occupational prestige ratings. Educational requirements, the ability to serve humanity, and income potential accounted for 61.7 percent of the reasons mentioned. The rewarding and fulfilling nature of the occupation ranked a distant fourth place as a contributing factor. No significant differences in magnitude of these reasons between races, genders, or majors were found.

Income being ranked a distant third may have taken some by surprise, but there are compelling reasons that support this logic. Several years ago,

baby boomers valued income, status, and getting ahead more than today's college-aged students do. Baby busters seem more content to make a difference and enjoy the work they do than to strive for success and all the trappings that accompany it (Coupland 1991). In other words, there has been a fairly decent shift in values for the current college-aged generation.

TABLE 3
Factors Contributing to Occupational Prestige

Factor Mentioned	Number of Mentions	Percentage of Mentions
Education	36	23.9 %
Service to humanity	33	21.9
Income	24	15.9
Rewarding fulfilling	16	10.6
Status	8	5.3
Skills required	7	4.6
Respect	7	4.6
Miscellaneous responses	20	13.2
	—	—
Totals	151	100.0 %

CONCLUSIONS

University students still seem to perceive most professional occupations as having the highest levels of prestige. Notable exceptions include lawyers and psychologists who ranked 18th and 21st. Clergy, once a revered profession, ranked 36th on the same list.

Business-related occupations did not fare particularly well, except for business owners, accountants, and systems analysts. Marketing-related occupations ranked at about in the middle, at best, down to near the lowest part of the list. To put this comparison in perspective, there were 14 non-owner business-related occupations that were rated. Half of those were marketing related and their rankings ranged from 24th to 52nd, averaging a ranking of 38 out of 53. The other seven business-related professions fared much better, having rankings ranging from 12th to 37th, and possessing an average ranking of 26.

Why do marketing occupations rate so low? Perhaps some answers can be found by examining the values of current university students and the

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reasons for the rankings (presented in Table 3). As discussed, most of today's university students are in the 18-30 age range that defines the baby buster generation (Coupland 1991). They have grown up in an era where lawyers, businesspersons, politicians, airplane pilots, and even child care workers and clergymen have been openly exposed and investigated in the media for their indiscretions. As a result this group is quite cynical. At the same time they are quite skeptical of the marketers and advertisers who typecast them and sell to them.

Other reasons for marketing's poor showing in this study might originate in factors contributing to the occupational prestige rating. As seen in Table 3, the top two factors mentioned were education and service to humanity. Today some people still believe a person does not need any specialized educational background, or even a university degree, to be a marketer. Some businesses may also hold this belief. A review of companies interviewing at career centers reveals listings for retail or sales trainees that invite persons from "any major" to apply. This implies that "anyone can do it" whether formally educated in the area or not.

Service to humanity was the second most mentioned reason for ranking an occupation as excellent. Again, in the minds of today's baby busters, marketers are people who are trying to sell us things and who might stretch the truth (Landler 1992). They view marketers as people working for big corporations who are greedy and who value sales and profits for their investors over anything else. This perception is 180 degrees from the idea of serving humanity.

The solution to the problem of marketing having a marginal prestige rating extends beyond any short-term efforts by marketing professors. It most probably lies in the re-engineering of business into an entity whose prime focus is to serve the customer rather than the investors who are short-term oriented and greed-driven.

One avenue for marketing educators to pursue is to develop a better understanding of this baby buster generation. Effective marketing strategies can only then be employed to more effectively cater to this group in the future. This foundation of understanding can be a positive step in the path toward restoring our credibility.

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MARKETING EDUCATOR AND MARKETING PRACTITIONER PERCEPTIONS OF BUSINESS ETIQUETTE: IMPLICATIONS FOR THE MARKETING CURRICULUM

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ABSTRACT

It has been reported that while 88% of senior level managers and 40% of middle level managers have acceptable business manners, only 12% of recent MBA graduates possess the basic etiquette skills that are necessary for a successful career in business.
This figure may be even lower for undergraduates. The purpose of the current study was to investigate the perceptions of marketing educators regarding the role of etiquette in business. Overall, how important is etiquette in the business world? With respect to a variety of business situations, when is business etiquette more important, and when is it less important? When and how are the qualities of good and/or poor business etiquette behavior exhibited? What types of business etiquette training have been received in the past? Should business etiquette be included as a part of a business school's curriculum? Educator responses to these questions were then compared to marketing practitioner responses to the same questions as they were reported in a study published by the same authors in the Journal of Education for Business (July-August 1993; pp. 330-333).

A definition of business etiquette was provided on the questionnaire in order to establish a common standard of reference for all respondents. A five-point Likert-type scale was used to assess the overall importance of business etiquette. Open-ended questions provided respondents with the opportunity to present examples of behavior which exhibited good and/or poor business etiquette, and to discuss any business etiquette training that had previously been received. Categorical and dichotomous questions were used to determine whether or not the respondents believed that business etiquette should be included in a business school's curriculum, and to evaluate the adequacy of business etiquette skills of recent college and university graduates.

Three hundred surveys were mailed to marketing faculty in marketing departments throughout the United States. Participants in the study were selected from the *1992 American Marketing Association Directory of Members* using a systematic sampling technique (every 9th name). Out of the 293 surveys delivered, 154 usable surveys were returned resulting in an effective response rate of 52.6%.

About two-thirds of the respondents were male, and most (84.4%) were married. Close to 20% of the respondents were 35 years of age or younger, and 56 and older. About 20% had been teaching 5 or fewer years and 15% had 21 or more years of experience. Respondents taught at public (50.3%) and private (49.7%) universities.

An overwhelming majority of the respondents (92.5%) rated the importance of business etiquette either very important or important. A majority of practitioners (91.2%) rated business etiquette either very important or important. The most frequently cited examples of both good and poor business etiquette behavior were related to common courtesy. Also, numerous behavioral examples were given concerning business communications and grooming. Practitioners also specifically mentioned courtesy as the most frequent example of good and poor business etiquette.

One hundred (66.7%) of the respondents answered yes to the question, "Do you think business etiquette should be included as part of a business school's curriculum?" Marketing practitioners held a similar view; 79.8% thought business etiquette should be part of the business curriculum.

Participants were then asked to assess whether business etiquette skills of college graduates had gotten better or worse over the past decade. Only 13 or 9% believed that business etiquette skills had improved, whereas 71 or 49% believed that these skills had gotten worse. The remaining 61 or 42% indicated a belief that skills had stayed about the same over the past 10 years. Only a small percentage of practitioners (13.3%) thought the etiquette skills of college graduates had improved, 3.9% thought they had stayed about the same, and 42.8% thought they had gotten worse over the past 10 years.

INTEGRATING ETHICS AND INTERNATIONAL ISSUES INTO THE COLLEGE OF BUSINESS CURRICULUM: A THREE STEP APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes the development of a procedure used by the College of Business Administration at Northern Arizona University to integrate ethics and an international perspective into the business school curriculum. A three step approach was utilized including using existing liberal studies courses, business core curriculum courses and business major courses. The procedure has been effective in many ways. First,the curriculum has been strengthened without adding required semester hours. Second, faculty have realized that they must develop a teaching capability in one or both of these areas. And third, students are now being instructed in ethics and international issues in an integrated manner.

INTRODUCTION

The strong encouragement from business leaders and other experts to include ethics and international issues into the curriculums of colleges of business has been ongoing for at least ten years. In some cases, this encouragement has been in the form of knowledgeable experts publicly stating the need and in other cases by the efforts of the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (hereafter referred to as AACSB) requiring or strongly suggesting that these topics be included within the curriculum. These curriculum issues are now regularly evaluated by AACSB visitation teams as schools participate in the accreditation process.

During 1984, the faculty of the College of Business Administration at Northern Arizona University were involved in various discussions in preparation for the college's self-study year prior to a reaccreditation visit by representatives of the AACSB. One focus of the discussions was on how to more formally include both an ethics dimension and an international dimension into the business curriculum. The result of these efforts was the development of a three step approach to including both topics. This approach has now been in place for almost eight years and it has worked rather effectively. Presented below is the history and rationale leading to the development of the three step approach, an explanation of the three step approach and an assessment of the effectiveness of the approach.

THE ISSUES

Much of the debate about ethics and international business dealt with the question of who would teach the subjects. Many faculty at that time (1984), felt that they were not qualified to teach either topic. Their comments usually stressed that in graduate school they had studied finance, economics, statistics etc. but not ethics or the international aspects of their own disciplines. Many faculty at that time believed that specialists should be hired to teach both of these subjects.

Another aspect of the debate usually resulted in a conclusion that conflicted with the specialist idea. The central question was: Where and how to include the two topics in the curriculum? The natural reply was that two new courses should be instituted, *International Business* and *Business Ethics*. However, all involved realized that there was no room for either of the classes. Many of the majors were already bumping up against the maximum 60 percent business course limit as directed by the AACSB at that time (the limit was lowered towards 50 percent when AACSB accreditation standards were last substantially revised in 1991).

Consequently, the faculty committees dealing with these issues recognized that neither the faculty resources were available nor was there room in the curriculum for the new courses. But, the problem would not go away. A more creative solution was needed.

Before presenting the process that was followed and the solution that was developed, a brief description of the resources available to help faculty deal with these issues will be presented. In the mid 1980's, few basic marketing, management or finance texts included chapters on ethics and international issues. Moreover, faculty workshops on integrating ethics and international issues into business core and discipline courses were just beginning to be offered. Understandably, many faculty believed that they were not prepared to teach these subjects and they felt that there were few resources available to help them.

THE GUIDING PHILOSOPHY

As informal faculty and formal committee debate continued, the faculty began to assess the resources available within the university and not just within the college. Ethics was being taught in the Department of Philosophy and a closely related course was being taught in the Department of Humanities. Moreover, many departments within the university dealt with various international topics although not in a specific business sense. With this realization came the understanding that ethics and international issues needed to be considered within the greater context of the university and not just within the business curriculum.

Debate and discussion eventually resulted in a consensus that both topics represented a unifying theme within the business curriculum much in the same way as does the idea of a free market economy. Therefore, both international and ethics issues were considered as themes tying together the curriculum within the business school and linking the business curriculum to the liberal studies curriculum.

Gradually, the realization grew that (1) ethics and international issues had to be dealt with at appropriate times and places in many courses for the effort to have an impact, and (2) plans were needed to prepare faculty to address these issues. The last two parts of this paper recount how much of this has taken place.

THE POLICY PROCESS AND THE RESULT

While informal discussion took place among the faculty about how to deal with the problem, the Curriculum Committee within the College of Business Administration was given the responsibility to develop a plan to better include ethics and international issues in the curriculum. As with any academic issue addressed by faculty committees, many viewpoints were shared and proposals discussed. Slowly, some principles began to emerge.

Use Liberal Studies Courses

The first principle was that the liberal studies program of the university would be utilized to build a foundation in both topics. With regard to ethics, specialists already existed within the university who were formally trained in the area. To ignore this capability seemed both arrogant and short sighted. With regard to international issues, many faculty within the university taught about other cultures, countries, languages and human conditions and practices. However, non–business university faculty did not teach about foreign business practices.

Business Faculty Must Be Involved

The second principle to evolve was that for ethics and international issues to be considered important by business students, the students would have to experience business school faculty addressing these topics within a normal classroom context. Slowly, the realization sunk in that all of the faculty would have to get involved.

Commitment

The committee members attempted to assess how serious the faculty's commitment to ethics and international issues should be. A one time exposure might get the college through an AACSB accreditation review but would it have any effect on the students and their thinking and behavior? The committee's answer was: No!

The result of these deliberations was that two policies, the *International Dimension Policy* and the *Ethics Dimension Policy* were eventually drafted, modified and sent to the faculty for their approval. The faculty voted their acceptance January 1985, and the necessary steps were initiated at the university level to gain approval for inclusion in the university catalog. Both the ethics and international policies are shown in the Appendix of this paper.

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THE THREE STEP APPROACH

Each of the policies indicate a three step approach to integrate ethics and international issues into the curriculum. First, existing liberal studies courses would be used to introduce students to ethical and international topics. Second, selected courses within the business core curriculum were identified as classes in which students would be introduced to basic ethics and international issues as they relate to business in general. Third, the faculty in each major academic discipline would select at least one major course (a course completed by every student majoring in that discipline) where specific and detailed ethical and international issues relating to the discipline (i.e. marketing) would be addressed.

With regard to requiring students to take specific liberal studies courses, much precedent already existed within the university for this practice. Therefore, the problem facing the college was to determine which liberal studies courses were acceptable and whether to require specific courses or to allow students to choose from a list of acceptable courses. Several meetings were held with the philosophy department faculty. Although they were willing to offer and staff a business ethics course, their preference was to continue to teach their existing ethics courses. Their strong opinion was that students would be better served by traditional ethics and philosophy courses that already contained ethical content. Ultimately, the academic vice president made the decision that no special courses would be developed.

With regard to international courses, the underlying philosophy articulated by the curriculum committee was a simple one. The courses should help students realize that other cultures differ from the culture that they have grown up in and that these cultures have both positive and negative aspects about them with regard to social and business issues. Because of this philosophy, many liberal studies courses dealing with such issues as government, art, history and economic geography were deemed acceptable.

After the implementation of the two policies was approved, the business curriculum committee, in consultation with faculty from various liberal arts departments, identified a list of acceptable ethics and international oriented courses. This list is updated regularly and distributed widely to students.

Both policies required that several business core courses be identified that were well suited to dealing with both ethics and international issues. In some cases, the courses were a natural fit such as ethics being discussed in the business law class. In other cases, the fit was somewhat less obvious. For example, discussing ethics in a Management Information Systems class seemed like a difficult stretch. However, with today's hindsight, it was a good choice for addressing such things as computer fraud, privacy, etc. which cross national boundaries. The final step in the process was charging the faculty in each of the academic disciplines to identify a course or two in which more detailed and specific aspects of ethics and international business as related to these disciplines would be addressed. Both policy statements require that a week's worth of classes be devoted to each of these topics. As an example, the marketing faculty identified the senior level marketing management class as the course to deal with both issues. Other discipline faculties elected to deal with the subjects in two different courses.

HOW HAS IT WORKED?

The three step approach as been in effect for about eight years. In general, both the faculty and the students have adjusted to the new requirements. Many faculty, realizing that they now had to cover a subject that they were uneasy dealing with, have taken steps to overcome their deficiencies. Some have taken philosophy courses, some have learned a foreign language, and others have lived and studied in other countries. Many faculty have attended, with the Dean's support, seminars on integrating both international and ethics issues into the curriculum. Finally, faculty exchanges with foreign universities have been both encouraged and carried out. Much learning and growth, resulting from these efforts, have improved the quality of teaching within the college.

Students have also benefitted. First, many students are taking liberal studies courses that they would not have taken in the past. These courses have both broadened the students' intellectual outlook but also achieved the goal of introducing them to different cultures. Perhaps more important than this however, students are now more accepting of discussions dealing with ethical issues. Prior to this policy change, many students were resentful of any

discussion dealing with ethics and values. Their typical reaction was: "Who are you to tell me what to do?" Because of the three level exposure (liberal studies, business core courses and major course or courses) to ethical ideas and topics, students at a minimum, are at least aware that the subject is of some importance.

CONCLUSION

The environment for addressing ethical and international issues is much different today than it was in 1984. Perhaps the greatest difference is the broad range of materials and training available to help faculty to better teach these subjects. One simple example may suffice. Most principles of marketing texts today include either a chapter on international marketing or portions of each chapter addressing the subject. Ethical issues are also covered in various ways in these texts. No longer must one search for cases and materials to guide an in-class discussion.

Nevertheless, without some structure to guide education in these areas, the subjects are likely to receive inadequate attention simply because of how most business school faculty are trained. The three step approach is a successful way to formally institutionalize the teaching of ethics and international business without requiring specialized faculty and classes.

APPENDIX

International Dimension Policy, College of Business Administration, Northern Arizona University, January 1985

College of Business Administration (CBA) students will meet the "international" curriculum requirement through a three step process:

(1) CBA students will complete six hours in courses from the International List available in the CBA Dean's office. The International List will be updated on an annual basis. The courses from the list may be used to simultaneously fulfill liberal studies, major, minor or elective requirements.

(2) CBA students will be introduced to basic international concepts in the CBA core curriculum. The following courses will devote the equivalent of

at least one week of class to international topics: ECO 284, ECO 285, MGT 300 and MKT 333. Also, at least one case discussion in the BA 490 course (Business Policy) will be devoted to an international business situation.

(3) CBA students will be introduced to more detailed and specific aspects of international business in at least one "major" course that all students in the major complete. The equivalent of at least one week of course work will be devoted to international topics in the "major" course.

Finally, all CBA faculty will be encouraged to initiate discussions on international topics whenever appropriate in any CBA course.

Ethics Dimension Policy, College of Business Administration, Northern Arizona University, January 1985

College of Business Administration (CBA) students will meet the "ethics" curriculum requirement through a three step process:

(1) CBA students will complete three hours and encouraged to complete an additional three hours in courses from the Ethics List available in the CBA Dean's office. The Ethics List will be updated on an annual basis. The courses from the list may be used to simultaneously fulfill liberal studies, minor or elective requirements.

(2) CBA students will be introduced to basic ethical concepts relating to business in the following CBA core curriculum courses: BA 205, CIS 360, MGT 300, MKT 333, and BA 490. The equivalent of at least one class period in CIS 360, MKT 333 and BA 490, and at least two class periods in BA 205 and MGT 300 will be devoted to ethics in business situations.

(3) CBA students will be introduced to more detailed and specific aspects of ethics in business in at least one "major" course that all students in the major complete. The equivalent of at least one week of course work will be devoted to ethics in business situations in the "major" course.

Finally, all CBA faculty will be encouraged to initiate discussions on ethics topics whenever appropriate in any CBA course.

PERSONAL COMPUTER USE AMONG COLLEGE BUSINESS STUDENTS:
A LONGITUDINAL STUDY

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ABSTRACT

A longitudinal research design was used to investigate business students' progress in their use, ownership, and competence levels with personal computers. Data was also collected on personal computer (PC) learning methods and utilization in the classroom. The baseline study was conducted in 1987. Four years later the same measures were used to determine the changes in these variables. Although most of the expected changes were verified, neither the frequency of PC use nor the reported competence levels have increased. The unauthorized copying of software was also investigated. Students report relatively high levels of copying of software owned by others in 1987. By 1991 they had somewhat decreased their level of software piracy.

BACKGROUND

Since the first personal computers were introduced in the early 1980's there has been an explosion of increased computing power and availability of software applications. With speed and storage capacity rising and prices dropping each year the personal computer has almost become a commodity item and has achieved widespread diffusion in the business community. An estimated 50 million personal computers were in the office place in 1989, up from 700,000 in 1981. In the 1990s a personal computer is expected to be on every professional's desk.

Prior research indicates the business students believe that knowledge of PCs is essential to their future success and therefore want more courses to require microcomputers. Business educators realize that to meet the needs of the business community, training college business students in the practical application of microcomputers and software is an important task. They are aware that they can increase the product value of their graduates for potential employers by providing training in the use of personal computers

and they have responded by making the personal computer an essential pedagogical tool.

In our study we explore how the students' desire for greater knowledge of PCs and business educators' effort to produce graduates with PC acumen has actually manifested. We focus on business students' computer ownership, usage and software competencies. To investigate their progress over a four year period, our research was done in two stages. Using the same research design and questionnaire we collected baseline data in the winter of 1987 and the follow up data in the winter of 1991.

CONCLUSIONS

The general trend was an increase in the variables associated with PC use. The 1991 students have been using computers longer, have increased computer ownership, and have shown more use of computer applications than the student respondents of 1987. But the self-reported levels of competence with various types of software did not show an increase. We believe the level of competency really did rise, but the students evaluated themselves in relation to their peers, so the data does not reflect the added proficiency that the 1991 respondents had acquired over their 1987 counterparts. Students are learning how to use the computer at an earlier age. The number of students who were taught computer skills in high school doubled between 1987 and 1991.

Respondents estimated in 1987 that 42% of student software acquisition was unauthorized copies; in 1991 this estimate was down to 36%. Students may be more attuned to the meaning of intellectual property rights and appear to have cut back on software piracy.

We expect to continue to replicate this survey on our own campus and hope to add other universities in the future.

PREPARING FOR THE PURCHASERS: INTRODUCING MARKETING STUDENTS TO NEGOTIATING PROCESSES

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ABSTRACT

The usefulness to marketing students of experiencing a negotiating process with other students who take a purchasing viewpoint is discussed. A methodology for conducting such an experience is presented.

INTRODUCTION

Approximately ten years ago two marketing writers noted that:

> The face-to-face elements in marketing have been largely ignored in the literature, and yet there is interesting evidence that they are key aspects of the marketing task which have not to date received the attention which they merit....[A] marketing strategy is only as good as its implementation, and that implementation depends on the people who span organizational boundaries and whose work is aimed at creating various kinds of agreements. It is punctuated by the negotiations through which such agreements are made and put into operation, revised or terminated (McCall and Warrington, 1984, p. 3).

In 1991 another marketing author wrote that:

> Many buyer-supplier relationships which salesmen have traditionally regarded as 'selling' situations have changed considerably over the last [10] to 15 years.... Greater buyer expertise and greater buyer power have led to an increased amount of interdependence between manufacturers or suppliers and distributors or users.... 'Negotiation' is the term generally applied to the more complex situations involving buyers and sellers, in which both make a number of proposals and counterproposals before an agreement is reached.... Selling [,on the other hand,] is being able to persuade the customer to buy from you rather than to say 'no' at the prices and on the terms of business you have quoted... (Lidstone, 1991, pp. 57-58).

Others have noted "[a] recent theme in marketing distinguishes short-term, discrete exchange transactions from exchange involving long-term repetitive interaction with a relational emphasis (i.e., open-ended supplier contracts, franchisor-franchisee arrangements, strategic partnering, and joint ventures) (Gundlach and Murphy, 1993, p. 35).

In one sense what is being described in these quotes is an evolution that has been taking place in the relationship between the marketing and purchasing functions in an interorganizational context. Marketing educators can incorporate certain aspects of this evolution into their classes by constructing situations that require their students to negotiate with purchasers. In explaining the usefulness of such exercises to their students, marketing educators can reference the advice that is given in contemporary marketing and purchasing literature. An example of advice from the marketing literature is that "anticipating the buyer's [negotiating] approach...will enable the salesperson to identify more quickly and accurately the buyer's use of specific tactics as they occur so that those tactics can be addressed for what they are rather than what they might appear to be on the surface" (Perdue and Summers, 1991, p. 187). The following advice from the purchasing literature recommends that nothing in the seller's marketing mix be taken as a given: "The number of specific strategic purchasing opportunities which might be addressed in formulating an overall purchasing strategy is limited only by the imagination of the purchasing manager. Any strategy chosen should include a determination of what quality, how much, who, when, what price, where, how, and why" (Leenders and Fearon, 1993, p. 642).

Marketing students need to be aware that marketing executives face purchasing agents who not only are motivated to negotiate many aspects of a proposed deal but who are also probably well prepared to do so. A recent survey of purchasing executives indicates that all of the following are

taken seriously in preparation for face-to-face negotiations: fact finding, cost or price analysis, supplier's profile check, organization of a negotiating team, developing tactics for handling conflicts, and analysis of supplier's bargaining strength (Min and Galle, 1993, p. 43).

CLASSROOM EXERCISES/EXPERIMENTS

There are many variations of classroom projects that a professor might employ to give students a feel (i.e., experience) for the types of negotiations they might encounter elsewhere. Numerous experiments might also be conducted based on differing kinds of negotiating problems, techniques, etc. The remainder of this paper, which is based on the writer's experience over the course of three semesters, may be of use to others in the design and implementation of classroom negotiating.

1. Negotiating problems can be of many kinds and from many sources. The following problems were designed and used by the writer. The reader is welcome to use them.

Problem 1: Buyer's Data Sheet

Your production department has requested that you order the annual requirement of 150 units of item #334. Our production schedule requires that 15 of these components be used each day in order to make 15 units of finished product per day. Your department and engineering disagree on the tolerances specified for the component. Engineering thinks that the tolerances should be plus or minus one inch but your department thinks that the tolerance can be looser (i.e., up to plus or minus 1 1/2 inches). If the tolerance is too loose the component will not fit into the final product and the production line will be shut down. A member of your committee has the authority to buy components with looser standards. Today's date is day number 1 and full production must start on day number 5 (there are no weekends or holidays in this business).

Top management agrees with engineering that the total cost of the component purchase cannot exceed $30,000. The storage cost per unit per day at your facility is $5 and the cost of renting a truck and driver to haul 50 units in one day is $100. No other

suppliers are available. The purchase must be finalized by the end of the session.

Problem 1: Seller's Data Sheet

Your marketing department has been informed that it is critical that an order for item #334 be received. If the order is not received or if the order is sold at a loss, it is questionable whether the company can remain in business. Your marketing negotiating team has complete authority over the pricing of the item. You have received the following information from your accounting department:
   Variable cost per unit (which includes $10 per unit for delivery to customer and $10 per unit for storage costs) is as follows: 1-200 units = $200 per unit; 201-300 units = $140 per unit. Variable costs can be gradually reduced by $10/unit when the tolerance of the item is changed from plus or minus 1 inch to plus or minus 2 inches. Variable costs increase by $10 per unit if daily production is either above or below 20 units per day. Overhead (which includes all other costs) is calculated as being 20% of variable costs.
The sale must be completed by the end of the negotiating session.

Problem 2: Buyer's Data Sheet

Your company has been growing rapidly and with this growth has come an increase in the complexity of transportation decisions that must be made for incoming freight. Your department is trying to decide whether it would be best to hire additional personnel to aid in the making of transportation decisions, buy software, or opt for some combination of additional personnel and new software. The data that you have collected indicate that each additional person hired will have a total personnel cost of $50,000 and that each such person will be able to reduce transportation costs by $100,000 each year. A consultant has estimated that there is currently approximately $500,000 of such potential savings (the same will be true each year). The work that the new people would do includes negotiating rates and scheduling shipments. Approximately 60% of the potential savings will probably come from negotiating with carriers. Your assumption is that software could be useful in both negotiating and scheduling but that it would be most useful in scheduling. Be-

cause of the complex nature of the operations that will be addressed by the software, your firm will need ongoing access to the software designer. It is anticipated that inappropriate responses from the designer could be costly (e.g., a wrongly modified line of the software's program could result in a $50,000 transportation loss). You anticipate that your firm will require approximately 100 hours of such access per year. Because of this dependance on the software designer, anything that your firm does to irritate the software company during the negotiations might come back to haunt you. Your data indicate that it is possible to hire independent contractors to design the software for you but that your firm would have to get somewhat involved in the management of the project and you are concerned that your firm does not have enough expertise to do so. Your firm understands that such independent contractors are available for about $250 per hour but you have no idea about how many hours of time would be needed for the design work. Your boss wants you to conclude a transaction by the end of the negotiating session.

Problem 2: Seller's Data Sheet

Your company designs customized software for business applications. Demand is increasing for such services but so is competition from sources around the world. This means that if your firm irritates the potential buyer for any reason there is a good chance that you will not get the job. Your overhead is relatively low in relation to your variable costs. As a matter of fact, your company has just covered its overhead for the year but is very concerned that it will not make much profit this year (we are half way through the year) because there do not seem to be many customers on the horizon. Your variable costs are significant because the actual design work is done by independent contractors who charge $250 per hour for rush jobs and $200 per hour for jobs that can be delayed for 2 weeks. Your company has discovered through experience that approximately five hours of independent contractor's time is needed for each $10,000 that the software saves the customer. These same independent contractors also answer, at the same hourly rate, ongoing questions from your customers. Your boss says that you must conclude a transaction by the end of the negotiation session.

2. Regardless of the students' previous coursework, it is probably useful to review certain concepts that might arise in the course of the actual negotiations. These can include fixed and variable costs, economies of scale in production and transportation, inventory procedures (e.g., just-in-time inventory) and inventory costs, the elements of the marketing mix, and relevant legal concepts such as warranties and licenses. The main purposes for discussing these concepts are simply to remind the students what some of the variables in a negotiating process might be and to discuss how negotiating ranges might be established for the concepts (e.g., an acceptable range for cycle time).

3. Some discussion of negotiating techniques and responses to them is in order. Such a discussion can proceed on macro and/or micro levels. Macro level discussion might address a cooperative approach vs. an aggressive approach to negotiations. The literature on channel management deals with similar concepts and speculates on the types of channel conditions that would seem to indicate the use of a particular approach. See, for example, Buchanan (1992).

On a micro level, the class can discuss much more specific techniques such as good guy/bad guy, take it or leave it, no authority, nibble, playing dumb, put yourself in my shoes, y'all come, diversion, etc. (Harding, 1990, p. 85 +). These techniques can be discussed from several viewpoints: 1) how might a technique be used in relation to specific factor being negotiated (e.g., price), 2) how the other side might best react to use a specific technique (texts on negotiating [Harding, 1990, p. 90-91] and the journal Purchasing discuss such reactions), and 3) the ethical ramifications of using the techniques. It is arguable that even techniques that some might find unethical should be discussed because students might encounter them in the "real world."

4. Dividing the class into marketing and purchasing teams presents the professor with several decisions. First, is there enough time to allow each student to have one turn on a marketing team and one turn on a purchasing team? Second, how large should each team be? Third, the issue of

how to assign students to teams presents the professor with choices among options including: a) allowing student self selection, b) seeking demographic diversity within each group, or c) randomly allocating students to teams. For an insightful discussion of the use of group projects in the classroom setting see Strong and Anderson (1990).

5. The time has now arrived for giving each team their version of the negotiating problem and for the teams to develop strategies. The professor must make several decisions at this point. First, should the teams be allowed to assign tasks within the group or should the professor make the assignments? Assignments can include being the expert on pricing, or inventory, or on spotting the other side's negotiation strategies. Second, how much time should the groups be given to prepare for negotiations? One variable affecting this decision is whether any research will need to be done.

6. The actual negotiating session can be a positive experience for all involved. There will hopefully be a series of proposals and counterproposals. The teams should be given the opportunity to retire to private areas to consider their next moves. During the actual team-to-team negotiating, the professor must decide whether to get involved or simply be an observer. If the negotiating problem is properly structured, it should be possible to decree that final decisions must be made by the end of the negotiating class period.

7. Debriefing is very important. Each side can indicate what their strategies and decisions were so that the other side can evaluate their own suspicions. Discussion can also center on what alternate strategies might have been employed. Most importantly the students should be congratulated for their efforts and reminded that the development of negotiating expertise is a life-long endeavor.

CONCLUSION

Although negotiating experience would probably be useful to all business students since negotiations are encountered in many types of careers, the experience would seem to be especially useful for marketing and purchasing students. This is because improperly conducted negotiations between marketing and purchasing representatives can lead to ongoing operational problems and litigation between organizations (Aranda, 1994, pp. 99-100).

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THE MISMARKETING OF MARKETING AS AN ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE REVISITED OR, WHERE HAVE ALL THE CHILDREN GONE?

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ABSTRACT

In 1979, I submitted a paper to the WMEA Conference entitled "The Mismarketing of Marketing as an Academic Discipline or Encroachment from Without and From Within." The primary concern expressed in that paper was that, in the 1970s, departments other than marketing and colleges other than business were offering marketing-kinds of courses, e.g., hotel marketing, advertising management, health care marketing, etc. From within the college, courses were being offered in other departments with such topics as distribution and logistics, purchasing, contract management, etc. Enrollments in the departments of marketing were going down relatively if not absolutely while enrollments elsewhere were going up. Fortunately, enrollments of many schools in the south and west -- which is where membership in WMEA is concentrated -- had been going up.

But this is not the case in the l990s. Enrollments have either been stabilizing at best or decreasing at worst, leaving us to wonder, "where have all the children gone?", and creating a real challenge for marketing and other departments to begin to market themselves more effectively through a commitment to remarketing, new product development and direct competition marketing.

The purpose of this paper is to address these concerns and to propose some specific solutions marketing depart-ments within WMEA's influence might consider.

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

Marketing as a form of economic activity has existed ever since primitive man began exchanging goods and services (Robbins 1974). In fact, a good number of marketing types have noted that the fundamental questions of marketing have to do with exchange relationships. One of our colleagues has gone so far as to suggest that if this is the case, "...marketing should appropriately be identified and treated as a new behavior science in its own right" (Unknown 1994). As an academic discipline, however, marketing continues to suffer the pain and frustration of adolescence at best and of being an extension of economics at worst, although Kotler and Levy did suggest that Marketing was an evolving or ever-changing discipline (Kotler and Levy 1969). According to Otteson, et al (Otteson, et al 1965):

"...as a specific area of study, marketing is one of the more recent fields to receive a place in the professional education of the businessman. Initially, it developed out of economics and even today still bears the stamp of that discipline."

The status of marketing has not changed all that much since this statement was written back in 1965 although a significant portion of the research literature for the past 20 years has been behavioral (psychology, sociology, etc.)(Unknown 1994).

Others have noted that the fundamental questions of marketing have to do with exchange relationships (Anderson 1983) (Hirschman 1987) (Houston 1987). If that is the case, then marketing should appropriately be identified and treated as a new behavioral science in its own right (Unknown 1994).

In fact, much of what marketing had become by the early 1970s, as an academic discipline, has been steadily encroached upon, or simply never fully yielded up by, other academic areas. Some of this has occurred from encroachment from outside the colleges of business and, perhaps, therefore beyond our control. However, other encroachment has been from within and is perhaps a more controllable problem. The purpose of this paper, therefore, is to substantiate this hypothesis through a process of symptom and problem identification and verification.

ANALYSIS OF THE OUTSIDERS

Although it has been argued that marketing has enjoyed a significant evolution since its emergence as a distinct discipline back in the 1920s (although marke'.ig related books such as W.D. Scott's *A Theory of Advertising* appeared in 1903 followed by his *The Psychology of Advertising* published in 1910)(Unknown 1994), the fact still remains that of the four marketing mix variables of product, place, price and promotion, price is still primarily the private domain of the micro-economists as evidenced by the

existence of courses entitled "Behavior of the Firm" or "Price Theory." Promotion, as well, escapes much of our control due to the encroachment of ever-increasing programs around the country such as Communications and Radio and Television Production. Among other courses taught in these programs are: Media Planning and Analysis; Message Design, Production and Media Selection;[1] Broadcast Sales and Sales Management,[2] Advertising Principles and Practices,[3] and Public Relations.[4]

Further encroachment into the heart and soul of marketing in the past few years can be demonstrated by the emergence of courses taught in departments of transportation (logistics, routing, warehousing, etc.) and production management (inventory control, space utilization, etc.). This is not to dispute the contribution to one's learning an interdisciplinary approach has to offer. However, it does appear that as these other programs have sought to find newer and/or broader markets or perhaps even greater relevance, not to mention increased consulting opportunities, they have begun to develop curriculum within a business framework, often to the exclusion of the business faculty. These programs appear not only to be moving into business areas in general, their major encroachment has been specifically into the area of marketing. Further, they are beginning to market their

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[1] This has been taught as Communications 420 in the Department of Communications at Michigan State.

[2] This has been taught as course No. 4403 in the Department of Radio-Television-Film at Oklahoma State.

[3] This has been taught as Communications 280 in the Department of Communications at Washington State, along with four other related advertising courses. A single course entitled Promotion Management is taught within the Department of Business Administration.

[4] This has been taught as Communications 109 in the Department of Communication Studies at University of Nevada, Las Vegas. Other related courses taught in this department have included Laboratory in Public Relations, Publicity Methods, etc. A course entitled Marketing Communications has been taught in the Department of Marketing.

programs to the business community which has continually expressed a want or a need for academic support in a very pragmatic framework, namely, for purposes of marketing and other functional activities of business. Quoting an earlier comment from Stanton (Stanton 1978):

"As...people have begun to recognize that marketing is vitally important to the success of a firm (as well as to the department or college), an entirely new way of business thinking--a new philosophy--has evolved. It is called the marketing concept."

The rationale of what is happening in these other programs is evident, including both a desire on their part to be more relevant to the needs of the job market for their students as well as a desire to benefit departmentally from already existing skills, often modifying their course offering but slightly to more effectively match the needs of the market place.

ANALYSIS OF THE INSIDERS

Where marketing faculty should be concerned is not so much with the encroachment into colleges of business in general and marketing departments in particular from the outside -- since it can be argued this would be an infringement upon academic freedom -- but moreso with the encroachment from the other traditional disciplines within. And I am surprised that, both collectively and individually, we as marketing educators appear to have done so little to counter it, or, as Stanton would have suggested, *counter-market* it. Specifically, this encroachment seems to have come from departments of finance which feel they are best qualified to prepare students for careers notably in three specific industries, namely, banking, insurance and real estate.

Once again, with all due respect for our academic colleagues, we must recognize that others have preempted what, *to some degree*, should be our responsibility as marketing educators to instruct and administer. In a recent scan of the catalogs and other literature of some of the leading colleges of business in the United States as listed in the annual December issues of MBA Magazine as well as a sampling of western institutions, not one which offered a degree or concentration in one or more of these three fields did so under the direction of the marketing department. Rather, they were handled either in separate depart-

ments or concentrations, or under the direction and supervision of the finance department.[5]

What we apparently are seeing is a production rather than a consumer orientation to the training and preparation of most students interested in careers in these three industries. For example, students majoring in real estate at one major south-western university must take twelve hours of specific real estate courses plus at least one course from a list of eight other courses not one of which exposes the student to an understanding of the demand side of the market but, rather, reinforces product or production myopia. This is not to deny the need for a solid foundation of product or service knowledge relative to what the firm has to offer, but these other departments fail to give any evident recognition whatsoever to the need for some exposure to the marketing concept. This is well demonstrated in these respected industries by means of the behavior patterns they evidence in dealing with their respective consumers. Let us briefly examine what is meant here.

Banking - In the area of banking, two facts seem to prevail: (1) banks tend to open their doors about an hour and a half after many of their potential retail customers have to be to work, and they close those same doors about an hour and a half before their customers leave work. This imposes critical time constraints upon many of their customers. For the retail (or household) customer or the employee of a firm other than the bank, he or she must either bank by mail, take time off from work, or use the lunch hour for making deposits, withdrawals, loan applications, etc. For the commercial (or business) customer, he or she must also use valuable time from the hours of business in order to make receipt deposits, acquire change for the day's business, or make those commercial loan applications. Because the U.S. Postal Service has created certain credibility gaps of its own, many people prefer to deal with their banks directly and in person. Hence, (2) the traditional lunch time queuing phenomenon! Today most banks have anywhere from a few teller windows up to several dozen, depending on where the bank or branch thereof is located. But how many prospective consumers have had to stand in lines with the multitudes

while the majority of those teller windows remain unoccupied by tellers? Why? Because many tellers go to lunch from twelve noon until one and the others from one until two. In other words, the bank gives the impression of being more concerned with employee lunch breaks than with consumer service and satisfaction, reducing its supply of sales force personnel at a time when demand might be at its greatest. This appears to be a simple manifestation of the production orientation of the banking industry, as reinforced by the finance departments of many of our respective schools -- more concerned with balancing books and setting the interest rates than with meeting the wants and needs of at least several major market segments. Is it not possible that these behavior patterns can be traced, at least in part, to the course offerings and the production orientation of the finance faculty who influence and mold this particular industry's eventual leaders?[6]

Insurance - In the area of insurance, one dominant fact seems to prevail: the consumer usually has no idea what he or she is getting. This is demonstrated in the legal jargon of the insurance policy. Most policies might as well be written in Latin, given all the legal expressions, exceptions, options, alternatives, clauses, costs and benefits of which one must be aware. The lawyers, statisticians, actuaries and financial managers have taken over. To the insurance agent, "full life", "full term", etc. (how about half life"?) might have some crucial meaning but to the typical consumer these terms leave much to be desired. The opportunity for rational comparisons does not exist. This applies not only to life and health insurance, but also to casualty, automobile and home insurance as well. Could this not be attributed to the product orientation of the course offerings in this academic area of study: Insurance Law, Functional Analysis of Business Risk and Insurance, Economics of Insurance, Employment Benefit Plans, Insurance Companies as Financial Institutions, Insurance and Actuarial Science, etc.?

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[5] Indiana University has had separate Departments of Insurance and Transportation while Arizona University has had a separate Department of Real Estate.

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[6] Examples of typical course offerings in the various departments of finance might include "Money and Banking," "Commercial Bank Management," "Investment Management," "Financial Institutions," and "Growth and Structure of Financial Institutions".

Real Estate - And finally, in the area of real estate, we find similar production as opposed to consumer oriented priorities. Real estate programs deal almost exclusively with the legal definition of the product and the subsequent evaluation based thereon. Either the real estate is industrial, commercial, residential, agricultural, or recreational, modified by a zoning system which only gives clues to the real estate agents as to the legal restrictions imposed on the property, including liens, rights of ways, easements, assessments, etc. It would appear that the typical courses in real estate contribute to this thinking. They include Real Estate Appraisal, Seminar in Urban Economics and Real Estate, Legal Aspects of Real Estate, City and Regional Planning, Real Estate Finance and Investments, Real Estate Taxation, Real Estate Law, etc.

SOME EXPOSURE UNAVAILABLE TO MARKETING

In some fairness to the finance and other departments, they usually are found within the confines of a larger under-graduate or graduate program administered by the college of business and, hence, are required to have their students also take a brisk overview of the functional courses of management, finance, and marketing. Unfortunately the marketing requirement is usually met by the student taking a course in the introduction to marketing – a sophomore or junior level course at best at the undergraduate level -- and a survey course in marketing at best at the graduate level. No person within the group here assembled, with any commitment to the marketing concept, would regard this as sufficient.

INDUSTRY RECOMMENDATIONS

Inasmuch as this paper has criticized, now let it be constructive. Any student considering a career in banking, insurance, or real estate or preparing for a career in other disciplines outside the college of business should be advised to consider the following minimum course work in marketing: market research, consumer behavior, and/or salesmanship. Longer run reasons for these particular courses being recommended are obvious but would certainly include:

- banks might begin to realize even more now than ever before that the market place is not made up of two relatively homogeneous submarkets, namely, those who bank by mail and those who have ample time to bank in person; evidence of this is the rapid emergence of the 24-hour automatic teller machine (ATMs);

- banks might discontinue insisting that consumers queue up in everlasting lines at the teller windows during the consumers' lunch breaks or leaves of absence from work;

- insurance companies might begin to draft insurance policies in a language comprehensible to the consumer, in order that the latter might truly begin to understand exactly what the firm is offering and for what he or she is paying; evidence of this emerged briefly about five years ago in the form of customer/user friendly polices, but given my own personal round with these polices in the past year, either the practice was not universal or was short lived;

- the consumer of insurance might no longer feel confused, uncertain, exploited, or at the mercy of the insurance salesman due to the complexity of present insurance policies, but content with having made a rational decision based upon comprehensible information;

- the real estate salesman might begin to realize that although the legal status of a piece of property is important to the consumer, the most important features might well be very personal, psychological, or even aesthetic, -- things not too often if at all discussed in a real estate course; and

- the consumer of real estate might for the first time feel the full personal, social, psychological and aesthetic satisfaction of having purchased a piece of real estate rather than a legal puzzle filled with ever lurking dangers of inadequate title, the hidden lien, closing costs, points, the unexpected assessment, etc.

And, finally, it is recommended to business students that in order not to overlook the benefits of an inter-disciplinary approach to one's education, a course or two in persuasion or argumentation from the Communications Department and a course or two in small group interpersonal behavior from the Sociology or Psychology Departments might be recommended.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, what this paper has tried to establish is that many of our children have gone elsewhere. We as marketing faculty and administrators have a challenge to remarket the marketing discipline. We must become cognizant of the fact that for many years we have failed to withstand outside encroach-

ment into our markets and, hence, must recognize the need for countermarketing.

Further, we must be cognizant of the existence of a very vital target market for remarketing, namely, those students, faculty, and administrators within the areas of banking, insurance, and real estate who, by their very conduct, both in academia and in practice, seem to epitomize the antithesis of the marketing concept. If we truly believe in the principles we profess, let us begin firstly with ourselves, secondly with our other business faculties, and thirdly with our non-business colleagues. Let us train and mold our students (products or consumers) preparing for careers in banking, insurance, real estate, advertising, health care marketing, etc. so that the industries in which they eventually find themselves as owners, managers, and employees are steeped in the conviction of the desirability of implementing the marketing concept and might more fully meet the wants and needs of their respective customers.

Finally and hopefully, may this aura of apathy, ignorance, complexity, intrigue, uncertainty or perhaps even self-pride on the part of some individuals and institutions be removed and a breath of fresh air be introduce back into these very important market places. And, hopefully, may we not only learn to know where all the children have gone but also are willing to make a commitment to restore them to the fold while appealing to still other children lost outside colleges of business in these times of declining demand.

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SEGMENTING BUSINESS EDUCATION: ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL MODELS

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to determine the extent to which academic and professional issues confronting business education were segmented according to a school's emphasis on teaching and research. The results of surveying deans from AACSB accredited and nonaccredited schools indicated that there were unique beliefs and values associated with deans from research-oriented schools, as well as with deans from teaching-oriented schools. Thus, an operational segmentation of business education was found to exist. Issues and implications of the study's findings were advanced and discussed.

INTRODUCTION

While segmentation theory has been amply applied in marketing, the application of the tenets of segmentation to business education has been an infrequent occurrence. Recently, a number of studies have specifically addressed the segmentation uniqueness of business education. These studies have been prompted by the new accreditation criteria of the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) (see Final Report, 1991), which is now focusing on mission and uniqueness, as well as continuous improvement. For the most part, these studies have sought to determine whether deans from AACSB accredited schools featuring a teaching emphasis have different academic and professional beliefs and values when contrasted to deans from research-oriented schools (Van Auken, 1992) and whether deans from Porter and Kibben's (1988) category one, two, and three schools also have unique beliefs and values when contrasts are made between them (Cotton, et al., 1993). Surprisingly, these studies have not revealed an operational segmentation of the market for business education. Even a study of deans' perceptions of business research revealed that school characteristics were not predictive (Van Auken, et al., 1993).

Given that the new AACSB accreditation guidelines provide a mission framework for future accreditation assessments which relate to Cheit's (1985) academic and professional models of business education, changes in the structure of business education among AACSB accredited schools and those desirous of accreditation should be accelerating. With respect to this mission framework, the AACSB accreditation guidelines state the following:

> Generally, schools with greater emphasis on graduate instruction relative to undergraduate instruction should place greater emphasis on intellectual contributions. Schools with a strong emphasis on graduate programs, in particular those with a strong commitment to doctoral programs, should have a substantial emphasis on basic scholarship. Schools with a predominant emphasis on undergraduate degree programs may have the emphasis of their intellectual contributions in applied scholarship and instructional development. Schools with a mix of undergraduate and graduate programs, but without doctoral programs, may have a balance among basic scholarship, applied scholarship, and instructional development (Final Report, 1991, p. 31).

In essence, this new framework indicated that a school's infrastructure of characteristics should serve to operationalize the academic and professional models of business education. Writing before the new accreditation guidelines were adopted, Cheit (1985) noted that the academic model regarded business as a science, and as such, it had as its goal not the training of students to solve present-day problems, but to develop the habits of mind and analytic competence needed to solve future business problems, as yet unknown. In turn, Cheit noted that the professional model tended to view business education as more of an art than a science, and that it had as its primary goal the development of judgment in the solution of complex and unstructured problems. To summarize, in the professional model the focus of research was

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on solving problems of current concern to managers, and in the academic model the focus of research was on theory building.

Of course, Cheit (1985) felt that every business school employed aspects of both the academic and professional models and, consciously or not, developed its own approach in following each of these models. However, it is clear that the AACSB, through its new standards, has now made these models operational.

THE STUDY

This study sought to determine the extent that the academic and professional issues confronting business education, as perceived by deans, were segmented according to a school's teaching versus research emphasis. The study was built on the earlier work of Van Auken (1992) which involved a survey of deans on this issue during the Spring of 1990. Basically, this study sought to develop a *constructive* replication of the Van Auken study, yet it offered advantages over Van Auken's earlier work through the addition of deans from nonaccredited schools, a more precise dependent variable measurement, as well as the inclusion of beliefs and values relating to Total Quality Management (TQM). Additionally, this study assessed the extent of change in deans' perceptions in the ensuing two plus years since the original Van Auken report. By so doing, another longitudinal coordinate will be developed as to the continuing evolution of business education during a time of self-assessment and renewal for all.

The study involved presenting deans of both AACSB accredited and nonaccredited schools with a questionnaire which asked them to assign percentage weightings to the extent of emphasis given to teaching, research, and service at their respective schools. The total of these weightings was designed to sum to 100%. Deans were also presented with 28 academic and professional belief and value variables that were designed to capture the inherent trade-offs between the two models of business education and which otherwise denoted either an academic or professional model focus. These variables were scored on a seven-point Likert scale with very strong agreement denoting a scale value of seven.

Population Surveyed

Earlier investigations of accreditation matters and of future directions for business schools have utilized the views of deans as predictive (Cotton, et al., 1993; Van Auken, et al., 1993). Consistent with this emphasis

and a constructive replication of the 1990 Van Auken work (1992), all deans of AACSB accredited schools (n=272), and all deans of nonaccredited schools who were associate members of the AACSB (n=292), were surveyed.

Data Collection Process

During the summer of 1992, all deans in the population were mailed a package containing a cover letter, the above described questionnaire, and a postage-paid return envelope. This survey and a follow-up survey of nonresponding deans yielded 268 usable questionnaire returns for a respectable 47.5% return rate. Of this number, 133 deans were from accredited schools and 135 deans were from nonaccredited schools, thus the sample yielded a balanced and substantial rate of return, 48.9% and 46.2%, respectively. While the return rate was impressive, a concern existed regarding the representativeness of the AACSB respondent group with respect to the AACSB universe, especially with regard to research-oriented schools. Therefore, a comparison was made between the number of doctoral programs within the AACSB respondent group sample (n=41) and the number of doctoral granting programs in business (n=100) within the AACSB universe. A subsequent Chi Square Analysis revealed that the sample and the universe did not differ significantly as to doctoral program coverage (X^2 = 1.39, 1 d.f., p > .05).

ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL BELIEFS AND VALUES

The 28 belief and value statements included in the questionnaire were founded on issues that have been subject to debate and controversy within business schools. Each selected variable had a strong rationale for inclusion in the study. These variables are presented in Table 1 and they were drawn from the following categories of interest: research (4 issues); teaching (3); curriculum (12); the business community (2); the AACSB (4); and mission concerns (3). Of course, many of the items related to more than one of the delineated categories and categorical assignments were based on an item's primary orientation.

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The Criterion Measure

To develop the criterion measure, all business school deans who scored equal or above the median position (50.0%) for the teaching emphasis variable and who

scored below the median (30.0%) on the research emphasis variable were placed in a "predominately" teaching-oriented group (n=90). Alternatively, all deans who scored equal to or in excess of the median position on research (30.0%) and below the median on teaching (50.0%) were placed in a "predominately" research-oriented group (n=88). This latter group represented the heaviest weighting given to research relative to teaching in the entire sample. With the development of these two groups, which are viewed as being analogous to Cheit's (1985) academic and professional models, a basis has been established to assess whether academic and professional model beliefs and values will differ between the two groups. The presence of differences and the extent of differences will reveal insights into the extent of segmentation of business education and whether a school's infrastructure (i.e., teaching versus research) is impacting the perception of deans. Moreover, the presence of differences may serve as a useful guide as to the state of business education for those schools pursuing AACSB reaccreditation or initial accreditation.

The criterion variable in this study was unique, as contrasted to the earlier Van Auken (1992) study. In the earlier study, deans were asked to indicate their school's emphasis (i.e., teaching over research, or research over teaching). In the present study the median position on teaching and research was utilized to categorize deans. This study therefore deleted deans who either scored above or below the median on both teaching and research. This was necessary in developing an academic and professional model beliefs and values segmentation, as these deleted deans should share both an academic and professional model orientation.

Factor Analysis

To reduce the 28 belief and value variables to a more manageable number and to handle the problem of intercorrelated predictors, these variables were subjected to a factor analysis with varimax rotation. The results revealed the presence of nine factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. These nine factors accounted for 60.7% of the variance within the sample data set.

ANOVA Application

To assess whether the nine factors would discriminate between the two deans' groupings (i.e., the "predominately" research group and the "predominately" teaching group), a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run on the factor scores for each of the nine factors (see Table 1). These factor scores revealed how each dean scored on each

factor. For example, positive factor scores indicated that the dean in question scored above the sample average on a given factor, while negative factor scores indicated the reverse. Since the factor scores have been standardized to a mean of zero and unit variance, the higher the absolute magnitude of the factor score the greater the above/below average response; conditioned, of course by the scores' directional sign.

Insert Table 1

The ANOVA results in Table 1 revealed three factors that varied significantly between the two deans' groupings, with two other factors that came close to qualifying at the .05 alpha level. Of the three statistically significant factors, two directly related to the academic and professional models. In this regard, the "predominately" teaching-oriented deans' grouping scored above the sample average (.17) on the "managerial focus" factor, while the "predominately" research-oriented deans' grouping scored below the sample average (-.18). Moreover, the latter group scored above the sample average on the "scientific model" (.17), while the teaching group, as expected, scored below the sample average (-.17). Not surprising, research oriented deans scored below the sample average on "TQM acceptance" (-.17), and teaching-oriented deans scored above the sample average (.16) on this statistically significant factor. This finding can be partially explained by the observation that there is often a gap between the best of theory and current practice (Miles, 198).5). Also, not unexpected, was the near statistical miss on the "pragmatism" factor (p<.0697). In this regard, the average "pragmatism" factor score was lower for the research group (-.14) and was higher for the teaching group (.13). Also, "experiential learning" was a near statistical miss (p<.0554); the research-emphasis deans' grouping scored below the sample average (-.15), while the teaching-oriented deans' grouping scored beyond the sample average (.14).

DISCUSSION

On balance, the study results stand in contrast to the earlier reported Van Auken (1992) study. In that work, the key "inward academic orientation" factor failed to discriminate between the research/teaching versus the teaching/research deans' groupings. It was this factor that most personified the academic model.

In the ensuing two years since the initial Van Auken study, a "managerial focus" factor and a "scientific

model" factor have emerged from essentially the same variable set (three additional questions relating to TQM were the sole exceptions) and these factors did discriminate. Apparently, the AACSBs operationalization of the academic and professional models of business education has taken root. Basically, deans have come to see their schools differently as a function of their research and teaching emphases and an operational segmentation of business education has apparently taken place.

NOTE: The references may be attained from the first author.

TABLE 1

MEAN PROFILING AND UNIVARIATE F ANALYSIS OF FACTOR SCORES AS APPLIED TO RESEARCH/TEACHING AND TEACHING/
RESEARCH EMPHASES

FACTORS	Mean Scores		Univariate F*	Probability
	R/T n=88	T/R n=90		
1. Pragmatism	-.14	.13	3.33	.0697
2. Managerial Focus	-.18	.17	5.49	.0203
3. Academic Breadth	-.07	.06	0.77	.3826
4. Scientific Model	.17	-.17	5.19	.0239
5. Research Benefits	.11	-.11	2.03	.1559
6. TQM Support	-.01	.01	0.03	.8538
7. Integrative Core	.05	-.05	0.46	.4999
8. Experiential Learning	-.15	.14	3.72	.0554
9. TQM Acceptance	-.17	.16	4.96	.0272

* d.f. in numerator = 1; d.f. in denominator = 176.

STUDENT RECEPTIVITY TO AN UNDERGRADUATE COURSE ON ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES AND BUSINESS DECISION MAKING: A FOCUS ON MARKETING MAJORS

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ABSTRACT

Environmental issues are a concern in most areas of business operation. Yet schools of business devote minimal attention to these topics. To fill this gap, the National Wildlife Federation Corporate Conservation Council (NWFCCC), assembled a consortium of business scholars to develop course materials and pilot graduate courses on environmental considerations relevant to management decision-making.

This study examines how receptive undergraduate business students are to a course on environmental issues and business.

The data for this report come a survey of undergraduate business majors from one California State University conducted in Fall, 1993. A systematic random sample was taken of courses offered in the College of Business. One in six courses listed in the Course Schedule was selected for the study. Of 50 classes selected for the study, 33 participated, a 67% response rate. Seven hundred ninety-seven valid questionnaires were received.

Respondents were asked to rate the business implications of 17 issues on a standard five point importance scale. The list of issues was drawn from topics covered in the three pilot graduate courses designed and taught by members of the NWFCCC curriculum project.

Overall the students rate the business implications of environmental issues "somewhat" to "very important" (mean ratings of 3.5 to 4.5 on a 5 point scale). Perceptions of the relative importance of the 17 issues are consistent across departments. Students in all departments see waste disposal, pollution, energy, toxic substances, recycling waste, and waste reduction as the most important topics to business. They see global warming, possibilities for sustainable development, and environmental issues as marketing opportunities as among the least important. Only two issues yield statistically significant differences among the majors: marketing and operations management majors rate "manufacturing/packaging resource alternatives" higher in importance than do other majors; marketing and international business majors rate "environmental issues as market opportunities" higher in importance than do other majors.

Respondents were asked to rate on a 5 point scale how important environmental issues were to functional business areas. An analysis of mean scores indicates that students in 5 of the 7 departments surveyed see marketing as the business area in which natural resource and environmental considerations are most important. Students in all 7 departments see Finance, Computer Information Systems, and Accounting as the areas in which environmental considerations are least important.

The undergraduates surveyed agree that a course on environmental issues and business decision making should be offered at the undergraduate level rather than the graduate level. Forty percent of business majors (46% of marketing majors) thought this course should be required for all business majors.

A quarter of respondents said they "definitely would" and two fifths said they "probably would" take such a course. Differences between departments were not statistically significant.

The perceived importance of environmental issues and high level of interest in a course on environment and business indicate strong student demand for such a course. Although marketing majors are not more sensitive to environmental issues than other majors, the general agreement on the importance of these issues to marketing suggests that such a course should be based in the marketing department.

AN INTERACTIVE SECONDARY RESEARCH PROJECT FOR A LARGE, DIVERSE INTRODUCTORY MARKETING CLASS: A PEDAGOGICAL MODEL

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ABSTRACT

Employers are demanding that graduates and not just marketing graduates, possess the skills to find information, interpret it, and then utilize it to make sound managerial decisions. But in the realm of an undergraduate principles of marketing course, secondary research skills are often overlooked, either because of course size or time constraints. The authors discuss one solution that allows the marketing educator of a large class to enhance students' marketing research skills, while also minimizing the impacts of preparation and grading.

INTRODUCTION

With the profound changes in marketing education curricula, university administrators and academicians must challenge themselves to develop and implement effective interactive projects. According to Barnes and Byrne (1990) "over the last decade there has been an increasing pressure in higher education to provide courses which have a vocational orientation and which equip students with the insights and skills for employment." Additionally, the guidelines of the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) state that "the curriculum shall be responsive to social, economic, and technological developments and shall reflect the application of evolving knowledge in economics and the behavioral and quantitative sciences." Marketing education is inextricably dependent upon these sciences and, as a conduit, marketing educators must be responsive to these issues. To answer this challenge, this paper discusses a working, interactive marketing research project for large principles of marketing courses.

THE CHALLENGE TO MARKETING ACADEMIA

Students enrolled in principles of marketing classes are customarily indoctrinated into the benefit of marketing as a strategy to determine the needs of potential markets. Though principles of marketing textbooks address secondary marketing research, instructors may not find it feasible to cover this topic in depth during a single semester. Marketing curricula have traditionally exposed students to the marketing research process by offering two courses:

Principles of Marketing and Marketing Research (Turnquist, Bialaszewski, and Franklin 1991). Healy, Cully, and Cudd (1975) suggest that a short fall of these courses is the failure to train tomorrow's managers in secondary methods. For example, nearly two-thirds of the business students they surveyed could not find a published balance sheet for a major corporation such as Proctor and Gamble.

Prospective employers are calling for greater exposure of students to real-life problems; they want universities to emphasize practice rather than theory in the marketing curriculum (Malhotra, Tashchian, and Jain 1989). Lesch and Hazeltine (1990) suggest that instructors may be frustrated, ". . . absent meaningful guidance for the presentation of secondary research methodology, instructors may not be qualified or inclined to develop and assign interesting, non-trivial classroom problems." Academicians can profess the marketing concept in theory, but hands-on marketing study provides interactive learning—to provide students the skills to actively identify market needs and wants.

However, there are numerous obstacles to teaching both marketing research and the ability to collect and examine secondary methods, such as class composition and class size. Many students who partake in a principles of marketing course are not marketing majors, and may not even be business majors. The authors would like to submit that marketing research, especially secondary data, is an essential skill in the educational background of any professional and such a pedagogical learning tool does exist to meet those demands. The value of secondary marketing research skills as stated by Lesch and Hazeltine (1990) is that secondary research sharpens problem formulation and leads to better-informed managerial decisions. Therefore, a principles class of more than 200 students with diverse majors is an excellent forum to administer a marketing research project that exposes a group of students to the skills that employers are demanding.

THE LITERATURE

The literature proposing pedagogical tools in marketing research is limited. "Relatively few articles have

dealt with general pedagogical aspects of teaching marketing research" (Ganesh 1992). None have addressed the implementation of a market research assessment project to a large class (200 or more) composed of diverse majors. This paper introduces a model of such a project.

THE PROJECT

This particular principles of marketing course is taught at a major university in the western United States every semester in a lecture format. Approximately 475 junior and senior undergraduate students are separated into two sections of 200 students and one evening section of 75 students. According to Dunipace and Thompson (1993) the increased demand for marketing, the expansion of marketing curriculum, and the decrease in budget all have affected the classroom size. One of the problems with a large class is administrative. Grading written term papers or case studies would take an immense amount of time. Therefore, the challenge is to design a project which accomplishes pedagogical goals and also minimizes the administrative logistics.

In 1986 the professors at this university began administering a work sheet-style project that required the students to do secondary marketing research at the campus library. The work sheet format, as defined by the authors, utilizes a question and answer format to achieve the instructor-based objectives. This is beneficial to both faculty and students because, first, it enables the faculty to pose in-depth questions concerning the research process, while facilitating the task of grading. Secondly, it clarifies to the student what is specifically expected on the project. Lesch and Hazeltine (1990) advocate a structured format suggesting ". . . a structured approach makes the data search process less random, so that if efficiency in data gathering is the paramount objective, the search process should be structured."

Within the campus environment, the library is a good source to introduce secondary methods. According to Hawbaker and Littlejohn (1988), "Library research is virtually impossible to teach effectively without physical experience in the library and hands-on experience with the multiple tools." Additionally, structure is provided by the library staff through the designation of a table in the reference section exclusively for this project. The table contains all the marketing reference books that the students will need to complete the work sheet. With all the resources in one location, a large number of students can work simultaneously, the reference librarians can keep track of the books, and the students can find information faster which allows the work sheet to encompass many areas of marketing research.

The work sheet requires students to research the controllable elements of the marketing mix and the uncontrollable elements of the environment, and then asks them to explain briefly how their findings affect the target market. The following pages provide an explanation of each functional section of the work sheet.

The Scene

The Scene provides a brief, one-page situation analysis of the general concept of the project. It contains three components. The first component is a short, comical story about a fictitious character that requests the students to do marketing research because he/she is thinking of expanding his/her chain of retail stores. These stores have historically been general merchandise, food, electronic, or computer retailers. The second component identifies the objectives of the project, instructing the students to investigate the controllable and uncontrollable marketing elements, and then to relate their findings to the target market. The final component is a list of the selected business and marketing reference books, including their call numbers, that the students must utilize to find the necessary data.

Parameters

This includes administrative information concerning grading criteria, the due dates for project completion, to whom students should direct questions, and location of the designated table in the library.

The Controllable Marketing Elements

Product. To pose questions in this area as well as other areas throughout the work sheet, the project requires the students to chose a specific product. To preserve academic honesty, the students are assigned a department of a store based on their last name, and then instructed to chose a specific product that the store would inventory in that department. For example, if their last name is Hastings, their department is *Hardware* and the student can pick any product that one may find in that department, such as a *Hammer*.

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Once a specific product has been identified, the students must answer more individual product-related questions. These include the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) number, the top company within that SIC number, the name and address of a trade association related to their specific product, a magazine or journal article associated with the marketing of that product, and their product's stage in the product life cycle.

Price. Just as the students were required to select a specific product, they are now asked to chose a sizeable city (more than 50,000 population) in the United States that begins with the first two letters of their first name. This system again serves well in upholding the students' academic honesty by preventing students from researching the same city (historically, many students have researched the city where the university is located), while asking area-specific questions about the target market.

This section also introduces the students to a cost of living index. This index lists prices for certain items in cities across the country. Evaluating the prices of products enables students to better understand and contrast the geographical influences concerning pricing strategies. The students record the prices of four products that the new store would sell if the chain expanded to their chosen cities.

Place. The students are asked to research the channels of distribution available to send and receive shipments of products in their chosen cities. The students identify transportation modes and providers. For example, one transportation mode could be *Airline* and the specific example could be *Continental*. Additionally, the students must explain which transportation mode would be most suitable for their specific products.

Promotion. Questions concerning promotion again require the use of the students' chosen cities. These questions ask the students to research radio stations, newspapers, and television stations that serve their chosen cities. As a result, the students better understand the complexities of marketing communication. A final question requires the students to explain which advertising medium would be most suitable for promotion of their selected product.

The Uncontrollable Elements

Resources. This section addresses the need for marketing researchers to evaluate the desirability of potential cities when considering to expand or relocate a business. Utilizing place-rating guides, the students evaluate their chosen cities in terms of four criteria: cost of living, crime rate, transportation, and education. They are then asked to comment on the desirability of their city based on these ratings. Additionally, students use several directories to identify the names, addresses, and contact persons of two companies that they would consider contacting for employment.

Demographics. Students are required in this section to research demographic variables and purchasing behaviors regarding the population in their chosen cities , the target market. The questions ask which county the city is located in, the population of the county, the median age of this population, the total retail sales for the city, and the principal retail shopping days in their city. This enables the students to consider the characteristics of their target markets.

Social. Marketing researchers must also consider the social aspects affecting a new store. For example, a current social issue affecting retailers is the trend toward environmentally friendly products. The students are instructed to use an environmental source book to identify companies that make certain environmentally friendly products that the new store may want to use internally or stock for resale.

Technology. Many business courses introduce students to the latest computer database or information technologies. Market researchers use many databases to uncover information. An explanation is provided of how to use one of the computer databases in the library. The students then utilize a company profile database to identify companies related to their specific product.

Economic. Economic variables will also affect the expansion of a chain into a new market. Utilizing area market guides to identify these variables, the students evaluate the principal industries and financial institutions located in their chosen cities that may influence the company's marketing strategies. Economic information helps the researcher understand the economic stability of both the potential consumers and the region as a whole.

Competition. Students are asked to use a business directory to identify the top four competitors of the retail chain in the country, as well as the numbers of employees and sales of those companies. Students then utilize a recent copy of a business journal to

research stock-related information for these companies. The students also find the executive board members, their titles, and the addresses for these top competitors.

Political/Legal. The final section concerning the uncontrollable variables allow the students to consider consumer protection laws or statutes. The students are directed to a law digest to investigate the laws of the state in which their chosen cities are located. In a final question, the students then explain the law or statute, and how it may affect a new store in that area. Managers of the future must understand the local, state, and federal laws affecting their business dealings.

STUDENT ANALYSIS AND FEEDBACK

The final question on the work sheet is a brief, one page essay designed to elicit important marketing feedback. It assesses the ability of the students to relate their work sheet findings to the target market and it gathers feedback concerning the project's educational value.

The students discuss whether or not they support locating a new store in their chosen cities. Students can now evaluate the location based on the controllable and uncontrollable variables. By doing so, they can also discuss their conclusions based on the three objectives as stated in the beginning of the project, thus finalizing the learning objectives.

To address the educational benefit to the student, they are asked: "Was this a learning experience?" Over the years, feedback from this question has led to many constructive revisions to the project. Some interesting findings emerge: On average, nine out of ten students express positive feedback that learning basic research skills will be useful to them in other disciplines and future entrepreneurial ventures. Those students who do indicate negative feedback communicate that the project was either too impersonal, busy work, unrelated to their major, or demanded skills already acquired.

The authors suggest that a project of this nature could be expanded to include graduate classes, enhanced computer integration, multiple versions to maintain academic integrity, service-related organizations, and, finally, specialized sources to accommodate special interest courses.

CONCLUSION

Acquiring marketing research skills is essential for students to be competitive in a global environment, which is supported by the demands of both the AACSB and industry. This project allows an instructor of a mass section of diverse students to facilitate the hands-on, project method approach in the research of secondary data.

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GIVE US THAT OLD-TIME MARKETING RELIGION?

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ABSTRACT

A special session at the 1993 WMEA Conference demonstrated promise for debate about marketing instructional paradigms, but instead resulted in a unified responsive reading praising the accepted doctrine. This paper identifies the lack of empirical support regarding the educational efficacy of the 4P paradigm. An experimental investigation of competing instructional models is suggested. Experimentation should be based on measurement of the relative merit of competing instructional paradigms for producing knowledge, affect, and applied marketing skills.

INTRODUCTION

On its face, a special session which was conducted at the 1993 WMEA Conference in Santa Clara appeared promising for the development of lively debate regarding pedagogy for marketing fundamentals. The session featured major textbook authors William Pride and E. Jerome McCarthy, along with T. McTier Anderson. The intent of the session was to present an alternative to the standard 4P's managerial paradigm, with plenty of opportunity for rebuttal. Ably moderated by Ruth Taylor, who also presented a modification to the 4P's as an alternative, the session was well-attended and was successful in stimulating thought about theoretical models for delivering marketing fundamentals.

Two characteristics of the special session, however, were troubling. One disappointment was that neither proposed alternative was actually a meaningful departure from the predominant marketing concept and 4P's approach. Another characteristic of the session was that it was very much like a religious revival. Rather than critical and objective assessment of revisions suggested from new approaches, it seemed instead that any challenge to accepted doctrine was dismissed on general principle as inconsistent with the true faith without the assistance of any objective data. Figuratively, but almost literally, the preacher spoke and the people said Amen!

This casual observation is not intended to offend the faithful from any religious group. As a Christian, I appreciate the role of encouragement in matters of faith and am amazed that those who give the greatest attention to critically evaluating the meaning of their faith as it relates to their behavioral practices are frequently depicted as being mindless adherents to religion.

It is possible that the same mistake is being made here. The group of marketing educators may be basing their support for the 4P paradigm on carefully evaluated, objective criteria. However, one would expect that more citation of evidence supporting the defense of their position would have been present in the meeting if this were the case. The single relevant defense offered was that the 4P Model is the most parsimonious, but there seemed to be little concern that empirical tests of effectiveness are absent.

STRIKING THE CHAUTAUQUA TENT

Acceptance of the managerial marketing paradigm as the appropriate pedagogical approach for marketing fundamentals is currently an act of faith. To some degree it always will be. The point here is that additional empirical investigation is needed to support the level of emotional commitment to the 4P model that is common. There has been little empirical evaluation of the 4P's effectiveness for developing marketing practitioners when compared with alternative paradigms. This paper examines the current state of research for evaluating the pedagogical effectiveness of the 4P's model. A more robust model for examining the approach is presented along with a propositional inventory for future research. Also included is a discussion of promising alternative (or complementary) approaches to the study of marketing fundamentals.

Research emphasis has been placed on the examination of the validity of the marketing mix conception. For example, a representative question would be: Does the marketing mix model allow for adequate explanation of changes in marketing outcomes like sales, profit, market share, and/or customer satisfaction. Of course the veracity of a model is a necessary, but insufficient condition for proclaiming it an effective pedagogical tool. Additional concerns include the ability to transfer knowledge, affective motivational qualities, and

relevance to educational objectives for both the educational system and the end-users of the educational product. Review of the existing literature in marketing education yielded no study of the role of marketing paradigm use in explaining or predicting educational outcomes. The current state of the evaluation of the 4P model as a teaching tool is graphically presented in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1
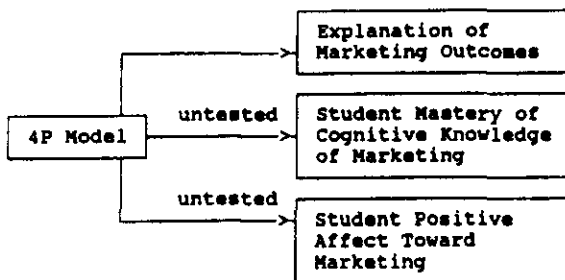
CONSTRUCTING A TEMPLE OF EMPIRICISM

Representation of the absence of empirical evaluation of the 4P's model as a teaching tool in Figure 1 also reveals the absence of a strategic orientation to the evaluation process. Examination of the 4P Model is tied to managerial objectives for its use, but not sufficiently tied to educational objectives. A more robust theoretical model which describes the process through which marketing knowledge and marketing skills are translated into marketing behavior, marketing outcomes, and end-user satisfaction is presented in Figure 2. The model is useful as a checklist for considering the level of empirical support generated to date for each of the relationships hypothesized. An inventory of propositions follows presentation of the model.

FIGURE 2
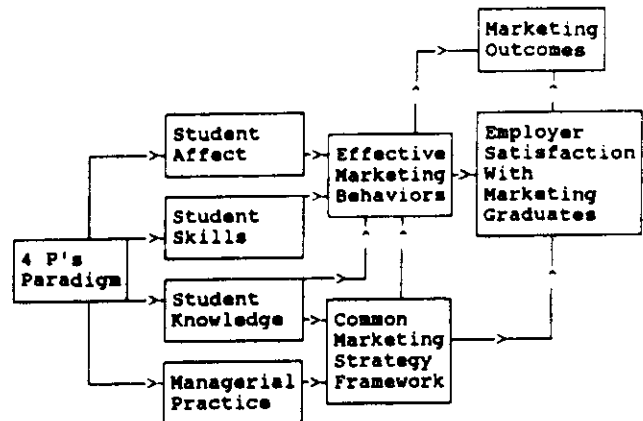
INVENTORY OF PROPOSITIONS

H1 - Use of the 4P Model provides superior [to competing model (TCM)] student cognitive knowledge in marketing.

H2 - The 4P Model is superior (TCM) for use in managerial practice.

H3 - Use of the 4P Model provides superior (TCM) development of skills relevant to managerial practice.

H4 - Use of the 4P Model contributes more favorably (TCM) to the development of positive student affect toward the study and practice of marketing.

H5 - Use of the 4P Model contributes more favorably (TCM) to the development of student cognitive knowledge which is useful in applied settings.

H6 - Use of the 4P Model contributes more favorably (TCM) to the development of desired marketing behaviors.

H7 - Marketing behaviors produced as a result of instruction using the 4P Model correspond to better marketing outcomes than those behaviors produced as a result of instruction using a competing model.

H8 - Employer (or other end user of marketing education) satisfaction with marketing behaviors and marketing outcomes generated through use of the 4P Model is higher than satisfaction with behaviors and outcomes generated through use of a competing model.

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Current State of Research

The model and propositions derived from it are based on the applied purpose of marketing education. It is recognized that intrinsic educational purposes also exist, that the acquisition of knowledge for its own sake is meritorious. It also recognizes the contribution of three learning domains (Bloom et.al. 1956) -- cognitive, affective, and behavioral. The behavioral domain corresponds to Bloom's identification of a psychomotor domain which involves the translation of thought into action. For marketing, this goes well beyond the typical early childhood concerns of large motor skills, fine motor skills, and eye-hand coordination. It includes complex behavioral skills such as speaking, listening, and writing. Affective learning has been described as learning about the relationship between the student and the subject matter (Laughlin and Hite 1993).

A review of research in marketing education yielded no direct comparison of marketing paradigm choice with either educational efficacy or student application of marketing knowledge to business settings. The issues identified in the model shown in Figure 2 are all addressed in the marketing education literature, but examination typically is restricted to differences related to choice of teaching methods, environmental conditions, or the student group targeted. Some studies have investigated the generation of cognitive knowledge through the use of various teaching methods (Miles, Biggs, and Schubert 1986) (Butler, Markulis, and Strang 1988). Others have examined the need for skill development as important for applied marketing success (Arora and Stoner 1992) (Corbin and Glynn 1992) (Kelley 1992) (Urban 1993). Very recently, efforts have begun to examine the contribution of teaching method to the development of affective learning (Laughlin and Hite 1993) and the central role of the teaching of affect in marketing is recognized by Berry (1993).

Propositions questioning the relevance of the marketing education to managerial practice (similar to H5 above) are addressed in Kress and Wedell (1993) and Urban (1993). The former article stresses the importance of communication with business leaders to ensure educational relevance. The latter effectively calls the question regarding the ability of the prevailing paradigm to provide a complete foundation for applied educational relevance. In summary, there is little, or no, empirical evidence to support the contention that the 4P managerial paradigm is best for teaching marketing fundamentals. Neither is there any empirical evidence to refute the notion, but questions about the universality of the approach are becoming common.

DISCUSSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Given the absence of empirical research directly testing the effectiveness of the 4P managerial paradigm with regard to educational outcomes, the predominance and fervor with which the 4P Model is offered as the BEST for teaching marketing fundamentals is surprising. Marketing education researchers have focused their attention on examining teaching methods and have relied on general marketing research which examines the validity of the managerial paradigm as sufficient evidence for its acceptance as a universal instructional tool. It is proposed here that a more rigorous test is required to make this claim and that propositions identified earlier in this paper should be empirically tested for both the accepted 4P managerial paradigm and competing paradigms.

Quite obviously, the primary factor that has inhibited the advancement of this line of research is the absence of viable competing educational paradigms. Since the managerial model is a more parsimonious derivative of the functional approach, which is a successor to the commodity approach, little improvement has been realized from efforts to reassemble functions in different ways. The disappointing alternatives offered in the special session at the 1992 WMEA Conference referenced early in this paper are examples of this type of effort. Anderson's 7 C's simply carves the marketing functions in a different way than the 4P's. Taylor's 4P's and an S (service) simply expands on a component of the Product concept of the existing model. If either of these approaches are superior to the existing 4P's paradigm, it is incumbent on the authors to demonstrate that superiority, possibly using the model depicted in Figure 2 above.

The emerging discipline of Relationship Marketing (Kotler 1992) offers a competing paradigm which will provide an interesting challenge to existing notions about how best to educate marketing students. Already several questions have been raised about the success of current educational approaches and methods (Arora and Stoner 1992) (Berry 1993) (Gaedeke and Tootelian 1989) (November 1993) (Urban 1993). The primary area of shortcoming to be examined is in the area of marketing skill

development which is depicted in the model in Figure 2 and can be referenced in Proposition H3. In many marketing settings such as business-to-business and services marketing, it may also be more managerially relevant (Proposition H5) and therefore generate desirable marketing behaviors (Proposition H6) when combined with teaching methods that enhance behavioral learning.

Although the 4P's managerial marketing paradigm has since the early 1960's been omnipresent, questions raised recently about the success of marketing education raise serious doubt about its omnipotence. Despite its apparent weaknesses, many continue to zealously place complete reliance on its suitability. Insufficient attention has been given to empirical examination of the suitability of marketing paradigms for attaining desired educational objectives. A likely outcome of this kind of study is that the 4P's and competing paradigms need to be included for the development of curricula that address educational objectives in a complementary fashion.

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EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING:
HISTORY, THEORY, AND APPLICATIONS

ABSTRACT

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In the academic arena, there has been an increasing interest in experiential learning with faculty, administrators, and employers across disciplines considering experiential education a way to revitalize curricula and to cope with the challenges facing higher education today. Experiential learning emphasizes the importance of practical experience over more traditional instructional approaches. It provides "hands-on" learning where students apply what they learn in class to a real-world situation. Instructors assume the role of facilitators of learning rather than the role of dispensers of knowledge and wisdom. As such, teachers facilitate adult learners in the process of learning from their own experiences. Social interaction (teamwork) is seen as another important facilitator of learning. Proponents of experiential learning assert that experiential learning embodies the natural learning process of human beings and, consequently, may be more effective than traditional methods (lectures) in increasing basic achievement outcomes. Mounting evidence indicates that experiential learning can prove to be a valued and effective vehicle for learning, which makes it an indispensable learning tool today and in the future.

This paper provides an assessment of experiential learning in the field of business. First, a brief historical overview is given to show that higher education in the United States of America has a long-standing tradition with respect to experiential learning methods. A discussion of theories that underlie the concept of experiential learning follows (John Dewey 1938; Kurt Lewin 1951; Jean Piaget 1952; David Kolb 1984). Building on a very strong historical and theoretical tradition, the paper then provides an assessment of experiential learning as it is applied in the field of business today. This overview includes studies that were conducted in the academic business environment as well as studies that were done in organizations and institutions in the U.S. and the international business world. These studies suggest that experiential learning may have positive effects on 1) conceptual understanding, 2) the application, integration, and retention of knowledge, 3) analytical and strategic thinking, 4) communication and interpersonal skills, 5) creative, independent and critical thinking, 6) involvement, participation, and interest, as well as on 7) self-understanding and personal development. Some studies report very tangible outcomes of experiential learning projects, such as jobs and portfolios that students can take with them to job interviews. Lastly, challenges to experiential learning are discussed.

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THE PERSONAL SELLING COURSE: AN EXPERIENTIAL APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

This paper details the applied or "experiential" approach to teaching the personal selling course. The approach encourages student participation and involvement starting with the syllabus and carries through into the class format and the written and verbal assignments. It presents a ten-step "hands-on" selling project that parallels what students can expect in a sales career.

INTRODUCTION

Professors of personal selling must contend with instruction at both the cognitive and behavioral levels. The cognitive, of course, deals with knowledge and the behavioral deals with personal experiences. Both approaches are relevant to sales but may not necessarily be present, i.e., a salesperson can be very knowledgeable but encounter limited success because he/she could not apply the knowledge during the sales interview. (Calcich and Weilbaker 1992).

Particularly during this period of budget constraints and demand for increased faculty productivity, it would be easier to schedule larger sections of classes and to more efficiently present the theories (cognitive approach) of selling to larger groups of students via a series of lectures throughout the term. We, however, persistently refuse that route and choose to follow the "road less traveled," i.e. the application (behavioral approach) of the theory. This does necessitate hearing the complaints of students that "the workload is excessive and unreasonable." We, however, find that the time required to evaluate the written assignments and in providing constructive feedback for improving their performance is quite effective.

Business is seeking graduates who possess more than an awareness of the techniques of selling--that they, in addition, have an ability to apply their knowledge. Companies are interested in sales training primarily to increase sales, productivity, and profits; those of us in academia have the responsibility to provide learning that develops job-related attitudes, knowledge, and skills that result in improved performance (Futrell et al. 1984). It is our experience that companies favor students (and the campuses of those students) that are better able to step into a productive role more quickly. Part of the companies' positive response to these students is based upon their skill level but, to a degree, it is also partially due to the selection process, i.e., the successful students pursue, with a commitment, a career in selling.

The experiential approach has been shown to enhance the effectiveness of the educational experience by increasing the students' involvement in the learning process (Mortimer et al. 1984) and Wynd (1989) states that it provides excitement, practical application, and enhanced retention. Mortimer et al. (1984) present two primary principles which are prerequisites to educational excellence: (1) the amount of student learning and personal development associated with any educational program is directly proportional to the quality and quantity of student involvement in the program, and (2) the effectiveness of any educational policy or practice is directly related to the capacity of that policy or practice to increase student involvement in learning. Goretsky (1984) portrays the continuousness of the experiential

approach by stating that it not only gives the student an entry into the business world but that it can provide a relevant learning experience useful to students as they progress through their careers.

The experiential approach is not a new methodology in marketing education (Czepiec 1983, Henke 1985, de los Santos and Jenson 1985, Conant and Mokwa 1967, Gaidis and Andrew 1990, Goretsky 1984) in a variety of courses including research, advertising, international marketing, distribution, consumer behavior, sales, and marketing information systems.

It is for these reasons that we continue our commitment to smaller sections and an experiential approach. Thus, we share our experiences (much of it gained by painful, ineffective, and inefficient trials) in striving to develop a course that would meet these needs. It is not our intent to even suggest that this is the only approach, the best approach, nor even the approach that will work for you. It is hoped, however, that there may be an idea or two that you may find contributing.

THE SYLLABUS

Similar to planning a trip, we find it advantageous to plan the course with significant detail. This prompts our adherence and self discipline in achieving the scheduled topics and assignments in what hopefully appears to be an organized manner. It also conveys a similar message to the students as well by providing a more complete overview of the course and an indication of expectations. Our experience reveals that this is an important step in establishing a desirable environment for meaningful learning.

Historically, students will purposely skip the first class period perceiving it a "a redundant explanation of the syllabus" or, if in attendance, they quickly become bored and, again, perceive the syllabus as "unimportant." To offset this attitude, we merely distribute the syllabus and make an immediate assignment: Study the syllabus and text and prepare a written report which is due the next (all assignments are due at the beginning of class) class session. The assignment requires them to 1) critique the syllabus and text (yes, you generally need to teach

how that differs from the usual "summary"), 2) present two "sincere and relevant questions that they do want answered, and 3) a brief introduction of themselves. By not covering such elementary material in class it sets the tone for the semester-- it is their responsibility to study ahead of time and to come to class prepared and ready for meaningful participation. Among other things, we find that students gain a better understanding and appreciation of the course--including the course objectives. We then follow through by prefacing each assignment and/or "experiential" exercise with specific objectives (or purpose) and how it relates to the course. It is imperative that you follow through by responding to the questions that they have presented.

Part of the first class period is used for self introductions which includes information such as hometown, major, graduation date, career goal(s), work experience, and personal interests. While this may sound rather trivial at first, this is a significant step in establishing trust and confidence among students. It reduces the fear and reservations that students generally bring into most classes. This also has been helpful in developing a friendly bases which enhances role-playing exercises throughout the term.

THE CLASS FORMAT

The tone of the class as being experiential is established during the very first meeting as noted earlier. This is continued with a focus upon student participation, supplemental learning opportunities, and with role playing. Participation is enhanced with alternating applications of written and verbal quizzes which cover the assigned topic for that class period. By forcing the students to be better prepared, there is opportunity to expand their involvement with the use of discussion questions and/or assigned end-of-chapter questions which are prepared in advance and occasionally clarified in class. Out-of-class exercises are also utilized. For example, to apply their newly acquired knowledge on the topic of "Psychology of Selling" they are required to complete a "Personality Style Assessment" of themselves and of two other class members. Another exercise associated with "Prospecting" requires them to "Explore The Sales World" which includes their interviewing salespeople regarding prospecting methods and precall planning and a

buyer interview regarding the strengths and weaknesses of salespeople. Immediately upon the completion of a class period, students are evaluated for what they say and for what they don't say based upon a scale of 0-4. Emphasis is placed upon quality. There are two keys to the success of this method: One, you must complete the evaluation immediately after class and, two, you must learn the identity of students early. To enhance this latter challenge, we use a seating arrangement which also permits completion of an attendance check in less then a minute.

Regardless of the text selected for the course, we have found it necessary to supplement topics that are not included in the text and/or are not adequately covered. The current text is quite encompassing; yet, we find it desirable to supplement, e.g., "Neurolinguistic Programming" is added to the study of "Communication and Persuasion." Application exercises are utilized following such presentations. We have found the use of "short" videos to be helpful for the students. One, it is application of "a picture is worth a thousand words" and secondly it seems to add a benchmark or reference for them to start their own roleplaying more easily.

The students are introduced to roleplaying early in the term. With the use of videos and end-of-chapter cases which often show the dialogue between buyer and seller, students are able to ease into roleplaying of their own. The introduction is further eased by taking a mini approach, i.e., they develop the approach to a sales interview, a series of need-development questions (often using the SPIN approach), overcoming an objection, using a trial dose, etc. This mild but effective introduction of roleplaying sets the stage for the "meat" of the course - the semester project which develops the sales interview.

THE SALES PROJECT

This assignment provides the students an opportunity to apply all of the principles of personal selling and persuasive communications studied throughout the entire semester. Each class member is required to complete each of the ten steps with the sales interview being near the end. The student role plays the seller and the instructor role plays the buyer. The interview is

approximately 15 minutes in length and takes place in the instructor's office.

The scenario is based upon an outside sale such as a business-to-business sale. The students are encouraged to consider the sale of services (as services equal nearly three-fourths of U.S. GDP). They are encouraged to practice role playing in advance with other class members which also includes video taping. The classroom has hours reserved for use as a sales lab. The sales project requires the satisfactory completion of the following steps.

Step 1. Company (Service or Goods) Selection, Application Letter, and Resume (20 points)

Step 2. Describe the Scenario (10 points)

Step 3. The Company Report (20 points)

Step 4. FAB Development (10 points)

Step 5. The Prospecting Letter (20 points)

Step 6. The Competitive Update (20 points)

Step 7. The Telephone Call. (10 points)

Step 8. Video Tape and Critique. (20 points)

Step 9. The Sales Interview. (100 points)

Step 10. The Follow-up. (20 points)

CONCLUSION

The key to this "experiential approach" lies in the semester sales project. It is very realistic and very challenging but also very rewarding. While students may grumble a bit as they stumble through the learning, they usually reveal a more mature attitude and appreciation after completion of the course. Students often reflect that it was one of the most valuable and rewarding classes in their entire college program. They recommend it highly; the multiple sections are usually filled early and often include students from other majors such as finance, real estate, computer information systems, horticulture, agriculture, etc.

While it may be unworkable or even undesirable

for you to attempt using this experiential approach in its entirety, there may be components or ideas that you will find satisfactory and/or helpful as you continuously modify and update your present course. That is, in fact, how we have built success into this course--a little at a time with much trial and error. We have found as the quote states:

"It is a great mistake to implant the idea that learning can be steadily exciting, or that excitement is a good frame of mind for acquiring knowledge and overcoming difficulties. Developing a genuine interest in a subject comes only after some drudgery, and only when the learner gets to the point of seeing how it hangs together - its order and continuity, not its unrelated peaks of excitement" (Barzun 1987).

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WILD CARDS: AN EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING TOOL FOR TEACHING FAST REACTING SKILLS

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ABSTRACT

This paper is based on the proposition that students of marketing need to learn how to react as well as how to plan. Conventional marketing courses apply a forecast and plan approach to the problem of handling uncertainty. This leaves a skill-gap in students who have jobs where it is difficult or impossible to forecast and plan. The paper describes the design of a capstone course in marketing in which unforecastable conditions are created. A reacting skills learning tool called a 'wild card' is explained in detail, including examples of the learning achieved.

INTRODUCTION

You might think that the age old question of free will versus fate is more appropriate for philosophy than marketing. Although few marketing professors explicitly address this issue, all of us deal with it indirectly when we teach our students how to handle uncertainty. How do we do this? Here are three options:

- Goal directed - you decide what you want to happen and then make it happen. This is appropriate where you have a high degree of control over the future. It is raw free will.
- Forecast and plan - you choose a goal after studying the probable options. External factors determine your options. Your efforts to reach your goal and how well you can forecast outside events, over which you have little or no control, determine your success. This is the conventional middle of the road approach that we teach.
- Reacting - you have virtually no control over events and you have to make do with the situation. This is pure fate.

Let me illustrate these approaches with the WMEA '94 conference. I want to attend the conference. I know when and where it will be held and I have a rough idea of what it will cost to attend. I will be free of teaching responsibilities when the conference is on. Success is largely in my hands. If I can find a source of funds and comply with the booking processes then there is a very good chance that I will attend the conference. I will have exercised considerable control over a future event. This is a goal directed approach.

In the second case I want to attend the conference but I also want to present a paper. I have never attended a WMEA conference before. I am unclear about the standard of papers presented at the conference and I know that there is a review process. Under these circumstances I will need to estimate the standard that I must reach with my paper, plan and execute the paper, and get it in by the deadline. However its acceptance will be in the hands of the reviewers. I have much less control in this second case but I can forecast and plan.

In the final case, my paper is accepted, I sort out my travel, and I arrive at the conference. I have next to no control over when, during the conference, I will present my paper, no control over the room, the speaking time allocated to me, the audience that comes, or the paper before. Also I do not know what may happen when I give the paper. The overhead projector bulb may blow. The lights may fail. I might get something in my eye, and so on. All sorts of things could happen and it will be up to me to deal with them *at the time*. This is reacting.

It is my contention that marketing courses at University are built round the second strategy for dealing with the future. We teach a forecast and plan approach in which we advocate that students analyse a situation, forecast what is likely to happen, set goals, plan, and then implement the plan. This process is relatively easy to teach since there are specific techniques associated with each stage. In addition it seems rational and logical. But is there any evidence that it leads to success?

PLANNING = SUCCESS?

There is evidence, albeit limited, that planning is not correlated with business success. Here is an extract from a study of German multinational companies (Welge and Kenter 1988):

"....it has to be concluded from these findings that it is totally unimportant how intensively German MNCs make use of planning as an instrument to control their foreign manufacturing subsidiaries.

These findings are perfectly in line with other empirical studies. Corporate planning, as mentioned above, is often believed to have a positive impact on company performance, especially if the planning process is conceived on a long-term or strategic basis. A great number of empirical studies, however, has proved this relationship as being by far less clear and distinct than conjectured."

A survey of marketing practice in New Zealand (van der Walt *et al.* 1989) indicated that while most respondents did some kind of marketing planning (95%), only a few developed formal marketing plans (37%). In addition the researchers could not find any relationship between marketing planning and profitability. Thirty eight percent of the companies that developed formal or long-term market plans had average or high comparative gross profit whereas 47% of those that did no planning or only used informal planning had a relatively high gross profit.

The forecast and plan approach requires a forecastable future. If the future is very difficult to forecast then the method is of no use or only limited use. As marketing educators, the question we must ask is the extent to which our students will be in business situations where they can forecast with reasonable accuracy. When they find it difficult or impossible to forecast they will need reacting skills. This paper is an account of how I build reacting skills in my marketing students.

TEACHING - LEARNING PARADIGM

I am responsible for the cap-stone course in marketing for undergraduates at my University. When I designed the course in 1987 I built a special LSS. As (Alport 1993) has explained, an LSS is a large-scale simulation. These simulations are much more complex and extensive in their coverage of business than the current rash of business games being used in Business Schools, see for example (Faria 1987). They are comprehensive and form the core of a course rather than being a peripheral component.

The familiar pedagogical knowledge-transmission paradigm is given in figure 1.

FIGURE 1: THE KNOWLEDGE-TRANSMISSION PARADIGM
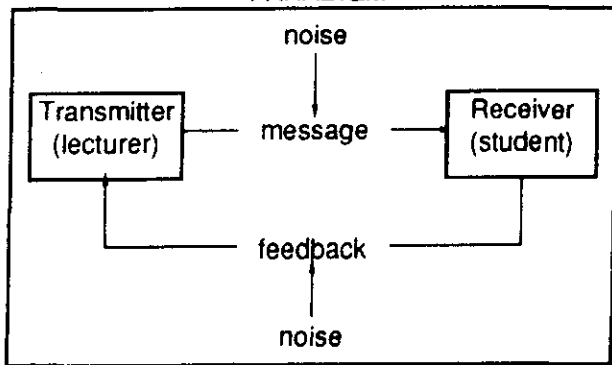
Contrast this with the experiential paradigm of learning, based on (Kolb 1984) given in figure 2. The experiential model conforms with the andragogical approach to education, see for example (Galbraith 1984) (Knowles 1984) (Perry 1985) (Watkins 1992).

FIGURE 2: THE EXPERIENTIAL PARADIGM
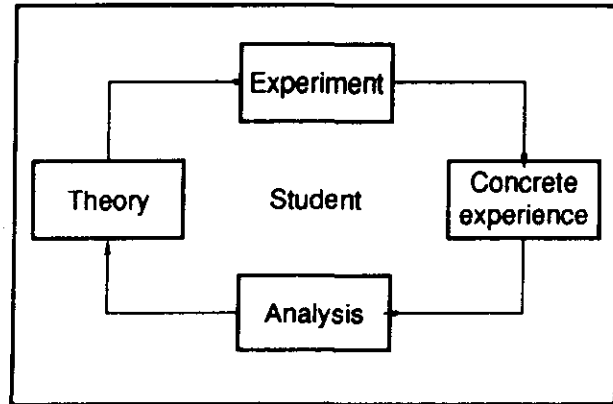
I built an LSS because I wanted to create an andragogical experiential learning environment (figure 2) as a replacement for the conventional pedagogical transmission teaching environment (figure 1).

For many of my students the cap-stone marketing course is the last course that they will study before leaving University to join the work force. I intentionally devised a course that would help them to bridge the gulf between learning at University and learning in a full time job.

With my LSS students spend almost the whole time in work groups called 'companies' of about eleven to twelve students operating as a business and making business decisions in competition with other companies. 'Tutorials' are business meetings organised and run by each company.

CREATING UNCERTAINTY

The business setting, combined with the need to organise and run operating sub-groups, coordinate these sub-groups, and take decisions without much in the way of help gives a rich, chaotic and complex problem-based learning environment. As a natural consequence of this, individuals and groups have to cope with uncertainty and the unforecastable. They get plenty of opportunities to develop reacting skills. Since a full set of decisions is made at weekly intervals, there is usually time to discuss expected and unexpected problems, to canvas views, and do some sort of analysis.

I was unsatisfied. Though I was providing a degree of uncertainty, I was not giving my students experience with problems that need instant attention, emergencies where they must drop everything, act at once, and think on their feet - 'fast reacting'.

CREATING FAST REACTING PROBLEMS

How can you use an LSS to create situations requiring

high speed group reacting skill? The way that I do it involves the simulation only indirectly.

As part of the program to develop the communication skills of my students I, like many other educators, get them to give group presentations. The LSS that I run works on decisions for each quarter of a year. One student week is equivalent to one business quarter. The first week of the course is an introduction so after five weeks the students have completed their first year of business. I ask each company to prepare a short presentation (three minutes maximum and to be presented a week later) outlining how it has handled the problem of organising itself into a coherent, competent decision-making machine. This is always greeted with derisive laughs because even at that stage none of the companies can claim to be coherent, competent decision-making machines. At the same time I explain the idea of fast reacting skills.

My students have no difficulty in seeing the importance of fast reacting. Nothing in their previous formal education has taught them these skills. I explain that I will be running a fast reacting skill exercise in which they will all experience a group emergency. *Their learning objective is to extract every ounce of learning from the experience.* Here I am creating an opportunity for students to participate in deep learning of the kind identified by Marton and Saljo (1976).

The presentations, to be made in front of the whole class of about 100 students, will have one small but highly significant difference to the normal presentations that students make. Each company will receive a wild card.

After a company has been chosen to make its presentation, it leaves the lecture room. The company coordinator draws a card from a set of wild cards that contain unknown conditions and he or she then joins the company outside. The company then has one minute before it makes an entrance and then its presentation "How we organised ourselves into a coherent, competent decision-making machine". This presentation must be under the conditions stipulated on the wild card.

The teaching principle that I use is to explain why and then explain how: *why* I am going to set up and run a wild card presentation situation and *how* it will work. I then give time for questions and a week for students to prepare.

WILD CARDS

Of course you are wondering, as they were, what is on a typical wild card. Stop for a moment and think what you might have put on the wild cards. It has to be

something within the capability of the student group, but provide something that is unexpected and a significant hurdle to the kind of students who take cap-stone marketing courses.

Initially, I just created wild cards out of the blue but now I have devised four types of wild card:

*   Role playing. This is my most common type. Examples include 'You are all Japanese', 'Shakespearian', 'You are a medical team', 'Men are women and women are men'.
*   Communication constraint. This includes such things as silent presentations, a ballet, sing it, all backs to the audience, it's a telephone conversation.
*   Physical object. For example, no overhead projector, blind-folding all actors, a member of the team is dead and this is the funeral.
*   Random word. This is useful if you find it difficult to think of ideas under the other three headings. Just open a dictionary at random and pick the first word. Then try to adapt it into a wild card. For example, I did this and got the word 'operate'. This gave me the idea for the medical team wild card.

Many people regard my wild cards as outrageous. So did the students and yet they not only went along with it, they had fun, made many mistakes, and through their own observations and experience learned an incredible amount about group reacting skills.

ASSESSMENT

In assessing this part of the course, I do not mark performances or skill in handling the wild cards. Like Fisher (1990), I use a journal method of assessment. I allocate marks for the extent to which students extract, in their reflective writing in their journals, valuable insights from the experiences that I stage manage for them. As I said above, 'their learning objective is to extract every ounce of learning from the experience'. This removes some of the risk since marks are not related to performance in a tricky experiential exercise. In addition it enables students to extract learning from their own as well as other company 'performances'.

This is different to assessment under transmission learning. In experiential learning, and particularly with the wild card exercise, the act of doing the exercise is an integral part of the learning process. The reflections that a student produces are important, but living through a fast reacting group exercise in front of the whole class and the video camera leads to a psychological robustness that cannot be learned from any book. These students have gone through fire and survived.

In addition, the act of drawing the learning out of the

experience is a part of the process. It is easy to focus on *what* is learned and so easy to miss *how* it is learned. The act of drawing the learning out leads to reflective skill development.

As to the insights extracted by students, I have included several from my students' journals as illustrations of the kinds of reflections that they produced. These insights are of value to all those who have to make group presentations under uncertain conditions:

- KISS. Keep the message as simple as possible.
- KNOW. When there is a problem (wild card), good communication of it to group members is essential. Every one in the group needs to know. It is very easy in the trauma of the situation to misread, mishear, misunderstand.
- RIDE. Once you know what the problem is, you must stop thinking of it as a problem. Regard it is an opportunity on which your message can ride. The audience appreciates it when you use the wild card as part of your message.
- PRACTICE. One of the best ways of preparing for wild cards is to try out your own wild cards. These can be generated by each member of the group in private, put in a pile, and then used when practising the presentation.
- FRIENDS. It is virtually impossible to react as a group to a wild card when group members do not know each other well. Time put into getting to know each other before the exercise pays off.
- KILL. Nobody is indispensable so never overlook this rule when preparing a group presentation. Practise with different people doing different things.
- ALTERNATIVES. Always anticipate major problems such as overhead projectors not working. Create alternative versions of the presentations before the event.

CONCLUSION

You do not need to have an LSS to use wild cards. I use my LSS to create a general scenario of uncertainty and for many other purposes (November 1993). It is not an essential part of the wild card tool. Anyone who requires their students to make presentations could use wild cards. However if you do try wild cards please do not mark performance - mark learning.

The way I use wild cards may strike you as harsh. I certainly throw students into the deep end without first explaining how to swim. But it is a harsh world out there. Are we really helping our students by protecting them from reality? Is it not better for them to face real difficulties in the classroom - fail but learn from that failure - rather than fail in the real world? Many of

my students point out that the wild card situations that I put them into are unlikely to occur in the real world. I explain that I do not believe that my job is to replicate the real world. My job is to create a worse scenario than the real world. If students can cope with and learn from that then the real world will seem easy.

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A NEW PRESCRIPTION FOR CREATIVE MARKETING PLANNING

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ABSTRACT

In times of great changes, marketing planners have a great need for creativity in developing alternatives for achieving their goals. This paper offers a prescription for marketing planning based in part on a widely used text and in part on a creative approach drawn from another discipline, strategic planning.

INTRODUCTION

In times of great changes marketing planners need all the goal targeted creativity they can muster in to exploit new opportunities and defend against new threats. Yet, when we examine a leading prescription for marketing planning (Kotler 1991 pages 73 to 79), creativity is *not even mentioned* in the context of planning.

This problem in marketing planning was recognized by Nylen (1990), as well as another important problem: " . . . the approach must recognize that frequently neither the problem-definition or the alternatives are 'given,' but must be formulated by the decision-maker."

In strategic planning, the situation is different. Winer (1983), has offered a logical process for identifying and ranking objectives hierarchically and for generating and evaluating many goal-targeted strategies before selecting the mix of strategies to be implemented.

This paper presents a merger of Kotler's structure with the steps developed by Winer. The resulting marketing planning process covers all the aspects of Marketing and ranks objectives logically *and* develops many goal-targeted strategies, as well. This new process is outlined below. Sections that differ substantially from the Kotler structure are presented in italics. Detailed instruction for the italicized sections are presented following the outline, with the discussion keyed to the italicized sections.

This process has been used in teaching Marketing courses and in consulting work. In every instance, dozens of goal-targeted Marketing strategies were developed, some obvious and some not at all obvious. Some of the less obvious strategies were judged by participants in the process to be superior to the obvious ones.

THE CREATIVE MARKETING PLAN OUTLINE

I. Summary. Highlights of the marketing plan.
   A. Recommended objectives.
   B. Recommended strategies.
   C. Financial projections.
   D. Contingency plans.

II. Current Marketing Situation.
   A. Market: size, growth rates, geography.
   B. Product: sales volumes, prices, margins, promotion, net profit for each major product line.
   C. Competition: size, goals, market shares, product quality, prices, promotion.
   D. Distribution: volumes and trends of wholesalers and retailers.
   E. Macroenvironment: demographic, economic, technological, political, social and cultural trends that have a bearing on the product line.

III. Current Objectives and Strategies.
   A. List marketing objectives and strategies.
      1. What is the company trying to achieve?
      2. What is the Marketing Department trying to achieve?
      3. How is the Marketing Department trying to achieve its objectives? What strategies and tactics are they using?
   B. Rank objectives and strategies by asking the questions: "Why?" and "How?"
   C. Identify the Top Rank Objective (TRO) for the product or service.

IV. Issue Analysis (SWATs). With respect to the Top Rank Objective, list:
   A. Strengths - company attributes that help to achieve the the TRO.
   B. Weaknesses - company attributes that hinder achieving the TRO.
   C. Auspicious conditions - outside conditions that help to achieve the TRO.
   D. Threats - outside conditions that hinder achieving the TRO.

V. Recommended Objective. Considering the SWATs, is the TRO attainable? If yes, continue. If not, go back and select a different TRO.

VI. Create many alternatives by answering these four questions, many times: How can we . . .
    A. Use each Strength?
    B. Stop each Weakness?
    C. Exploit each Auspicious Condition?
    D. Defend against each Threat?

VII. System of Strategies and Tactics (SST).

VIII. Recommended Strategies *and Action Programs.*
    A. Target market(s).
    B. Positioning statement.
    C. Product characteristics and innovations.
    D. Pricing to consumers and channels.
    E. Distribution channels: wholesale, retail.
    F. Personal selling: recruiting, training, quotas, motivation, measurement, compensation.
    G. Service support: repairs, hot line(s).
    H. Advertising: target audience, media, themes and messages, budgets, measurement and evaluation, co-op advertising.
    I. Sales promotion: brochures, trade shows, point of sale displays, incentives to dealers.
    J. Direct response marketing: print, radio, TV, mail, telephone.
    K. Public relations.
    L. Product development.
    M. Marketing research.

IX. Financial Projections.
    A. Sales and profits for the next three years.
    B. Break-even analysis.

X. Controls: what will be measured.

XI. Contingency Plans. Strategies to be used if planned results are not achieved.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE ITALICIZED SECTIONS

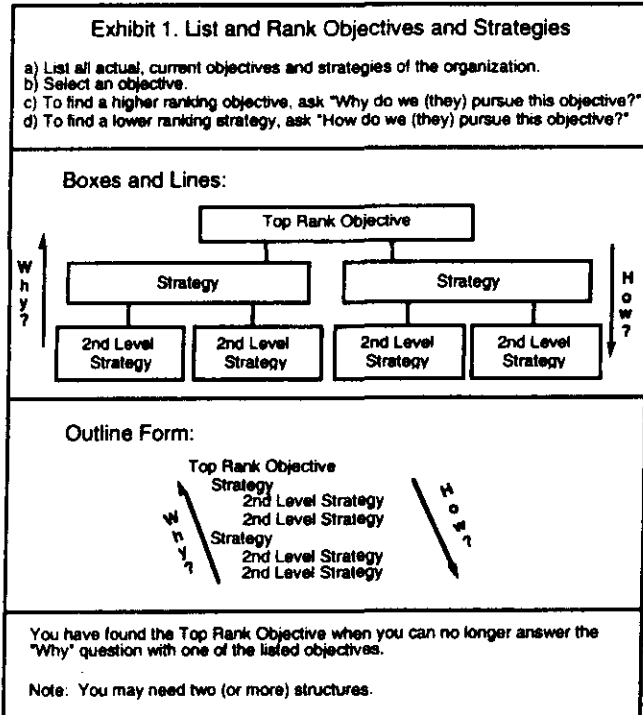### III A. List Current Marketing Objectives and Strategies

As you consider the situation, list all the current Marketing objectives and strategies of the company.

III B & C. Rank Objectives and Strategies and Identify the Top Rank Objective

The next step is to discover the Top Rank Objective (TRO) of Marketing. All the other objectives are ways of achieving the TRO. You may think of them as strategies. This is how you find the Top Rank Objective:

Select an objective that *seems* to be the TRO. Draw a box and write in this objective. See **Exhibit 1.**

Exhibit 1. List and Rank Objectives and Strategies

a) List all actual, current objectives and strategies of the organization.
b) Select an objective.
c) To find a higher ranking objective, ask "Why do we (they) pursue this objective?"
d) To find a lower ranking strategy, ask "How do we (they) pursue this objective?"

You have found the Top Rank Objective when you can no longer answer the "Why" question with one of the listed objectives.

Note: You may need two (or more) structures.

Then ask: "Why is the company pursuing this objective?"Look for an answer in the list that you made up . If you find an answer to the question, draw another box above the first box and write in the higher ranking objective. Connect the boxes with a vertical line. Ask the "Why?" question about the new top objective and repeat the same steps. Keep asking "Why?" and drawing and filling in boxes until you can't find an answer to the question. The objective in the top box is the Top Rank Objective (TRO).

Ask the question "*How* are they pursuing this objective?" to place properly the other objectives and strategies that you listed earlier. When you finish this step, you should have a logical hierarchy of the objectives and strategies of Marketing. You can do the ranking faster with a personal computer running a word-processor or an outline editing program

Note A: In doing the ranking, use only the objectives and strategies that you listed in Step III. You are explaining what Marketing is doing. You are not yet advising them how to do better. That comes later.

Note B: In some instances, you can't fit all the objectives and strategies into one logical structure. Then you must develop two (or more) sets of boxes and lines (or outlines).

IV. Issue Analysis (SWATs)

The next step is to discover the Strengths, Weaknesses, Auspicious Conditions and Threats (SWATs) that apply to the Top Rank Objective.

Note C: If the bulk of your concerns deal with a lower ranking objective, select that lower ranking objective for the SWAT discovery.

Follow these definitions when you list the SWATs:

Strengths = attributes of the company that *help* to achieve the TRO.
Weaknesses = attributes of the company *harmful* to achieving the TRO.
Auspicious Conditions = outside conditions that *help* to achieve the TRO.
Threats = outside conditions *harmful* to achieving the TRO.

V. Recommended Objective

Ask this question: "In view of the SWATs, can Marketing achieve their TRO?" Use your judgment. If you judge the Strengths and Auspicious Conditions to be greater than the Weaknesses and Threats, say "Yes" and continue to Step VI. If the opposite is true, say "No" and go back to Step III and choose another objective and then do another SWAT discovery on the new objective.

If you were working with two or more TRO's (**Note B**, above), you have to decide now which objective(s) the company should pursue in view of the SWATs.

VI. Alternative Strategies

Create many strategies, so that you have a chance of finding some really good ones. Ask these four questions, repeatedly:

1. How can we Use each Strength?
2. How can we Stop each Weakness?
3. How can we Exploit each Auspicious Condition?
4. How can we Defend against each Threat?

Concentrate on the important Strengths, the ones that differentiate this company from its competitors.
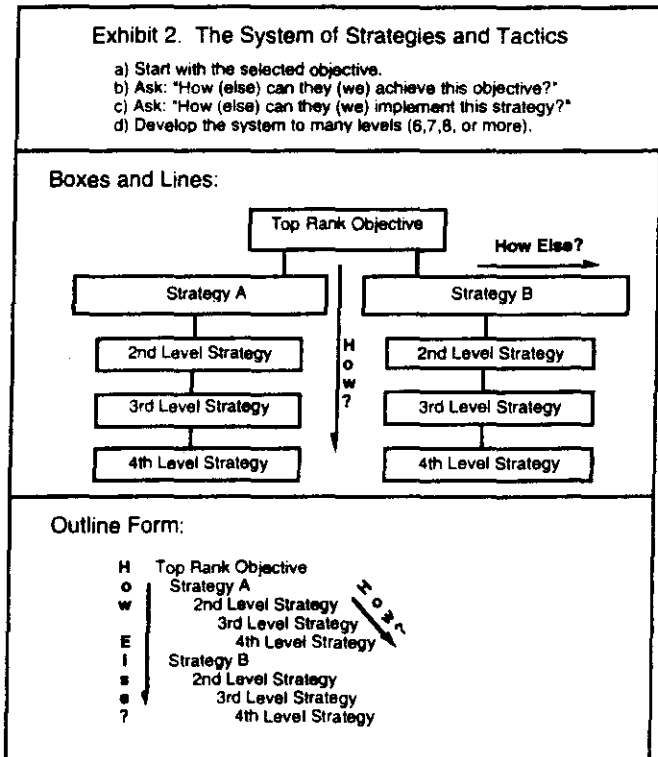
Also make sure not to overlook the really dangerous Weaknesses and Threats that might destroy the company.

Note D: Deriving strategies from SWATs is structured brainstorming. Therefore, observe brainstorming customs. Encourage creativity. "Piggybacking" on one another's ideas is allowed. Postpone all criticisms to a later phase.

VII. System of Strategies and Tactics (SST)

This is yet another way of being creative. With respect to the TRO, you ask "How (and how else) can we achieve this objective?"

To create a System of Strategies and Tactics (SST), start at the top with a box that has the TRO written in it. See **Exhibit 2.**

Exhibit 2. The System of Strategies and Tactics

a) Start with the selected objective.
b) Ask: "How (else) can they (we) achieve this objective?"
c) Ask: "How (else) can they (we) implement this strategy?"
d) Develop the system to many levels (6,7,8, or more).

Then, in answer to the question: "How can we achieve this objective?" show, in boxes, the best strategies that you developed in Step VI. Then ask the "How else?" question to develop some new strategies. Keep asking "How else?" as long as it's productive.

Note E: The new strategies must be supported by Strengths or Auspicious Conditions in the SWAT table.

Next, develop the tactics and actions needed by asking this question: "How can we implement this strategy (or this tactic)?" Carry this activity to many levels, to get a good understanding of what's needed to implement each strategy. Keep asking "How?" and "How else?"

As you develop your System of Strategies and Tactics, you may wonder about the labels to attach to the lower levels. The best answer is to simply number them as second level, third level, etc. strategies, rather than try to assign labels.

After you have developed a wide and deep SST, examine it. Structurally, it is the same as the ranking of objectives and strategies that you did in Step III. The difference is that the new structure is larger and richer because it is the result of your analysis and creativity.

Next, choose the most promising strategies and develop Action Programs.

VIII. Action Programs

Each Action Program discusses in some detail the following topics:
1. Name of the strategy.
2. Specific benefits to the company of implementing this program.
3. Actions: What will be done.
4. Responsible Persons: Who will be in charge of implementing the program.
5. Timing: When will the program start. When will it be completed.
6. Location(s): Where will the program be implemented.
7. Resources: What will be needed: people, money, other resources.
8. Control system: How will progress be measured and reported.
9. Rewards for performance, if any.
10. Contingency plans: What will be done if results fall short.

Evaluate each Action Program. Consider the following questions:
   a) Are the required resources available?
   b) What risks or bad side effects are involved?
   c) Is there a better way of achieving the results?
   d) Do the Action Programs reinforce each other?

You should recommend all the Programs that survive this evaluation.

Monitoring Implementation

Two types of monitoring are required: results and assumptions. Results are usually monitored through the control system that should be in place in every well-managed company: sales, market share, costs, expenses, profits and the like. It is possible that specific action programs will require additional monitoring systems. Actual results are compared to expected results, and if a sufficient variance is found, consideration is given to the contingency plans prepared previously.

The second type of monitoring has to do with the initial assumptions about the SWATs. Attributes of the company and outside conditions may change. If the SWATs have changed sufficiently, the whole analytical and creative process has to be repeated to make sure that the programs being implemented are still best, in view of the changed SWATs.

CONCLUSION

A Marketing planning process was described above that in academic and business applications has resulted in the creation of many alternative strategies. The process itself, starting with the Top Rank Objective (TRO), discovering the factors (the SWATs) that affect achievement of the TRO and deriving strategies from the SWATs assures that the strategies have a bearing on the TRO.

Future research should focus on side-by-side planning situations, some using the traditional approach and some using the creative approach proposed here and having a panel of experts appraise the quality of the resulting Marketing plans.

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EDUCATIONAL IMPERATIVE FOR PRINCIPLES: RISK DUALITY AND STRATEGIC ALTERNATIVES OF CONTINUOUS INNOVATION

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ABSTRACT

Students learn that decreasing investment in R&D and waning innovation constitute principal underlying causes of U.S. declining international competitiveness. Convinced though students may be, are they prepared for senior management resistance to innovation?

Though virtually every going concern originated and prospered by developing something new to a market, managers may lose sight of that origin, the salience of which accelerates with ever increasing competition. Marketing educators must prepare students for management innovation avoidance brought about by complexities of greater international competition, monumental technological changes, and risks of innovation. That preparation in the form of explicating risk duality: risks of avoiding innovation as well as inherent risks of innovation, should be presented first to students in introductory marketing courses to sensitize students from all business disciplines.

If our students are to advocate innovation they must initially acknowledge arguments against it. They must be prepared to cite the high rates of new business failures, of new product failures, and the demise of some specific companies or products.

Students must then demonstrate how advantages outweigh the disincentives. Business as usual, with cost cutting for efficiency, aggressive promotional spending and tactical price manipulation are quickly matched by competitors in a zero sum tug-of-war. Today's aggressive global competitors innovate, building upon the nonintermittent changes in technology, customer tastes, the economy or other environmental factors. Since those factors continually change, non-innovators can expect long-term losses to competitors utilizing continuous innovation policy. Doing the unexpected as with continuous innovation keeps competitors off guard. Also, continuous innovation engenders anticipation of changes in environmental factors.

Pedagogy may then turn toward choosing the best innovation strategies. Traditional approaches such as environmental scanning for innovation opportunities using conditions analysis to determine competitive advantage could be introduced. Ansoff's Grid then provides a useful tool for identifying very general innovation alternatives.

Time permitting in the highly comprehensive introductory marketing course, specific examples of the appropriate conditions and applications of each of Ansoff's alternatives may be discussed. The overriding focus, however, must be on preparing all students graduating from our business schools to meet senior management resistance to the exigency of market driven, continuous innovation. Any business, subject to competition and environmental changes, constantly faces risk. Managers must appreciate the perspective that continuous innovation affords the optimum means for coping with that risk, since it applies adaptation to changes and keeps competitors scrambling to catch up.

A STUDY OF HOW TELEVISION ASSIGNMENT EDITORS
IN THE TOP 30 MARKETS VIEW VIDEO NEWS RELEASES

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ABSTRACT

This opinion study was done following mounting criticism of video news releases (VNRs) in the news media and in journals. The study seemed especially important for those teaching students studying advertising, marketing or public relations. The producers of VNRs and most texts would lead the unindoctrinated to believe that their product is a highly effective and efficient means to get messages on television news programs at no cost for air time. A survey of TV assignment editors in the highly sought after top 30 market shows that the overwhelming majority are of the opinion that VNRs are not effective in getting aired on their stations.

INTRODUCTION

The video news release, welcomed by the marketing and public relations professions as the hot new communications tool of the 1980s, has recently been drawing unusually harsh media criticism. VNRs have been faulted in the following areas: (1) VNRs mislead viewers into thinking they are the work of independent journalists, (2) VNRs give corporations too much power to set the news agenda, and (3) VNRs erode the credibility of television news. The underlying theme is that VNRs are too often inadequately labeled. These charges of deception raise the question of just how effective VNRs are as a marketing tool. The purpose of this study was to determine how television news managers see the effectiveness of VNRs at getting messages on air, and how they think VNRs should be labeled. The results should be of value to marketing educators and students alike in making rational decisions about which media are the most effective and efficient to use to promote products.

Most video news releases resemble typical TV news stories or unedited video material. However, unlike typical TV news stories, VNRs are not produced by a news organization. They are produced on behalf of a client in an attempt to obtain free air time on television stations to promote a product or to present a position.

VNRs have assumed to be a more effective means of promoting a product or service than simply buying commercial time on television for two major reasons: (a) credibility of TV news and (b) lower costs. Unlike paid advertising spots, VNRs are usually aired as part of a news program. Some contend that such programs are among the most credible time slots on television, so people are more likely to believe the information contained in a VNR.

Even though production and distribution costs can be high, VNRs are aired for free, so theoretically clients can reach more people and get more air time for less money with a VNR than with regular commercial buys.

Media criticism

Over the past two to three years, the VNR industry has had to endure such headlines as, "Fake News," a *TV Guide* cover story; "Doctoring the News," in *Quill*; "Making News," in *Consumer Reports*; "Bad News," in the *Public Relations Journal*; "The Video News Release: Let the Viewer Beware," in *The New York Times*; "VNRs Are Still Hot, but They're Drawing Fire," in *Marketing News*; "Ready-made News," in *Channels*; "Prefab News," in *Technology Review*; and "Questionable Sources," in *Maclean's*.

TV Guide's "Fake News" article hit the newsstands on February 22, 1992, touching off an outrage by VNR producers and distributors (Lieberman, 1992). Many in the industry thought the cover story's headline was overly sensational and cast aspersions on the industry. The article calls VNRs fake news because viewers think of news as the work of independent journalists who broadcast their own reporting and camera work. Industry executives countered the charge of fake news saying that today's VNRs supply TV stations with real news that addresses real issues and impacts real people.

The major issue raised in the article is that sponsored news, not identified as such, in some way tricks the public and erodes the credibility of television news. The article recommends there be an on-screen label during the airing of such tapes. Some VNR producers are concerned that clients would probably not be too happy if their company's video was identified on screen. The fear is that it would jeopardize the third-party endorsement a news report normally carries.

The *Quill*'s article challenges the routine use of portions of VNRs produced by vested interests in the healthcare industry without telling the audience that

part of what they're seeing is from slanted sources (Schwitzer, 1992). The *Consumer Reports'* "Making News" asks if VNRs are blurring the line between news and advertising (Making News, 1991). The author points out that pharmaceutical commercials are now required to present balanced information, addressing the adverse effects as well as potential benefits of any drug. Video news releases had no such strictures prior to August 1991.

Entertainment Weekly's "Bad News" article says that in TV circles VNRs are sparking serious debate about corporate manipulation of the news (Benatar, 1991). From the marketer's point of view, the author says, promotional messages hidden in the context of the news are uniquely powerful. When it comes to judging the actual news value of VNRs, the article urges caution.

An article in *Channels* quotes critics as saying newsroom acceptance of VNRs gives the people who pay to produce the clips too much power to set the news agenda (Robins, 1990).

Television stations are urged in *The New York Times* article, "The Video News Release: Let the Viewer Beware," to become more conscientious in their use of VNRs. (Kleinfield, 1989). The reporter writes that many local stations frequently run VNRs virtually intact without explaining their origin. Viewers may think they are regular news footage.

The controversy over VNRs may make for great copy, according to the article, "VNRs Are Still Hot, But They're Drawing Fire," in *Marketing News*, but television stations are using them now just as much as they were before (Miller, 1990). Faced with shrinking budgets and an increasing amount of time to fill, TV stations seem willing to at least scope out the VNRs.

FDA scrutinizes pharmaceutical VNRs

The FDA concerns about the use of VNRs to promote pharmaceuticals are reported in *Public Relations Journal* article "FDA to Scrutinize Pharmaceutical VNRs" (Gordon, 1991). The concerns are that VNRs might have a hidden agenda or secret backing or would present a conflict of interest if people knew who funded it. VNRs also appear as an attempt to skirt the restrictions of full disclosure that are required in advertising. The FDA now requires the submission of some pharmaceutical VNRs for agency review. Public relations practitioners see this as having a chilling effect on the industry.

The *Columbia Journalism Review* predicts VNRs are likely to be more widely used in the 1990s than ever (Sonenclar, 1991). One survey found more than 46 percent of news directors predicting that national newscasters will increase their use of VNRs at least until 1997. More than 4,000 VNRs were made available to U.S. television stations in 1991, up from 700 in 1986 (Lieberman, 1992). Research conducted for *Inside PR* by MediaLink, the nation's largest distributor of VNRs, indicates that the vast majority of TV news editors agree that public relations generated stories were used more frequently in 1991 than in 1986 (*Inside PR*, 1991). As VNR production and distribution costs fall, a growing number of corporations and other sponsors may be willing to start making VNRs. In addition, tighter budgets in many markets, as well as the trend toward more and longer newscasts, may give stations a greater incentive to air them. In a Nielsen Media Research telephone survey of 92 TV newsrooms nationwide in December 1992, 86 percent reported they aired one to five VNRs a month (Medialink, 1992).

PROBLEM

Has the criticism been so severe and damaging that the VNR as a highly touted marketing/public relations tool is in jeopardy? Media scrutiny is one thing, but those closest to the business, such as the managers of television news, are in better positions to judge the status VNRs. This study attempts to determine that status through a survey of TV assignment editors.

Specifically, the following research questions were approached:

• What are the opinions of television assignment editors about the value and effectiveness of VNRs as a means of getting free air time?

• How frequently do televisions stations air VNRs, and how much of the VNRs do they use?

• What are the opinions of television station managers about the labeling of VNR tape shown on air?

METHODOLOGY

To obtain answers to these questions, written questionnaires were mailed to assignment editors at 112 commercial VHF televisions in the top-30 television markets. The editors were surveyed in late 1991. A randum sample was not used. The top-30 television markets were chosen because they are the most sought-after targets of the VNR industry. These mar-

kets, a common target audience in television research, reach more than half of the households in the country. The questionnaires consisted of a combination of statements with choices of strongly disagree, disagree, agree, and strongly agree, and open-ended questions calling for short answers. Since the survey were not based on a random sample, caution should be used in generalizing the results.

After three mailings, 54 out of 112 TV assignment editors surveyed responded for a response rate of 48 percent. Some respondents did not answer all questions. Since this was not a random sample survey, the geographic location and characteristics of the respondents should be compared with those of the non-respondents. Of the TV assignment editors who responded, 2 percent were from the Northeast; Mid-Atlantic, 9 percent; Southeast, 17 percent; Mid-West, 30 percent; the West, 15 percent; and West Coast, 26 percent. The geographic distribution of the 58 nonre-responding assignment editors with a few exceptions is similar to those responding. The distribution is Northeast, 12 percent; Mid-Atlantic, 15 percent; Southeast, 14 percent; Mid-West, 31 percent; West, 8 percent, and West Coast, 20 percent. One indication of how non-respondents might have responded is that responses did not vary significantly among the three separate mailings.

Effectiveness at getting message on air

The most revealing finding was that only 8 percent of television assignment editors responding to the question agreed that VNRs are an effective means of getting stories aired on their TV station (See Table).

TABLE
Opinions of TV Assignment Editors

Statement	Disagee N/%	Agree N/%
VNRs are an effective means of getting stories on TV	50/92	4/8
VNRs are just as ethical as written news releases	26/51	5/49
Clients should be identified in VNRs	4/8	48/92
Source should be identified if only part of VNR is aired	2/4	47/96
Source should be identified if VNR significantly altered	9/12	43/88
TV staffers should not be offered inducements	2/4	51/96

How frequently do the top-30 market television stations air VNRs? Ninety percent of the responding assignment editors reported they rarely or never use VNRs. Thirty-five percent said they don't even want to receive them. Ninety percent of those reporting VNR use indicated they use only the B-roll (unedited video with natural sound), with 10 percent using only part of the packaged video story. None reported using complete VNR packages.

Labeling of VNRs

Concerning labeling of VNRs, 93 percent of assignment editors agreed that clients for whom a VNR has been produced should be readily identified in VNRs. Ninety-six percent of the assignment editors also agreed that TV news staffers should identify the source/sponsor if a VNR is aired as part of a locally produced news program. Eighty-eight percent indicated that the source should be identified even if the VNR were significantly altered (See Table).

Only 49 percent of the responding television assignment editors were of the opinion that VNRs are just as ethical and legitimate as traditional press releases. Over 96 percent of the editors agreed that TV news staffers should not be offered inducements, money or gifts, in an attempt to enhance the chances that a VNR will air.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The media have criticized video news releases since their inception, but they seem to have been especially harsh over the past couple of years. Marketers should be aware that there are two conflicting views about the effectiveness of VNRs. Critical thinking should lead students to see through the hype of VNR producers. Success statistics provided by these producers certainly do not reflect what TV assignment editors reported in this study -- at least in the top 30 markets. If the high use reports are valid, this study would indicated that the successes must be skewed toward the smaller markets. On the other hand, can the editors be believed? Are they merely reluctant to admit they are using more video handouts than they would like for the public to believe? When 50 out of 54 assignment editors say VNRs are not an effective means of getting information on air, it is time for a closer look at the VNR business and the data being used to promote the business. With only 49 percent of the editors agreeing that VNRs are as legitimate and ethical as print news releases, perhaps some of the media concerns about credibility and ethics should be taken more seriously. Could these statics be the results of the negative publicity?

One possible explanation for the increased media attention is that the VNR industry has been so successful from a producers point of view. In a sense, the industry could be a victim of its own success. Some of the most vicious articles contain good news for the business. In many respects they confirm how powerful a communications tool VNRs have become. The stories also illustrate how entrenched VNRs are in the budget-conscious, video-starved world of broadcast journalism.

There is a concern that the market is becoming saturated and news directors are getting more sophisticated. On the other hand, VNR producers have also become more savvy. Perhaps this saturation and more demanding news directors will drive those producing poor quality VNRs out of business. The relatively new industry has obviously been undergoing growing pains.

Some literature suggests that the industry grew up a bit as a result of all the adverse publicity. It seems to have brought the industry together and made it stronger, and the result is that VNR usage continues to climb, according to VNR producers.

George Glazer, senior vice president and managing director of the Worldwide Broadcast and Satellite Services Division, Hill and Knowlton, contends it is time for the VNR and television industries to stop ignoring each other (Glazer, 1993). VNRs are here to stay, Glazer writes, so the two professions should work together to make them better and more productive.

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